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ARTICLES

Coaching as a Reflection of Changes in the Adult Education

Marek Podgórny

The evolution of both theory and practice of andragogy should be understood as, generally direct result of adaptation tendencies towards the cultural changes. On the other hand, it should be remembered that constant efforts for the sake of activities enabling such adaption changes to exist, belong to andragogues' duties, bearing in mind that the pace and intensity shall be of level eliminating the possibility to deepen the gap between the cultural and educational reality. The paradigmatic change, evoked by new issues within the andragogical reflections, reflects the change taking place both in andragogical theory and practice. It seems that coaching is one of these ideas that significantly reflect the direction of ongoing changes in adult education.

Key words: *andragogy; adult education; coaching*

The process of adult education, its course and possibilities of optimalization have been for years a subject of interest for researchers of various disciplines. In principle, there might be two main streams of researching interests indicated in this regard. The first one referrers to as scientific, the second to an artistic approach[1]. The scientific perspective was launched by the works of E. Thorndike, who laid scientific foundations for the future scientific field claiming that adults can still learn despite their interest and cognitive abilities are different from those that children present. This statement initiated search for specific factors and circumstances that shape the course and effects of adult learning.

The artistic sand initiated by E. Lindeman – successors of the J. Dewey's philosophical concept of education – focused mainly on the endeavors aiming at establishing own theory of adult learning.

The main conclusions from Lindeman's research may be brought down to the following claims:

- The motivation of an adult learner depends on their level of fulfilled needs and interests.
- Adult orientation is concentrated on the life situation.

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[1]   KNOWLES, M. – HOLTON, E. – SWANSON, R.: *Edukacja dorosłych*. Warszawa, PWN, 2009, p. 43.

- Experience is crucial in the process of adult learning.
- Self-managing is the essential adults need.
- Differences between adults are growing with age.[2]

These conclusions depict an image of an adult learner that significantly differ from what we usually observe among learning children. It is particularly worth emphasizing that the adult learners focus on their life situation and adjust to it the process of education, both in case of formulated expectations and goals, as well as the accepted forms of work, or even the load of effort made. The participation of conscious process both on perceptive, abstract and practical level, must be also taken into consideration. It is all empowered by – particularly developed among adults – the need for self-determination. These conclusions explicitly define the working principles of those teaching adults, becoming crucial in the context of reflections proposed by contemporary adult learners, as developed in the latest andragogical theories.

With reference to the theoretical aspect of andragogical reflection, the attention should be drawn to the fact that "...andragogical knowledge, similarly as any other institutionalized belief, functions on the ground of given culture and meets appropriate standards of rationality. Therefore the paradigmatic changes in the adults education are (...) the consequence of the requirements of adequacy towards cultural changes experienced contemporarily by postmodern societies".[3] Hence, the evolution of andragogical theory, as well as practice, shall be understood as more or less direct result of tendencies of adaptation to cultural changes. On the other hand, it may be claimed, that the obligation of adult learners, both the theoretical and practical ones, is to constantly make effort for the sake of such activities that would create circumstances for such adaptation changes to occur, concurrently implying that their pace and intensity shall remain at such level that would prevent the gap between the cultural and educational reality from deepening.

One of the possible strategies in such case is the systematic inventory of the applied theoretical approaches and practical solutions from the perspective of their adequacy towards the challenges of postmodernity. The updating criteria may concern the each time reconstructed set of key problems revealed both in theoretical reflections and educational praxis. Therefore, Malewski refers to the issues as self-education, motivations of

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[2] Ibidem, p. 47.
[3] MALEWSKI, M.: *Od nauczania do uczenia się. O paradygmatycznej zmianie w andra-gogice.* Wrocław, 2010, p. 13.

learners and professional development as slightly archaic, indicating their recent substitutes such as "biographical learning of adults, role of life experiences in cognition, the process of acquiring and modifying individual identity".[4] The newly arose issues of andragogy reflect the paradigm change that took place in andragogical theory and practice. The change implied shift from technical education, through humanistic education towards the critical one.[5]

Such shift took place (or to be more precise – is still taking place) with different intensity at various levels. From the perspective of the further reflections, the following aspects appear particularly interesting: *human ontology, key values, teacher's role, the nature of education, teaching methods, role of adults' life experience, the criteria of education efficiency*. These assumptions, more or less consciously accepted at given levels, constituting specific paradigm of adults education, constitute the accurate attempt to diagnose the cultural environment, starting from the outlook on life, through solutions within social life organizations, ending up on technical and methodic aspects of human activities. In other words, the assumptions dominating in the cultural environment are on one hand the basis for solutions accepted in adults education, and on the other they are themselves subject to critical assessment and numerous modifications, applied both by theoretical andragouges, as well as practical adult learners.

The evolution of the andragogical theory and practice has been a subject of many analyses carried out by researchers and organizers of adults education, as well as by the educators themselves. Therefore, omitting this genetic aspect, the following reflections will focus on the recent (recently targeted) dimension of adults education, that is defined by Malewski as a critical didactics. The assumptions of this paradigm, essential for further reflections, are shown in the table below:

Table1. Selected assumption of the critical didactics.

Sphere	Key assumptions
Human ontology	Free individual
Key value	Freedom
Teacher's role	Wakening the awareness
Nature of education	Critical reflection
Education efficiency criteria	Ability to change life

Source: Malewski, 2010, p. 40

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4   Ibidem, p. 19.
5   Ibidem, p. 40.

Therefore, accepting the above-mentioned catalogue of assumptions as a perspective for reflections, I shall analyze coaching as one of the latest phenomena of adults education.

Not referring to the historically distant, phraseological etymology of this notion, it should be remembered that in contemporary understanding, this term first appeared in Tim Gallwey's book „The Inner Game of Tennis" from 1974. In his famous statement "performance = potential – inference" he proved that the basic task of the coach/educator is to release the latent opportunities (knowledge) of each human, with the basic way to develop though self-awareness. The titled inner game is played by everyone with him/herself as a kind of inner dialogue, and to win this game we shall minimalise critical thinking, fight own weaknesses, doubts and nervousness, that are nothing but inner barriers on our way to reach the goal.[6]

Coaching emerged in Poland at the begging of 2000s, with the first workshops on coaching conducted by the founder of International Coaching Community (ICC), Joseph O'Connor in July 2002 within a training arranged by the Polish school of ICC (the oldest coaching school in Poland). Ever since then, the number of schools and coaches have been dynamically growing. The report on Polish coaching schools from 2009 reported 33 subjects offering education in this regard, with five of them having external accreditation of the curriculum recognized by the international coaching organization, and another five having accreditation of both licensed curriculum and coaches themselves, organized to teach in accordance with the internal procedures of accreditation institution. These are usually the offers of post-graduate studies at universities or trainings in the local training institutions. The coaching market is also rapidly growing. On September 16th 2009 Coaching Chamber came to life as an organization of economic local government, representing the economic interest of subjects embraced within, conducting business activity within the range of coaching. One of the statutory goals of the Chamber is to "professionalize the coaching market by establishing professional and ethical standards of coaching " (§ 6.1.). Such dynamics both of market of coaching services, as well as educational offers with this regard, and – so far – lack of standardizing regulations as for coach qualification, make it all infeasible to refer to one homogenous model of work, or even one "coaching philosophy".[7]

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[6]   GALLWEY, T.: The Inner Game of Golf. London 1979, p. 50.
[7]   LAW, H. – IRELAND, S. – HUSSAIN, Z.: *The Psychology of Coaching, Mentoring and Learning*. West Sussex 2007, p. 32.

Therefore, it is commonly accepted that everyone can become a coach with no special preparation, as the skill to ask questions is sufficient, especially that that the path to become a professional coach is long and laborious, requiring apart from professional education additional mental or personality features, as well as rich life experience, hence the advanced age of potential candidates for a coach post is obvious.[8]

Such perception is a source of another polarization of opinions regarding theoretical grounds for coaching process, as there are stances in the literature on the topic underestimating the need to refer to any scientific grounds whatsoever. Hence the voices that "coaching requires specialist knowledge only within coaching, not within other disciplines"[9], stressing solely the technical solutions of the process, sufficiently legitimated by the coach him/herself. Such "intuitive" coaching is more and more frequently confronted with the idea that the efficiency of coaching is predominantly determined by the consciously applied scientific contents. Supporters of such stand underline the necessity to ground the coaching solutions on theoretical foundations, with its valuable references to psychology, sociology and pedagogy, but also history, linguistic studies and cultural studies.

The theories and authors most frequently referred to by the supporters of "scientific" coaching are as the following:
* Learning theory (Kolb, Bloom, Bandura, Boud, Mumford),
* Change theory (Hudson, Batson, Kotter, Scott i Jaffe),
* Developmental theory (Ulrich, Smallwood, Schein, Beckhard, Burke),
* Ladership thoery (Bennis, Blanchard, Weinstock),
* Emotional intelligence theory (Pert, Goleman).

Moreover, „in the process of improving the knowledge concerning the coaching processes, knowledge on systems of organizations and family systems, as well as specialized knowledge and ethical principles are highly appreciated".[10] In other words "*coaching is still facing its initial phase; there are no regulations or standards, along with many different approaches, causing confusion*".[11] Because of these and other differences, it is impossible to come up with such definition of coaching, that would be recognized by the entire environment. The only alternative in such case is to propose a general definition, only drafting the outline of the essence of the coaching process, consequently leaving space to

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[8] VICKERS, A. – BAVISTER, S.: Coaching. Gliwice 2007, pp. 11–14.

[9] WHITMORE, S.: *Coaching. Trening efektywności*. Warszawa 2011, p. 21.

[10] ZALESKA, H.: *Literatura. Subiektywny wybór publikacji o coachingu*. (http//:www. izbacoachingu.pl)

[11] VICKERS, A. – BAVISTER, S.: op. cit., p. 32.

interpretation in detailed issues. Hence, acknowledgment of varieties of approaches shall be accompanied by the acceptance of common definition basis. This, in turn, could facilitate the beginning of integration of the entire coaching environment, launching a substantive discussion tacking both the workshop solutions, as well as their scientific foundations (we may hope that such effect will be brought about by the Coaching Chamber activities in the future).

For the purpose of this paper I propose to analyze coaching as *a process oriented at personal and/or professional goals of a client, releasing his/her potential through training of reflectiveness over own self and the surrounding, or – by learning new skills*. As for the type of coaching subject to analysis, it shall be the holistic one as *"its central point is the subject – the Person – the client, with the aims determined by the client him/herself* (…). The assumption of holistic coaching focuses not only on the goals, but on the entire system in place of their location. The client is considered as one (entire and complete) coherent system."[12] Such approach implies that the source of the individual behaviour refers not only to the knowledge and skills, but also to own identity, hierarchy of values, system of beliefs, worked out techniques of controlling own emotions and its level, as well as thinking and behavioural habits and patterns.

As far as the question of the human vision in coaching is concerned, the most interesting answer so far is the metaphor of Robert S. de Ropp's regarding the internal Gallwey's game: "*contemporary man, mesmerized by his/her glimmering gadgets, has very faint contact with its own inner worlds and deals mainly with the external, not internal space. Nevertheless, the masterly game takes place entirely and exclusively in the internal world, which is a broad and complex territory, of which people still have very little knowledge. This game can be played only by people whose observations of own self and other led them to a certain conclusion – that the ordinary state of awareness (so called the state of vigilance) is not the highest possible level of awareness one is capable of. This happens, when a person realizes that he/she is not longer able to sleep well (…) becoming aware that he/she hears, sees and knows only a tiny fraction of what could be heard, seen and known (…) that he/she lives in the most disgusting room of an internal house, despite being able to enter other rooms that windows overlook eternity and infinity"*.[13]

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12   PILIPCZUK, P.: Współczesna mitologia coachingu. Gliwice 2012, p. 151.
13   ATKINSON, M. – CHOIS, R. T.: *Wewnętrzna dynamika coachingu*. Tom I. Warszawa, 2009, p. 23.

This sheer praise of reflectiveness as a forsaken feature of humans reveals a new vision of a human. We may assume that this is exactly what Scott Lash meant while exploring reflectiveness, when he confronted his concept of modernity reflectiveness with Giddens' structural reflectiveness, next to which, as the first one claimed "*there is self-reflectiveness, where the subjectivity ponders over own self. In the self-reflectiveness the heteronomic control of the subjects is replaced by self-control*".[14] Nevertheless, he agreed with Beck, claiming that reflectiveness emerges also through the intermediacy of "the expertise systems", whereas for Giddens *„the reflectiveness arises in modernity by >double hermeneutics<, where the first intermediary is the social subject, and the expertise system the second one"*.[15] It is worth to emphasize, that according to Giddens, sociology was the key expertise system. Undoubtedly, psychology may be also considered as such (including the coaching psychology – highly reflective oriented), as well as philosophy of education (including andragogy, particularly in its meta-reflective discourse).

Summarizing the "coaching" human ontology, we may assume that the contemporary man constructs his/her living conditions in such way, that the reflective self-development leads him/her to subsequent turning points in life, what seems to be corresponding with the concept of "identity trajectory" where "reflectiveness of ME is continuous and overwhelming (…) Starting from the series of consciously posed questions, the individual gets familiar with the issue how to use this moment to change him/herself. Such reflectiveness (…) comes down to practicing the art of self-observance by tackling the following:

- What is happening right now?
- What am I thinking about right now?
- What am I doing?
- What am I feeling?
- How am I breathing?

It turns out, that the identity of an individual as a coherent integrity implies the narration where the >Me< narration becomes the obvious one"[16], whereas – from the perspective of effective coaching – it may be added that such narration is obvious and desired as the key tool of reflectiveness and indispensible condition of the directed change.

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[14] BECK, U. – GIDDENS, A. – LASH, S.: *Modernizacja refleksyjna*. Warszawa, PWN, 2009, p. 154.

[15] Ibidem, p. 153.

[16] GIDDENS, A.: *Nowoczesność i tożsamość*. Warszawa, PWN, 2001, p. 106.

While answering the question on the key value in coaching, many – not only orthodoxically oriented – would say it is the client's key value – the one he/she manifests during the sessions, to which unconsciously subordinates own plans and actions, and last but not least – this is the one, for which identification the numerous coaching tools have been worked out (e.g. "circle of values" or the "value of the hearth"). Such situational context of the values in the coaching process handicaps the search for explicit statement in the literature regarding universal values of coaching. Still, there might be some common axiological assumptions found in such analyses that tackle the client and the relation between a client and a coach: "we are constructed biologically in such way that we need other members of our "pack" to make it. Such faith is followed by trust and respect, where coach's trust implies he/she is sure why the clients does certain things and why he/she does it this way".[17] The trust leads to faith in the potential and possibilities of a client and, by the rule of reciprocity, it facilitates trust on the other side. In such way the trust ceases to function as a sheer deceleration, and becomes for the client an active tool of building faith in own abilities. It seems that such accomplishment of the trust postulate is firmly grounded in the sociological reflection over contemporary reality, as "in the profound transformations taking place, trust must be gained and actively sustained, what has been currently connected with mutual process of narrative and emotional opening towards each other".[18] "Opening" towards the client leads to unconditional acceptance of his/her beliefs, potentials and limitations, as well as acceptance of him/herself as a person trust- and respect worthy, expanding the sphere of freedom in the coach-client relations.[19]

"I can control only what I am aware of. This, of what I am unaware, has control over me. The awareness gives me the control".[20] This quotation, frequently cited in coaching workshops, reflects the essence of such process clearly defining the obligations of a coach, which operationally are brought down to the process of awakening the (self)awareness of a client. It happens through disclosure of his/her potentials as well as limitation of beliefs, simultaneously broadening the client's "comfort zone".[21] Only a possibly complete awareness of these existence spheres

[17] SIDOR-RZĄDKOWSKA, M. (ed.): *Coaching. Teoria, praktyka, studia przypadków.* Warszawa 2009, p. 110.

[18] BECK, U. – GIDDENS, A. – LASH, S.: op. cit. p. 238.

[19] HARGROVE, R.: *Mistrzowski coaching.* Kraków 2009, pp. 219–226.

[20] WHITMORE, S.: op. cit. p. 44.

[21] LAW, H. – IRELAND, S. – HUSSAIN, Z.: *Psychologia coachingu.* Warszawa, PWN, 2010, p. 74.

facilites focusing on the first one and combating the latter one. "Only a free mind is able to accept experience, as only such can set free from ideological prejudices, using own experience, as itself it does not establish some certainties, but solely closes given beliefs and enters a space of questions".[22]

Raising awareness has one more crucial aspect – it throws a light on current individual's experiences, allowing one to notice their new quality, opening new possibilities of interpretation and applying wisdom coming from within, not only to be applied for the new activities but to establish some new life goals. It all liberates from routine behaviour, both at the level of response to the familiar surroundings, as well as at the level of planning the future, and independently shaped new states of mind. "*Not placing entire trust in the everyday life reality and igniting own reflectiveness, we prepare for changes and learn to consider it not as a fixed framework (...) but as a temporary solution, since –* as Bauman claims *– the learnt skills and remembered reactions that help us well in stable, freed from surprises surrounding, may lead us to a disaster, when the occurring events shall suddenly slip from the routine and start to sneer at precedence-justified expectation*".[23]

While educational advantages of coaching is something more than obvious, the issue of the nature of education that undoubtedly takes place within coaching is questionable. It may be stated that education in this case has a relation character, i.e. is grounded in the relation and takes it course in the coach-client relation. "*It is a foundation for the client's transformation, changes of old habits, readiness to undertake challenges, and acquisition of new competences based on client's assets and potential. The coach-client relation is a kind of synergy, where client contributes motivation, goals and the need for change, whereas the coach brings in the knowledge on growth and nature of changes, engagement, and skills. (...) Establishing the coach-client relation (…) may be generally referred to as creating safe, creative sphere for growth*"[24]*,* with partnership and trust as basis for such relation. In the Popovic and Boniwell model of "personal counseling" such relation is defined as "being with the client"[25] accompanied by a sort of complete, mutual acceptance of each other. The demand for acceptance of the

22 DELSO, Ch.: *Esej o człowieku późnej nowoczesności*. Kraków, Wyd. Znak, 2003, p. 35.
23 NIZIŃSKA, A.: *Między nauczaniem a uczeniem się*. Wrocław, Wyd. DSW, 2008, pp. 42–43.
24 SIDOR-RZĄDKOWSKA, M.: op. cit. p. 97.
25 SMÓŁKA, P.: (ed.) *Coaching. Inspiracje z perspektywy nauki, praktyki i klientów*. Gliwice 2009, p. 31.

Other is close to the philosophy of the encounter, where it is stressed that "*the place of a human in the sphere of communing, does not come down to sheer existence of point next to another point, but it implies a field of given possibilities and impossibilities directly corresponding with own freedom and the freedom of the Other*".[26] The issue of freedom is emerging again in such perception, as in the relation with another person it seems to constitute one of the essential definition categories in the recalled philosophical perspective. Experiencing the other person in such a "sphere of communing" confronts us with the inevitable question who is the other human – is he/she only a sheer existence constituted by acts of consciousness, or those he/she reach beyond awareness whilst existing with own existence, constituting another Me.[27]

There are two issues implied in such perspective. The first one is the question whether the existence is only an object of perception of generally intentional cognitive acts within the framework of cognitive possibilities and limitations, or may be the other person, remaining beyond perception, falling outside the cognition, remains solely relatively fixed, and beyond any doubt – independent and separate existence?

