EDITORIAL BOARD

FOREWORD

Dear readers, dear colleagues!

This year's first issue of Acta Technologica Dubnicae (this is the fourth year of its existence) continues the scientific and professional discourse regarding education. We provide a platform for the scientific community to reflect on how to teach, share experiences, engage, motivate and educate next generations for a modern, knowledge based society. Many European countries, including Slovakia, intend to deal with the problems of education but not to solve them. They are paying attention to the "fundamental problems of education", while they forget about the fact that the system of education is a complex system which requires a complex approach to its improvement. One cannot believe that a simple solution exists to such a complex problem.

Possible sources of financing, as well as the possibilities of interconnecting the scientific sphere with the business sector and preparation of good quality managers are being often discussed in relation to the future of science in Slovakia and the EU. Katarzyna SZCZEPAŃSKA-WOSZCZYNA in her scientific paper presents the results of her survey which identified the importance of key managerial competencies for SMEs managers and defined a whole range of competencies that managers wish to develop. The author highlights that educational systems and school curricula equip young people with knowledge and skills that are later on developed into professional competencies and are an interest in lifelong learning.

The section of professional articles is opened by the paper by Marek WALANCIK, another Polish author, who addresses the issues related to the topic of social information as a basic need in the context of the basic functions of communication in mass media.

The questions of the prevention of drug addiction and the variability of pedagogical, sociological, medical and legislative points of view on the issues of video game addiction are in the centre of the professional article by a pair of Slovenian authors formed by Jana GORIUP and Alexander ARNUŠ. Based on the results of research on the presence of indicators of video game addiction and their relation to family factors, they inform the readers about some possible cases, clinical symptoms and methods of treatment of video game addiction. They also explain why no medical textbook contains any information regarding this disorder.

The following four professional articles are focused on teachers, school pedagogy and the questions of the need for lifelong learning. A Slovak author Milan JOZEK shows the importance of a personal teacher-student contact and the dialogue between them, i.e. the participation aspects of personal freedom, subjective tendencies and intentionality in the process of education. For achieving a full integration of all the social classes into the educational process, he accentuates the need for continuous pedagogical modification of education. Igor MARKS analyses and presents the methods of formative assessment techniques in the classroom environment with the intention to increase the quality of the educational process and to support students' development. He emphasizes the importance of feedback in the educational process. The main theme of the article by Zdzisława DACKO-PIKIEWICZ from Poland is pedagogical and psychological activities within secondary education in Poland and providing students support in the process of choosing the field of their further education. These are modern motivational activities based on the educational needs of the EU. On the pages of our journal, we can meet the issues of medical education for the first time. Jana GORIUP and Kleopatra KODRIČ, a pair of authors from Slovenia, deal with the issues of education of medical students in the field of communication as an important means of patients' health quality improvement. They emphasize the importance of communication that covers a huge part of one's social and professional life. In their article, they bring information from studies that put an accent on communication skills to be developed. The authors suggest to include them in the preparation programmes for doctors and other medical staff, as those who have received training in the field of communication during their studies, are able to get more information from their patients than those who have not been prepared in this field.

Acta brings reviews of two current scientific publications. Viola TAMÁŠOVÁ highlights the most important thoughts and conclusions of Miroslav Frankovský and Daniel Lajčin, the authors of the monograph entitled: Zvládanie náročných situácií v manažérskej práci - Coping with Demanding Situations in Managerial Work (2012).

Slávka ČEPELOVÁ reviews the monograph entitled Kritické a tvorivé myslenie vo vzdelávaní a výskume - Critical and Creative Thinking in Education and Research by Jarmila Novotná and Jana Jurčíková (2013).

In the section of information, one can read about the jubilee of a distinguished personality again. It comes from the pen of Miron ZELINA who has written sincere words about the humanity, friendliness and nobleness of Professor Jozef Konôpka.

The last section is closed by Viola TAMÁŠOVÁ's information and invitation to the 12th Central European Symposium: Economy-Ethics-Politics-Adult

Education: Europe´s Responsibility that will be held this autumn in Debrecen, Hungary.

Our first issue this year is polythematic again. As the Editor of the journal, I am pleased to say that many of the published papers represent an innovative step not only for the novelty of the presented approach, but also for the ways of handling the topic – professional erudition and clarity.

I wish you a pleasant, edifying and constructive reading.

Viola Tamášová
Editor

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INFORMATION

STUDIES

SMEs Managers – A Need for Competence

*Katarzyna Szczepańska-Woszczyna**

Abstract: The issue of managerial competencies is important due to the fact that it is the management staff who are responsible for developing a corporate strategy, especially as far as SMEs are concerned. A process of competence development in SMEs is worth being investigated as it proceeds differently than in big organizations, the experience of which is used in the presented research. SMEs are the driving force of economy in well developed countries. Their competitiveness is largely determined by their managers' competencies. They are inextricably linked with the process of education. Education systems and school curricula equip young people with knowledge and skills that are the basis for the later development of professional competencies and the ability to learn throughout one's life. They are complemented by the process of lifelong learning, various forms of non-formal education and self-education. On the other hand, knowledge of competencies necessary for a given position (in this case managerial) is a source of knowledge for the development of an educational process fulfilling the needs of the labour market. The presented study covers the findings of a test survey, purpose of which was to identify the importance of key managerial competencies, competencies needed by managers in SMEs, and to define a set of competencies that managers wish to develop.
Key words: manager, competence, managerial competencies, small and medium-sized enterprises (SME), educational model.

1 Introduction

The issue of managerial competences is particularly important due to the fact that it is the management staff which is responsible for developing corporate strategy. A manager is a person responsible for implementation of the managerial process, especially for planning and decision making, organizing, leading people and controlling human, financial, material and information resources. He/she is the head of the team (people, organization, organizational unit) and their role is to make the team to achieve the established goals in the

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context of the changing market. The management staff forms a heterogeneous group. Various classifications show the elements differentiating the status of individual managers in organizations.

Studies on competencies must be linked with studies on the process of education. In the Polish educational system, the authoritarian model of education and upbringing has dominated. A graduate educated in this model is properly prepared only for the fulfilment of orders. The authoritarian model assumes that there is one correct picture of the world, and one way to respond to it (Szałach, 2012). It does not allow creativity. In the subjective model of education; graduates can be creative, independently formulate and practically implement new projects. This model can form the basis for developing managerial competencies demanding independence, creativity and invention.

Studies on competencies are conducted primarily in large organizations. Several studies carried out in SMEs confirm the link and the impact of competence development on their competitiveness. However, the researchers argue that it is necessary to look at the competence development in SMEs differently than in large organizations, as the form and conditions are different. SMEs play a key role in shaping the economy. They prevail in the economies of developed countries where the economic development largely depends on their conditions. They are not only a source of economic growth, but mean innovation in all spheres of industry, too. They offer jobs for the citizens of the countries concerned. They also offset the negative economic trends and support the restructuring of industry. A sustainable development of the sector is vital to the economy and is a necessary condition to achieve economic growth for several reasons. Firstly, six out of ten workplaces are created by small and medium-sized enterprises. Secondly, SMEs support industry transformation from traditional forms of production to advanced technologies. Thirdly, SMEs play a significant role in the development of innovations with the aim to increase their own competitiveness. Organizations in this sector also contribute to the development of the global market. Innovation plays a key role in building the competitiveness of SMEs, which is conditioned by competence, especially the competencies of the management staff.

An interest in the issues of the development of individual and organizational competencies is increasing. It has emerged as a consequence of the continuous search for sources of performance and improving the performance of employees, including those at managerial positions. Since McClleland and Boyatzis defined the assumptions of the concept of competencies, their importance, as of a factor of success and a source of competitive advantage of the organization is still growing and is of interest to both the theory and practice of management. Boyatzis (1982) defines the notion of competence broadly, as an essential, fundamental characteristic that results in effective and/or better fulfilment of professional duties. In his opinion, professional competencies represent potentials and capabilities (to do something). The individual's set of

competencies reflects his/her abilities – competencies are identified by the characteristics of a manager who does his/her job really well. These include his/her motivation, personal qualities, skills, self-representation, social roles, knowledge, etc. Hoffman (1999) highlights the fact that the meaning of "competence" depends on the purpose of using it. He distinguishes two meanings of the term: 1) relating to the results, the effects of actions; it is a satisfactory performance of assigned tasks - competence as an observable performance, 2) relating to the essential characteristics, attributes required of a person to achieve satisfactory results - competence as an attribute of a person. In addition to knowledge, skills, specific standards of behaviour and components of competence, Spencer (1993) lists ethical values and enthusiasm, depending on an individual's predispositions that are extremely difficult to learn, yet, according to the author, critical for performing tasks. Before the term "competence" had been introduced, terms such as abilities, skills, predispositions, qualifications, and work potential were used in literature. Currently, these terms are considered the basic elements of competence. For example, Lévy-Leboyer (1997) believes that competencies refer to an integrated use of abilities, personality traits, as well as knowledge and skills to complete a task successfully). According to Rakowska and Sitko-Lutek (2000) and Filipowicz (2004), competence can be defined by three components: knowledge, skills and attitudes. Rostowski's (2008) definition includes the following elements: talents, skills, abilities, knowledge, physical skills, style, personality, principles, values, and interests. According to Walczak (2009), competencies include: knowledge (explicit and implicit), skills, abilities, the system of values and personality traits. Oleksyn (2010) and Pocztowski (2003) pay attention to the fact that contemporary understanding of managerial competencies is very broad and is close (and even tantamount) to the concept of human capital. This understanding of competence includes: talents, predispositions, interests and internal motivation (Oleksyn considers them the most important components of competence); education and knowledge (inter-related), which are not of such an importance as it is generally thought (due to the varying quality of education), professional experience and practical skills, based on both the years of work and the amount and variety of professional experiences, as well as attitudes, behaviour, characteristic features, psycho-physical condition, the formal right to act on behalf of the organization, powers of attorney given and health.

The concept of managerial competency (and competencies) can be contrasted with the job-related concepts of competence (and competencies). Woodruffe (1991) distinguishes the areas of competence, related to functions of the job that an individual can perform, from competency, referring to a person's behaviour underpinning his/her competent performance. A holistic model of professional competence has been developed by Cheetham and Chivers (1996, 1998) comprising five sets of inter-connected competency and competencies. A modified version of the Cheetham and Chivers model, distinguishing cognitive

and functional competencies, personal (and ethical) competencies, and over-arching meta-competencies, has been used to predict future management skill needs (Winterton et al., 2000). These four dimensions provide a convenient framework within which the competencies of SME managers, that must be developed, can be considered: tacit/practical knowledge linked with, for instance, specific functional competences; technical/theoretical knowledge representing the underlying principles and theories of the managerial profession; procedural knowledge; contextual knowledge, background knowledge that is specific for the organization and the sector in which a manager operates.