Exploration of the latter question gave rise to the philosophy of dialogue, with M. Buber as one of the initiators. He analyzed the relation Me-You, paying attention to the fact that only in such relation "I become Me in contact with You"[28], in other words – a human becomes Me while encountering You, as well as he/she it becomes familiar with its humanity only upon encounter with another person. We can fully perceive own selves only in the eyes of the other, with the crucial process of discovering Me while contacting You, i.e. getting to know myself while meeting the Other.

Nevertheless, most of the works on coaching perceive this relation one-sided, as the accent is frequently put on the process of cognition on the coach's side, while the situation of encounter may became an excellent, unrepeatable opportunity for the coach to get to know one self. In such meaning, the cognitive relation in coaching may be of dual character, resulting from the two-direction flow of cognitive process: I get to know the Other, concurrently recognizing Myself in the Other. The symmetry of Me-You relation is a recommendation of many dialogue philosophers and it may be interpreted as a guideline "let the Other get to know to you to such degree as you get to know, or – let the Other get as much from meeting as you do, allowing the Other recognize him/herself in You". Accepting such

26 TISCHNER, J.: *Przestrzeń obcowania z drugim*. Analecta Cracoviensia, 1977, nr 9, s. 77.
27 KŁOCZOWSKI, J.: *Filozofia dialogu*. Poznań 2005, p. 35.
28 BUBER, M.: *Ja i Ty. Wybór pism filozoficznych*. Warszawa 1992, p. 45.

philosophical perspective evokes another issues, such as how to provide symmetric relation, and what should be taken care of so as to both sides of the relation could be satisfied? Therefore, referring to another category of the philosophy of dialogue, a coach undertakes aware responsibility for his/her personal relation with the client.

Reliable researches on coaching efficiency are scarce, whereas those that can be found in the literature are focused on business coaching, indicating the following factors to be taken into account while measurement: increase of company's income, general growth of profitability, improvement of relations with company clients, improvement of working time management, increase of the employees' readiness to undertake new challenges, higher work satisfaction, improved balance between personal and professional life, rise in number of business innovations, improved internal communication, greater efficiency of staff meetings and committees, meeting deadlines improvement, growth in accuracy of business decisions, rise in the number and pace of acquiring new skills by the employees, higher efficiency of team work results, better quality of communication and working relationships.[29]

In most of the cases, the efficiency of coaching is perceived in the context of the categories of profits resulting from such process. "Profits in the sphere of motivation are commonly recalled, expressed in the working path of the coaching beginner, tighter bonds with the company activities and organization itself, higher work satisfaction and higher income. As for acquisition of knowledge and skills, the growth in abilities and competences, quicker learning, more efficient decision taking, as well as better comprehension of economic and organizational issues are mentioned".[30] And as Malewski emphasized the "ability to change" with regards to the criteria of critical didactics analysis, in case of coaching there is a real, noticeable change assumed, which direction and intensity, as well as course, are defined by the client him/herself. Regardless of how and where such change will be placed, whether in the professional or private area of client's life, Piotr Żylicz is undoubtedly right claiming, that "coaching requires profound research of efficiency, both at the level of systematic evaluations carried out by the researchers, as well as in the regular, line work of coaches. There are far too many magical beliefs in the assessment of coaching for its participants that consider it purely as an amazing or moving experience".[31]

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[29] SIDOR-RZĄDKOWSKA, M.: op. cit., pp. 151–153.
[30] LAW, H. – IRELAND, S. – HUSSAIN, Z.: op. cit., p. 252.
[31] SIDOR-RZĄDKOWSKA, M.: op. cit. p. 156.

The researchers-to-be, focusing on this phenomena, should bear in mind, that on one hand next to hard-data and entirely financial criteria, they might be soft criteria introduced, and on the other – apart from applying quantitative research, the usefulness of qualitative research with its biographical approach might be also taken into account, not only because it is becoming more and more popular in educational research, but due to the fact the complexity of coaching process is significantly spread in the time context. Hence, taking into consideration that coaching introduces essential changes to human's life, it might be interesting to explore not only how this change influences the further biography, but also how it changes the client's perception of own biography before the change evoked by coaching, and what he/she has learnt about own self experiencing the change, whether it had any influence whatsoever on his/her identity.

Summing up, a comparison of previously mentioned assumptions of critical didactics and assumptions of coaching emerging from the carried out analysis may be presented, as shown in the table below.

Table 2. Comparison of the critical didactics and coaching assumptions.

Sphere	Key assumptions	
	Critical didactics	**Concept of coaching**
Human ontology	Free individual	Free individuals with potential and ability to reflect
Key value	Freedom	Freedom, trust, open-mindedness
Teacher's role	Wakening the awareness	Wakening the awareness
Nature of education	Critical reflection	Personal relation
Efficiency criteria	Ability to change life	Real change of life

Source: own idea

On the basis of the above comparison we may conclude that the (holistic) concept of coaching in its fundamental assumptions corresponds with the idea of critical didactics. It must be also emphasized that the projected change in client's life is initiated only upon the session, whereas in fact it takes place in the periods between sessions, when the client is assigned with the tasks to practice and improve in own everyday reality, working continuously on own resources, so that he/she could reach relatively permanent change. Therefore, it may

be implied that coaching considered as an integrity of a process (sessions + own client's work) is placed at the meeting point of an informal and a formal education, developing the borderland area, at the same time working out for itself a new educational sphere in adult education.

The Family as an Agent in Children's Upbringing and Changes to the Conditions under which it Operates

Stanislav Střelec

In developed societies, parents have the primary responsibility for their children's upbringing. This responsibility is the result of the historical and socio-cultural development of the family and society, and is embodied in legal and moral standards, traditions and other factors that go towards shaping conditions for the life of Man. This study is concerned with a number of changes that have accompanied family life in Czech society from the second half of the twentieth century onwards and that are becoming significant factors influencing trends in upbringing in the family environment.

Key words: *the function of the family in upbringing and socialisation; conditions of family life; socio-historic changes; new trends in family upbringing*

General starting points

Opinions on family upbringing, its importance, focus and its means of action have developed along with society, and have always been connected to a large degree with the overall orientation of the system of upbringing and education in any particular period in the life of society. If we compare, for example, certain views of family upbringing in this country in the nineteen fifties with those of the present day, we discover significant differences even in this relatively short period of time. At the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century, one of the intentions of the socialist way of life was the engagement in employment of both parents and the idea that parents should leave a large part of the responsibility for the upbringing of their children to specialised institutions and take advantage of the time this gave them to educate themselves and devote themselves to public politics and hobby activities. A large number of institutions providing an upbringing for children and young people outside school hours were established during this period – after-school care centres, school clubs, schools providing all-day care, boarding schools, Young Pioneers centres, people's schools of art, cultural and civic centres, children's libraries and reading rooms,

children's cinemas and theatres, sports organisations and other facilities. This network of institutions was also expected to fulfil some of the tasks involved in family upbringing. To put it in different words, family upbringing was undervalued, and accompanied by an irregular system of leisure time activities. Evidence of this can also be found in the quantity of specialised papers and books of the time that considered one or other area of upbringing. The consequence of these efforts may be the impression (and this was the case among a certain section of the public) that families were less responsible for their children's upbringing.

The tendencies towards limiting the formative influence of the family were not merely the consequence of political and social changes in a certain part of Europe following the Second World War, but generally express themselves in those stages in the life of every society in which differentiation and individuality in family upbringing are seen as undesirable factors, particularly when confronted with plans for integration and uniformity within society as a whole. Examples illustrating the given features can be found not merely in modern history. Some of Plato's views supporting the formation and existence of a strong state may serve us here.[1] The given examples from the history of family upbringing have no other aim than to show the connection between society and the life of the family, which is also reflected in the attitudes to family upbringing held by society or particular social groups. If we returned to the second half of the last century and studied the indicated development of attitudes to family upbringing in Czechoslovakia, we would find that the official and, essentially, condescending viewpoint of family upbringing begins to change slowly at the beginning of the nineteen sixties. At this time, the experts draw ever-increasing attention to the fact that the family plays an irreplaceable role in bringing up children, as do schools and other educational institutions. The importance of this was expressed, in part, in the Act on the Family of 1963. And that was not all. For example, in many places around the world, including this country, efforts were also made to imitate, at least in part, the conditions of family life in certain institutions in which children are placed on a permanent basis or where they live long-term outside their original family. Examples of efforts of this kind can be found in the transformation of children's homes into children's homes of the family type with stable groups of "siblings" and carers or SOS villages with mothers or married couples looking after a permanent group of children of

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[1]   Plato (427–348 B.C.), in his writing Republic, considers, for example, in his thoughts on the proper form of a municipality, that the state should have complete control not merely of children's upbringing, but also of a number of other aspects of family life. See Platón: *Ústava*. Praha: J. Laichter, 1921, pp. 187–189.

different ages and sexes in independent apartments or family houses. Society also began providing suitable married couples and families with far greater opportunities for the adoptive or foster care of children in substitute families. These facts, testifying to a gradual appreciation of the importance of family upbringing, may, however, on the basis of this brief outline, give the impression of fashions accompanying increased interest from the experts in family upbringing. We are of the belief that, under the social conditions in this country, a certain "renaissance" in the importance of family upbringing is no short-term affair, but may also be a more profound and qualified assessment of the causes of certain unfavourable phenomena in the behaviour of particular groups of children and young people. Increased interest in family upbringing can, in any case, be illustrated by the increased attention that began to be devoted to preparing adolescents for the tasks involved in marriage and parenthood in the period from the nineteen sixties to the nineteen eighties. The practical consequences of interest in matters relating to family upbringing can only be expected to be seen, as is always the case in the area of upbringing and education, after several decades have passed.

In developed societies, the family bears the principal responsibility for children's upbringing. This responsibility is the result of historical and cultural traditions in the life of society and is embedded in its legal standards. The family bears the overall long-term consequences of its children's upbringing. Schools and other formative institutions are always responsible for just a certain area of children's upbringing, and even in these cases their partial responsibility is not entirely autonomous. Parents, for example, play a role in selecting educational institutions for their children, influence their relationship towards education in general, in certain cases pay school fees, have a significant influence on their children's choice of occupation, and so on. Parents are gradually taking an ever-increasing interest in the quality and results of the educational and formative work of schools and formative non-school institutions.

A number of general conclusions may be made from the position of the family in respect of other agents acting on their children:

a) parents are the most important people involved in bringing up their children; anyone else can merely supplement what the parents have achieved in terms of upbringing.

b) the time devoted by parents to their children's upbringing is not a value that will have a positive effect in and of itself. The action of this value depends on many factors of a cultural, moral and educational nature.

c) parents are responsible not merely for their children's upbringing in the family environment, but for their upbringing in general.

d) the most important precondition to successful family upbringing is a good joint way of life for both parents and children alike.

e) a good upbringing is comprised essentially of the organisation of valuable opportunities for children to establish contact with others, have experiences and engage in activities, and the responsibility for this organisation is carried, first and foremost, by their parents.

f) indirect upbringing is generally more important than direct upbringing in the case of the family and other institutions providing free-time care. Providing an indirect upbringing means creating favourable conditions for children, i.e. the kind of conditions in which the experience obtained makes it possible to shape the characteristics of a moral, diligent and capable person.[2] Even at the present time, the given conclusions cannot be considered a matter of course or generally accepted norms in this country. In the approaches taken by parents to their children's upbringing, there are still trends originating from the historical contexts surviving from the past mentioned above, while new phenomena arising from the transformations that the life of our society has undergone are appearing alongside them.

Tendencies in the transformation of the contemporary family

The mutual interconnections of the existential links between family and society lead every society to attempt to achieve a certain level of cohesion between the interests of the family and those of society. Many researchers believe that European society, and with it the family, is passing from the industrial age to a post-industrial age in which traditional family bonds are losing their original importance. The post-industrial society (and family) is also characterised by a number of other features. For example, the most important legacy that parents can give their children is no longer considered property or social position, but education. The values most respected in this society are individual freedom, freedom of choice, personal development and self-realisation. Certain family competencies being gradually taken over by the state, state organisations and non-state institutions is also characteristic of a post-industrial society.[3]

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[2] Author's note: in drawing up conclusions a–f, free use was made of the conclusions of Wolfgang Brezinka published in his monograph Familie ist Zukunft. See BREZINKA, W.: Familie ist Zukunft. Bonn: Bouvier, 1989.

[3] Attention is drawn to certain of these changes and other changes with educational contexts by the authors already mentioned and others including, for example

The following trends have been appearing in advanced European countries in connection with family life in recent decades[4]:

• There has been an increase in the number of households headed by a single adult (usually the mother) and the number of people living on their own.

The Czech Republic is seeing a continual fall in the proportion of family households (according to the Czech Statistical Office, a family household is considered a heterosexual couple, no matter whether married or not, with or without children). In the middle of the last century, such households accounted for three quarters of all Czech households; today they account for just 55 %. There has, in contrast, been an extremely dynamic growth in the proportion of households comprised of a single person – from 16 % to 30 % in the same period. The proportion of households comprised of incomplete families (one parent with at least once child) has almost doubled from 8 % to 14 %.

• The number of young people living independently is on the increase.

Young men, either single or divorced, live alone most frequently in the Czech Republic. Only 16 % of women living independently are younger than 35 (the figure for men is 31 %). Young women living without a partner often have children (a child) and are less likely to comprise a household of one person living alone. The Czech statistics also record households in which children (a child) live with just one parent as an incomplete family. Around 15 % of the population of the Czech Republic lives in incomplete families. The head of these families is a woman in 85 % of cases, most usually a divorced woman. It is more common for incomplete families than for others to live with another family in a single apartment, predominantly with parents.

In this regard, Možný notes a specific intergenerational solidarity between parents, or sometimes just divorced mothers, and their divorced daughters, along with the existence of a strengthening subculture of families run by women for a second or third generation. Daughters growing up in families of this kind become socialised for this type of parenthood and are more likely to establish such families themselves. Mothers help daughters who have become single mothers with joint housing and housekeeping in the face of economic difficulties and,

MATOUŠEK, O. – KROFTOVÁ, A.: *Mládež a delikvence*. Praha: Portál, 1998; MOŽNÝ, I.: *Česká rodina pozdní modernity: Nová podoba starého partnera a rivala školy*. Pedagogika, 54, 2004, no. 4, pp. 309–325; DE SINGLY, F.: *Sociologie současné rodiny.* Praha: Portál, 1998.

4   In order to provide a more comprehensive picture, we attach factual data based on the findings of the Czech Statistical Office as part of the characteristics of individual trends.

frequently, problems with housing. Unsystematic observations by Možný indicate that the number of such families is on the increase.

- The increasing number of unmarried people living without children and the decline in the marriage rate.

This trend is also associated with the change in political and economic conditions since the beginning of the nineteen nineties. The opening up of society and the economy sharply increased the value of the lost opportunities that are inherent to early parenthood. People had new opportunities for travel and were able to go into business. University education became more widely available. The range of consumer opportunities grew, and consumer aspirations began to significantly exceed the actual possibilities open to the young. Young people began to put off marriage and parenthood, and the age at which women became mothers for the first time and the age of first marriages began to approach the historically usual age in the Czech Lands. The marriage rate among the unmarried fell sharply following the change to the political regime. In 1990, it amounted to 91 % among men, falling to 65 % in 2001. Among women, it fell from 96 % to 72 % in the same period.

Ivo Možný calls for caution in interpreting these trends, and believes that the marriage rate, for example, can be expected to increase somewhat, as indicated by the gently rising marriage rate in the age group of 25–30 year-olds since 2001. Research into people's attitudes has repeatedly shown that the majority of the youngest generation consider living within marriage to be the most appropriate kind of family. Life within marriage can be expected to be part of people's experience of life for more than two thirds, perhaps even four fifths, of today's young generation. This trend will, however, be countered by another trend for increasing unmarried cohabitation and a gradual change in its character.

- Changes in reproductive behaviour, the fall to the birth rate.

The birth rate in the Czech Republic initially fell sharply following the change of regime. It has now been more or less stable since the middle of the nineteen nineties, with around 90,000 children born a year instead of the usual 140,000. Czech families are now tending to choose a reproductive strategy focusing on one rather than two children, as was the case for western European families a generation earlier, and the number of families with more children is falling. According to Možný, the final fertility rate among the women of this generation is highly unlikely to be significantly higher than 1.2 children per woman. A clear warning can be seen here when comparing this figure with the "replacement fertility rate", i.e. a situation in which at least the same number of potential mothers are produced in the next generation, which amounts to 2.1

children per woman. The fact that education has a pronounced (negative) influence on the fertility rate among Czech women is significant for the future Czech population. For a number of generations now, the rule has been that the more educated a woman is, the more likely she is to have fewer children. Since the beginning of the nineteen nineties, Czech women have been putting off the birth of their first child, with the average age at which women become mothers for the first time rising by 2.5 years in the first ten years after the revolution. In 2001, the figure was 25.3, and it is continuing to rise. Ever-increasing numbers of young couples and young women no longer associate parenthood with marriage. Another significant change is the sharp increase in the proportion of children born outside marriage. In 2003, a quarter of all children were born to unmarried mothers. The proportion of children born to unmarried mothers is heavily dependent on their education, and this dependence strengthened throughout the nineteen nineties. 70 % of children of mothers with just primary education in the Czech Republic are born out of wedlock. The proportion of children born outside marriage falls regularly with each additional level of education achieved. Just 11 % of the children of mothers with a university education are born outside wedlock.

• The long-term fall in family stability.

A number of the significant bonds with which society held the family together as an intergenerational community or married couple have weakened with the onset of the modern age. According to Možný, the family has lost the connection of responsibility for the family assets, and the emphasis has begun to shift from economic capital to cultural capital, and this has taken over the role of the principal tool in status heredity. Marriage has gradually lost its sanctity and has been transformed into a civil contract. The two-generational non-local nuclear family has begun to break down ever more frequently to end in divorce and reorganise itself in repeated marriage. In connection with the divorce situation in the Czech Republic, it has been stated that 45 % of marriages entered into in the present day will end in divorce. To this oft-quoted figure, Možný adds that the chance of a stable family is not, however, so small as this forty-five percent probability of marital breakdown that can be inferred from the current divorce rate would suggest. A not inconsiderable proportion of those who get divorced, also remarry. Almost a third of marriages in this country are not the first marriage for at least one of those involved. Another significant fact is associated with this – in the years 1990–2000, more than 340,000 children lost one of their parents (generally their father) as a result of divorce. In view of the relatively large

probability of remarriage, however, the majority of these children grow up with their mother and a stepfather.[5]

A detailed look at the development of these trends in the Czech Republic (with comparison with trends in other European countries) is offered by the studies by I. Možný (2004) and L. Rabušic (2001).[6] Up-to-date statistical data on individual years is published periodically by the Czech Statistical Office.