The need for competence in SMEs may seem difficult to define due to the diversity of their activities and conditions. There are, however, attempts to define and describe them in the form of models, which are the starting point for the further development of competence. A research conducted by J. Carr (Carr, 1999) shows that the area of common training needs of SMEs is broadly defined by the management. People starting their business activity usually know well their product, technology, and the sector they want to operate in, but they lack knowledge of management, which has not been their domain so far. The competencies needed for SMEs also include those that are not directly related to the product and technical knowledge. Replies of the respondents in the study showed the emerging common needs for the following areas: finance, marketing and sales, human resource management, export, information technology, and strategy/planning. M. Wawrzeńczyk-Kulik (2010) quotes competencies of a small business entrepreneur developed by an international team as a part of the Leonardo da Vinci project. The research carried out within the project, based on psychometric and statistical analysis, helped to distinguish eight general and seven specific competencies, essential for managers of small and medium-sized enterprises. The defined general competencies include: innovation, planning, cooperation, leadership, decision making, self-confidence, perseverance and problem solving. Special competences include: knowledge of the staff; of the assessment and incentive systems; knowledge of recruitment and human resource management; knowledge of advertising and marketing; knowledge of the market; knowledge of production and logistics and knowledge of finance and law. The core competence of managers, which is one of the basic conditions for the development of the SME sector, is the managers' ability to obtain information and to share it with the employees. According to a research conducted by T. Copp (2011), managers associate competences with: interpersonal competences, interpersonal intelligence, interpersonal skills (motivating), knowledge, experience, expertise, reliability, openness, and communication skills. For managers, the most important competencies in business management are: leadership skills (75%), objectives and activity management (67.85 %), human resources management (67.85%), expertise (46.42 %), objectivity (25%), self-control (17.85%). M. Lis (2012) highlights the importance of competences related to quality management. As an example, we

can mention the model used in companies implementing integrated systems using WCM - World Class Manufacturing methods. This innovative approach to management aims to combine the best practices in the sphere of production, i.e. the process of the improvement and innovation of everyday activities.

2 Methodology and research methods

The aim of the research was to identify the employers' expectations from the recruited management staff and the employees, as for their knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour. Based on the theory of managerial competencies, the goal of the study and the intention of the research was to answers to the following questions:

What kind of knowledge, combined with skills and competencies, do managers employed in SMEs have? To what extent are they useful in their work? What do the employers expect from the managers and how do they assess their ability and willingness to perform their professional duties? What does results from the comparison of the model of education and signals from the labour market?

The research was conducted by means of a direct survey. The instrument of data collection was a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions with a mixture of Likert-scale, multiple choice and closed-ended questions. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: the expectations of employers from the management staff in terms of knowledge, skills, qualities and attitudes; the managers' education and demographic data.

200 employers (owners, managers, their agents or employees responsible for the personnel policy of companies in Silesia Region (Poland)) took part in the research. We excluded the respondents who failed to answer at least 20 per cent of the questions. A total number of 180 usable questionnaires was received. The survey was anonymous. Most of the represented companies operated in the private sector (75%), the remaining 25%, in the state sector. The companies surveyed had their headquarters in cities of all sizes, including more than 40% of cities with a population over 100 thousand residents. The enterprises were of different sizes (employment criterion): micro-enterprises accounted for 55.3% of the respondents, small ones – over 25.5% of respondents and the medium sized ones - 19.3%. The highest number of respondents was from the field of business (20.6%), then manufacturing (10.2 %), public administration (10.0%), construction (8.9%), financial intermediation (6.1%); transportation, warehouse management, communication (5.6%) and others followed. The respondents completed education as follows: higher education (67.2%): economic education - 19.8%, managerial or technical education - 16.5%, and higher education in the field of humanities - 13.2%; secondary education (16.1%): economic education - 13.8% and technical education - 13.8%; post-secondary education (10.0%): economic education - 38.9 %, technical education - 16.7%.

The survey was sample-based. Non-random sampling was applied, advantages and disadvantages specific to this method of sampling were considered (Steczkowski, 1995). A small group of those surveyed does not authorize to make generalizations, but allows the identification of specific mechanisms, formulation of questions and of conclusions. Tested on a larger sample, the formulation of more certain, useful theses on a larger scale would be possible. The data were collected in July and September 2012.

Contingency tables were used to analyse the gathered data. Counted values of the relationship measures were merely supplement to the interpretation of the content of contingency tables. The chi-square test, Cramer's V coefficient and Lambda Λ were used to analyse the measures of the relationship strength between the variables. Data analysis was accomplished using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.

3 Findings

While recruiting new employees for managerial positions, employers take into account the criteria that characterize the candidates as for their suitability (usefulness) and for the expected professional roles. The assessment was based on 14 evaluation criteria. The data obtained indicate that experience of the hired managers is very important– it is taken into account by 58.3% of employers. Almost half of the respondents chose the following criteria: a degree in a specific field of study (50.6%), knowledge of foreign languages - 46.1%, personality traits and character ("good impression"). The employers are willing to employ those applicants who have sufficient qualification and certificates from additional courses, training, etc. (28.9 %) and who, before they start working, have done internships and have taken placements (25.0%). Only 3.9% of the respondents are ready to hire people without professional experience for a managerial position. According to these employers, employees with no previous work experience do not bring negative behaviour, habits and experiences and they have lower salary demands. The criteria which employers take into account the least are the demographic criteria. The family situation of the candidate and his/her place of residence are taken into consideration by 2.8% of the respondents, gender by 3.9% and the age by 8.9% of respondents.

As the size of the company was expected to be an important factor, various attitudes of the employers, their views on the recruitment criteria were compared (different things are expected from a small company employee and the specific character of a large organization may affect other employer' requirements). In all three groups, the most important recruitment criterion was the applicants' professional experience (53.9 - 64.5% of the responses). Personal qualities of the applicants were considered important as well. In small and medium-sized companies, a candidate's qualification is important. In companies employing many people, job positions become specialized, so it is important to adjust

education, while in micro-companies one person often performs a wide variety of activities adapting to the specific character of the company, so willingness to learn and adaptability are more important than the particular field of completed study. In medium-sized enterprises, qualification in a particular field an additional courses, training, etc. are important, as indicated by almost one half of the responses. This means that medium-sized companies prefer managers prepared for the job by external institutions. In micro-companies, neither a higher education diploma, computer skills, nor the type of higher education are of such an importance as it is in the case of bigger companies. In the smallest companies, recommendations from third parties are decisive. This group of employers, unlike in bigger companies, would considers hiring managers with no previous work experience (6.7% of the responses). Detailed data are presented in Table 1.

Criterion	Percentage of responses	Percentage of observations	Company size (by number of employees) (in %)		
			Up to 9 people	10-49 people	50-240 people
Professional experience	15.6	58.3	**53.9**	**63.4**	**64.5**
Field of study	13.5	50.6	37.1	**68.3**	**51.6**
Language skills	12.3	46.1	**50.6**	43.9	38.7
Traits of personality and character ("good impression")	11.7	43.9	**39.3**	**46.3**	**54.8**
Qualifications confirmed with the certificate and certificates of completing the additional course	7.7	28.9	27.0	24.4	48.4
Internship or placement	6.7	25.0	23.6	26.8	19.4
Higher education diploma (without specifying a field of study)	4.6	17.2	11.2	19.5	29.0
Results of a competence test or other, professional examinations	4.6	17.2	21.3	12.2	9.7
Computer skills	4.0	15.0	6.7	22.0	29.0
Recommendations by other people	3.6	13.3	18.0	7.3	12.9
Type of university (public/non-public)	2.8	10.6	5.6	12.2	16.1
Experience gained abroad	1.5	5.6	5.6	4.9	6.5
No professional experience (the company will prepare to work best)	1.0	3.9	6.7	2.4	0.0
Family situation, place of residence	0.7	2.8	1.1	4.9	3.2
Total	100.0	375.0			

Tab. 1 The main criteria taken into consideration by employers hiring managers (multiple answers) by company size (number of employees)

Another group of ratings is related to the candidates' skills and qualities for managerial positions. Almost one half of the respondents appreciates applicants' willingness to improve qualifications and their focus on development. One in three employers considers the candidates' general intelligence (erudition, reaction), creativity (the perceived "individuality" in conversation and behaviour), communication skills, knowledge about the industry, about the market the company operates in, as well as certificates, to be important. The ranking by employers in this group of criteria is presented in Table 2.

Criterion	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Transport, warehouse management	Financial intermediation	Public administration
Knowledge confirmed with certificates	22.7	12.5	24.3	20.0	27.3	66.7
Willingness to improve qualifications, focus on development	31.8	43.8	45.9	30.0	36.4	55.6
Professional experience	72.7	56.2	59.5	70.0	54.5	50.0
Availability	4.5	37.5	24.3	20.0	0.0	22.2
Creativity	40.9	31.2	45.9	40.0	36.4	44.4
Qualifications not confirmed with certificates	22.7	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.0	5.6
Age	13.6	12.5	8.1	0.0	0.0	11.1
General intelligence (erudition, reactions)	63.6	37.5	29.7	60.0	9.1	33.3
Gender	4.5	0.0	8.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Defined specialist professional skills	31.8	50.0	27.0	0.0	45.5	38.9
Interests, hobbies	4.5	0.0	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Knowledge of the industry, market, company activities	45.5	18.8	40.5	30.0	54.5	27.8
Knowledge of law	0.0	6.2	5.4	0.0	18.2	11.1
Presentation skills	0.0	12.5	16.2	10.0	9.1	11.1
Cultural behaviour	4.5	37.5	16.2	0.0	27.3	11.1
Interpersonal skills	27.3	18.8	8.1	30.0	27.3	11.1
Negotiation skills	13.6	43.8	10.8	10.0	9.1	0.0

Tab. 2 Key features that determine the recruitment of candidates for managerial positions (multiple answers) by sectors (in %)

The structure of competencies consists of, inter alia: theoretical and practical knowledge (general and special), skills (proficiency when using relevant knowledge while performing tasks) and certain characteristics and attitudes, i.e. one's reactions to the environment. Such a structure of competencies was used to identify employers' expectations from the people to be employed or working managers. According to more than 60% of the respondents, from the point of view of the labour market, usefulness of knowledge, selected skills typical for middle and senior managers and general economic knowledge are important, as well as knowledge of the latest trends in organization and management (approx. 40 % of respondents believed that this knowledge is important and about 13% of respondents considered it to be unnecessary). The need for general knowledge in humanities was ranked the lowest (17% of the respondents believe that it is needed, almost one in two thinks quite the opposite). When the ambition of being an entrepreneur or a manager, one's access to sources of knowledge is much better, but at the same time, one has to face a number of specific barriers related to the environment (Szczepańska-Woszczyna and Dacko-Pikiewicz, 2007, Dacko-Pikiewicz, 2008, Kurowska-Pysz, 2012). According to the respondents, it is not only important to possess knowledge, but above all, it is essential to be able to apply it into practice. For more than 70% of the respondents, the capacity to solve problems and to make decisions was decisive, computing skills, using email and the Internet were of a high importance for almost 90% of the respondents. Almost 80% of the respondents believe that interpersonal skills (networking, the ability not to alienate people, empathy) are necessary (only 4% thinks the opposite), the ability to work in a group (team work) (respectively approx. 75% and 2%). Opinions of the representatives of state-owned enterprises were only slightly different from the opinions of the representatives of private companies. Individual respondents' ratings of the components of knowledge and skills were the basis for calculating their average ratings, which are considered an indicator of the desired set of components of knowledge managers must have. Components of knowledge and skills expected by employers are presented in Table 3.

Knowledge and skills	Not necessary-1	2	3	4	Very necessary-5	Average rating
General economic knowledge	9.0	19.1	34.0	28.2	9.6	**3.10**
General humanistic knowledge	23.5	29.9	28.3	14.4	3.7	**2.45**
Knowledge of management and its application, knowledge of new trends in organization and management	6.5	12.9	31.2	33.3	16.1	**3.40**
Managerial and leadership skills	6.4	9.0	24.5	34.6	25.5	**3.64**
HR management skills	8.6	12.4	22.6	29.0	27.4	**3.54**
Skills of financial analysis and planning	7.4	16.5	21.8	31.4	22.9	**3.46**
Skills of managing financial and material resources	8.5	11.2	26.1	31.9	22.3	**3.48**
Skills of using marketing tools, marketing management	9.0	14.	22.3	31.9	22.3	**3.44**
Skills of using financial accounting instruments	13.4	17.7	18.8	32.8	17.2	**3.23**
Skills of using modern technology, production processes	14.0	12.4	23.7	33.9	16.1	**3.26**
Problem solving and decision-making skills	0.5	5.3	23.0	37.4	33.7	**3.98**
Argumentation and persuasion skills	1.1	7.0	22.0	34.9	34.9	**3.96**
Skills of transferring and sharing knowledge	2.7	5.9	29.6	36.0	25.8	**3.76**
Interpersonal skills (networking, an ability not to alienate people, empathy	1.1	5.9	13.9	42.2	36.9	**4.08**
Team –working skills	2.1	5.9	14.9	38.8	38.3	**4.05**
Listening and obedience skills (accepting superiors' orders)	2.7	7.0	30.1	32.8	27.4	**3.75**
Creative skills (proposing ideas, changes, observation of the market and competitors)	5.3	4.8	22.3	37.2	30.2	**3.82**
Using a computer, email and the Internet	3.2	5.3	15.5	33.7	42.2	**4.06**
Foreign language skills	8.6	11.3	30.1	25.3	24.7	**3.46**
Taking risk (even at the expense of unsuccessful undertakings)	9.1	10.8	28.5	36.0	15.6	**3.38**

Tab. 3 Usefulness of knowledge and skills in managers' careers

The vast majority of employers expect that the candidates for managerial positions have certain characteristics, abilities and behaviours. The characteristics ranked the highest include: responsibility, loyalty to the company and superiors, regularity, reliability, honesty, ethics and truthfulness. As far as these characteristics are concerned, almost all the respondents (95.0%, 90.0%, 87.3% and 87.8%) believe that these represent the qualities a candidate should possess.

The findings of the research indicate that creativity (proposing new ideas, recognizing potential chances, looking for opportunities) is highly valued by 81.6 % of the respondents, 2.3% of the respondents do not find it necessary. The same applies to independence, activity, initiative (78.8% and 1.7% respectively), and self-control in stressful situations (86.6 % and 0.6 % respectively). These qualities indicate the expectations of a creative approach to tasks assigned and promote a more individualistic approach. Many of the required qualities are related to the need to cooperate with other people, so qualities like the capability take joint action (important to 66.2% of the respondents), friendliness, openness to the problems of others (62.3%) are desired. The employers expect subordinates to have a creative approach to tasks, but only within the precisely defined limits, which means that creativity is not a part of the individual's development, but rather a tool used by the employer. Despite the fact tha employers prefer employees who are individualists, this individualism is clearly embedded within the group which defines it. Employers also appreciate such qualities as: innovation, flexibility (availability) and confidence (decisiveness). The qualities which the respondents ranked the lowest included: resigning easily, succumbing to the difficulties, striving for the maximum amount of benefits and competing with the others (taking care of their own interests). Employers are not searching for charismatic leaders, but creative employees, who are, at the same time, responsible and independent, but only within the defined limits. The desired characteristics that a candidate for a managerial position should have are presented in Table 4.

Attitudes and behaviours	Not necessary- 1	2	3	4	Very necessary- 5	Average score
Assertiveness	4.8	4.8	25.1	33.2	32.1	**3.83**
Honesty, ethics, truthfulness	3.7	7.0	19.8	34.8	34.8	**3.90**
Creativity (proposing new ideas, recognizing potential chances, looking for opportunities)	0.5	3.7	19.1	34.6	42.0	**4.31**
Innovation (implementing ideas, undertaking new tasks)	1.1	4.8	19.7	44.7	29.8	**3.97**
Responsibility	1.6	1.6	13.3	35.6	47.9	**4.27**
Self-control in stressful situations	0.5	2.1	10.6	42.9	43.9	**4.28**
Confidence (decisiveness)	0.5	1.6	14.9	43.1	39.9	**4.20**
Loyalty to the company and superiors	1.1	3.2	22.3	38.8	34.6	**4.03**
Independence, activity, innitiative	1.1	2.1	15.5	46.5	34.8	**4.12**
Regularity, reliability	1.1	1.1	20.7	42.0	35.1	**4.09**
Professional flexibility, availability	0.5	5.9	22.3	46.3	25.0	**3.89**
Taking joint actions	1.1	6.9	32.3	38.1	21.7	**3.72**
Taking risk	2.7	9.6	30.3	37.8	19.7	**3.62**
Openness to "otherness"	5.9	24.1	36.8	21.4	12.8	**3.11**
Resigning easily, succumbing to difficulties	36.5	17.5	19.6	21.2	5.3	**2.41**
Friendliness, openness to the problems of the others, kindness	2.1	10.2	25.1	46.5	16.0	**3.64**
Self-investment (willingness to improve one's skills)	4.8	6.9	14.4	48.9	25.0	**3.82**
Competing with others (taking care of their own interests)	9.0	16.5	25.0	32.4	17.0	**3.32**
Optimism, joy of life	2.1	9.6	27.7	39.4	21.3	**3.68**
Striving to achieve maximum own benefits	7.5	17.6	29.4	31.0	14.4	**3.27**

Tab. 4 Usefulness of attitude and behaviour in managers' career

According to the respondents, not only education is important, but also the field of studies a candidate has completed. The employers think that a degree in economics can guarantee success in the labour market. According to the respondents, the graduates from the following fields have the best chance in the labour market: finance and accounting (app. 27.2%), computer science and econometrics (24.4%) and economics (1/5 of the responses), and graduates in

science of commodities have a little chance. The research confirms a decline of interest in management graduates which is noticed in the labour market. Referring the opinions about the chance of employment of candidates for managerial positions, the following relationships can be seen:

- finance and accounting graduates are in the greatest demand by financial intermediation (55%) and public administration (45%); employers in all industries see great employment chances for graduates in this field,
- management graduates are perceived as needed in transport, warehouse management (30% of the responses), public administration (17%) and in trade (13.5%),
- economics graduates are needed in transportation business, trade and construction (25-30%),
- employers in the manufacturing industry and in trade and construction recognize the importance of marketing (18.2% and 12 - 13.5%),
- banking arouses interest only in financial intermediation (18.2%),
- computer science and econometrics are highly valued in the construction sector (almost 44%) and manufacturing (37%).

4 Discussion and conclusions

The findings indicate that experience is very important for businesses that employ people on managerial positions when hiring managers. It is an important element regardless the size of the company, where a manager is going to be employed. Experience is characterised as knowledge and skills revealed in performing tasks and solving problems. One's experience cannot only be measured by the number of years of service as it is not always tantamount to a better performance at work. Career development from lower to higher positions gives the knowledge on how to do a job, what difficulties and problems employees face, which forms of management are effective, how people work in teams, what encourages them to work, and what weakens their motivation. It also gives the knowledge of their own preferences as to the style and type of job. A manager's experience has an impact on the quality of his/her work and his/her components of competence. The gained experience allows him/her to learn new ways of obtaining and applying knowledge in practice, which in turn allows him/her to acquire new skills, change attitudes and create new behaviours.

The questioned employers look for qualified managers who have completed additional courses and training as well. In companies employing many people, job positions are specialized, so relevant education should be provided to them. It also means that employers mainly count on the candidates' preparedness for their job, while education in the given field should be provided by external institutions. They have no plan of intensive training for managers but they want to have immediate benefits from the work of the employed managers. This confirms the opinion of other authors that in SMEs, there are no training plans

developed in terms of the direction and the system, they are rather a response to the needs arising from changes in the environment.

From the point of view of the labour market, usefulness of knowledge and skills specific to middle and senior managers, as well as general economic knowledge, knowledge of the latest trends in organization and management are the most important. These findings correspond with the assumptions of J. Carr, who asserts that the area of common training needs of SMEs is broadly defined by their management. SMEs possess knowledge of their products, technologies and the sector they operate in, but they lack knowledge of management.

The following managers' qualities are considered important: responsibility, loyalty to the company and superiors, regularity, reliability, honesty, ethics and truthfulness. The employers expect their subordinates to have a creative approach to tasks, but only within the limits they determine. It means that creativity is not a part of individual development, but rather a tool used by employers. We can assume that employers prefer employees who are individualists, but this individualism is clearly embedded within the group which defines it. These are the characteristics of small organizations where most employees know each other. The manager of a company is a "universal leader", who becomes almost a "member of the organization family", he is not an anonymous "jumper", typical for large corporations. The manager extracts efficiency out of existing resources, especially the human ones, and neutralizes their weaknesses.

In relevant literature, authors mention several dozens of competences, however, it should be noted that it is extremely difficult to isolate a competence and treat it individually as independent, separated from others; competences are interdependent. However, a group of competencies being the basis for the others can be distinguished. Each concept must take into account the diversity of the business world, if it is expected to have a practical application. Creation of new competences is a matter of convention.

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ARTICLES

The Society of the 21ˢᵗ Century – A Need for Information in Communication

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Abstract: The author in this article points to the need for information as a fundamental human need in the information society. The realization of this need is a part of the process of communication which is a kind of social phenomenon. The author seeks to entice the reader to satisfy the information needs related to the problem. He notes that satisfying the information needs and the provision of specific information is an ongoing continuing process of education.
Key words: need for information, communication, society, education.

1 Introduction

My considerations concerning the need for social information will refer to the information needs of a primary man in the context of mass media basic functions in a contemporary society. The process of communication is a specific phenomenon, "it is an inseparable element of human functioning in a society." (Majka-Rostek, 2010). It refers to all stages of humanity development and it includes all individuals and social groups, so communication has become a process both in information and semantic perspectives. Communication connects, joints and unites all the aspects of social life. Therefore, the history of communication is inseparably connected with the stages of social development. With reference to Tomasz Goban-Klas's opinion, it is an advantage to distinguish, on the basis of used materials, the categories of epochs (the Stone Age, the Bronze Age and the Iron Age) according to the archeological division. "But it is more accurate to classify the historical epochs on the basis of used communication, meaning there are Homo Sapiens and basic culture instruments." (Goban-Klas, 1999) These are the eras of signs and signals, writing, printing, mass communication, telecommunication and computerization. Definitely, an acceleration came after the invention of the telegraph. Inventions like the telephone, photograph, the gramophone record, film, radio and

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television were being developed rapidly. This dynamic development in the scope of mass communication meant that the above mentioned inventions had a short history. Almost all of them were used by masses in the second half of 19th century (press), radio and television after World War II. "The awareness of our globe citizenship was shaped between the second half of the 19th century and at the end of the 80's in the 20th century it came by mass media." (Mattelart and Mattelart, 2001) The second half of the 20th century is called the era of computers and the Internet. Due to the fact that entire social situations refer to the communication process, which includes all the forms of human interaction (interactions of everyday and public lives, interaction among units or social groups), information seem to be crucial. The contemporary reality is characterized by people and cultures. The interdependence causes us to face requirements in the scope of the communication process. It is not related to the mobility of people, although the transport technology is constantly improving, but it is about technologies connected with the flow of information. The contemporary, globalized world forces us to acquire intercultural competencies, to be familiar with new communication technology that is accelerating the flow of information as well as increasing the scope of information transmitted, liquidating the time and space boundaries at the same time.

2 The communication process and the functions of communication

Before I proceed to the analysis of these information needs, I will briefly present the concept of communication and its functions. The traditional social studies ambiguity and the multiplicity concept will occur here. In the contemporary world, these concepts are commonly used. It is assumed that in order to understand the concept of communication, the following definition presented in 1909 by Cooley has prevailed: "Communication is understood as a mechanism, by means of which human relations can exist and can be developed. This mechanism takes into account all intellect symbols including mass media, transmitting those symbols in space as well as behavior in time. It involves face expressions, postures, gestures, a voice tone, words, writing, printing, railways, telegraphs, telephones and all these which can be called achievements of time and space conquest." The gradual separation of transport and communication means less communication to evaluate as a culture element. The defining extent is difficult because the process involves all aspects of social life as well as culture.