Conclusion

The majority of the trends mentioned also have an immediate effect on psychological and educational aspects of the family environment. From the viewpoint of the healthy development of the child, the natural structure of the family (consisting of the action of a mother, father, siblings and grandparents) and the internal (emotional) stability of the family are considered important educational and socialisation factors. The question remains as to what impact on the life of the family and society will be made by the more frequent occurrence of families with a single child, the family upbringing of stepchildren, the higher age of parents, etc. Specialists and psychologists are already considering the psychological aspects arising from these specific family constellations (see, for example, Sobotková, 2001; Matoušek – Kroftová, 1998).[7] Adequate and systematic attention has yet to be devoted by educationalists to educational issues arising from these trends in family life in the Czech Republic, either in relation to the needs of children or in relation to their parents.

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[5]   See MOŽNÝ, I.: *Česká rodina pozdní modernity: Nová podoba starého partnera a rivala školy.* Pedagogika 54, 2004, no. 4, pp. 309–325.
[6]   RABUŠIC, L.: *Kde všechny ty děti jsou?* Praha: Sociologické nakladatelství, 2001.
[7]   MATOUŠEK, O. – KROFTOVÁ, A. *Mládež a delikvence.* Praha: Portál, 1998; SOBOTKOVÁ, I.: *Psychologie rodiny.* Praha: Portál, 2001.

Drug Use Prevention in Poland – Selected Aspects

Piotr Kwiatkowski

The research reflecting latest tendencies in recognizing the etiology of risk-taking behaviours and efficiency of prevention, significant number of academic and methodic papers in this regards, implementation of verified foreign projects, setting up a system of recommendations of interesting domestic prevention programs, as well as favourable changes in legal regulations tackling drug use – all these factors allow to perceive the perspective of addiction prevention in Poland positively. However, one of the challenges is to prepare the teaching staff to accomplish prevention tasks effectively, particularly in case of selective and indicative prevention.

Key words: *drug use; adolescence; risk behavior; prevention*

Introduction

Abusing substances changing mental condition is one of the type of risk-taking behaviours, which imply relatively high probability of negative consequences for health and individual development in various dimensions or (and) for the social environment at personal and systematic level. Hence, they are potentially – directly or indirectly – socially destructive, or (and) self-destructive, and therefore are significant for pedagogical science.

It is contemporarily emphasized, that risk-taking behaviours, previously referred to as problematic behaviours, may constitute an element of a wider syndrome of maladjustment, whereas in isolated formula they often occur among the youth at the stage of adolescence[1], playing number of important roles, of which the following three seem to be the most crucial: (1) they are always a form of fulfilling basic needs typical for all people, (2) they assist in accomplishing developmental aspirations specific for adolescence (emancipation, creation of personal identity), 3) they may be a reaction to frustration or (and) a way of coping with difficulties. The problematic behaviour syndrome refers to the presence of various behaviours in different constellations and it is dynamic, .i.e. various behaviour can be replaced by one another – one

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[1]   JESSOR, R.: *Risk behavior in adolescence: A psychosocial framework for understanding and action.* Journal of Adolescent Health, 1991, no 12.

behaviour may initiate occurrence of another; or the less serious behaviour may introduce some more serious ones. Various risk-taking behaviours may have similar ground and motives, and despite the fact that the isolated problematic/risk-taking behaviours are perceived as a standard in adolescence, their persistence in time and escalation is interpreted as inappropriate pattern of adjustment that may in some cases evolve into clinical pattern of behaviour, or personality disorder. It is acknowledged, that the sooner problematic behaviour appears, the more probable is the occurrence of such serious disorders. Hence, although there is no reason to demonize risk-taking behaviours among the youth (including experiments with psychoactive substances), it requires pedagogical surveillance ad undertaking actions preventing their evolution into pathological forms.

Focus on prevention of addictions is particularly important, as – first of all – psychoactive substances alter significant functions of the brain, predominantly stimulating mesolimbic dopamine reward system, what means that the drug abuse is subject to self-reinforcement. Frequent repetition of reinforced behaviours results in an adaptation decrease of brain sensitivity to given substance, what in turn stimulates the need to increase the dose or reach for stronger substances, and this is how the physical addiction evolves. Second of all, psychoactive substances lower the individual's ability to self-control, what may cause undertaking risk behaviours in the state of intoxication (e.g. sexual risk behaviour). Besides, drug abuse is related to the risk of law violation, with all its consequences, including imprisonment, social stigmatization etc. Moreover, drug abuse may lead to participation in a subculture or other informal group at the expense of deteriorated relations with the family, school, or positive peers, what in turn narrows the range of social control over the individual and stimulates desocialization processes. Last but not least, drug abuse increases the probability of becoming a crime victim (victimization).

Therefore the pedagogical dilemma occurs, as on one hand we are aware of the inevitability of the risk-taking behaviours among youth as a developmental stage, but on the other we perceive some of the behaviours as a serious threat to the growth and health of the teenagers. If we add to it some ideological and ethical issues, there is obvious conflict emerging in the ways of solving drug abuse problems, as it is also related to the way of perceiving the role of law in preventing such phenomenon. Hence, the confrontation of permissive and prohibitive stand. It emerges as quite an important issue, as the prevention framework is constituted by legislation and significantly influences the social awareness. Therefore, I will

try to summarize Polish legal regulations tackling the issue of drug abuse/ addiction in chronological course.

Law and drug abuse

Before the Second World War, the legally binding bill tackling intoxicant substances dated back to the **Act of 22nd June 1923**, which forbade production, export, import, storage, trading and putting into circulation any kind of substances and their derivatives, which had been recognized as harmful for health on the basis of scientific research. Specification of the restricted substances was listed in the directive of the Ministry of Public Health. In that period, the drug problem mainly referred to morphine, cocaine or ether (inhalant) abuse. **The directive of 1935** stated, that a prosecutor that would solely deal with drug related crimes should function as a post in the regional prosecutor's offices. However, there was a possibility then to dismiss penal cases on the basis of expert witness that assessed the threat to the public order caused by a given suspect.

After the Second World War, until 1985, the **Act of 8th January 1951** had been the binding regulation regarding pharmaceutical and intoxicant substances, as well as sanitary products, defining sanction in case of production and putting drugs into circulation. The regulations were imprecise and did not match to the new phenomena of subculture imported from the western culture, contributing to drug widespread among the youth. For the authorities of Polish People's Republic, teenage drug abuse was an embarrassing and awkward problem as the official propaganda presented drug abuse as a pathology typical for capitalistic countries.

Nevertheless, the social problem was rising and it was not possible any longer to hide it from the society in the context of growing number of the addicts (mainly addicted to so called Polish heroine). The social changes that took place after the events of August 1980 significantly contributed to the disclosure of this problem. The drug abuse issue became crucial in social debates, and in such circumstances it was possible to establish a network of rehabilitation centers. One of such first units was "Monar" in Głoskowo, set up by Marek Kotański in 1978. It was followed by other similar places established all over Poland in 1980s (independently at the same time religious institutions also opened few similar centers). Establishing such centers unfortunately evoked strong protests of local communities, exposed by the media. It threw light not

only on the problem, but also emphasized the necessity to introduce legal changes in this regard.

The **Act of 31ˢᵗ January 1985 on Prevention of Drug Abuse** regulated many important questions within this range, for example the rule of accessibility of psychoactive substances, treatment and prevention. It also obliged the public administration to establish a special fund for drug abuse prevention. Moreover, it defined the competences and duties of the state agencies, scientific institutions and the health care units. Both the Act and the binding penal code regulations were quite liberal, as there was no penal punishment for possession or abuse of drugs or, in case of production and putting into circulation addictive substances, hence prevention and therapeutic aspect was the priority. With regards to the addicted, the principle was "it is better to cure than to punish".

In the 1990s the phenomenon of the teenage drug abuse began to change rapidly, and in my opinion the shift had three basic sources: (1) slackening of the social control mechanism as a consequence of political changes, (2) increase in the social tension – anomy, and last but not least (3) changes in the Polish drug market. The demand for intravenously applied drugs decreased, undoubtedly related to the AIDS threat (issue expose largely in Poland from 1980s). On the other hand, shifting towards the West increased demand for another substances, that distribution and trafficking was organized by criminal gangs. The governmental agencies undergoing process of transformation that time were not able to fight effectively against these tendencies. Poland became not only the receiver, but also a crucial smuggling link. Moreover, a large scale amphetamine production dispatched to the West was launched in Poland. These changes contributed to the significant rise in the consumption of psychoactive substances, and in such circumstances the binding law proved to be inefficient.

Therefore, an **Act on Drug Abuse Prevention of 24ᵗʰ April 1997** was passed. The regulation became stricter as far as of punishing production and putting into circulation forbidden substances are concerned. It implied penalty for drug possession, but also tackled the issue of not punishing for possessing small amount of such substances for own use. It also allowed substitutive treatment of drug addicts with methadone, however, at the end of 1990s voices of restrictions in drug regulations began to rise.

In 2000 an amendment to the bill was introduced, allowing the penalty for possessing even small amount of drugs (imprisonment up to 3 years for having smallest amount of prohibited drugs). Punishment for making drugs accessible to another person was also included, even if such activity was not motivated by financial profit.

Such prohibitive solutions are practically still in force, although the regulations have been altered. Many of the modifications refer to exercising the bill itself. The list of the prohibited substances has been changed few times as well. It was related to the introduction of new substances, as a legal equivalent of the prohibited ones. In such way a niche market for **smart drugs** arose. At some time in the past shops with such products were totally legal – advertised in the public space and on the Internet. Revealing numerous cases of fatal intake of such drugs made politicians introduce new changes to the regulations, as until that moment, sanitary and fiscal controls had been the only way of limiting the distribution. Unfortunately, governmental actions in this regard turned out to be questionable from the perspective of constitution. Besides, some loopholes remained, and those trading smart drugs took advantage of it. And despite the fact the list of prohibited drugs was modified, the dealers reached for new substances or their derivatives, not included in the regulations.

Making smart drugs trade illegal took place only after introducing regulations prohibiting production, trade and advertisement of any kinds of so called **substitutive substances**, that have been defined as: *a substance of natural or synthetic origin in all physical state, or a product, a plant, a fungus or its part, containing such a substance, used instead of intoxicant or psychotropic, that production and putting into circulation is not regulated on the basis of separate laws*. A regulation authorizing sanitary inspector to temporarily exclude from the trade a product of which justified suspicion exist, that corresponds to the definition of substitutive substance was also introduced (during the 18 months of suspending the product distribution it may be subject to thorough examination and proving its harmfulness may result in severe fining the producer and distributor).

The data from governmental health department show that after restricting the smart drugs distribution the number of those hospitalized and deceased after smart drugs intoxication decreased, and without the doubt, it is a positive tendency. However, the smart drugs problem has not been solved, as the trade moved to the Internet where the substance are distributed under misleading names (e.g. some substances are sold as electronic device cleaning agents).

Such situation initiated once again a social debate on the Polish anti-drug policy, with voices of experts negating the idea of prohibitive law in this regard, emphasizing negative results of punishing for possessing small amounts. Some peculiar cases were revealed, including the one when a person was charged on the grounds of having joint crumbs shaken out form his pocket.

In 2011 another amendment to the bill was introduced, restricting punishment for putting into circulation significant amount of drugs, including controversial regulation allowing dismissal of penalty procedures at the persecutor's stage on the grounds of possessing small amount of drugs for the purpose of own use (justified by statement of low harmfulness of the offence or offender's addiction). Still, there are no systematic data on the consequences of such regulation, but the judges signalize that persecutors exercise this right extremely seldom, rather willing to initiate procedures, leaving the decision of dismissal to the court.

Evolution of prevention

Escalation of the phenomena of Polish drug abuse at the end of 1970s, apart from development in methods of therapy and the need to modify Polish law, drew interest to the preventive actions. As Ostaszewski and Bobrowski state, there may be distinguished few stages of evolution as far as Polish prevention is concerned[2].

At the second half of 1980s first innovative programmes appeared along the growth in training inspired mainly by psychology and humanistic psychiatry, with psycho-educational methods becoming a trendy tendency, approaching prevention to psychological assistance.

At the beginning of 1990s, innovative prevention projects with established structure and precisely laid-out draft of workshops began to spread, what in turn enabled its distribution. Such programmess gathered teams of instructors and contractors, and subsequently some foundations or associations which statutory aim tackled prevention. It was undoubtedly a reaction to the rise in social pathology among teenagers, related to social transformation processes.

Prevention activities on larger scale required funding on the basis of project quality, hence, in this regard, competent governmental agencies were established, such as **Państwowa Agencja Rozwiązywania Problemów Alkoholowych** – PARPA (est.1993) and **Biuro ds. Narkomanii** (est. 1993) changed in 2000 into **Krajowe Biuro ds. Przeciwdziałania Narkomanii** (w 2000 roku). The obligations of the latter include limitation

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[2]   OSTASZEWSKI, K. – BOBROWSKI, K.: *Polityka i profilaktyka. Bariery w rozwoju programów opartych na naukowej wiedzy*. In: Okulicz-Kozaryn K., Ostaszewski K. (ed.): Promocja zdrowia psychicznego. Badania i działania w Polsce. Warszawa: Instytut Psychiatrii i Neurologii, 2008.

of the demand for drugs and monitoring of the accomplishment of *Krajowy Program Przeciwdziałania Narkomanii (National Programme of Drug Abuse Prevention)*. These institutions play also significant role in stimulating scientific research applied in addiction prevention and drawing up programmes of preventive activities.

Second half of the 1990s was a phase of mass-scale activities (widespread programmes based on clear structure and gradual staff training), as well as critical assessment of the actions having been carried out at that time. The idea of evaluating preventive activities was also promoted, and a course book by Hawkins & Nederhood tackling this issue was published[3]. Research on the effectiveness brought about disappointment with the mass prevention, hence activities of such kind were given up. Central funding of prevention was also abandoned, assigning local governments with this task. Such undertaking, in turn, resulted in mass production of own projects, very often of low quality due to lack of professional knowledge of the authors and lack of professional training among instructors.

The last 10 years have marked a period of critical analysis of the operating prevention system, concurrently searching for an optimal solution. Actions in this regard are undertaken by the health and education governmental department. Nevertheless, widening gap between the science and the practice in this area is disturbing. It is particularly noticeable in the educational system where appropriate legislation impose on schools the obligation to establish school preventive programmes, based on the diagnosis of educational needs. Therefore, both diagnoses and projects are prepared by teaching staff, that is not always familiar with recent professional knowledge in this regard, whereas academic circles are scarcely engaged in setting up school preventive and educational programmes. Moreover, continuous underfunding of educational system does not support application of commercial, licensed programmes either.

Cooperation between these institutions with scientific units led in 2010 to the establishment of the „**System rekomendacji programów profilaktycznych i promocji zdrowia psychicznego**" (system of recommendation for the prevention programmes and mental health promotion). It embraces standards and criteria of the program qualities, as well as online data base of recommended projects. The programmes

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[3]   HAWKINS, J. D. – NEDERHOOD, B.: *Handbook for Evaluating Drug and Alcohol Prevention Programs: Staff/Team Evaluation of Prevention Programs*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Publication No. (ADM) 87-1512.

within are assigned to three categories: 1) a well-conceptualized and theoretically-grounded but unrecognized empirically, referred to as "**promising**", 2) projects of partly confirmed efficiency defined as "**good practices**", 3) projects with efficiency confirmed by empirically appropriate research, embracing at least one year after participation, referred to as "**the role model**". This is a solution similar to the list of effective programmes published by Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration or National Institute on Drug Abuse.

Scientific activities

Scientific activities within the range of addiction prevention in Poland have been taking place in many academic institutions, but research teams dealing with this problem are scarce. As a matter of fact, there might be only three of such units recalled: in Warsaw (Pracownia *ProM* at Instytut Psychiatrii i Neurologii run by Krzysztof Ostaszewski[4]), Lublin (Zbigniew Gaś's team[5]) and in Bydgoszcz (a team managed by Maria Deptuła[6]). Apart from scientific researches, these groups organize conferences and workshops regarding prevention of problematic behaviour, as well as participate in establishing and promoting preventive projects.

Participation of researchers (of secular and clerical origin) basing on Christian personalism in the Polish discourse tackling addiction prevention appears to be another interesting phenomenon, however it is rather difficult to point specific academic institutions, as we rather deal with activity of few researchers combining philosophical or anthropological reflection with setting up prevention projects[7].

Because of the lack of scientific periodicals tackling prevention, the authors must publish academic papers in periodicals of more universal profile (pedagogy, psychology, medicine). It causes dispersion of

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[4] OSTASZEWSKI, K.: *Skuteczność profilaktyki używania substancji psychoaktywnych. Podstawy opracowywania oraz ewaluacja programów dla dzieci i młodzieży*. Warszawa, Wydawnictwo Naukowe "Scholar", 2003.

[5] GAŚ, Z. B.: *Psychoprofilaktyka. Procedury konstruowania programów wczesnej interwencji.* Lublin, Wydawnictwo UMCS, 1998; GAŚ, Z. B.: *Profilaktyka w szkole*. Warszawa, WSiP, 2006.

[6] DEPTUŁA, M.: (ed.), *Diagnostyka, profilaktyka, socjoterapia w teorii i praktyce pedago*gicznej. Bydgoszcz Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu im. Kazimierza Wielkiego, 2005.

[7] DZIEWIECKI, M.: *Integralna profilaktyka uzależnień w szkole*. Kraków, Rubikon, 2003; WOJCIESZEK, K.: *Noe. Program profilaktyczny dla młodzieży*. Warszawa, PARPA, 1997.

significant publications, disabling the process of gathering scientific knowledge. Parametrization of the scientific achievements of the academic institutions on the basis of rank value of the papers seems to be consolidating such situation, as the researchers are not willing to publish their works in some new (i.e. unrated) periodicals. Therefore, it does not make any sense to establish such titles. The example of existing periodicals in this regard may be set by „*Remedium*" (non-specialist character), „*Alkoholizm i Narkomania*" and „*Medycyna Wieku Rozwojowego*" (the latter two are of medical nature, hence clinical and epidemiological aspects dominate over the preventive ones). Disseminating knowledge on addiction and prevention seems to be better presented on the Internet, with few resource portals regarding drug abuse prevention (www.narkomania.org.pl, www.psychologia.edu.pl, www.narkoslang.pl, www.kbpn.gov.pl, www.parpa.pl, www.ore.edu.pl, www.monar.net.pl).

Social Context of Accomplishing Welfare Tasks in Poland in 1980s and Nowadays

Arkadiusz Urbanek

The article tackles theoretical and empiric issues. On one hand, it makes an attempt to present the evolution of the social welfare services in Poland from 1945 to the 1990s. On the other, on the basis of such historic process, it tackles the issue of the social context in which were, and still are accomplished tasks of the social welfare. For this purpose, the results of interviews with social welfare workers have been presented, referring to those working in such institutions in the 1980s, and contemporarily. The aim of the research was to capture the changes perceived by the social workers as far as the beneficiary groups of social welfare services are concerned in these two, different time realities. The outcomes of the research point at issues crucial for social pedagogy, focusing on different attitudes towards social work and various exceptions of the beneficiaries.

Key words: *Social welfare; Social work; Social worker*

Introduction

The period at the turn of 1980s and 1990s became for many societies a turning point creating new life reality. In Poland, similarly as in many socialistic block countries of that time, transformation processes took place particularly dynamical, affecting political, legal, economic as well as social aspect of the everyday life reality. In such circumstances, the system of social welfare was also subject to changes, both in its institutional as well as ideological dimension.