Principally, there are two or even three perspectives of defining communication - the communicatory and the semantic. From the first perspective, communication is regarded as an information transmission from one place to another, in the second one it is considered a process of giving the meaning to broadly understood stimuli. The third perspective joins the first and the second

one saying that "Communication uses information in order to create meanings." (Frey et al., 1991) According to pragmatic linguistics mentioned by Zbigniew Nęcki, communication is considered as a conventional exchange of verbal and nonverbal signs (symbols) (Nęcki, 2001). Such an approach indicates the intentionality of behavior as well as the acceptance of a defined set of signs and symbols. Sperbra and Wilson's (1986) definition characterizes communication as the intentional, modifiable space in the recipient's perceptional sphere, it is about communication in the context of ambiguity of an information carrier. In this case, the communication acts are something like puzzles – easy or difficult to percept. Communication is in progress thanks to the transmitted symbols, not necessarily words. These can be things such as architectonic activities, behaviors (houses, decorations, constructions of the Mexican or Israeli Walls, the demolition of the Berlin Wall) or even graphical signs, graphic words (i.e. a logotype) (Szczepańska-Woszczyna, 2010).

The separation of communication from language seems to be crucial. We find signs, signals and symbols here. The first ones are called internal stimuli referring to other objects, the second ones are created by living organisms and the third ones can refer to abstract objects. The language is a tool of information processing and transmitting in the process of communication. In this process, we should take into consideration the symbolic aspect of a language. The utterance context (linguistic, instrumental, interpersonal and cultural) also seems to be of importance. The linguistic context refers to former utterances hence they have been linked with current communication. The instrumental context is considered as a task and situation area linked with a communication process. The interpersonal context is an important element of current communication with an interlocutor. The cultural context refers to the interpretation of facts defined in a way specific for a given culture.

The communication process is conducted on many levels and it performs defined functions. Its levels are as follows: the intra-personal level (communication with oneself), inter-personal (two or more people), group level (communication on the basis of social roles), and social level (partners' recognizing it is not crucial). Communication possesses its informative, integrating, persuasive and instructive functions, but it should also be mentioned that activity coordination and message transmission have an influence other people.

3 The need for information as a basic need

It seems to be crucial for further research to define the following terminology: social information and information needs. Michał Szulczewski's (1979) statement is frequently adopted. It defines social information as a part of knowledge transferred by all forms of communication between people used in the context of the surrounding world's orientation and activities.

Before I proceed to the description of the concept of information needs, it is worth paying attention to the fact that from the psychological point of view, according to Tadeusz Tomaszewski (1978), the properties of living organisms are described by means of the concept called "a need". It explains that in order to stay alive, develop and reproduce, several conditions must be maintained. The development prevention or violation or destruction of any structures are the consequences of not fulfilling those requirements. It does not raise any doubts that information plays a social role. With reference to above quoted Szulczewski (1979): "Information needs are objective, their importance is specifically descriptive, they can refer to indicated situations that are described as perceptible or lack of sufficient understanding. So they should be met in order to make an individual or a society function properly."

In the opinion of Anna Kozłowska (2006), two states like "the state of a man being informed and the state of a man not being informed" should be distinguished to understand the concept of the information needs in full. The first state reflects the level of meeting information needs by a man. It usually decides on a social well-being, it also constitutes an important condition describing the method as well as the quality of functioning of a given individual in the surrounding world (Kozłowska, 2006). Meeting man's information needs is the implementation of his safety necessities, but on the other hand, information can cause a man to feel threatened. All undertaken activities aim at increasing the level of public information. With reference to Wiesław Sonczyk (1999), it is not only about the quantitative increase of communication entities, but above all, the increase of the amount of information that is accepted by a society, taking into account the society's interests, aspirations and values. The second state describes the situation "where a given individual or a social group do not meet their information needs. It brings intense consequences for them. The consequences usually concern the conviction of insufficient knowledge on the surrounding world, the feeling of collected life limited participation as well as the awareness of a reduced opportunity of individual expression." (Sonczyk, 1999). This state is considered to be a destructive condition for an individual or for a social group. It also weakens the community's readiness to undertake activities, thereby decreasing individual expression or opportunities. As a consequence, it can lead to exclusion and social marginalization understood as a state or a process in a social structure, which is manifested in limited opportunities using commonly available goods and forms of a collective life. Both phenomena seem to be inseparable, to occur in every society and on every stage of development. The phenomena's commonness and stability make them a prosaic and an all-too-familiar element of society in which there are consequences, loss of power for arousing emotions and objections. It is commonly accepted as a normal thing that in everyday society there are individuals and groups typical for a "not being informed state" that create the, so called, groups that are rejected (the excluded or marginalized). The system of specific relationships between the state of a man

being informed and the state of a man not being informed", as well as the personality of people who create those groups, has an important influence on the position in those groups. In the opinion of Maria Jarosz (2007), "the concepts of social exclusion and social marginalization are phenomena, the size and structures of which are not entirely known".

It is worth paying attention to the category of information needed in the case of scientific information. Without going into defining information itself, we can assume that it is a complex concept and "that it is difficult to define and describe this concept in a uniform and satisfactory way that would be acceptable by different researchers." (Stefanowicz, 2004) I agree that the concept of information needed is a permanent fixture in science, especially in problems devoted to management. David Nicholas, the British researcher, has "described information needs in the following categories: a subject/course, a function, a type, an intellectual level, a point of view, quantity, quality, credibility, a chronological range and timeliness, a delivery speed, a place of publication or a place of information creating, processing and packaging." (Materska, 2007) Maria Próchnicka (2004) presents the information needs as a category of user's subjective experience. According to the quoted author, the information need leads to cognitive activities performed by a user. The activities include the feature analysis of a situation where the following operations take place: searching, components defining, finding mutual relations among these activities, precise objectives determining, constructing action plans, searching for goals, plan evaluations and verifications after completing the process. With reference to Katarzyna Materska (2007), "On the basis of scientific information, information needs are often considered in categories of man's cogitative needs i.e. some gaps and shortages of mental knowledge and possibilities of understanding something. These gaps can be expressed/represented in the form of questions or words that are reported to information – search systems or to other sources. Meeting a cognitive need means then searching for information that exists objectively in a document or in an information system and whose description is accepted by a user." With reference to Jadwiga Woźniak (1989), the existence of a separate subcategory of information needs requires a discussion. In the author's opinion, man's needs such as physiological and emotional can be met (directly or indirectly) thanks to information. As it is quoted by Wanda Pindlowa (2004), information needs reflect user's knowledge gaps, gaps about the user himself and about his surroundings. They can be a basis for a conclusion that concerns a user's convictions and goals as well as his knowledge, self-knowledge or the lack of knowledge (our knowledge can be completed but our ignorance is infinite). All of these are used, for example, in the construction of intelligent information search systems (Próchnicka, 2000). As it is ascertained by Materska (2007), "Knowledge shortage can represent different types of small gaps, larger gaps, uncertainty and the lack of linkages (cohesion) among the knowledge particular elements. The hypothesis of Nikolas Belkin (1980, 1982)

treating the information need as an abnormal state of knowledge, *(anomalous stale of knowledge* – ASK), assumes that knowledge seekers often are not able to define their information needs as long as they can easily express what they do not know and what is the knowledge they lack." In an organization, in social functioning, an individual requires information to meet his needs. A part of seekers has acquired information so far, a part of them is involved in the process of information acquisition. As it is noticed by Józef Oleński (2004), some information often exist out of an individual's reach creating an information gap.

4 Conclusions

With reference to Szulczewski (1979), it can be assumed that information should be treated. On one hand, as a necessary element of individuals' and social groups' activities in a public life and as a factor that harmonizes all those activity manifestations, and on the other hand, as a form of activity by means of which a man strives to self-realization in a society. As it is provided by Zdzisława Dacko-Pikiewicz (2003): "A specific form of social communication is communication between parents and children. A parent influences his offspring through passed on messages shaping the child's personality. In a family, the process of socialization is carried on." Meeting information needs is often connected with information entities functioning. Undoubtedly, nowadays the press, radio, television and the Internet belong to them. What is worth mentioning here is the socialization process. As a rule it is assumed that it is an individual's process of internalization, acquisition and reception of values, norms, and behavior patterns (Filipiak, 1996). In modern times, information is a turn. It changes contemporary reality; it is a man's basic need. Mass media, including the Internet, are mainly used to change the world. On one hand information contributes to a tremendous progress, work effectiveness and life quality improvement, but on the other hand it can be baised on and not reflect the entire reality, thus creating a distorted world in which information penetrates all spheres of social life.

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Some Sociological, Medical and Legislative Views on Video Game Addiction (A Slovenian Case Study)

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Abstract: Millions of people worldwide play video games; also in Slovenian post-modern society. Most of them do it for enjoyment, yet a small number of individuals show traits associated with addictive behaviour when interacting with their games. The authors in the article point out that, compared to drug abuse, there exist some more approachable life-related activities that can lead to addiction. They stimulate the excretion of endorphins and lead to the transformation of consciousness. Addiction to video games is an ostensible attempt to satisfy the immanent human need for meaning. The economy of the Slovenian young consumer society inspires it and is based on "learning" of these alienated needs. The modern hyperpragmatic society makes it possible for young people to have a fragmented identity and places them under the pressure of constant choice of (formally open opportunities).
The purpose of this paper is to familiarize the reader with possible causes, clinical signs and methods of treatment of this disorder in Slovenian post-modern society, and explain the reasons why currently no medical textbook in the world contains any information regarding video game addiction. We intend, further, to demonstrate that gaming has become a type of "sport" in certain countries and demonstrate how potentially devastating even this type of addiction can be. The authors present the results of a research, which was undertaken on a sample of 350 individuals, to determine the appearance of indicators of behavioural addiction to video games and their connection with some family factors. They determine that through addiction to video games, post-modern societies have developed an addictive identity.
Key words: addiction, video games, risk-reward, parenting, peers, death, leagues, help centers, twelve-step programs.

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1 Introduction

Addiction is understood as an individual's chronic avoidance of his/her internal conflicts and loosening of the limits of his real life, which is denoted by an intensive and permanent wish and need for either a drug or for a specific activity in order to avoid the existing unwanted condition of his consciousness and to enable an escape from it. Regardless of the kind, cause and form, the addiction can be either physical and/or mental. It is determined by compulsion, loss of control and individual's persistence in such behaviour despite the perception of the bad effects in addictive behaviour. Researchers classify addictions into addiction to drugs and addiction to activity; but nowadays we are coping with addiction to video games, as well. A similar attitude to the means of addiction, concentration on the object(s) of addiction and experience and behaviour of an addict are typical of all kinds of addiction. Even though the intensity and speed of destructive consequences of addiction to activity are slower and less intensive, similar destructive consequences, such as an individual's limited ability to satisfy his needs, unsociableness, alienation from people important for him/her; financial, material and social self-destruction and in the last stage of addiction, physical collapse of an individual etc. can be noticed.

Addiction is also defined as an on-going use of a chemical substance or the continuous performance of an activity in spite of the long term deleterious effects that such actions entail. It can take on different forms; one can, for example, be addicted to sex, gambling, alcohol, cocaine, heroin, smoking, adrenaline and even physical strain and to video games. When such stimuli are absent, a change of mood can occur and individuals can become preoccupied with it to the point where they can be harmful to others. As a substance is continually used, the body will try to incorporate it into its physiology. This leads to both tolerance (i.e. when the body has accustomed itself to the substance and requires a larger dose to experience the same effect - diminished returns) and withdrawal (the body's reaction to the absence of a substance, which can be lethal).

2 Some social and medical aspects of addiction to video games

Ferguson, Coulson and Barnett (2011) in a meta-analytic review of the research, concluded that the evidence suggests that video game addiction arises out of other mental health problems, rather than causing them. Thus it is unclear whether video game addiction should be considered a unique diagnosis. The transition from "normal" behaviour to behaviour denoted by elements of addiction to video games is important for a global analysis of different forms and kinds of addiction. The individual experiences the process of disorder at the sub-consciousness level. The process of change is, for him/her, too fast and fluent; the activity itself, to which the individual is often involuntarily exposed,

conditions the process of change, feeding the need for the frequency of activity and the purpose of addictive behaviour. The individual does not develop his/her addiction to an activity immediately, but through:

- an introductory period (with a constructive use of the activity for personal, social and physical development which is difficult to distinguish from normal behaviour);
- a critical period (from abuse to development of habits, he/she can still control his/her addictive behaviour);
- a chronic period (the creation of habits starts a transition to addiction; finally, the illness of addiction is repeated and seen in negative behavioural patterns, which become independent and permanent).

The individual focuses his/her life only on the addictive activity because of his/her increasing attachment to the means of addiction. As an addict, he/she suffers from the compulsion of constant repetition and an increase of the quantity of a certain activity. Gross (1999, pp. 29-30) stresses the criteria which determine an individual's addiction to video games as:

- the purpose in the use of certain behaviour (escape from reality, change of consciousness),
- deficiency substituted by certain behaviour (concentration, consideration, attention),
- object of avoidance (stress, burnout syndrome, feeling of life's aimlessness),
- frequency of the abuse of a certain behaviour,
- the situation of an individual's life allows his/her abuse to develop (by contentment, slowly/fast, (un)controlled, excessively, ritually),
- the effects of activity on mood (hallucinogenic, stimulants, relaxing),
- physical and mental health (loss of control, compulsion of repetition, increase of the dose),
- signs of abstinence (trying refrain from activity).

Griffiths (2010) proposed that addiction has six components: salience, mood modification, tolerance, withdrawal, conflict, and relapse. Petry et al. (2014) state that APA has developed this and has proposed 9 criteria for characterising gaming disorder:

1. Pre-occupation. Does the individual spend a lot of time thinking about games even when he/she is not playing, or planning when he/she can play next?
2. Withdrawal. Does he/she feel restless, irritable, moody, angry, anxious or sad when attempting to cut down or stop gaming, or when he/she is unable to play?
3. Tolerance. Does he/she feel the need to play for increasing amounts of time, play more exciting games, or use more powerful equipment to get the same amount of excitement he/she used to get?
4. Reduce/stop. Does he/she feel that he/she should play less, but is unable to cut back on the amount of time he/she spends playing games?

5. Give up other activities. Does he/she lose interest in or reduce participation in other recreational activities (hobbies, meetings with friends) due to gaming?
6. Continue despite problems. Does he/she continue to play games even though he/she is aware of negative consequences, such as not getting enough sleep, being late to school/work, spending too much money, having arguments with others, or neglecting important duties?
7. Deceive/cover up. Does he/she lie to family, friends or others about how much he/she games, or tries to keep his/her family or friends from knowing how much he/she games?
8. Escape adverse moods. Does he/she game to escape from or forget about personal problems, or to relieve uncomfortable feelings such as guilt, anxiety, helplessness or depression?
9. Risk/lose relationships/opportunities. Does he/she risk or lose significant relationships, or job, educational or career opportunities because of gaming?

Taylor (2002, p. 291) among the other factors that significantly contribute to the beginning and development of addiction to video games, stresses the role of a real social situation. It conditions the existence of addiction with its attitude towards addiction to video games. Therefore, the behaviour of the addict reflects the basic assumptions of a society of prosperity and consumption, which Beck (1986, pp. 17-48) described as the "society of risk", in which the causes of addiction lie deep in post-modern society. The strengthening of the power of technical and economic progress promotes the "production of risks". The consequences of the risks of modernization, endanger the natural balance of social developments and the role of the individual in it. For him/her, an escape into "personal well-being" is not strange in such a contradictory society which lacks convincing visions of the future. He/she interprets the addictive behaviour as a compensation for numerous frustrations and as an important source of stabilization for him/herself and society. Realizing that he/she is not capable of understanding the technologically highly-developed objects of his physical environment where it is difficult for him/her to find health inside him/herself and in accordance with natural rhythms: the solution lies outside him/herself.

As postmodern society is alienated and sick, a certain degree of individual pathology is normal; it even helps to sustain the existing social order. Therefore, an individual can share his/her "personal defect" with most representatives of his/her society. Lechler (1990, pp. 9-18) understands addiction to video games as "part of a disturbed ecosystem" which tries to trigger self-cure and find a healthy balance in its totality despite the danger of self-destruction. For Illich (1971, pp. 52-65), even educational-social institutions are based on the uncertainty they produce. As these institutions do not give their users a real experience, they make them dependent on formal certificates of knowledge and talents. The primary goal of teaching the skills needed for life has become lost in

curricular rigidity and the hierarchy of the educational system. The identity of a young person is developed by something external – the pattern of addiction, acknowledging certificates and marks more than research and learning for life. Therefore, it is important that, besides the family and social relations, education offers and develops basic social experience that determines the character of interactions with the social and institutional environment.

3 Possible causes, signs and symptoms of addiction to video games

Technology has been taking the lives of the Slovenians by storm and in the last two decades has given birth to a new type of addiction - video game addiction.

Video game addiction is a relatively new concept with a myriad of variables. Because people of both sexes, all ages and religions, play video games. It is very difficult to identify the actual precipitating factors involved in the process of becoming addicted to a game. The American Psychiatric Association has consequently denied proposals to include this condition in their Diagnostic and Statistical manual of Mental Disorders several times.

The discussion that follows is thus a subject of on-going investigation and should not be construed as fact or a definite guide to the topic at hand.

3.1 Possible causes

Every game contains various elements with which the player works in order to reach a certain goal. This is usually accompanied by a reward. The reward, however, is commensurate with the effort, and indeed, the risk that was involved in the work process. This is called the risk-reward factor and it means that the greater the risk the person performing a task takes, the greater a reward he/she may expect to be given when it is completed. It has been discovered that video game companies often use a phenomenon called the variable rate of reinforcement when developing their games. Its foundation is a very simple experiment: We take a hungry rat and place it in a cage. In the said cage there is a food dispenser with a button that gives out treats randomly, when pressed. Once the rat realizes this, it vigorously starts pressing the button until enough food comes out to sate its appetite.

The same concept applies to humans in relation to video games. The result of this is that some individuals become insatiable and develop the compulsion to obtain every reward the game has to offer in the shortest time frame imaginable. This leads to massive daily time expenditure, which in turn hampers their responsibilities, most notably those related to work and school. The relationship between gaming and work/school is reciprocal. Overzealous gaming can either cause failure at work or in school, or be the result of an unsuccessful life. In order to compensate for the lack of success, people tend to preoccupy themselves with an activity that will obfuscate the reality of the situation. Video

games offer the ideal environment to do so because their equal playing field gives everybody a chance to be successful.

We must not ignore the influence that types of games can have on the consumer. They can roughly be described as:

- multiplayer games, where several people play against or with each other via the internet, and
- single player games, with a pre-programmed sequence of events for a single player.

Online gaming has been rapidly increasing with the ever greater global access to broad-band internet. Multiplayer games give players the opportunity to develop friendships with others and once a friendship is established, you may want to stay in touch with that person and that may compel you to keep on playing. Some people have even started families and had children with players they had met online.

A special type of multiplayer game, called a Massively Multiplayer Online Role Playing Game, revolves around the progression of your character or avatar, and players, after investing much time and money in it, do not want to abandon everything that they have worked for. This is particularly true of World of Warcraft, a game by Blizzard Entertainment, which is currently played by approximately 10.5 million people worldwide. They were provocatively asked about their stance on addiction and their reply was the following: "Our games are designed to be fun, but with like all forms of entertainment, day to day life should always take precedence. They also contain practical tools, which assist players with monitoring their play time."

In addition to simple enjoyment, playing games represents a means of earning money. With the right contract on YouTube, you can earn up to 2$ per one thousand views of your video. A player may upload several videos per day and each can fetch hundreds of thousands of views. This can lead to a very large sum of money landing in their pockets. And as far as motivators go in our post-modern society, money is easily among the most powerful ones. Money talks!

Most experts across the world dismiss video game addiction as just another media amalgamation, but those who understand the seriousness of some people's condition have put forth several risk factors, which may or may not play a role in the onset of video game addiction. These include aggression, impulsiveness, a general desire for new and unique experiences, depression, strict parenting and low self-esteem. There is evidence to suggest that male players are more addiction-prone than women.

Spending a lot of time behind the computer invariably leads to a sedentary life-style. This can lead to poor development in children and various orthopaedic problems in adults. Prolonged gaming can lead to tiredness, sleep disorders, anxiety and irritability. People tend to let themselves go, neglect their hygiene, postpone meals, eat junk food, profusely gain or lose weight, all of which contributes to a general decline in health. Although not irrefutably proven, there

have been links established between long-term exposure to monitors and impaired vision.

3.2 Extreme cases

Online games are particularly popular in South Korea, where as many as 85% of the population have access to broad-band internet. As a national sport, Tae Kwon Do has been joined by Star Craft as a so-called eSport, which has its own tournaments. Those who compete at these events spend up to 150 hours a week playing, which is equivalent to 21 hour every day! This is illustrated by the fact that there are internet cafés present on every street in which youngsters hang out in the evenings instead of spending quality time with their friends, peer groups or family.

When gesticulations were compared between those watching TV and those playing video games, a marked difference was noted, especially in the effect that games had on the central nervous system. A boy is reported to have lost the blinking reflex entirely and gave the appearance of crying.

The concept of lethality is inherent in addiction and video game addiction is no exception. There have been roughly 16 cases reported across the world, where people died as a result of their over-attachment to games. They stem mainly from the United States, South Korea, Taiwan, China and Vietnam. The major cause of death is cardiac arrest, brought on by dehydration. Earlier this year, an 18 year old boy died in Taiwan after a continuous 40 hour gaming session. Not all deaths have been self-inflicted. A father let his twins drown in the tub, while he/she was playing Game Boy Advance in the adjacent room, and a mother shook her baby to death because its crying impeded her FarmVille exploits. A mother found her premature end at the hands of her own son after having confiscated his Play Station.

It is events such as these that have prompted various countries to address the issue more seriously and promote the foundation of various help centres.

3.3 Prevention and treatment

People who show signs of video game addiction come across similar problems as food addicts.

As an addict to food cannot stop abusing food and procedures connected to eating, even though he/she wants to, people addicted to video games cannot stop playing. An addict does not eat when he/she is hungry and lonely, but when is emotionally unsatisfied. He/she spoils the natural feeling of hunger and loneliness. Food and video games are surrogates for internal balance.

Just as food is an indispensable part of our lives, we interact with computers on a daily basis and it is practically impossible to do away with them entirely. The fact that conventional treatment does not recognize this as a disorder, complicates matters in as much as there are no specified and tested treatment programmes available for people to enlist on. Some countries, namely the

Netherlands and the United States, have listened to the pleas and arguments presented by some experts, which has led to the establishment of help centres in which people can seek help in a form they refer to as "Twelve-step programs". These include acceptance, rectification of one's mistakes and help from those who have found themselves in a similar situation.