Nevertheless, from the perspective of the theory of the pedagogy of social welfare and social pedagogy, the social context in which the system of assistance works is particularly important. Therefore, the main goal of this paper is to outline the social issues that constitute the background for social work. As early as in 1920s, Helena Radlińska emphasized the significance of social and environmental conditions of social activities[1], thanks to which the social care reached beyond individual situations, towards the social context. Such an idea became

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[1] OLUBIŃSKI, A.: *Praca socjalna. Aspekty humanistyczne i pedagogiczne. Teoria i praktyka.* Toruń 2004, p. 19.

the inspiration to search for information on specific features of a society, where the social welfare takes place, taking into account that not only the system of social welfare is subject to modification, but expectations of its participants also change. The aim of this paper is the attempt to perceive the social work from the perspective of changes within its recipients. Because of that, the empirical material refers to the outcome of the interviews with social care workers, that had been carrying out their duties in 1980s, and have been doing the same currently. Those are people, who not only have a lot of professional experience, but predominantly – they notice the process of changes in social groups that receive social welfare benefits. In both if the periods the social care duties were carried out along with direct social work, nevertheless the nature of the system and institutions, as well as point of view on the helping styles, were also subject to change, therefore it is also worth to pose questions on changes that occurred within the groups social care was addressed to.

The basic issue of the reflection is the attempt to answer the questions:

How did the system of the institution of welfare evolved in Poland with regards to the changing circumstances of social life?

How do the social workers interpret the social context of accomplishing social welfare?

The outline of the evolution of the institutions accomplishing the social care and welfare tasks

In the period after 1945, Poland – as many other countries- struggled with the effects of war. Apart from the issues of war damages, the social problems were significant too, as for the poverty and people's migration. In response to the everyday existential social needs, in the years 1945–1947, support – actually the social care – performed rescuing tasks.

According to Waldemar A. Góra, undertaking such activities was a natural consequence of the postwar social situation, as families began to search for their members separated by the conflict, with prisoners of German concentration camps returning home, but also with reference to numerous repatriates whose property had been taken away and with very basic possession they had to adopt to life in the new places[2]. Thousands of people expected to receive a tangible help in finding a shelter or even

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2   GÓRA, W. A.: *Tradycje opieki i pomocy społecznej w Polsce*. Praca Socjalna, nr 2/1989, pp. 32–33.

food, as they were often sick and traumatized by the war and its atrocities.

The Ministry of Labour, Social Care and Health was established in 1945 with its local branches, dealing with accomplishment of social care tasks. It is worth to emphasize the term "social care" used within its notion, as it reflected the scale of the needs of that time. Focusing on the social problems, it was crucial to set up Central Committee of Social Welfare, which was developed on various local and administrative levels. The first framework of these institutions referred to the activities of the community workers, with the primary Committee tasks to: organize and support social welfare units, set up people's soup kitchen, provide meals for the undernourished, help the refugees and repatriates, consolidate the actions of social care institutions. The costs of operating of these institutions were covered by governmental and local government budget subventions, as well as public donations[3]. Wanda Pawłowska, describing the reconstruction of social care in the postwar Warsaw, emphasized the quick pace and great efforts to rebuild the institutions of social welfare as well. The proof of such is the periodical "Social Service" issued in 1946, founded by Polish Institute of Social Services – reactivated in 1945 and engaged in scientific activities. The reconstruction movement focused also on the teaching process, as Helena Radlińska began in 1945 her activities at University of Łódź, establishing a department of social pedagogy[4]. In 1945 there were 18 local points of Polish Red Cross operating, carrying out tasks focusing on nourishing children at schools and providing care for those in orphanages.

In the years 1947–1953 a reorganization stage took place within the existing social welfare institutions, at the same time launching the systematization of social activities. Nevertheless, the period of reorganization did not cause a breakthrough effects. The regulations from the Act on Social Care from 1923 expired, as the new Act on the local bodies of united state authority established few departments, among which the care taking and support activities were divided, hence, the education, health and the justice department all undertaking various tasks of supporting and protecting children and families[5]. Such changes were reflected in the act handing over the range of duties from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare from 7th

[3] DĄBROWSKI, L.: *Opieka społeczna w pierwszych latach powojennych na Pomorzu Środkowym*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1988, pp. 25–27.

[4] PAWŁOWSKA, W.: op. cit., p. 73.

[5] GÓRA, W. A.:, op. cit., p. 32.

April 1949[6]. The same year the committees of social care had been closed down and replaced by the Department of Health and Social Welfare[7].

The wide-spread action of nationalizing care institutions for children in 1952 revealed the political intentions and the true intentions of the propaganda, as the already-existing institutions lost their right to exist and became subject to the jurisdiction of state authority[8]. A new way of interpreting social welfare was signaled – i.e. to nationalize and centralize, what – in the context of contemporary ideologies – turned out to be unfortunate. Such direction of changes was confirmed by the constitution of Polish People's Republic dated 22nd July 1950, where the privilege to use social care and health protection was formulated as a civic right. It is also worth to stress the change in terminology, as the so far "social care" became in its meaning and sense a "social welfare". Wiesław Theiss rightly indicated, that after 1945 the rich traditions of support and social care in pre-war Poland had been forsaken, as seen in the negation of the achievements of the organizations and institutions up till then[9].

The third stage of the development in the system of social welfare took place between the years 1953–1970, where unfortunately so far reached achievements had become dominated by propaganda and political objectives, however the promoted policy of socialistic success and dynamic economic growth may have not deliberately stopped the growth of already operating social infrastructure[10]. The role of the propaganda of socialism success turned out to be more important than any other real social needs, and it is rather hard to agree that the excluded groups had been eliminated. Still, the socialistic propaganda presented the existing situation as a success in fighting with poverty, as it seemed obvious that the compulsion of employment would obviously eliminate the poverty. Therefore, if there was no one without work in People's Poland, there was no one to support, so there was very small interest of the authorities in developing the system of social welfare[11].

Only few years after, faith in such limitless successes fainted and failed, whereas the social problems remained. As a consequence of

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6   *Ustawa o opiece społecznej*. 16 sierpnia 1923 r., Dz. U. R. P. nr 92, poz. 726, with later amendments.
7   DĄBROWSKI, L.: op. cit., p. 29.
8   DĄBROWSKI, L.: op. cit., p. 32.
9   GŁADKOWSKA, M.: *Opieka społeczna w Warszawie 1923–1947*. Warszawa 1995, p. 7.
10 GÓRA, W. A.: op. cit., pp. 32–33.
11 GÓRA, W. A.: op. cit., pp. 32–33.

given tasks and social expectations, the government passed a bill in 1958 establishing the institutions of Social Care workers, both at local and county levels[12]. The range of their duties was initially regulated by the government order of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare concerning the range and mode of the activities of social care workers dated 1957, with later amendments from 1964.[13] It is worth to emphasize the significance of the change also in the context of accomplishing the social care, as previously it had been perceived as a work not requiring specific competences and activities, perceiving it a passive job. "There is an opinion held that social care work is mainly of administrative character (…) more manual than intellectual, not a work in field, neither of offensive character, more a passive waiting for the demanding patient, that has privileges granted by the law"[14]. Introducing the social care workers to the system of support implied a change from passive to active manner of work, as the social work was to be performed mainly in the field, aiming at finding those in need, recognizing the environmental needs too[15].

In the 1960, the government established Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, whilst concurrently some changes in the expectations of those directly carrying out the social tasks took place. Until that time, the key role had been played by community workers, engaged in the idea of helping. Such an idea may rise doubts as for the promoted enthusiasm that the socialistic social care abandoned philanthropy. After all, social activity, i.e. offering own labour, concerns the personal readiness for activity for the sake of the needy. Nevertheless, it was equally difficult to refer to the legally binding standards of the social care service, that in fact did not exist. However, an important step ahead took place when the Department of Social Welfare and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, began to publish an expertise periodical "Bulletin of the Social Care Worker", with its primal aim to educate the community workers, who "lacked no heart nor good will, but knowledge and experience"[16].

The 1970s defined a period when a double stream of building social system was reported. On one hand, the standards were indicated by the

[12] OLESZCZYŃSKA, A.: *Pomoc społeczna w roku jubileuszu*. Opiekun Społeczny, nr 2/1979, p. 56.

[13] *Rozporządzenie MPiOS o zakresie i trybie działania opiekunów społecznych*. MP 1959 r., Nr 93, poz. 496, MP 1964 r., nr 62, poz. 287.

[14] ADAMOWICZ, K.: *O konsekwencjach praktycznych niejednoznacznego rozumienia terminu „praca socjalna"*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1987, pp. 47–50.

[15] GÓRA, W. A.: op. cit., p. 33.

[16] KACZEWSKI, M.: *Od Biuletynu opiekuna Społecznego do Pracy Socjalnej*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1986, pp. 4–6.

budget guarantees (not by philanthropy), national organizations and system of the social law procedures, but on the other – there was lack of explicit standards of exercising these rights and activities. In the years 1973–1974 some serious problems arose while accomplishing the social tasks by the social care workers as "at that time there were 66 000 social workers, often elderly people with elementary education, not always well classifying and recognizing the needs. They expressed a lot of good will and eagerness (...) but did not subordinate as they acted voluntarily as a charity and often operated not quick and efficient enough"[17]. Therefore, the priority was to educate the staff professionally prepared to undertake social tasks. The educational movement had been intensified in the 1960s, however it is worth to mention that those were not first such schools in Poland, as in the years 1925–1939 there was a College of Social and Educational Work at the Free Polish University, that managed the trainings of the staff accomplishing social tasks[18]. Until 1939 it had educated around 500 graduates, operating later in conspiracy until 1944[19]. In that period it was crucial to develop network of support institutions and increase their potential of knowledge and competences. The experiences of Olsztyn can be recalled, as in 1969 there was a Regional Centre of the Social Workers operating, with its main goals to increase the professionalism of the local activities of social care workers[20].

Establishing the Regional Centers of Social Care Workers coexisted with the already operating Health and Social Welfare Departments, working within the voivodship local authorities.

Two group of people accomplishing social support tasks emerged. On one side those were the traditional filed working community staff subordinated to the Health and Social Care Department. Social workers as professionally trained staff replaced the already working social care workers, initially cooperating with them, overtaking their duties subsequently. The result of such changes led to the establishment of network of organizational structures, as from 1969–1975 a network of Voivodship Centers for Social Care Workers were developed, located at regional unit of health care institutions, whereas at lower level they were included within the structure of the local health care centers. This new organization was set up in order to supervise the creation of the new tools

[17]   KAŹMIERCZAK, T.: *O wojewódzkich ośrodkach opiekuna społecznego raz jeszcze*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1989, p. 39.
[18]   OLUBIŃSKI, A.: op. cit., pp. 17–19.
[19]   GŁADKOWSKA, M.: op. cit., p. 8.
[20]   KAŹMIERCZAK, T.: op. cit., p. 39.

of social work profession: "…appropriate regulation for the activities the social care centers, as well as supervision and trainings were beyond the possibilities of the Health and Social Care Departments due to insufficient number of staff in the social care units, hence the necessity to establish regional section in the regional networks of specialist health care centers"[21].

It is worth to emphasize that social care actions constituted a part of broadly understood health services, therefore social care workers were employed within the health care centers. The Health and Social Care Ministry directive dated 4th July 1975, established the Voivodship Centers of Social Care workers, which was a part of the development of the professional social care working staff, as recognized by the Decision 29/73 of the presidium of the government[22]. The development and specialization of this profession led to setting up a state organization, and Polish Society of Social Care Workers was established in 1987 an it has been still operating.

In 1990s, the social welfare system changed dramatically, both as for new tasks, legal regulations as well as new organization was concerned. In 1990 a new Act on social welfare was established, with later amendments in 2004. The social welfare tasks were assigned to the newly organized (1987–2003) Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. It launched a new stage of social care evolution, accompanied with profound changes in the administrative organization of the entire country. After the national administrative reform, from 1999 the number of social support institutions increased, both at regional and local level. Decentralization processes followed, aiming at overtaking responsibility from social welfare by the local governments, that were subject to the social exclusion, hence – in natural consequence – the supporting environment[23].

Social context of accomplishing tasks of social welfare

The outlined evolution of systematic solutions within the social policy, did not take place regardless of given social needs. Referring to various definitions of social welfare[24], it is evident that the society (community) is

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[21] KAŹMIERCZAK, T.: op. cit., p. 39.
[22] KAŹMIERCZAK, T.: op. cit., p. 46.
[23] URBANEK, A.: *Realizacja zadań pracownika socjalnego w praktyce*. Legnica 2012, pp. 19–21.
[24] *National Association of Social Workers*. Encyclopedia of Social Work 1971, vol. 2.

a crucial part of its evolution, concerning people participating on both sides – those addressing and receiving social support[25]. The vision of changes occurring in the society is a part of evolution of the social welfare system itself, as its tasks are accomplished with direct correspondence to the expectation and needs of the recipients[26]. Searching for information on changes taking place in these groups, I conducted interviews with social care workers directly involved in the social work both in 1980s and currently. The interviewed group consisted of 5 people with significant professional experience in the social welfare system (from 27 to 32 years of working experience), i.e. those are persons whose knowledge allowed to recognize the general changes of the social background for accomplishment of the social welfare tasks.

It is worth to stress that the aim of the interviews was to capture the essential differences in the characteristics of social groups outlining the previous, and contemporary circumstances of the social activities. Therefore, the results of the interviews do not refer to the assessment of all the beneficiaries, but rather indicate the overall point of view. The conversations lasted 1–1,5 hours, concentrating on the personal features, life situation and the attitude of the beneficiaries towards the social welfare, with whom the social care workers worked in the 1980s (.i.e. before the political transformation), and with those they are still working. It is worth to emphasize that the interviewed worked in various regions of the Dolny Śląsk and Opolskie voivodship, hence the given opinions are related to various environments.

Concentrating on common traits of the opinions, the similarity in assessment of the economic situation of the beneficiaries was striking, pointing different pricing relation in both of these periods. Despite it is of objective nature, it matters as for given attitudes of the recipients towards the social support. With regards to this aspect, in the five interviews, social workers claimed that in 1980s the received benefits made a real difference to the families, helping to overcome difficult situation, whereas contemporarily, it is rather handicapped or even impossible, as the benefits are consumed by direct costs of the family existence.

The general conclusions imply that in the 1980s, the social support was considered as a real help, whereas these days it is just an accompanying element of rather unchangeable life situation, and although the objective of social support is to help in overcoming difficult

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[25] STARĘGA-PIASEK, J.: *Pojęcia pomocy społecznej*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1986, pp. 4–8.
[26] MARYNOWICZ-HETKA, E.: *Istota i zakres służby społecznej*. Praca Socjalna, nr 1/1986, p. 13.

life situation, it is unfeasible nowadays. It is caused not by the unwillingness of the beneficiaries to improve their living conditions, but their deteriorating existential situation, as reflected in the interviewed opinions: "…low income, low benefits and high costs of living cause lack of efficiency", "the support we provide – sometimes reaching 1000 PLN a month – covers only such basic living needs as food or clothing (…) besides, our clients do not pay (…) real estate taxes, nor utilities bills (…) hence the debt is growing and problem is rising (…) Now people do not bother with growing vegetables, they must buy everything, they are used to another life style, they want to eat something different, have the comfort. No wonder they want to live a better life, but it makes the living more expensive". It is quite alarming, as the economic situations of families degrade beyond them, since high costs of living consume such proportion of the accessible resources, that it is hard to speak of the possibility to save up, as the expenses are related solely to the basic needs.

The social background of 1980s was assessed differently, as due to lack of unemployment, the number of those receiving social support was lowered, whereas the activities aimed at only given groups, such as the elderly, or large families. Still their needs were different: "I think it used to be more effective, as receiving benefits from such institutions really meant to receive some support that would equip the family with some goods (…) fuel or firewood". "People used to have more money and the costs of life were lower", "…we used to work with the elderly, (…) that did not ask for financial help and did not want to expose their poverty, simplymeeting the other person and talking about their problems mattered".

Another issue was the change in approach of the beneficiaries towards the social welfare, regarded in two dimensions: on one hand, it was the attitude towards the social welfare, and on the other – the readiness to act on own behalf for the sake of own situation. Taking into consideration the attitude, it used to be less demanding, what might have been caused by lack of knowledge, as they are opinions, that in the past the families did not know what kind of benefits they are entitled to, whereas now they are fully aware of it, even calculating, if they meet the criteria. The range of the increased knowledge evoked, according to the social care workers, another perception of the social support, i.e. not as a help, but something they are owed to.

The assessment of the engagement of the beneficiaries of social support revealed similar differences in case of the change of own life situation. It is reflected in the statements regarding engagement in the

manifested social roles: "they use to be less demanding people, not taking that much for granted", "we had the field needs recognized, helpless people were not that common", "the level of education was similar, but they were more practical, mothers were resourceful, hardworking. Now the level of engagement changes, the social care tasks are accomplished somehow "nearby" the beneficiaries that manifest no willingness, certainty nor skills to overtake control and responsibility of own life: "the clients in most cases have basic education (…) and such fast termination of the educational process made them enter adult life as still immature children,(…) young mothers do not understand basic principles related to the child care, hence they must be supervised while applying for layettes, (…) they are kind of absent-minded, taking care of purely mundane issues".

Summary

The conclusions drawn from the empirical research indicate few aspects requiring further reflections and research, as they are of significant importance from the perspective of social pedagogy. The necessity to analyse the attitude of the social support beneficiaries is one of such cases. Generally, although the social services of 1980s was directed at selected groups, nowadays it is addressed to wider and more diverse groups, including young people, who have undertaken the social role of parents and cannot efficiently meet the demands, as due to limited educational competences and little professional opportunities, they experience difficulties in providing for the children. The second group is constituted by those young people who consider social support as something they deserve, accepting the situation of living on the dole, being almost unwilling to search for independent sources of income. It is a crucial conclusion that the contemporary clients of social services manifest affiant determination to change their situation, not looking for own resources, but rather expecting to receive unemployment benefits considering it as source of income. And although it is an assessment of general nature, it reflects the observations of significant professional experience of the interviewed. Such situation is also a challenge for the social pedagogy, as it signalizes a precise problem, which is the acceptance of young people towards the role of social support recipient, and in comparison to 1980s, this tendency is growing.
Another, but equally important aspect, is the immaturity of parents while meeting the demands of the role they have taken. Social workers,

while interviewed, frequently tackled this issue, pointing that it is very difficult to motivate one to overcome poverty if such person needs to be educated in the first place. They do not understand the complexity of their obligations towards own children and family, concentrating on arranging money for the basic needs. It is not irrational in its meaning, but the social workers draw attention to the lack of effort among young people to inspire and support change in their own family whatsoever. Current beneficiaries of social support are considered less hard-working, less engaged in the improvement of own situation, not thinking about their own and their children's future, but focusing on the daily life.