The Chinese have taken this a step further with a more Orwellian approach, limiting the available play time to three hours daily as well as requiring personal identification before being permitted to play. Minors are automatically advised to do some physical exercise after a three-hour playing binge.

The South Korean government has built specialized camps for minors suffering from video game addiction, to which parents can send their children. One such child was reported saying, "Playing games was fun and I had nothing else to do."

This epitomizes the role of parents, when it comes to preventing any kind of idiosyncratic behaviour. It is their responsibility to observe their offspring during their formative period and to act immediately and appropriately, should any kind of abnormality present itself.

The quality of interactions and the existence of someone to confide in within the family and educational programmes have proved very important. Therefore we emphasize the possibilities within school subjects and educational programmes, where the pupils can not only be informed but also educated about the dangers of behavioural addiction to video games.

A lecture can be given by a teacher, medical staff or a therapist and organised as a discussion after the introductory presentation which could be an article read, a film watched, working on statistical data connected to the topic, or an organised exhibition about the topic. Students can also work in groups; each group working on one form of addiction and presenting it in the final part. The students can also record a short conversation (on tape, video, film) with different participants (a cured addict, a physician, parents) as a preventive form of education.

4 Slovenian youth and addiction to video games

Slovenian youth is a special generation and a more or less formed social group with an intensive experience of the quick tempo of social, cultural and technological change; by taking part in mass education which distinguishes them from other generations and defines them as a subculture. It postpones integration into the sphere of work and consequently the division of social power; even though they are physically mature, they use all their energy for education which shifts away the social acknowledgement of maturity and causes discrepancy between their psycho-physical abilities and their social status.

The problems of the lack of communication in the family, non-personal relationships in the process of education, the difficulty in growing up, the

experience of emptiness of social values, effectively combine to create a motivation to seek addictive activities. As the addiction represents a uniform problem, the choice of means of addiction is of secondary importance. Addictions to video games connected to Slovenian youth show peculiarities that are related to specific individual dispositions and social significance of individual means of addiction to activity. The most frequent addictive to activities follow:

	FEEDING	INTERNET	GAMBLING AUTOMAT	LEARNING	RELIGIOUS	DAYDREAMING	EXERCISE	EXTREME ACTIVITY	THEFT	SHOPPING/TO RUN INTO DEBT	GENERAL DEPENDENCE
FEEDING	1,000	,286		,238		,418				,290	,561
INTERNET	,286	1,000		,185		,282		,272	,299	,234	,573
GAMBLING AUTOMAT			1,000		,294			,190	,355		,375
LEARNING	,238	,185	,185	1,000	,222	,308				,226	,551
RELIGIOUS				,222	1,000	,275			,267	,195	,409
DAYDREAMING	,418	,282		,308	,257	1,000		,214	,379	,344	,711
EXERCISE							1,000	,241			,208
EKSTREM ACTIVITY		,272	,190			,214	,242	1,000	,203		,447
THEFT		,299	,335		,267	,379		,203	1,000	,235	,521
SHOPPING/TO RUN INTO DEBT	,290	,234		,226	,195	,334			,235	1,000	,494
GENERAL DEPENDENCE	,561	,573	,375	,551	,409	,711	,208	,447	,521	,497	1,000

Empirical data used in this Table 1 form a part of a wider research carried out between 1 February and 1 October, 2010.

The consequences are shown in increased delinquency and crime, bad family relations and decreased school efficiency, problematical behaviour. The addict's characteristics are: decreased self-respect and possibilities for problem solving, increased degree of depression and suicidal behaviour, neglecting physical and mental needs, cardiovascular disturbances, undernourishment, too much body fat, lower life expectancy (Derevensky and Gupta, 2000, pp. 226-255).

5 Empirical part
Addiction to video games has become more intensive with easier and increased access to internet technology as an excessive use of the internet and spending time without clear goals is typical. A virtual compensation of real social relations is typical of the young who experience lack of appropriate family communication and of parental and peer attention. As the source of addiction is

based on different aspects of internet video games use (typing, communication, contents, social activities), it is difficult for addicts to define the exact time of use as their perception of time is disturbed (spending up to 40 hours a week "online"). The longer the time since the first contact with internet is, the disposition to use the internet more and more increases. This addiction is often connected with depression, disturbed control of impulses and low self-respect. Because of school obligations and work needs, medical treatment is difficult.
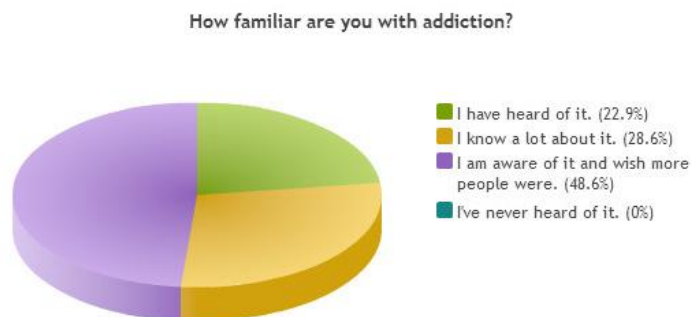
As for the purpose of this article, a survey was conducted; 350 individuals responded to the survey, 140 being male and 210 female. The age varied from 16 to 38 years of age with an average age of 29.5 years. The goal of the research was to find out if they are (not) addicted to video games, with the emphasis on the question whether this current form of addiction provided them with enough knowledge and skills to perform their lives to their best abilities. For the purpose of the research our initial assumption was that most participants would not be familiar with the idea of video game addiction. Further we supposed that:

1. Most people are unaware of video game addiction.
2. Time spent is a relative criterion for evaluating video game addiction
3. The principal role of preventing video game addiction lies with the parents.

In order to test the assumptions, we carried out an online survey, consisting of multiple choice and open questions. We asked them: how familiar they were with addiction; whether they played video games themselves; about the reasons some individuals spend a lot of time playing video games; how much time would one have to spend playing video games per day to classify as an addict; about the most vulnerable population to be effected of video games; about the signs and (no) current medical diagnosis of video game addiction, about professional gaming leagues and events similar to regular sporting tournaments etc.
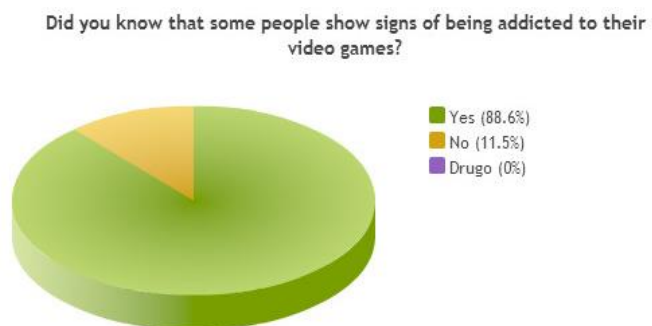
The purpose of question No.1 was to see how familiar the respondents were with the issue of addiction in general. These were the responses:

Figure 1

How familiar are you with addiction?

- I have heard of it. (22.9%)
- I know a lot about it. (28.6%)
- I am aware of it and wish more people were. (48.6%)
- I've never heard of it. (0%)

The results provide an ample basis for discussion because everybody has at least heard of addiction, therefore the concept can be further expanded on. We wanted to find out how familiar the participants were with video game addiction as a problem.

Figure 2

Did you know that some people show signs of being addicted to their video games?

Yes (88.6%)
No (11.5%)
Drugo (0%)

These results were somewhat of a surprise as, based on our first assumption, most participants would not be familiar with the idea of video game addiction. They allow us to assume that more people are aware of the issues some people face than previously stipulated, which should, if more research is conducted, give rise to a more concrete picture of video game addiction.

Figure 3

Do you play video games yourself?

Yes (48.6%)
No (51.5%)
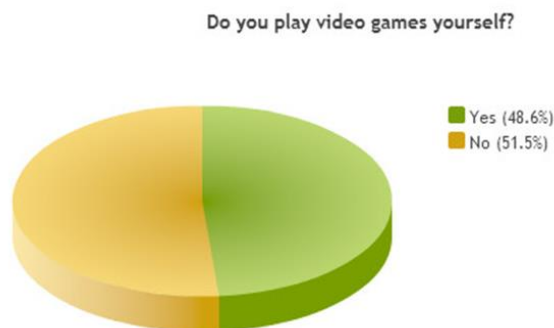
We were witness to a quite large disparity, as the results were almost evenly split between "yes" and "no". The vast majority of those who do play video games do it for fun, a few declared it being a hobby, while someone said it gave them the "illusion of spending quality time". Because the prevailing reasons for playing games are fun and hobby-like characteristics, we could conclude that playing video games is a hobby-equivalent activity, like sports, art or music. Those of us who dabble in any of these like to do so on a regular basis as it represents something we enjoy doing. Therefore it is possible to argue that it is unfair to

treat someone who plays video games regularly as an addict, because it is something they enjoy doing and treat as a hobby. Those who do not play video games, according to the survey, either lack the time for it or are not interested in, do not like video games, or have other activities they prefer doing.

Because the reasons for playing games present a stalemate in our attempt to analyse video game addiction, we focused on time spent and the participants' views of it.

Figure 4
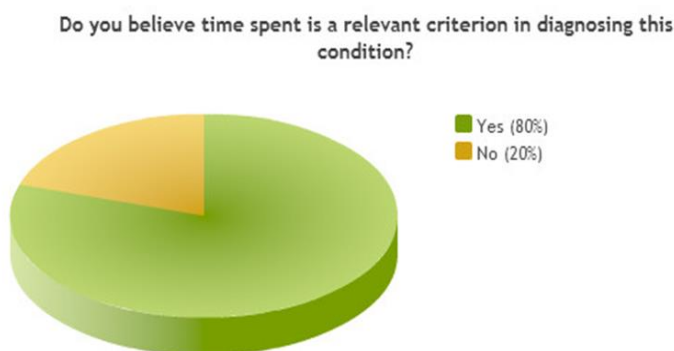
The responses were almost one directional, as 80% declared they considered time spent to be a relative criterion when diagnosing video game addiction, thus supporting our second hypothesis. We, of course, wanted to know how much time they considered to be a telling sign of addiction and the answers were varied.

Figure 5
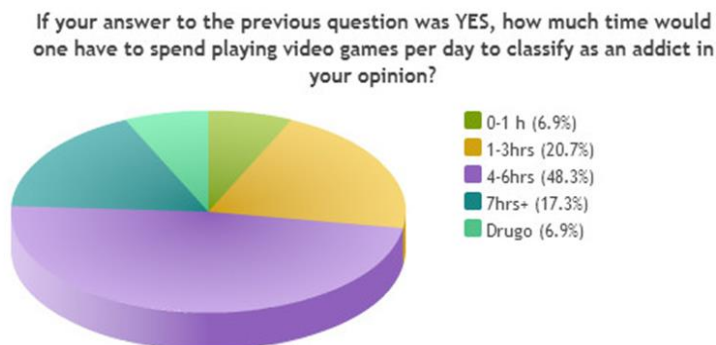
Almost half of those asked believed that spending between 4 to 6 hours is indicative of video game addiction, whereas others considered 1 hour per day and as many as 7 hours per day as evidence if addiction. We also allowed participants the option of providing their own answers, one of which was 10+ hours and an even more extreme case of 15 hours or more per day.

As seen by the results, there is no consensus as to how many hours one would have to spend playing video games on a daily basis to qualify as an addict. This is one of the major problems preventing video game addiction from being considered seriously by the medical community. Video game addiction is an excessive or compulsive use of video games, which interferes with a person's everyday life. Video game addiction may be seen in compulsive game-playing; social isolation; mood swings; diminished imagination; and hyper-focus on in-game achievements, to the exclusion of other life events.

When looking at this phenomenon from another perspective, through interviews with gamers who were addicted to a MMORPG but have quit playing, it is believed that the multiple reasons causing gamers to leave their game can reflect some more aspects of online game addiction. Some said they did not play games daily, others spend 1 hour, some 3 hours, someone said 10 minutes, while another person said he/she could spend up to 12 hours daily if the game he/she was playing was brand new and enjoyable. Those who do not play games on a daily basis, tend to spend more time playing them on the days they actually do play.
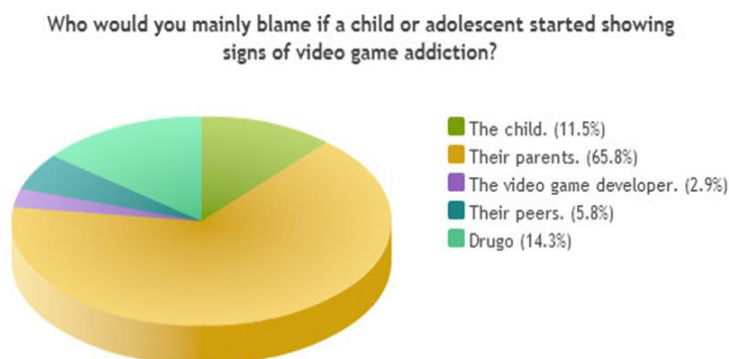
We must not discard the 20% who said time was not a factor. Their opinion is, according to the survey, that the relationship to the game is the real defining characteristic. They supported this by saying that if you manage to go about your duties (school, work, social life, family) successfully while playing games, the actual time spent doing that does not matter.

We must also allow for another possibility. Addicts try to hide their idiosyncratic behaviour by employing many strategies and for many reasons. So their "normal" routine does not necessarily indicate the absence of addiction.

This further epitomizes the difficulties faced when trying to accurately evaluate the concept of video game addiction.
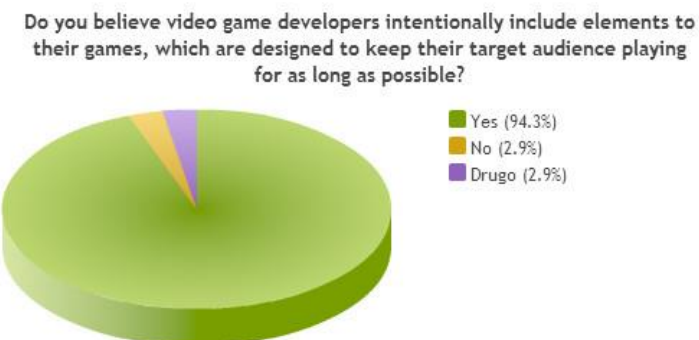
We checked also our third assumption which was that the principal role of preventing video game addiction lay with the parents.

Figure 6

Who would you mainly blame if a child or adolescent started showing signs of video game addiction?

- The child. (11.5%)
- Their parents. (65.8%)
- The video game developer. (2.9%)
- Their peers. (5.8%)
- Drugo (14.3%)

The majority of the responses were supportive of our final assumption, with almost two thirds saying they believe the parents should keep a watchful eye during their children's formative period and nip any addiction in the bud. A select few chose to blame the young, however, youth cannot be held responsible, because they lack the experience and the expertise to help him/herself should he/she develop a continuous urge to play games. Other responses included both parents and peers and a fraction chose to blame the video game developer. As presented in the theoretical part, there are some mechanisms the developers allegedly put into their games to make them more addictive. We asked the participants whether they believe this is true and these are the responses.

Figure 7

Do you believe video game developers intentionally include elements to their games, which are designed to keep their target audience playing for as long as possible?

- Yes (94.3%)
- No (2.9%)
- Drugo (2.9%)

94.3% out of asked believe that these elements are intentionally put in, but they do not believe they are the main cause, as illustrated by the previous pie chart.

6 Conclusion

The study yielded surprisingly positive findings, especially those related to our first assumption and we should see considerable progress in this area in the coming years. We have learned that many people play video games, as half of our participants declared themselves as gamers. The reasons for playing games vary from fun, hobbies and killing time. Time spent, however, has been shown to be, in the eyes of most participants, a relevant factor in diagnosing video game addiction, while those few who argued that time was not relevant, presented some strong arguments pertaining to their relationship to the game. And yet this relationship can be a mere mask. Even though time spent is considered by many to be relevant, they do now show any consistency as to how much time is relevant in the diagnosis. Therefore, further study and research is warranted, perhaps analysing similarities between time spent on medically recognized addictions and time spent playing computer or console games.

The life-style of the young in society increasingly reflects the accumulation of all life experiences. Despite the insecurity about the future, in their attempts to preserve a sense of meaning and personal integrity, the young often react wrongly when they escape to the world of stupor and addiction. The role of the school and the family is to help the youth on their way of recognising and curing the addiction. An important change towards a better understanding the problems of the young has been made in education in the period of independence.

Disharmony between loosening disciplinary standards and demands can be noticed in schools, being basic educational institutions. These undermined its authority as it can no longer promote the individual and develop his/her optimal abilities and prepare him/her for life in a complicated complex of life circumstances. However, school has to give the individual the feeling of security and to create creative internal standards with clear demands which will distinguish him/her from the others after the work has been done.

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Teachers' Personality in the Process of Education

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Abstract: There is something in everyone that does not change. The personality of a teacher or an educator stays in the centre of educational work. The personal contact and dialogic disposition of a teacher helps to form the personal potential of a human being to overcome the difficulties and contribute to the optimal functioning in a social environment. The process of learning and the growth of personality belong to a category of interpersonal relationships. A very strong emphasis is placed on the so called "methods of dialogue", which can not only reduce destructive influences, but also teaches us how to accept criticism in a non-offensive way. Everything should take place in an open climate without judgement.
Key words: educational system, personality and personal contact, formative process, dialogue.

This paper points out the importance of personal contact and dialogue, or, better said, the importance of participatory aspects of personal freedom, subjective tendencies and intention in the process of education. In every person, there is something that does not change. The youth of today is the same as it was several years ago. In the past, the young generation was influenced and shaped by the painful experience of war, concentration camps and constant danger. Such experiences created heroic qualities of the young. In order to achieve a complete integration of all social classes into the educational system, there has to be constant pedagogical modification of education.

The pedagogical modifications of the educational system are closely connected with the acquisition of personal contacts and their nature. In the process of education, this need calls for modifications in the traditional teaching methods, especially in communication between the educator and the student. A short in-depth analysis will help to reach an optimal line.

There are some functions that have to be taken into consideration as early as possible when modifying pedagogic preparations and approaches. An effective coordination of educational activities, especially during school, plays an important role in the educational process. Another crucial aspect is psycho-pedagogical aid, i.e. a kind of problem-solving consultancy for the youth. Then,

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it is important to mention assistance with integration of students into youth organizations, interest groups and fellowships.

The emphasis needs to be placed on the practical side of the educational and formative process. All of the above mentioned aspects are to play an important role in the process of education. The general evolution of mankind is closely connected with the subject as well as the methods of education. Such findings serve as a basis of the following research: In ancient Egypt, as well as in other ancient civilisations, we come across a process of educational diversity. This process was based mostly on intuition. The platform of methodology must not be based on a kind of uniformity or political indoctrination that would allow somebody to rule over others. In many cases, the process of formation and education requires an individual approach in which dialogue, as a type of contact, plays an important role. Nowadays, the media informs us about events that change and influence our lives. Intense and rapid changes in education are also conditioned by science and technological development, changes in the value system and lifestyle. In the course of the formative process, there is evidence of growing pressure put on teachers, especially connected with persons who suffer from social and mental dysfunctions. Therefore, it is important that, whenever necessary, teachers should be able to serve as consultants. A crucial stage of this process is the ability of the teacher to help students with mental and spiritual questions. Education is no longer understood as a process in which students are to be prepared for life in society to overcome obstacles of life, or values and norms that differ from their previous experience. It is understood as a process that should help students to develop themselves, to help them overcome obstacles and lead a productive life in a social and natural environment (Klapa, 1994, p. 28). The cultural aspect of education is important, too, i.e. process of handing down values and methods to students. Patriotism, which aims to help students form a sense of love for their country, plays a significant role as well. It is also important to prepare students for the fulfilment of social duties of a citizen, employee or consumer. Obviously, such roles stand at the intersection of politics, ideology, culture and family. There is a certain amount of danger in situations when we teach students to fulfil their daily obligations. A fully realized person becomes a passive recipient of information, a villain; here the formative process can be understood as a process of discharging strictly defined obligations. It is necessary to state that education is not only for the "inflexible and resistant".[1] It is crucial to respect the biological and psychological qualities, the ones we inherit from our parents and ancestors.

In the process of education and formation, where the dialogue is the priority, the style of education also plays an important role. Thus, education can be divided based on its intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics. A renowned specialist in this

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[1] By inflexible and resistant we mean those who are not able to adapt; the members of so called "problem groups" (the author's note)

field is Stanislaw Kuczkowski. The autocratic style of education is defined as education based on fear with an existing distance between the educator and the student (child), sometimes marked with cordiality. Other accompanying features of this style of education are being strict, delivering punishment, yelling at students, making threats, not fulfilling the student's desires, creating feelings of fear, shame and infringing upon the student's personal liberty, lack of coordination of their activities, not controlling the tasks to be completed, lack of consultation in the process of decision making by the educator, lack of justification, the dominance of punishment over praise, showing disregard for the student's will and desire, subordination of the student based on respect. As a result, the student (pupil) acquires the norms of behaviour only superficially, without internalization. The democratic style of education is based on mutual communication between the child and their family members. They talk about common, everyday matters and organize their free time activities and holidays. Children express their opinions and take part in decision making. Regulation of the child's behaviour is without punishment. Children are not forced to do their duties and tasks; on the contrary, they freely accept them. Instead of punitive tools, this style prefers explanation of improper behaviour. Closely connected with it is the inner discipline of the child and discipline based on norms and moral principles that have been internalized.[2] In liberal education, the child is given complete freedom, independent activity and spontaneous development. Intervention is made only in cases of serious disrespect of social norms. An accompanying feature is a delayed process of the child's socialization as well as the internalization of moral norms. In many cases this results in the child's egocentrism (Kuczkowski, 1985, pp. 234-235). Distance education is difficult. A pro-active formation requires active personal participation and a progressive methodology. No ready-made rules will help. Parenting guides which one often comes across in newspapers and magazines, are mostly a publicity stunt. The teacher's personality remains the most crucial variable in education. The teacher must not be a leader or a commander (Klapa, 1994, p. 38) but an adviser. The human personality is formed in a complex structure of educational processes viewed as a whole. In this structure, the process of moral education has a universal position. It influences the whole personality and it is the basic requirement of human moral maturity. This creates an essential humanistic and cultural value of an educated being. The process of value formation is characterized by active searching, discovering, acceptance and identification (Žilínek, 1997, pp. 61-68).