The common belief that social worker won't make their life change is also disturbing, as he/she is rather perceived as a clerk that allocates the money. This is another problem in understating the idea of social serve, since as a professional activity, its target is to inspire and support the changes in families, whereas the financial resources are only an aid and additional. Nowadays, it is quite the contrary as the families mainly expect financial support, not being ready and willing to change their life. Although it is a general conclusion, it is surprising how repeatable these opinions are, which means it is not a specificity of a given local community.

The aim of the reflection was to reveal various social contexts, through the analysis of the social welfare as a process of evolution in system and change occurring in given societies. There are constantly new issues and problems arising, that imply reformulation of the role of social care workers, that is basically somewhere between a clerk assessing the legitimacy of the client's claims, and on the other side – an animator of the process of overcoming difficult life situation. However, the appearing difficulties, also accented in the research results, shall not question the meaning of the social services, but rather point out a given outline of the contemporary reality. These are issues essential for the social pedagogy, particularly that, as Martin Davies claims, the social services shall resign from reaching to mechanical response to the needs and inconvenience[27], as according to him, the social worker always acts accordingly to the belief that it is possible to combine the individual and social interest, so that his/her activities would equally serve the client and the country.

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[27] DAVIES, M.: *The Essential Social Worker. A Guide to Positive Practice*, 1985, p. 68.

Reception of Czechoslovakian Cartoons in the Polish Contemporary Educational Sphere

Barbara Jędrychowska – Anna Olchówka

Czechoslovakian animated movie after many years of having been broadcasted solely on TV, became interactive. Despite passage of time since its broadcasting, it is still easily found and watched in Poland not only online (where the old-time cartoons are easily available), but also published on CD's or cassettes. It is also a subject of analysis in academic and popular publications. Moreover, they are the theme of art and literary competitions organized by kindergartens, schools, libraries and cultural institutions. They even have their own permanent exhibitions, where requisites related to them are presented. The images of their main characters become a fashionable gadgets presented on the key chains, cutlery, children bedclothes, school accessories, toys etc. They also function in the social and media sphere as advertisements or occasional memes. It was particularly visible during the Euro 2012 tournament, when the internet sphere made the Czechoslovakian cartoons one of the leading theme of the Poland-Czech match. The main feature of this occasional memes was to present the other side by the way of symbols, i.e. recognized and liked characters from Polish and Czechoslovakian cartoons.

Key words: *Czechoslovakian TV cartoon; Polish contemporary educational sphere*

Postwar Czechoslovakian cinematography, particularly during the so called New Wave (1962–1972), belongs not only to one of the most original and interesting in Europe, but also recalls one of the most recognized film schools worldwide. Films of that time, despite being made at the period of deep political transformations, moved far beyond politics, focusing mainly on thorough observation and reliable reflection of the social and lifestyle realities. Young artists, such as Miloš Forman, Jiří Menzel and Věra Chytilová, presented in their works "the reality that exists, not the one that needs to be created"[1]. Jerzy Płażewski, Polish distinguished expert on film art wrote that "it was something deeply Czech – funny and smart in its avoidance of martyrized solemn dignity, moving towards the mocking exposure of the system absurds"[2]. For many Polish film lovers titles such "Ostře sledované vlaky" (Closely

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[1]   PŁAŻEWSKI, J.: *Historia filmu 1895–2005*. Warszawa 2010, p. 304.
[2]   Op. cit. p. 425.

watched Trains) (by J. Menzel, 1966)[3], "Lásky jedné plavovlásky" (Loves of a Blonde) and "Hoří, má panenko!" (The Firemens Ball) (by M. Forman, 1965, 1967) or "Ecce homo Homolka" (Behold Homolka, by J. Papoušek, 1969)[4] still remain the synonym of the Czech history and mentality.

Next to such genre and stylistically varied, excellent drama movies, almost concurrently began the Czechoslovakian puppets, and cartoon movies boom. It was possible thanks to rich tradition of puppet theaters, but mainly because of the Prague, biggest European movie-set village Barrandov of that time (it managed to survive the turmoil of the Second World War), and movie production centre operating until 1961 in Gottwaldov (Zlín nowadays)[5]. Works created in these places initiated spectacular history of Czech animated movie, whereas "the level reached at that time […] guaranteed its continuity in the period when little attention whatsoever was drawn to small forms of intimate film plastics arts"[6].

After the fall of Prague Spring in 1968, and gradual decline of the great and original cinematography of the Czech New Wave, it did not manage to find equally great and original successor. However, the animated movie still succeeded, and its contemporary reception (also in Poland) may be referred to as one of the unique pop culture phenomena.

The youngest Polish audience had the opportunity to get to know Czechoslovakian cartoons as late as at the beginning of 1970s, when they were broadcasted within the evening programme for children, called Dobranocki (until 1993), and then referred to as Wieczorynki. Although one of the very first Polish children cartoons had been broadcasted on TV in the 1950s, (**Fig. 1**) ("Miś z okienka" in 1958 and "Różne przygody Gąski Balbinki" in 1959), they did not present such resourcefulness and technical innovative as in case of the cartoons for children made by our Czech neighbours. It particularly refers to one of the most popular Czechoslovakian animations "Krtek" (The Mole), that was shown as early as in 1956. Its author, director and animator, Zdeněk Miler, came up with the idea of a small creature (not having been invented before by Walt Disney) that for 46 years (until 2002) had merely changed its image; its nose and tail was shortened, some hair was added to the top of its head, eyes were made bigger making its face happier and in general more a boy-like. Getting rid of the dialogues made the cartoon universal and understood worldwide, whereas sounds

[3] "Ostře sledované vlaky" by J. Menzel are considered the counterpart of the Polish movie "Popiół i diament" directed by A. Wajda in 1958.

[4] TRONOWICZ, H.: *Film czechosłowacki w Polsce.* Warszawa 1984.

[5] The name Gottwaldov functioned between 1948–1990 commemorating the first president of the communis Czechoslovakia Klement Gottwald.

[6] PŁAŻEWSKI, J.: op. cit., p. 228.
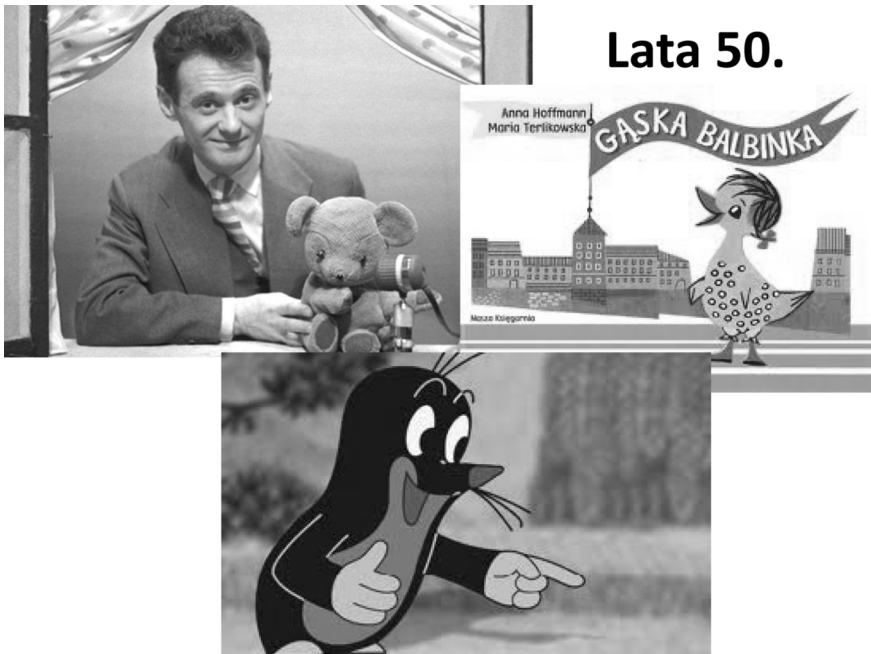
made from time to time by Krecik, expressing happiness and sadness, were
the recording of Miler's little daughters' voices.

Only "Bolek i Lolek" (Bolek and Lolek, 1963) and "Reksio" (Rex, 1967)
(Fig. 2) – Polish children cartoons from the 1960s managed to gain
popularity among the youngest audience comparable to the
Czechoslovakian craze. The same happened with the Czechoslovakian
"O loupežníku Rumcajsovi" (The Robber Rumcajs, 1967) and "Bajky
z mechu a kapradí" (Thales of Moss and Fern), with the main creatures of
"Křemílek a Vochomůrka" (Křemílek and Vochomůrka, 1968).

The 1970s made also a great decade for Czechoslovakian cartoons,
with their main characters equally popular and liked. The example sets
the following: "Chłopiec z plakatu" (The Boy of a Poster) (1970–1981),
"Cypísek – syn loupežníka Rumcajse" (Cypísek – The Son of Good
Robber Rumcajs, premiere in 1972), "Maková panenka" (Poppy Doll,
1972), "Psí žywot" (Daily Life, broadcasted in Poland as late as in 1991),
"Víla Amálka" (Fairy Amelia, 1975), and excellent "Sąsiedzi" (The
Neighbours) and "Vodník Česílko" (Water Goblin Česílko) from 1976.

After many years of first Polish broadcasting of the Czechoslovakian
animated movies, they are still popular, commonly known and valued. In

Lata 60.

the latest ranking of Večerníček (evening TV programmes for children) organized by one of the Polish online portals[7], there were 4 Czechoslovakian and 3 Polish cartoons out of ten in general. The first three included "Bolek i Lolek" (Bolek and Lolek, 25 % of votes) "Krteček" (The Litle Mole) i "Pat a Mat" (Pat and Mat) (11 %), and the following: "Reksio" (Rex, 10 %), "Křemílek a Vochomůrka" (Křemílek and Vochomůrka, 8 %), "Baltazar Gąbka" (Baltazar Mushroom, 6 %) and "O loupežníku Rumcajsovi" (The Robber Rumcajs, 4 %). The rest of the places are as follows: 4th place – "Volk i zajac" (Wolf and Hare, Russian production, 11 % of votes), 7th place "Včelka Mája" (Maya the Bee, Austrian-Japanese production, 7 % of votes) and the 8th place taken by "Muminki" (Dutch-Finnish production, with 7 % of votes).

Czechoslovakian animated cartoons, after many years of having been broadcasted solely on TV, became interactive. Despite passage of time since its broadcasting, it is still easily found and watched in Poland not only online (where the old-time cartoons are available and accessible), but also recorded on CD's or cassettes. It is also a subject of analysis in academic

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[7]   10 best evening programmes for children (in Polish): komediowo.pl

and popular publications. Moreover, they have become a theme of art and literary competitions organized by kindergartens, schools, libraries and cultural institutions. They even have their own permanent exhibitions, where requisites related to them are presented. The images of their main characters become a fashionable gadgets presented on the key chains, cutlery, children bedclothes, school accessories, toys etc. They also function in the social and media sphere as advertisements or occasional memes.

The first marketing application of Czechoslovakian cartoon on a large scale on the Polish trade market took place while advertising a washing powder "Cypísek" (**Fig. 3**). Producers of the domestic detergents from Bydgoszcz ("Pollena") used the name of Manka's and Rumcajs' son (Rumcajs was the main character of the cartoon about this "positive robber") to call the first export product for babies, that appeared as an object of Polish mothers' desire in the 1975[8]. It can still be bidden in online auctions such as Allegro.

More than 30 years later, the main characters of popular Czechoslovakian cartoon "Pat a Mat" appeared in Polish advertising campaign of life insurance company Link 4. in 2009, and in this-year campaign of local ads Tablica.pl (2012)[9].

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[8] The first showing of "O loupežníku Rumcajsovi" took place in 1967, whereas its continuation was "Cipísek", screened in 1972. The first part of the 39-episode evening programme for children on the good robber, in his unique red hat, black beards and an acorn revolver living with his wife Manka and little son Cipísek in the forest of Jičín, was broadcasted in July of 1970.

[9] Pat and Mat, the main characters of "Pat a Mat", are extra-ordinarily clumsy friends in their typical hat, that before managing to build something, spread damage destroying everything around. Finally they would overcome all difficulties, shaking hands at the end, as a symbol that they succeeded. The cartoons first broadcasted in 1976 (until 2004) had 78 episodes altogether. It was broadcasted in Poland from 1988 on the Friday

Pat and Mat, two slightly feather-headed do-it-yourselfers, despite many initial failures experienced in each undertaken action leading to total destructions of what was to be build or fixed, at the end of the story always happily shook hands, promoting optimistic attitude to life and trust put in common actions. In the small adds bulletin, Pat and Mat make successful deal of selling and buying a chest of drawers and a picture.

Czechoslovakian animations, particularly the recent ones, are beginning to function in Poland also in extra-ordinarily intense nostalgic and educational dimension, referring to and promoting this, what could be considered as the most positive in Polish People's Republic or at least worth rescuing from oblivion. The example of popular character publication is the lexicon by Bartek Koziczyński called "333 pop cult things of PRL" referring to widely perceived pop culture of the years 1945–1989[10]. The lexicon has an index including titles of the most popular evening programmes for children, with Czechoslovakian productions among them.

The educational stream may be exemplified by the article written by Katarzyna Pawłowska-Salińska Fajne bo czeskie… nasz alfabet (Cool because Czech… our alphabet), published in 2012 in highly opinionforming newspaper "Gazeta Wyborcza"[11]. The title itself implies the nature of this article, which aim was to present Czech, Czech culture and mentality in the most interesting context for a Polish reader. Therefore, apart from Czech beer, "Becherovka" and "Lentilky", surnames of popular singers, i.e. Karel Gott and Helena Vondráčková, as well as the character from literature – Švejk, and the main characters from children cartoons could not be missed. Therefore, the author recalls four Czech cartoons and their cult characters most popular in Poland: Pat and Mat (Pat and Mat), Krteček (The Little Moll), Rumcajs (The Robber Rumcajs), as well as Křemílek a Vochomůrka (Křemílek and Vochomůrka)[12].

The educational aspect is also presented in the museum of evening programmes for children in Rzeszów (Muzeum Dobranocek), drawing

edition of the evening programme for children. Link 4 advertisements and Tablica.pl also available on the YouTube website.

10 KOZICZYŃSKI, B.: *333 popkulturowe rzeczy PRL*. Poznań, Vespa, 2007.

11 PAWŁOWSKA-SALIŃSKA, K.: *Fajne bo czeskie… nasz alfabet.* Gazeta Wyborcza" 2012, dodatek Wysokie obcasy, datek 16. 06. (online edition)

12 Křemílek and Vochomůrka are inseparable dwarfs that help the animals, plants and water nymphs and the main characters of the animation "Bajky z mechu a kapradí" (directed by Z. Smetana), first broadcasted in October 1968. The author of the beautiful music with the unique theme of violin and trumpet was composed by Martin Zeman. PAWŁOWSKA-SALIŃSKA, K.: ibidem.

great interest not only among children, but also adults brought up with Dobranocki and Wieczorynki in the background. This local institution was created thanks to private collection of Wojciech Jama, who, in 2008, donated for the city around 2 500 exhibits. The collection included toys, posters, cards and stamps, records, games and many other items related to the main characters of these prgorammes. Most of them have their own exhibit areas, such as Krteček (The Little Mole), Rumcajs ((The Robber Rumcajs), or Křemílek a Vochomůrka (Křemílek and Vochomůrka).

Promoting Czech culture referring to Czechoslovakian cartoons launched in 2010 was another interesting initiative of educational character. Within the Year of Czech Culture in Lower Silesia, Mikołaja Reja's local and public library along with the Regional Centre for Education and Culture in Oleśnica invited pre-school and school children to participate in two projects: an art and a literary one. The main character of the first one called "Rumcajsowo – kolorowo", was Rumcajs – the main character of the book by Václav Čtvrt k and a cartoon, whereas the literary competitions "What do we love Czech cartoons for" was addressed to the pupils of primary and junior-high schools from the Oleśnica district. The authors of the best works were awarded during the 11th Cultural Presentations taking place in May 2010 in Oleśnica[13].

Enormous popularity of the Czechoslovakian cartoons broadcasted of Polish TV in 1960s (particularly "O loupežníku Rumcajsovi"), encouraged Polish artists to adapt the books (films) for the stage. In 1974 the Polish Theatre in Warsaw staged the musical "Przygody Rozbójnika Rumcajsa" ("Adventures of the good robber Rumcajs") with libretto by Ernest Bryll and music composed by Katarzyna Gaetner. It is still staged in many Polish theaters, including the Polish Theatre in Bydgoszcz (premiere in 2004), Baltic Drama theater in Koszalin (premiere in 2009), Theatre of Zagłębie Children in Będzin (premiere in 2009) as well as in Słupsk, Szczecin, Jelenia Góra and many others.

The cartoons owe their ongoing popularity to the their accessibility via Internet, used also as educational tool, with websites aiming at gathering and selecting information, making files with new episodes of the cartoons accessible, discussing or recalling on the forums their favourite episodes, characters and stories from the childhood. For such purpose www.nostalgia.pl website or spodlady.com, as well as kultowedobranocki.pl (having its branch at the central train station in Warsaw), online shops were created. The owners of the latter, Tamara Kurowska and Grzegorz Krasnodębski, the animated movies lovers, apart

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13   "Panorama Oleśnicka" 2010, nr 3 (20–26 I).

from selling books, mascots and games consider this shop as a place of children memories open to everyone.

The Internet quickly responds to given events, phenomena and processes enabling its users to access practically limitless information. Then, very often unrelated contents begin to merge, creating common discourse commenting the reality around.

It was particularly noticeable during the Euro 2012 European football championship, as it had overtaken the Polish media sphere long before the opening ceremony. Intense emotions and high hopes accompanying this event were directly reflected in the variety of internet comments and opinions. One of the themes accompanying the match between the Polish and Czech national representation on June 16th 2012 in Wroclaw, was the Czechoslovakian cartoons, made one of its leading themes.

The main characteristics of such occasional memes is the depiction of the opposite team players using symbols, i.e. recognizable and liked characters from Polish and Czechoslovakian cartoons. The football rivalry was brought down to series of duals between the
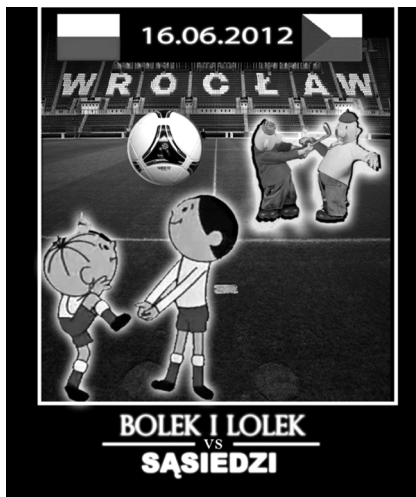
animated features of the childhood heroes: Krteček and Reksio **Fig. 4**),
Pat and Mat, Bolek and Lolek (**Fig. 5**) or even two "cartoon"
representations of Czech and Poland (**Fig. 6**).

The photos, despite tackling the sport rivalry of adults, convey clear
message – this football meeting is accompanied by solemn, but positive,
peaceful, "neighbourhood" atmosphere, strikingly different from the one
during the previous match between Poland and Russia on June 12th 2012
in Warsaw, or with Greece on June 8th 2012 in Warsaw.

Most of the pre-match photos clearly indicate the Polish victory – in the
duel between Krteček and Reksio, the brave puppy seems to gain
advantage, as also noticed by the King Julian (**Fig. 7**) – a popular
character (especially among the adults) from the recent series of
animated movies "Madagascar".

On the other hand, the "Czech nightmare" (i.e. the forgone conclusion
of Polish football fans on their victory over the Czech) is illustrated by
Krteček (**Fig. 8**), as drawn by a popular cartoonist Remek Dąbrowski and
posted on his blog two days before the match.

It is worth to notice that next to the cartoon characters, i.e. elements of
significantly pop culture nature, in the football euro-discourse there were
also elements related to the folk tales ad Polish history, such as the three
brothers from the legend about Lech, Czech and Rus, that are joined by
the Greek god Zeus (reference to the A group members in the final stage
of Euro 2012: Poland, Czech Republic, Russia and Greece) (**Fig. 9**).

Nevertheless, some of the cartoon graphics refer to violence and
negative motions, as some of the illustrations base on a stereotypical
associations which are obvious for an adult, but not always in case of
children, as in the example of Reksio, attacking petrified Krteček's goal,
growling with bare teeth (**Fig. 10**), and the "duel between childhood
titans" kept in the stylistics of the bloody film "300", telling the story of the
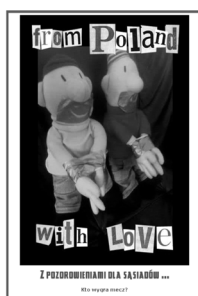
Thermopile battle in a cartoon manner (**Fig. 11**). Still, the illustrations of tided up "Czech hostage" and "Pat a Mat"[14], make an adult smile, rather than scared (**Fig. 12**). Nevertheless, these are not the graphics that may be used for educational purpose, as shown in previous examples.

The appearance of the themes of Czechoslovakian cartoon in graphics while commenting the preparations for the football match between Poland and Czech had its continuation also after the match. Despite the failure of Polish representation (1:0), illustrations using the theme of Polish and Czechoslovakian cartoons applied in various ways could be found on the Internet the very same evening, showing satisfied Krteček and angry Reksio. And as the proverb goes, "he laughs best who laughs last", in most cases they presented the Czech cartoon character as the winner of the rivalry with the character of the Polish animation. This element was also used in an original way in an add promoting real estate offers online (**Fig. 13**).

Graphics on the Internet, referring to the Czech failure with Portugal (quarterfinals: Portugal-Czech 1:0, 21st June 2012) when the Czech team

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14   The writing under the Pat a Mat illustration directly refers to the title of one of the Bond's movies "From Russia with love".

was eliminated set a great fair play example, as they show Reksio cheering up the crying Krteček (**Fig. 14**).

What makes these Czecho-slovakian cartoons dating back to 1960s or 1970s so special, as they enjoy such interest and liking among both young and older audience? What made them unrivalled in comparison with Disney's productions of that time, or the Japanese animations that try to win the recognitions among the youngest?
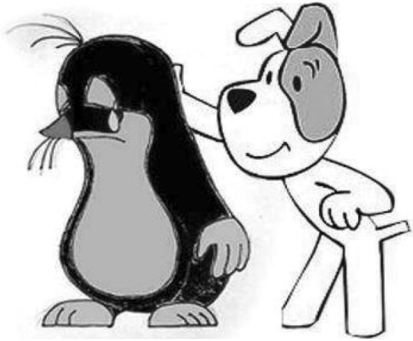
Despite many changes taking place in the post-war Czechoslovakian education, these cartoons did not become subject of such changes, presenting lasting values and Czech mentality, what definitely made them genuine. Mariusz Szczygieł, the most distinguished promoter of a Czech culture in Poland, in his excellent book Gottland[15] presents the Czech features pointing compliance, distance towards the world and own self, hard work, resistance, and specific sense of humour. And this is exactly what the Czechoslovakian cartoon characters are like.

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[15] SZCZYGIEŁ, M.: *Gottland*. Warszawa 2006.

Effective Use of Teaching and Learning Resources

Rona Bušljeta

In view of the fact that students are surrounded by visual representations and audio-visual and auditory materials on a daily basis, owing in particular to media such as television and the internet, it is difficult to imagine today's educational process without the use of various teaching and learning resources. The purpose and role of teaching and learning resources don't only consist of making the educational process more attractive and interesting, but also of encouraging active learning, the development of different skills and the adoption of desirable values and attitudes of students. In order to achieve the aforementioned goals, it is extremely important to clearly define the conditions and methods of utilising teaching and learning resources in the teaching and learning process. The aim of this study was to, first and foremost, define and determine the basic stages of utilising teaching and learning resources, assuming that the aforementioned affected and stipulated the achievement of their purposes, roles and tasks in the teaching and learning process.

Key words: *teaching and learning resources; characteristics of teaching and learning resources; utilisation of teaching and learning resources; internet in teaching*

Introduction

The increasing influence of different media, especially television, the internet and internet communication, as well as the intense development of science and technology, is reflected on society as a whole, this includes education. This is one of the reasons why students today, as opposed to those of twenty or even ten years ago, have different interests, priorities and views on education and the educational process. They want education that is fun, dynamic and different, such as the digital images on television or web sites.[1]

Before the rapid development of technology, the teaching process was reduced to the teacher's verbal presentation of material and using chalk to write on the blackboard. Although speech remains the most important asset in the teacher's work, today's teaching process is difficult to imagine without the use of different modern teaching and learning resources. Their contribution to the teaching process is manifold, and

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[1]   JENSEN, E.: *Super- nastava. Nastavne strategije za kvalitetnu školu i uspješno učenje.* Zagreb: Educa, 2003, p. 3.

their use makes the process more attractive, interesting and modern, and, most importantly, it aids the teacher in the organisation and quality of conducting the said process, whilst aiding the students in the processes of enhancing their intellectual and emotional capacities.

In the context of classes as an institutionalised form of teaching and learning, teaching and learning resources could be defined as the instruments of presentation and transmission of the prescribed educational material. These include, amongst others: images, maps, photographs, sketches, diagrams, films, written material such as newspaper clippings or articles from scientific and technical literature. The importance of teaching and learning resources is further evidenced by today's textbooks that abound with dynamic and attractive visual material which is used to present between 40% and 50% of their content,[2] so that it could be closer to children and the media they are accustomed to, such as television, computer games and the internet.[3] The wide usage of different teaching and learning resources has its positive and negative sides, and, in order to regulate the latter, it is important to realise how these resources are utilised in the educational process.

Teaching and Learning Resources

The purpose of utilising teaching and learning resources in class is to assist the teacher with the presentation and transmission of educational content and the achievement of educational objectives, whilst aiding the students in acquiring knowledge and profiling different abilities and values. Therefore, we can list the following examples of their common goals:
1. Student motivation,
2. Developing creativity,
3. Evoking prior knowledge,
4. Encouraging the process of understanding, decoding, organising and synthesising the educational content, logical thinking and reasoning, communication and interaction, and

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[2]   MIKK, J.: *Textbook: Research and Writing*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 2000 p. 269, according to: CHOPPIN, A.: Les Manuels Scolaries: Historie at Actualité. Paris: Hachette éducation, 1992, p. 139.

[3]   HAPPONEN, S.: *On Representation, Modality and Movement in Picture Books for Children*. In: Visual History. Images of Education. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 2005, p. 75; PINGEL, F.: *UNESCO Guidebook on Textbook Research and Textbook Revision*. (2nd revised and updated edition). Paris-Braunschweig: UNESCO-Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, 2010, p. 48.

5. Contributing to the development of different skills and the acquisition of values of students, as well as the retention of desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes.

   Whether or not these teaching and learning resources will achieve their purpose, role and numerous duties, it all depends, first and foremost, on their correct use within the educational process, which is why it is so important to define the basic principles of the aforementioned process.
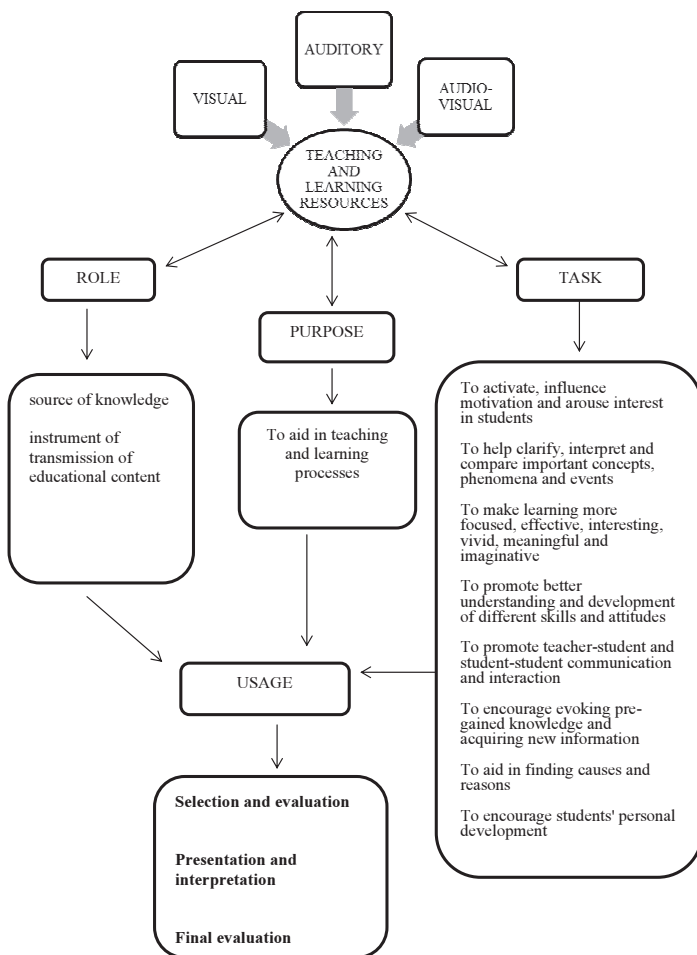

Diagram 1. Overview of Types, Roles, Purposes, Tasks and Usages of Teaching and Learning Resources.

Teaching and learning resources can be differentiated according to their different characteristics that are apparent at first glance, their different communication systems or using the senses utilised by students in the process of receiving the information as a typology criterion. In the field of didactic theory, as well as in teaching practice, the classification of teaching and learning resources into visual, auditory and audio-visual resources is almost universally accepted.[5]

As shown in the diagram, regardless of the type of teaching and learning resource and bearing in mind the process of teaching and learning, we can differentiate between three main phases of its usage.

1. The first phase could be termed as the phase of **selection and initial evaluation**. Its role is the selection of the most adequate teaching and learning resource. Several key factors should be taken into account here, such as:

   a) Teaching objectives and tasks. They are the foundation of the teaching process and serve as a starting point in the selection of teaching and learning resources.

   b) The student's personality.[6] In the teaching process in general, and the selection of teaching and learning resources in particular, we must always bear in mind that every student is special and is defined by different physical and psychological qualities, intellectual development, social skills, interests, abilities and different styles of learning.[7]

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4   BAUSTEIN, V.: *Medien des Geschichtsunterricht*. In: Geschichtsunterricht. Ein Handbuch zur Unterrichtplanung. Stuttgart: UTB, 2004, p. 228.

5   Similar classification can be found in scientific literature – CAJANI, L.: *Italian History Textbooks on the Brink of the Twenty-First Century*. In: School History Textbooks Across Cultures: International Debates and Perspectives (Oxford Studies in Comparative Education). London: Symposium books, 2006, p. 35. JONASSEN, D. H.: *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology. A Project of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, p. 2004; POLJAK, V.: *Didaktika*. Zagreb: Školska knjiga, 1991; PLETENAC, V.: *Nastavna sredstva i pomagala*. In: POLJAK Osnove didaktike. Zagreb: Školske novine, 1991, p. 150. MATIJEVIĆ, M.: *Mediji u odgoju i obrazovanju*. In: Didaktika. Zagreb: Školska knjiga, 2005.

6   REINTS, A. J. C.: *A Framework for Assesing the Quality of Learning Materials*. In: New Educational Media and Textbooks. Stockholm: Stockholm Institute of Education Press, 2002.

7   RIDING, R., RAYNER, S.: *Cognitive Styles and Learning Strategies: Understanding Style Differences in Learning and Behaviour*. London: David Fulton Publishers, 1998; JONASSEN, D. H., GRABOWSKI, B. L.: *Handbook of Individual Differences: Learning and Instruction*. London: Routledge, 1993.

c) The teacher's level of education and abilities.[8] If the teacher, as someone who should lead, direct and monitor the teaching process, has no required knowledge and skills in order to realise the potential of teaching and learning resources, their role in the class becomes insignificant.

d) Characteristics of teaching and learning resources.[9] Resources used in teaching should primarily be stimulating and informative, easily accessible and should contribute to the clarity and quality of teaching and learning.

e) The school's level of material-technical equipment. In case the school has no varied and adequate teaching aids, the presentation of teaching and learning resources will be largely limited.

2. The second phase in the use of teaching and learning resources is **presentation and interpretation**. This phase should be directed or managed in such a way that it encourages the teacher-student and student-student processes of communication and interaction in three basic steps, namely:

a) The initial analysis of the selected teaching and learning resource. This phase is based on determining the reasons for the use of said teaching and learning resource in the teaching process, and determining the resource's type, its name and the name of its author, and its source.

b) Collection and classification of the information presented/included/offered by the teaching and learning resource relevant to the purposes and tasks of teaching.

c) Synthesising the gathered information and drawing conclusions.

3. The third phase in the use of teaching and learning resources is represented by **final evaluation**. Its purpose is the evaluation of the results of selection and presentation, in other words, the effectiveness of the teaching and learning resource, in order to gain insight as to the contribution of said resource in achieving the set goals and in order to eliminate any deficiencies of selection and presentation.

As emphasized previously, each of the phases shown here is necessary in the use of teaching and learning resources in order to achieve their roles, potential and accomplish their desirable tasks in the process of teaching and learning, such as motivation, evoking pre-gained knowledge, encouraging communication, interaction and so on.

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[8] REINTS, A. J. C.: *A Framework for Assesing the Quality of Learning Materials.* In: New Educational Media and Textbooks. Stockholm: Stockholm Institute of Education Press, 2002, s. 143.

[9] Ibidem.

Characteristics of Teaching and Learning Resources

Even outside the context of teaching, teaching and learning resources have their own value and a different impact on individuals. For example, viewing a photograph or painting can evoke different memories and emotions or encourage creativity in an individual. If the aforementioned is applied to the teaching process, we might deduce that the goal of using teaching and learning resources should be directing the reaction, primarily caused by these resources, towards the achievement of the set goals and objectives of teaching.

Amongst the listed groups of teaching and learning resources, visual teaching and learning resources often receive precedence in the teaching process. The reasons behind this are their advantages that especially come into play during their practical use in teaching, specifically:

1. Availability in textbooks,
2. Multiplicity,
3. The fact that, in most cases, they present the essence of a subject matter related to the curriculum, and
4. Ease of application.

In addition to this, it has been empirically proven that visual information is retained in memory for much longer than the information transmitted via the oral-writing route,[10] and that students tend to visualise regardless of their learning style.[11] The visual teaching and learning resources used in the teaching process are numerous, thus it is necessary to differentiate between and classify them.
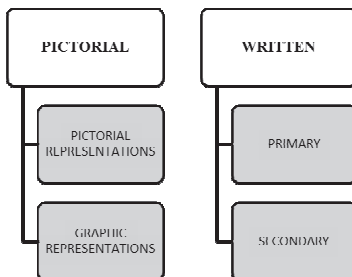

Diagram 2. Classification of Visual Teaching and Learning Resources.

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[10] BAUSTEIN, V.: *Medien des Geschichtsunterricht.* In: Geschichtsunterricht. Ein Handbuch zur Unterrichtplanung. Stuttgart: UTB, 2004, p. 239.

[11] JENSEN, E.: *Super-nastava. Nastavne strategije za kvalitetnu školu i uspješno učenje.* Zagreb: Educa, 2003, 184.

As shown in the diagram, "visual teaching and learning resources" could be divided into pictorial and written resources. Pictorial teaching and learning resources include various pictorial and graphic representations that can be effectively used in teaching, such as paintings, caricatures, graphic novels, photographs, maps, drawings, timelines, schematics, tables, charts and diagrams.[12] Taking into account the well-known saying that a picture is worth a thousand words and the fact that students are more motivated and stimulated if their curriculum is presented graphically,[13] it is not surprising that pictorial resources are considered very important in the process of teaching and learning, the fact made most evident in textbooks. The power of images was recognised as early as the Middle Ages when there came into existence the so-called "Biblia pauperum" (Pauper's Bible), which used pictorial representations with very little or even no text at all to teach, in other words provide information and the Gospel message to people who did not know how to read. As already pointed out, today's discussion of the usage of images in teaching most often involves the Czech pedagogue Johann Amos Comenius (Komenský) who, in the 17th century, was the first to draw attention, in practical terms, to the possibility of arising interest and motivation in students and facilitating the learning process with the aid of pictorial representations.[14] Later empirical studies further demonstrated that the information communicated visually is remembered a lot faster and retained in the memory longer than that presented in word or text.[15]

The second group of visual teaching and learning resources, as shown in the diagram, consists of "written teaching and learning resources". These resources are also numerous and can include all kinds of written records, from scientific and technical texts to poetry and prose. Specifically, written teaching and learning resources includes textbooks, manuals, curricula, documents, legal regulations, legal acts, directives, parts of printed media (dailies, weeklies and monthlies), parts of scientific works, fiction (novels and short stories), and poetry.[16]

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[12] In the German scientific literature what we define as the pictorial teaching recources is called "rein optisch – visuelle Unterrichtsmittel". BAUSTEIN, V.: *Medien des Geschichtsunterricht*. In: Geschichtsunterricht. Ein Handbuch zur Unterrichtplanung. Stuttgart: UTB P. 229.

[13] HAPPONEN, S.: *On Representation, Modality and Movement in Picture Books for Children,* In: Visual History. Images of Education. New York: Peter Lang, 2005, p. 75.

[14] BAUSTEIN, V.: *Medien des Geschichtsunterricht.* In: Geschichtsunterricht. Ein Handbuch zur Unterrichtplanung. Stuttgart: UTB, 2004, p. 239.

[15] Ibidem.

[16] In the German scientific literature what we define as the written teaching recources is called "verbal-optische Unterrichtsmittel". Ibidem, p. 229.

The aforementioned group of visual teaching and learning resources can be classified bearing in mind the resource's importance for each class and, in this context, we can differentiate between "primary and secondary" written teaching and learning resources. Primary written teaching and learning resources should primarily include textbooks, manuals and curricula since they represent the basis of designing, structuring and managing the teaching process. The inclusion of other written teaching and learning resources into primary resources depends, first and foremost, on the goals and objectives of each class. For example: when teaching history, historical documents, legal regulations, charters and legal acts could be considered primary written teaching and learning resources, whereas poems, stories, diaries and newspapers could constitute secondary resources. In contrast, when teaching a mother tongue, poetry and prose would be the primary sources, whereas documents, charters and legal acts would constitute secondary resources.

The second group of teaching and learning is comprised of "auditory teaching and learning resources", which, unlike the visual resources, are not numerous. Given the general positive effects of music[17] on human frame of mind and reasoning, as well as its power to indicate different worldviews, political and social problems,[18] it is clear to see why auditory resources are most often defined as especially stimulating and motivating learning and teaching resources.[19] Those auditory teaching and learning resources which can be used effectively in teaching include audio recordings such as political and other speeches, testimonies, various types of musical compositions, radio shows, vernacular and so on.

"Audio-visual resources" constitute the third group of teaching and learning resources. Due to the fact these resources are a combination of sound, image and text, they contribute to a dynamic and lively way of introducing various representations of events, people and atmospheres into teaching.[20] Audio-visual teaching and learning resources most often include films and educational television shows. Educational television

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[17] ROWNTREE, D.: *Teaching with Audio in Open and Distance Learning (Open & Distance Learning)*. Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis 1994; BUTLER, S.: *"What' s that Stuff you're Listening to Sir?" Rock and Pop Music as a Rich Source for Historical Enquiry*. In: Theaching History. Reading History, no. 111, 2003, pp. 20–25. JENSEN, E.: *Super-nastava. Nastavne strategije za kvalitetnu školu i uspješno učenje*. Zagreb: Educa, 2003, p. 222.

[18] KLENKE, D.: *Musik*. In: Handbuch Medien im Geschichtsunterricht. Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau, 1999, p. 407.

[19] MASTIN, S. J.*: "Now Listen the Source A" Music and History*. In: Teaching History. Performing History, 2002, no 108, pp. 49–54.

[20] METZGER, S. A.: *Evaluating Educational Potential of Hollywood History Movies*. In: Celluloid Blackboard*: Teaching History with Film*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing,

shows are those television shows whose purpose is to deal with and represent the type of content that is connected to the legally prescribed curriculum. Seeing as this type of television show is unfortunately quite rare, especially when it comes to secondary schools, it would be pointless to further discuss their roles and possibilities of their use in teaching. On the other hand, owing to the hyper production of the film industry, there are numerous commercial and documentary films covering various topics that can be effectively used in teaching. Film is a powerful medium and, as such, it can influence thoughts, emotions and values, especially in young people, and this is why today an increasing amount of literature addresses the use of film as a teaching and learning resource.[21]

Despite their positive characteristics, audio-visual and auditory teaching and learning resources, as opposed to pictorial resources, are not well-represented in the teaching and learning process. The reason behind this is the fact that their use is conditioned by several key factors:

1. The teacher's quality and systematic preparations based on their knowledge of how to choose their resources, the potential positive or negative effects and different ways to use auditory and audio-visual teaching and learning resources.
2. Enough time available for the implementation and content analysis of auditory and audio-visual teaching and learning resources. It should be noted that the extensive prescribed curriculum that should be realised within a single class does not leave enough time to employ auditory and audio-visual teaching and learning resources fully and effectively.
3. The school's being well-supplied with adequate space and teaching aids.

Methods of Employing Teaching and Learning Resources in the Teaching and Learning Process

There is a large number of various and easily accessible teaching materials today, owing primarily to the internet. However, if these

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2006, p. 63; POYNTZ, S.: *"The Way of the Future" – Probing the Aviator for Historical Understanding*. In: Celluloid Blackboard: Teaching History with Film. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing, 2006, p. 45.

[21] MARCUS, A. S. – METZGER, S. A. – PAXTON, R. J. – STODDARD, J. D.: *Teaching History with Film*. London: Routledge, 2010; WATSON, R.: *Film and Television in Education: An Aeshetic Approach to the Moving Image*. London: Falmer Press, 1990; MILES, M.: *Seeing and Believing: Religion and Values in the Movies*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1996.

resources are to be used in teaching, it is necessary to follow the stages of working with teaching and learning resources, the first of which is, as already pointed out, **selection and evaluation**. Selection and evaluation are carried out bearing in mind several key factors:

1. Students' characters and interests. No two students are the same and differences such as gained knowledge, cultural heritage, social position, imagination and affinities influence the way an individual observes/analyses an individual teaching and learning resource. Given the aforementioned differences, a student who once lived in a war-stricken country is going to approach the interpretation of a photograph of a city or people destroyed by war different to someone who never experienced such a thing.

2. Characteristics of teaching and learning resources. Every resource has its own specific qualities that make it unique and which should be considered if the resource is to be used in teaching. For example, factors such as composition, colour, presentation and size, should be considered in the selection of pictorial teaching and learning resources. It is also necessary to consider the fact students are going to be demotivated by pictorial teaching and learning resources which are too complex, too small or presented in an unclear way. The selection of written teaching and learning resources should involve factors such as clarity, comprehensibility, length of text and the language used, which can be too complex or unsuitable and therefore inappropriate for students of a certain age.[23] On the other hand, when selecting an audio-visual teaching and learning resource, especially film, we should consider whether its merit lies solely with creating an experience or if its content is also valuable. To be specific, for the sake of being attractive and dynamic, some events are often exaggerated in commercial films whilst others are ignored; irrelevant and false events are inserted, and certain events are unduly criticised whilst a positive emphasis is put on others with no solid or true foundation.[24]

3. Using teaching and learning resources can be counterproductive if students fail to find the meaning of what is being represented by the

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[22] BOURDILLON, H.: *History and Social Studies-Methodologies of Textbook Analysis.* Abingdon: Taylor & Francis, 1992, p. 92.

[23] VECCIA, S. H.: *Uncovering our History: Teaching with Primary Sources.* Washington: American Library Association, 2004, p. 64.

[24] METZGER, S. A.: *Evaluating Educational Potential of Hollywood History Movies.* In: Celluloid Blackboard: Teaching History with Film. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing, 2006, p. 89; BAUSTEIN, V.: *Medien des Geschichtsunterricht.* In: Geschichtsunterricht. Ein Handbuch zur Unterrichtplanung. Stuttgart: UTB, 2004, s. 267.

resource, if they do not understand it or if they cannot use it independently. It should also be noted that certain teaching and learning resources, such as paintings, photographs, caricatures and films, largely depend on the subjective experience of the author who conceived and developed them, but they also depend on the experience of those who "read" them (students or teachers). On the other hand, tables, maps, diagrams, laws, legal documents and documentary films most often communicate scientifically proven facts or results that leave little room for interpretation by the author and therefore by their "readers".

4. As a source of knowledge, teaching and learning resources should be helpful in attaining the various goals and objectives of teaching. Nevertheless, what is most often the case is choosing those resources that are related to the curriculum and which represent the key factors related to a particular moment, epoch, or a particular central thorny question or problem.[25] Arguably, the role of teaching and learning resources is communicating facts, events and problems, but we should, at the same time, be careful not to ignore their role in promoting empathy and creativity in students and the possibility of representing, for example, the way people lived in a certain age, their worries, prejudices and doubts.[26]

The presented selection and evaluation of teaching and learning resources is the longest and most demanding step in using the teaching and learning resources. This step is followed by their **presentation and interpretation**, the purpose of which is attaining the set goals in carefully planned steps.

1. The first step in the interpretation of a teaching and learning resource begins by determining its type (photograph, painting, drawing, table, document, film or poem), its source, its name and the name of its author, analysing its motives and finally determining the reasons for its use in the teaching process.

2. The second step in this interpretation is based on collecting and classifying the important information contained in the selected teaching and learning resource. It is important to use different methods in this step, such as analysis, critical observation and

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[25] HAPPONEN, S.: *On Representation, Modality and Movement in Picture Books for Children.* In: Visual History. Images of Education. New York: Peter Lang, 2005, p. 127.

[26] CARD, J.: *Picturing Place: What You Get May be More Than What You See.* In: Teaching History. Place, 2004, no. 116, pp. 16–20; SWEERTS, E. – CAVANAGH M. C.: *Plotting Maps and Mapping Minds; What Can Maps Tell Us about the People Who Made Them?* In: Teaching History. Place 2004, no. 116, pp. 21–26.

evaluation, whilst isolating and emphasizing the kind of information that contributes to the achievement of the set goals and objectives of teaching.
3. The last step in the presentation of teaching and learning resources consists of synthesising the data collected in the previous step. The aim of synthesising is to interconnect the most important presented and interpreted information or partial information created by the teaching and learning resource, which then leads to new knowledge, and skills and value profiling. This can be achieved through different means: through a teacher's verbal presentation or a student's independent oral presentation and/or practical work.

Evaluation represents the final stage of working with teaching and learning resources. The purpose of evaluation is to evaluate the effectiveness of a particular teaching and learning resource in attaining the goals and objectives of teaching; in other words, its contribution to the processes of understanding, linking and interpreting, developing desirable skills and adopting certain values of students.

The Internet as a part of Teaching and Learning Process

The internet is an unavoidable medium if looking for a quick way to find necessary information related to any area of human activity. It is now an essential part of every home and workplace. Using the internet produces necessary information in a short time, it is used for communication, to browse various databases, check the latest news, comment on events and even gain additional knowledge or education. Despite the numerous possibilities it offers, the internet caused mixed reactions in the beginning; it was well-accepted and used with enthusiasm on the one hand, and criticised as something that offered instant and unverified information and influenced human relations for the worse on the other. However, there are less and less opponents of the internet thanks to the fact that the today's fast style of living requires efficient action, fast access to information, exchange of data and communication.

As well as playing a part in all areas of life, the internet has also become an essential part of teaching.[27] Its infiltration into the teaching

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[27] FORSYTH, I.: *Teaching and Learning Materials and the Internet (Creating Success)*. London: Kogan Page 1996; MAIER P. – WARREN A.: *Integrating Technology in Learning and Teaching: A Practical Guide for Educators*. London: Kogan Page 2000.

process caused the emergence of experts who began to emphasize its negative effect on the quality of the processes of communication and interaction, and, finally, learning.

In the context of the process of teaching and learning, the internet can be defined as a teaching aid whose role is the transmission of visual, auditory and audio-visual teaching and learning resources. The internet can also be defined as a multifunctional teaching aid since it is:

1. A source of information and teaching and learning resources,
2. An aid in interpersonal communication, and
3. A place of practical action, such as designing own web sites.

Due to the aforementioned characteristics, the internet in teaching contributes to the motivation of students, the more so because the students find it a useful, different and fun teaching aid.[28] It is a fact that the internet contains a plethora of various information and that it can have the same negative consequences as the lack of information. Web sites can offer unverified and wrong information or simply distort the facts since they are being put there by individuals who are not experts and are guided by their own different motives. This is why a studious analysis of what the internet has to offer is vital before including it in the teaching process. In order to achieve such a thing, it is essential to educate first the teachers and then the students on the methods of critical analysis, selection, classification and evaluation of the information presented via the internet, and it is only then that its contents can serve and encourage the acquisition of knowledge and the development of various skills and attitudes of students.

Specifically, through browsing the web, students can come across different views and thoughts related to a particular topic, make a comparison of documents and paintings, design their own stories, make a caricature based on the data collected online and so on. In addition to this, the online space can be used as a space where teachers and students, individually or through cooperation, can create their own web sites, which could showcase, for example, a part of their curriculum or the students' works and projects.[29]

Aside from being a source of information and a place to showcase projects, the internet can also be used as a communicational teaching aid. For example, students can communicate with each other via e-mail,

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[28] LAMBERT, D. – HORSLEY, M. – NETTLE, K. – PINGEL, F.: *The Future of Textbooks? International Colloquium on School Publishing: Research about Emerging Trends.* Sydney: TREAT/APA, 2001, p. 43.

[29] CANTU, A. D. – WAREN, W. J.*: Teaching History in the Digital Classroom.* New York: M. E. Sharpe*,* 2003, p. 203.

which can also be used to exchange data and ideas with their teacher, related to any sort of independent work. Furthermore, internet communication can serve as a tool for the teacher to obtain timely information on the students' work and progress. Teachers can also use the internet to create interesting knowledge quizzes whose purpose is to check the students' level of knowledge in a fun way. In doing so, they can, for example, ask questions related to the prescribed curriculum or design assignments whose solution can be found by further browsing the internet.

It has also been found that using the internet contributes to the students' developing various skills, such as research, technology, presentation and/or communication.[30] In this way, thanks to the numerous and various sources and data offered to them by the internet, students learn how to:

1. Think about content,
2. Localise information,
3. Sort data,
4. Analyse and organise information,
5. Classify information within a particular context,
6. Think critically,
7. Create new ideas and conclusions,[31] and
8. Express themselves in an effective way.

These highlighted advantages and possibilities offered by the internet lead us to the conclusion that, despite the negative aspects related to its usage, using the internet can enrich the teaching process by way of making it more modern and effective. This is further proven by the fact that today the internet is being discussed more and more as an essential part of teaching.[32]

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[30] DENBESTE, M.: *Power Point, Technology and the Web: More Then Just an Overhead Projector for the New Century?* In: The History Teacher, 2003, 36 (4), pp. 491–504.

[31] Ibidem.

[32] PRITCHARD, A.: *Effective Teaching with Internet Technologies: Pedagogy and Practice*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing, 2007; NELSON, K. J.: *Teaching in the Digital Age: Using the Internet to Increase Student Engagement and Understanding*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press 2008; MILLS, S. C.: *Using the Internet for Active Teaching and Learning*. New Yersey: Prentice Hall 2005; CONRAD, R. M. – DONALDSON, J. A.: *Engaging the Online Learner: Activities and Resources for Creative Instruction (Jossey-Bass Guides to Online Teaching and Learning)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass 2004; GERTSCH, C. A. – BADER, B.: *Lernen und lehren mit Internet*. Aärau: Sauerländer 2000; HERZIG, B. – MEISTER, D. M. – MOSER, H. – NIESYTO, H.: *Jahrbuch Medienpädagogik 8: Medienkompetenz und Web 2.0*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 2010.

Conclusion

It is easy to obtain different teaching and learning resources which can be used in the teaching process today. We are reminded of this fact primarily by the textbooks brimming with various teaching and learning resources. However, a quality teaching process is not determined by the usage of numerous modern teaching and learning resources, but by a teacher's success in using the aforementioned resources to encourage the students to gain knowledge, profile different skills, and accept and adopt positive values and attitudes. In order to achieve the potential tasks of teaching and learning resources successfully, it is extremely important the teacher know how to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of said resources and abide by the rules of their adequate usage. Although determining the stage of working with teaching and learning resources can seem like unifying and uniformed the teaching process, this paper presents them as necessary, bearing in mind the fact that teaching is a complex and often unpredictable process which depends on numerous factors and success of which is primarily ensured by setting the basic rules for all of its segments.

The Role of the Spiritist Community Brotherhood in Radvanice, Silesia in the Organization of the Czechoslovak Spiritist Movement

Andrea Hudáková

Members of the Czechoslovak spiritist movement were trying to form a unified national organization continuously from the beginning of the 20th century, however, they only managed to found several regional centres. In Silesia it was the Spiritist Community Brotherhood which coordinated the process of unification of spiritists in Silesia, Moravia and Slovakia. Spiritist movement in the area was also influenced by Life, another community in Moravská Ostrava.

Key words: *spiritist movement; Silesian spiritists; Spiritist Community Brotherhood*

The first major meeting of Czech spiritists took place in Prague in 1895.[1] The primary objective was to discuss the future form of the spiritist organization in the Lands of the Bohemian Crown. Silesian spiritists participated in these discussion from 1903.[2] The main issue was to resolve, whether spiritists should organize themselves though an oficial society, or whether they should cooperate unoficially. Austro-Hungarian authorities repeatedly took actions against Czech spiritists, therefore spiritist communities did not state the word "spiritism" in their names or in their statutes.

At the meeting of Silesian spiritists in Stonava in March 1914 it was decided to take necessary steps and build a spiritist house[3] with a lecture hall and a community room. The house was built the same year in Radvanice by the newly formed *Construction Community Brotherhood* [Stavební spolek Bratrství].[4] The community was renamed for *Spiritist Community Brotherhood* [Spiritistický spolek Bratrství] on the basis on new statutes approved in 1920 after Czechoslovakia was founded.

Former community statutes from 1914 did not contain any specific rules for the members, nevertheless, they adjusted in detail conditions

1   *Historie spiritismu a jeho vývoj*, Hrabačov 1903, p. 43.
2   Posel záhrobní, 9/1903 (3), p. 142.
3   RÖSNER, J., *Spiritismus ve Slezsku.* Radvanice 1927, p. 41.
4   Zemský archiv v Opavě [Provincial Archives in Opava], (ZAO), f. Policejní ředitelství Moravská Ostrava 1854–1945 (PŘ MO), b. 1071/957.

under which the community houses were to function. These conditions banned serving and drinking alcoholic beverages, smoking, playing immoral games, gambling, breeding and slaughtering animals and consuming meat.[5] At the same time, these restrictions also precisely expressed spiritual requirements on members of the community. At a meeting of a group of Silesian spiritists in 1907, even before establishing the *Construction Community Brotherhood* they accepted a resolution which claimed that whoever intends to be a true spiritist needs to be an abstinent, non-smoker, vegetarian, cannot gamble and fornicate, cannot be a member of any religious sect and has to live morally and virtuously.[6] Although these rules were not acceptable for all the spiritist groups in Silesia, they became the very basis of the *Spiritist Community Brotherhood* official activities.

Therefore, only an abstinent, non-smoker, vegetarian and a non-confessional person could become a regular member of the community.[7] The strict statutes were also accepted by Czechoslovakian spiritists in Vienna,[8] spiritist community in Locenice[9] in southern Bohemia and *Educational Community Jiskra* [Vzdelávajúci spolok Jiskra] in Bratislava,[10] which coordinated spiritist in western and central Slovakia.

Jan Kuchař and Jan Rösner were the two leading personalities of the *Spiritist Community Brotherhood* from the creation of the community until 30 years later. The community had its drama company, orchestra and two choirs. It organized concerts, theatrical plays, exhibitions of media paintings and public lectures, especially from the field of occult science and healthy lifestyle popularization. The community unified spiritists in Silesia in 11 so-called county centres. These were to be found for example in Bohumín, Těšín, Karviná, Petřvald and Frýdek.

In 1927 they had already 400 members and the spiritist house's capacity was not sufficient anymore.[11] In 1931 the community, supported by donations built and ceremonially opened a new hall at the occasion of a national meeting of spiritists which took place in Radvanice. The hall was designed to be a theatre with 500 seats. In 1921, a community called *Brotherhood* also constructed an edifice for the newly founded

5   Ibid.
6   Posel záhrobní, 9/1903 (3), p. 142.
7   ZAO, f. PŘ MO, b. 1071/957.
8   RÖSNER, J.: *Náš sjezd v Praze*. Spiritistická revue, 2/1920 (3), p. 17.
9   Spiritistická revue, 9/1923 (4), p. 103.
10   Slovenský národný archív [Slovak National Archives], f. Krajinský úrad Bratislava 1928 (nezpracovaný fond), b. 73.
11   RÖSNER, J., *Spiritismus ve Slezsku,* p. 59.

Spiritistická revue that was edited by Jan Rösner until 1947. This revue became the main communication tool of the organized spiritist movement directed from Radvanice.

Along with the *Spiritist Community Brotherhood*, it was Život in Moravská Ostrava, a community founded in 1922 by Ferdinand Kučera,[12] former vice-chairman of the *Construction Community Brotherhood,* which unified spiritists in Silesia. Kučera also published and edited a community revue Život*,* which was being published from 1924 until 1928. The community had its centres in Louky[13] (today's Karviná), Karviná,[14] Hranice and Uherský Ostroh[15] in southern Moravia. In 1925 there were 223 members.[16] During the same period the community also built its two-storeyed house with a hall, community rooms and apartments in Mariánské Hory.[17] In 1930's the community *Život* started to cooperate within the organized spiritist movement in Czechoslovakia, however, the number of their own members considerably decreased, as a consequence of repeated changes of its leaders.

After the Second World War, many spiritist communities in Czechoslovakia renewed their activities. Among others, there was *a Spiritist Community Brotherhood* in Radvanice, which continued in its pre-war role and endeavoured to unify Czechoslovakian spiritists again. In 1947 the community counted more than 160 members[18] and regular activities including public lectures were held until the spring of 1951. In July 1951, its activities were officially stopped and the community house was confiscated.[19] Similary, all the Czechoslovakian spiritist communities were officially prevented from continuing their activities in 1948, as the political regime transformed.

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[12] ZAO, f. PŘ MO, b. 2165/848.
[13] Život, 1/1925 (4), pp. 13.
[14] ZAO, f. PŘ MO, b. 2165/848.
[15] ZAO, f. PŘ MO, b. 1191.
[16] Ibid.
[17] Život, 12/1924 (3), pp. 143–144.
[18] ZAO, f. PŘ MO, b. 1071/957.
[19] Ibid.

Czechs and Poles in the Middle Ages.
Rivalry, Cooperation and Alliances

Pavel Krafl

The article contains a description of the development of Czech-Polish relations in the Middle Ages. The author divides Czech-Polish relations in the Middle Ages into three periods. The first period (10th–12th centuries) is characterised by frequent conflicts and rivalry in the struggle for dominion over East-Central Europe. The second period (from the beginning of the 13th century to the 1330s) is characterized by more peaceful relations and the subsequent expansion of Czech power into Silesia and Poland. This period ends in the 1330s, when the newly-established power and political arrangements were formally accepted. The third period (from the 1330s to the beginning of the 16th century) sees a growth in mutual sympathies between the two nations and, at the same time, the rejection of the Czech "heresy" by the Poles. This resulted in the Czech throne being taken up by a Polish dynasty.

Key words: *Middle Ages; Czech-Polish relations; Bohemia; Poland*

In this article, we describe the development of Czech-Polish relations in different periods of the Middle Ages. The fundamental work on the history of Czech-Polish relations is the synthesis entitled *The Czechs and Poles in the Past*, which was edited in the 1960s by Josef Macůrek and Václav Žáček.[1] The literature published after this synthesis is contained in several research reports and bibliographies.[2]

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[1] *Češi a Poláci v minulosti [Czechs and Poles in the past],* I.–II. Ed. J. Macůrek – V. Žáček, Praha 1964–1967. See also KRAFL, P.: *Přehled česko-polských vztahů v 10.–15. století [Overview of Czech-Polish relations in 10th–15th centuries],* Časopis Matice moravské 122, 2003, pp. 147–180 (reviewed by Ivan Hlaváček, in: Deutsches Archiv für Erforschung des Mittelalters 60, 2004, 2, p. 818); KRAFL, P.: *Czesi i Polacy w średniowieczu. Rywalizacja i współpraca [Czech and Poles in the Middle Ages. Rivalry and cooperation],* Wiadomości Historyczne 54, 2010, 4, pp. 5–19.

[2] *Polskie badania Bohemistyczne i czeskie badania Polonistyczne w ostatnim trzydziestoleciu. Nauki historyczne i filologiczne – Polonistické studie v České republice a bohemistické studie v Polské republice v posledních třiceti letech. Historické a filologické obory [Polish studies in the Czech Republic and Bohemian studies in Poland in the last thirty years. Historical and philological studies].* Ed. M. Myška – R. Gladkiewicz, Praha 1995; KRAFL, P. – ŘEZNÍK, M. – VALENTA, J.: *České studium dějin zemí středovýchodní Evropy v letech 1990–2000 (Polsko, Lužice, Maďarsko, Pobaltí) [Czech studies of the history of Central European countries in 1990–2000 (Poland,*

We will divide Czech-Polish relations in the Middle Ages into three periods: i) the 10th–12th centuries; ii) from the beginning of the 13th century to the 1330s; iii) from the 1330s to the beginning of the 16th century. The first period is characterised by frequent conflicts and rivalry in the struggle for dominion over East-Central Europe. The second period is characterized by more peaceful relations and the subsequent expansion of Czech power into Silesia and Poland. This period ends in the 1330s, when the newly-established power and political arrangements were formally accepted. The third period, which covers the late Middle Ages, sees a growth in mutual sympathies between the two nations and, at the same time, the rejection of the Czech "heresy" by the Poles. This resulted in the Czech throne being taken up by a Polish dynasty.

In the 10th–12th century, the coexistence of the two neighbouring countries with similar mother tongues was accompanied by mutual incursions that reflected the distribution of political powers in Central Europe at that time and the internal situations and conditions of individual early states. The rise and fall of individual principalities went hand in hand with the rise and departure of strong dukes. The gaining of control of Lesser Poland (the Cracow region) and Silesia by the Czech Dukes Boleslav I (935–972) and Boleslav II (972–999) resulted in Great Poland that became the centre where the Polish state developed. The crisis in Bohemia after the death of Boleslav II (999) was characterized by the attack of the Polish Duke Boleslav I the Brave (992–1025) on the territories of the Přemyslid Dynasty, including Bohemia. In contrast, from the 1030s it was Poland that was affected by crisis, and the Czech Duke Břetislav I (1035–1055) exploited this situation in order to expand Czech power. The plunder gathered during the campaign in Poland in 1039 included the relics of St. Adalbert. Břetislav I intended to use the relics, stolen from the cathedral church of Gniezno, for the establishment of an archbishopric in

Lusatia, Hungary, Baltic States)]. Slovanské historické studie 27, 2000, pp. 27–80, 155–177; KRAFL, P.: *Milenium Świętego Wojciecha w czeskiej literaturze naukowej [Milenium of St. Adalbert in Czech scientific literature],* Studia teologiczno-historyczne Śląska Opolskiego 21, 2001, pp. 365–374; KRAFL, P. – ŘEZNÍK, M – VALENTA, J., *Czeska polonistyka historyczna w latach 1990–2000 [Czech historical Polonical Studies in 1990–2000],* Kwartalnik historyczny 109, 2002, 4, pp. 71–98; P. Krafl, *Badania nad dziejami Polski, Śląska i stosunkami czesko-polskimi do końca XVII wieku w Republice Czeskiej w latach 1990–2000 [Researches on the history of Poland, Silesia and Czech-Polish relations in the late 17th century in the Czech Republic in 1990–2000],* Rocznik Biblioteki Naukowej PAU i PAN w Krakowie 52, 2007, pp. 449–476; *Česká polonistika a polská bohemistika na přelomu století. Czeska polonistyka i polska bohemistyka na przełomie stuleci [Czech Polonical studies and Polish Bohemical studies at the turn of the century],* ed. M. Borák – R. Gładkiewicz, Praha 2009.

Prague. Later, The Polish Duke Kazimir I (1034–1058) gained control over Silesia. After the fall of the Polish King Boleslav II the Bold (1058–1080), the balance of power shifted back towards the Czech state. Sometimes, these shifts in power resulted in interventions by Roman sovereigns. Also, internal conflicts taking place in the heart of the Czech or Polish state were an excuse for military intervention by the empire. Sometimes, the Czech Duke participated in the Roman sovereign's interventions in Poland. These power struggles concerned efforts to gain control over Silesia, which was alternately under Czech or Polish sovereignty.[3]

The interruption of efforts on the part of the Silesian Dukes Henry I and Henry II to reunite disintegrated Poland after the Mongol incursion of 1241 enabled the Czech sovereign to direct his expansion to the north, i.e. into Silesia and further on into Poland. King Wenceslas II exploited this situation (1278–1305). The bridgehead for entering Poland was principalities in Upper Silesia which became feoffs of the Czech king. The subsequent takeover of the Cracow region, the Sandomierz region, Great Poland, and Gdańsk Pomerania by the Czech King Wenceslas II was a significant contribution to the unification of Poland. The period of the rule of King John of Luxembourg (1310–1346) sharpened relations between the two countries. A distinctive milestone in the development of relations between the Czech and Polish kingdoms was the political negotiations in the Hungarian town of Trenčín (1335) and in Visegrád (1338). The Polish party accepted Czech sovereignty over Silesia and the Czech party accepted the royal title of the Polish King Kazimierz III (1333–1370) (by that time the Czech King John of Luxembourg used the title King of Poland and called the Polish king "the King of Cracow").[4]

The beginning of the third period was characterized by the strengthening of Czech power in Silesia. Mutually negative attitudes were significantly moderated during the rule of King Charles IV (1346–1378). The period of the rule of Wenceslas IV (1378–1419) brought not only a turnabout in foreign policy but also a change in Czech society's perception of Poland. This mutual transformation of attitudes was completed in the Hussite period; at that time we can speak about a Czech fondness for Poland. As far as the policy of the Polish royal court towards the Hussites is concerned, it could be characterized as wait-and-see neutrality. The Polish king pursued a self-serving policy towards the Czech Hussites: the Hussites blocked the military forces of the Bohemian, Hungarian and Roman King Sigismund (King of Bohemia

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[3]   KRAFL, P.: *Přehled...,* op. cit., pp. 150–151.
[4]   *Ibidem,* p. 153.

1419/1436–1437), an ally of the Order of German knights and therefore an enemy of Poland. The majority of the Polish intelligentsia remained faithful to the Church; the awareness of mutual affinity was overshadowed by the rejection of "heresy" by Polish society. In general we can say that throughout the Middle Ages relations between the Czechs and the Poles were the most cordial in the 15th century. The Polish king more or less preferred a dynastic policy (a possibility to gain the Czech crown for the Jagellonians) to efforts to reannex Silesia to Poland.[5]

The policies of the Czech and Polish states with regard to each other also included mutual candidacies for the throne. King Wenceslas II's efforts culminated in his crowning as the Polish king in Gniezno (1300). His son, Wenceslas III (1305–1306), was killed during a campaign aimed at gaining control over the Polish lands that he inherited. An attempt by Sigismund of Luxembourg, the son of Charles IV, who was engaged to Princess Maria, the heiress to the throne of Poland, to gain the Polish crown was unsuccessful. The first Polish ruler who should have been elected the Czech Duke was Bolesław I the Brave (1003). Polish efforts to gain the Czech royal crown appeared as late as the 15th century. Finally, the Czech throne was gained by Vladislav Jagellonian (1471–1516) and then his son Ludvig (1516–1526).[6] The Přemyslid and Piast dynasties were linked through numerous bonds of kinship. The first historically documented bond was the marriage of the Polish Duke Mieszek I (+992) and Doubravka, a daughter of the Czech Duke Boleslav I; Doubravka contributed to the adoption and spread of Christianity in Poland. The wives of Czech sovereigns included Elisabeth-Richenza (called Rejčka), a daughter of Przemysław II of Great Poland, who married the Czech Kings Wenceslas II and then Rudolph of Habsburg (1306–1307). Marriages were also entered into between members of secondary branches of ruling families and members of the aristocracies of both countries.[7]

The most valuable sources of knowledge about the perception of nationality or country in a particular period are narrative sources, especially chronicles. With respect to Polish attitudes, the chronicle by *Gallus Anonymus* from the second decade of the 12th century is of particular interest. The hostility between the Czech and Polish states was reflected in the author's attitude; Gallus calls the Czechs "the most ferocious enemies of the Poles". In his chronicle from the first quarter of

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[5]   *Ibidem,* pp. 154–156.

[6]   *Ibidem,* pp. 156–157.

[7]   *Ibidem,* pp. 157–160.

the 13th century, *Wincenty Kadłubek* follows Gallus's interpretation of Polish-Czech relations. Although he abandoned Gallus's unilaterally negative evaluation of the Czech state, the basic attitude remained unchanged. *Jan of Czarnków* based his chronicle on his own political experience. His negative attitude towards King John of Luxembourg was accompanied by a new element: the idea that antipathy towards the sovereign did not mean antipathy towards the inhabitants of the country under his rule. *Jan Długosz*, a canon in Cracow, used a large number of Czech and Polish documents and chronicles in his 12-volume work called *Annales seu chronice inclyti regni Polonie*. His thoroughly negative attitude was formed by his resistance against the Czech "heretics"; he extended his antipathy to their ancestors as well.[8]

The Czech chronicle by *Kosmas* from the beginning of the 12th century was a counter-balance to the chronicle by Gallus Anonymus. In the same way that the chronicle by Gallus shows a clear anti-Czech attitude, the chronicle by Kosmas also contains an apparent anti-Polish sting. By contrast, the Czech historiography of the second half of the 13th century remained clearly detached regarding cases of mutual conflict. The chronicle by *Přibík Pulkava of Radonín*, written at the time of Charles IV (1344–1378), contains the first literary description of the tale about the brothers Čech and Lech, the forefathers of the Czech and Polish nations. The chronicle was very popular and influenced the awareness of his contemporaries. The legend about the two Slav brothers was then elaborated by Jan Długosz, who made Čech a younger brother of Lech.[9]

We also have a great deal of information about contacts between the Czech and Polish ecclesiastical hierarchies. The step-brother of St. Adalbert, Radim-Gaudencius, became the first metropolitan of Gniezno. After the establishment of the ecclesiastical province in Prague in 1344, Charles IV unsuccessfully attempted to subordinate the bishopric in Wrocław to the Prague archbishopric. There were also frequent bonds between monks. Polish and Czech monasteries of certain orders had a joint organization: Bohemia and Moravia were parts of the Polish province of the Dominicans (1225–1301); the Minors also had a joint Czech-Polish province (1239–1517); Polish and Czech monasteries of the Augustinians were included in the Bohemian-Bavarian province. The Czech Order of the Knights of the Cross with the Red Star expanded to Silesia and Poland. Many monks from Bohemian monasteries found refuge in Silesian and Polish monasteries during the Hussite revolution.

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8   *Ibidem,* pp. 160–162.
9   *Ibidem,* pp. 162–163.

A significant migration of Polish priests to Bohemia took place in the second half of the 15th century.[10]

The mutual influence of Czech and Polish legislation is apparent. We can find several provisions copied word for word from the code of 1349 by the Prague Archbishop Arnošt of Pardubice (1343–1364) in significant provincial statutes by the Gniezno Archbishop Nikolas Trąba (1420). The statutes by Archbishop Arnošt also influenced the statutes by Jakub Korzwi of Syrokomli, the bishop of Płock (1389). In contrast, Czech ecclesiastical legislation is influenced by the legislation by Jakub Świnka, the archbishop of Gniezno; his statutes of 1287 were adopted by the Prague Archbishop John of Jenštejn (1379–1396). The Bohemian mining law was used in Poland. The presence of King Wenceslas II in Poland brought about the establishment of the institution of the royal Hauptman (capitaneus) – a king's representative with full administrative and military powers.[11]

Czech cultural influence spread mostly in Silesia; during the reign of Wenceslas II, Czech culture also spread in Lesser Poland and Great Poland. The majority of books imported to Poland in the 15th century came from Bohemia; the Czech Lands supplied Poland with theological, liturgical and religious educational literature. For example, the Manuscripts of the Polish Queen Hedwika are of Czech origin. Many Polish books were decorated in the workshops of Czech illuminators; one example is the bible by the Gniezno Archbishop Jarosław Skotnicki. The Czech language played the role of official language in documents produced in Poland in the second half of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century. The origins of documents and letters written in the Czech language on Polish territory go back to 1431; the first Czech document is from 1422. The Czech language was used most in the royal office and by certain representatives of central Polish authorities, certain aristocrats, and Czech and Polish mercenaries. It is assumed that the old Polish religious terminology developed before the mid 11th century and was based on the Czech form of the Old Church Slavonic language. There are parallels and links between the military tactics and structures of Hussite armies and the arrangements described in Polish military codes of the first half of the 16th century. Polish military terminology was adopted from the Czech language.[12]

Prague University established in 1349 was of Central-European importance. The Poles had their own university nation there, which

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[10]   *Ibidem,* pp. 163–166.
[11]   *Ibidem,* pp. 168–169.
[12]   *Ibidem,* pp. 169–170.

included, among other things, students and teachers from Silesia. The biggest influx of Polish students was in the last quarter of the 14th century. Nine would-be bishops were among Polish students in Prague. The Prague University studies of Polish students contributed to the development of preaching in Poland at the end of the 14th century. Certain Prague professors of Polish, Czech and German origin took charge of the organization of the restored university in Cracow (1400). Two of the most important of these were the first rector in Cracow, Stanislaw of Skarbimierz, and Jan Isner, who organized a new theological faculty. 25 out of 31 professors at the restored university in Cracow studied in Prague (data from 1404). The start of the Hussite revolution (1419) caused a further decline in the importance of Prague University in the eyes of the Poles.[13]

The cultural and university-level contacts between Prague and Cracow, which flourished especially at the turn of the 15th century, were the basis for the spreading of ideas relating to religious reform in Poland. The reformers Conrad Waldhauser and John Milíč of Kroměříž had their contacts and supporters both in Silesia and Poland. The letters by John Hus were also addressed to the Polish king. Several members of the delegation of the Polish king at the Council in Konstanz added their voice to complaints about the course of the trial of John Hus. During the Hussite revolution, Polish diplomacy had to face efforts by the Order of the German Knights to interpret every attack on the Order as support for the Hussites. The supporters of the Hussites in Poland did not form a broader movement – they were individual sympathisers or small groups gradually eliminated by the inquisition. A number of Czech anti-Hussite theologians found refuge in Poland. Efforts to prevent the spread of the Hussite movement in Poland led to restrictions on the translation of theological works and the Bible into the national language; as a result, these works were translated into Polish much later than into Czech.[14]

Czech kings and Czech military forces participated in crusades on the northern and north-eastern borders of Poland and in conflicts between the Order of the German Knights and Poland. Přemysl Otakar II led two crusades into Prussia (1255, 1267). A number of Czech mercenaries fought on both sides in the war between the Order of the German Knights and Poland between 1409 and 1411. The would-be leader of the Hussites, John Žižka of Trocnov, fought in the large battle near Grunwald/Tannenberg, in which the Polish army was victorious. In 1432,

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13   *Ibidem,* pp. 171–173.
14   *Ibidem,* pp. 173–175.

the Hussites and the Polish king concluded an agreement on mutual help in their struggle with the Order of the German Knights. Then the Hussite army launched its most extensive raid: against the Order of the German Knights in Pomerania (1433).[15]

Conclusion

The attitudes of the Czechs and the Poles towards each other developed throughout the Middle Ages. Czech-Polish xenophobia, typical of the 10th–12th centuries, declined in Czech thinking during the 13th century. The 14th century brought about the legend of the brothers Čech and Lech. The idea of Slavic reciprocity gradually spread in the Czech milieu; this tendency culminated in the 15th century, the Hussite and post-Hussite period, when it was in accord with political interests. The Polish milieu was not so much influenced by the idea of Slavic reciprocity. Polish attitudes were mostly formed by negative attitudes towards the Czech heresy.

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[15] *Ibidem,* pp. 175–176.

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