When considering an appropriate method or form, it is essential to take into consideration the following factors: who the student is; what his/her characteristic features are, what expectations and needs he has got; in what

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[2] To internalize means the inner acceptation and harmony of moral principles and norms. (the author's note)

conditions he/she lives and will live; what social, family and coeval environment he/she lives in; and what value system he/she has acquired so far. Then, it is crucial to consider who we, the teachers are, what our characteristic features are, what professional training we have received, what we expect from our students, and what we are able to offer them. Moreover, we ought to ask ourselves what relationship we have with a particular student, when and under what conditions we have got to know each other, what was our first impression and evaluation of the student, how much time we are able to spend with the student, and when and in what way our relationship have changed (e.g. due to leaving school, change of the workplace). Then, it is important to pay attention to the influence of other people on the student, e.g. parents, teachers, peers, or whether our efforts are in concordance with their influence. Furthermore, we have to take into account with whom we can cooperate, what type of cooperation it will be and of what duration. We also have to consider who and in what ways can complicate our procedures. As a result, it is crucial to ask what goals we want to achieve in education, what we wish to change and what aspects should not be changed. Then, we ought to consider which goals might appear in the future as unfavourable for students, for example an excessive fixation on himself/herself. An effective educational process requires acceptance of the youth, showing them respect, having an understanding of them and empathising with them. These are serious and difficult goals, especially at the beginning of the educational process and after the first failures. However, their absence leads to hostility and aggression between teachers and students or classmates. Another condition for an effective educational process is that the teacher's actions are in accordance with his/her convictions. It is called authenticity. Those teachers who act against their convictions, end up playing self-centred, tragic roles for their own sake, and, probably, even without realizing it (Klapa, 1994, p. 40[3]). The educational process and personal development are a part of interpersonal relationships. Students gradually become aware of the fact that their experiences are based on their contacts and encounters with other people. This realisation should lead to the appreciation of others. It should help students respects the lives of others as well as activities, politics and structures that help or complicate the mutual development. However, this is possible only if teachers are aware of these values and are faithful to them (Pedagogia Ignacjańska, 1994, p. 27). The reality of present-day life helps us understand the overall importance of constant education not only for children but for adults, too. A part of the difficulties parents come across, taking account the cultural context, is the preparation of their children for life, directing them so they are able to see and accept "the real world", the sense of sexuality, the value of humans and free acceptance of moral principles. Inspite of the fact that in the past culture was interwoven with reverence for

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[3] In this section the author talks about methods and forms of education where the most important the teacher´s personality is and not an aggressor or a promised reward.

basic moral principles and it served to maintain and guard them, children were not informed about these things. The traditional models of behaviour lost their influence, which resulted in the fact that children lost clear rules. This is why parents may feel unprepared to give children appropriate answers, which causes parents to disqualify themselves from the active formative process of development (Jozek, 2004). Therefore, it is becoming crucial that everyone who accepts the function of managing any element in the educational and formation process, should not forget about the style and the method used – dialogue. Consequently, they ought to take into account the characteristic features of both teachers and students, or environmental conditions (Klapa, 1994, p. 41). The condition of social existence is the communicative aspect of human nature; however, it is not its essence. The inner desire to share information and values with others or to receive them back has a specific intention. First of all, the aim is to create a better unity between comprehension and action, in other words to achieve social unity. This type of social unity is conditioned by the character of communication. Communication always presupposes unity. Therefore, by definition, social actions are teleological. It means that there is a certain intention; in other words, they head towards realization of thoughts or ideals of social unity.

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Formative (Classroom) Assessment Techniques

Igor Marks[*]

Abstract: The author presents formative (classroom) assessment techniques with the purpose of improving the teaching process and the learner's development. At the same time, the paper emphasizes the importance of feedback in the teaching process.
Key words: formative assessment, formative (classroom) assessment techniques, feedback, learner-centred teaching.

A good teacher should use both, summative as well as formative assessment during his/her work. Summative assessment usually includes the assessment of what learners have learned during a specific period of time. It has a formal character and it sums up partial assessments into a summary, final assessment. Most often it takes the form of an official classroom grading. When summative assessment prevails in a teacher's work, it may happen that during the final examination, or testing, etc., the teacher finds out that the learners have understood the topic of instruction in a completely different way than he/she had expected. We can prevent this by using formative (continuous) assessment that focuses on learners' needs. Information obtained in such a way helps the teacher to plan and further improve his/her instruction. Not only does the teacher assess the learners' progress, he/she also assesses the state of his/her own teaching. Thus, the information provided by the assessment is intended not only for the teacher but also for the learner. The teacher informs the learner on the level of his/her development and at the same time, such information has an incentive effect for the learner (Kompolt, 2010, p. 158).

This kind of assessment, according to Gavora (2010, p. 16), corresponds with the current trends in learners' assessment. The assessment model focused on learner's errors has been being abandoned and the attention has been shifting to the facilitation and the development of the learner. At the same time, a thesis has been postulated to make the learner an active subject of assessment. The learner should act not only as the person being assessed but also as the one doing the assessment. Learners should observe, examine and evaluate their own activity and behaviour. Their self-reflection shall be facilitated, which should lead to a realistic self-image. This is so-called autonomous assessment (Slavík, 1999, pp. 133-139).

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Assessment techniques used by teachers directly in the classroom during classroom instruction have several advantages (Angelo and Cross, 1993, pp. 4-7):

1. They are of a formative nature: unlike final or major exams, they provide feedback on learners' learning.
2. They are speedy: often, they consume just a few minutes of classroom time to administer, and can be processed easily and quickly.
3. They are flexible: they can be tailored to meet the unique and specific concerns and needs of the instructor.
4. They are anonymous for learners (although they need not be): the aim of classroom assessment is not necessarily the need to grade the learners' work or to provide individual learners with feedback on their performance; the aim may be to provide feedback on learners' learning. Anonymity may ensure that students feel free to express not only what they do understand but also what they do not understand.
5. They have a positive impact on the learning process itself; on developing writing skills, critical thinking and on increasing learner motivation.

Teachers and learners need effective ways of monitoring learning throughout the school year. Although individual teachers often develop, discover or simply come across a strategy that works, these informal discoveries rarely come to public attention. Data from similar activities taking place at schools are extremely important for improving teaching as well as learning. They show learners how to learn and study; they encourage teachers to analyse objectively what was going on in the classroom; and they encourage learners to do self-assessment and assess their own learning process.

We used the formative assessment techniques listed below while teaching at university. In various modified forms, they are also used at primary and secondary schools.

Formative assessment provides information that can be used for the purpose of improving the content of the course as well as for improving the teaching methods and, ultimately, the learners' learning. Formative assessment is most effective when administered often. Efficiency is ensured when the information identified is evaluated immediately and the results are applied directly in the next lesson.

In case of frequent use of formative assessment techniques, they can have the following impacts (Haugen, 1999):

For the school and for the teacher, formative assessment techniques can:
- provide day-to-day feedback that can be applied immediately;
- provide useful feedback on what students have learned without loss of time required for preparing tests, oral examination;
- allow to address learner misconceptions or lack of understanding in a timely way;

- play a part in fostering good working relations with learners and encourage them to understand that teaching and learning are on-going processes that require full participation.

For learners, formative assessment techniques can:

- help develop self-assessment and learning management skills;
- reduce feelings of isolation and impotence;
- increase understanding and ability to think critically about the course;
- ensure long-term retention of information acquired.

There are a number of formative assessment techniques. Angelo and Cross (1993, pp. 115-361) list 50 of these techniques. The authors recommend that teachers interested in using these techniques begin with the following ones:

"The One-Minute Paper" (also called the Minute Paper and Half-Sheet response)

The teacher asks students two or three minutes before the end of the lesson to respond briefly in writing to one of the following two questions: "What was the most important thing you learned today? and "What important questions have remained unanswered to you?". Alternatively, the teacher can provide the learner with an unfinished declarative sentence: "For me, the most important thing I learned today is …"; "In today's lesson I did not quite understand …" (Enerson, Plank and Johnson, 2007, p. 5).

This technique allows for the assessment of the match between instructional goals and learners' perceptions of these goals and their own learning. It can be used in classes where, on a regular basis, learners operate with large amounts of new, basic information used for introduction to a given topic, etc.

"The Muddiest Point"

The teacher asks learners to jot down a brief and quick response to the following question: "What was the muddiest point for you in today's lesson, the homework assignment, reading, the film, etc.?"

This technique provides speedy feedback on what learners find the least clear or the most confusing. This information can help teachers to decide what to emphasize more in the future and how much time to spend on a given topic or question. Learners must also quickly decide and determine what they do not understand and be able to articulate their confusion. It is recommended to use this technique at the end of a class, lesson, thematic unit, assignment, etc.

"The One-Sentence Summary "

The teacher asks learners to summarize the topics and questions discussed in one or two sentences. The teacher can gauge the extent to which learners can summarize a large amount of information (concisely, completely and accurately). Learners should follow rules of sentence construction and they must

think creatively about the content learned. Learners acquire the ability to condense information that thus those can be later easily processed and recalled.

"Directed Paraphrasing "
The teacher asks learners to paraphrase part of a lesson, or to paraphrase it for a specific (fictitious) audience or purpose, using their own words. This technique allows for the examination of learners' understanding of information and their ability to transform it into such a meaningful form so that it can be understood by specific audiences other than the learner and the teacher. This technique is much more complex than simple paraphrasing (or summary) in that the school teaches the learner to speak or write for a particular purpose and to a particular audience.

"Application Cards "
After a particular question has been introduced to learners, the teacher passes out index cards and asks learners to write down at least one possible, real-world application for the material they have just been dealing with. This technique allows for a quick determination whether learners understand what they have learned. Moreover, learners are forced to link new information with prior knowledge.

The techniques outlined above look to be simple at first glance. However, their problem is that due to lack of time during classroom instruction, they are not used at all. Thus, teachers lack data or material that can provide feedback when assessing the lesson. Hence, teachers constantly make the same mistakes and teach in the same, established way.
There are no limits set for designing our own formative assessment techniques. However, teachers should bear in mind such techniques need to be simple. They must answer the following simple questions for themselves: "What do I want my students to learn?"; "What kind of answers will I get?", and alike. Teachers must try to gather only information that is relevant for them in the particular moment and that they, as teachers, want to process, evaluate and use in the future. At the same time, learners need to know why the teacher uses a particular technique. A true and sensible explanation of the technique and of its purpose can have a good impact on further lesson planning.
After information from learners have been gathered, it is essential to analyse it, sort the answers into several main categories, and most important, not to miss anything important. Teachers may help themselves with the following questions: "What kinds of answers appear most often?"; "What have I not known about my learners yet?"; "How do I plan to use the information obtained?" (Enerson, Plank and Johnson, 2007, pp. 1-2). Furthermore, one should not be afraid to inform the learners about some of the data analysed. With learners, the obtained

information can serve as a tool for improving their learning skills (Nicola, Macfarlane and Dickb, 2006, pp. 208-210).

One of the ways of improving education is to improve teaching. Formative assessment techniques can help us to do so. Their advantage is that they do not require specialised professional training as they can be administered by all teachers, at all levels and types of schools, and by teachers with different teaching licences.

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Supporting Students in Choosing a Field of Further Education as an Element of Pedagogical and Psychological Activities in Secondary Education in Poland

Zdzisława Dacko-Pikiewicz[*]

Abstract: For an adolescent, as well as for the environment and society, a decision to choose the correct field of education is vitally important. Nowadays, new choices of education, training and retraining have to be made as a result of the fast pace of life, constant changes in the labour market, the progress of knowledge and technology, cultural and social change. Therefore, it is necessary to ask a question how to prepare young people for the future. There is a need for people that think and act creatively, and are able to adapt to the continuous and unexpected changes.

The paper aims to present the tasks, objectives, rules and methods of career counselling as a system of multi-stage pedagogical and psychological activities that accompany an individual during his/her career and that help him/her to make education-related choices. Moreover, the paper presents the main tasks and role of a career counsellor, as well as examples of good practice in the area of career counselling in Poland.

Key words: choice of a field in education, career counselling, career orientation, career counsellor.

1 Introduction

The correct choice of a field in education is made by an adolescent is extremely important both for the decision maker and for the environment society. In the past, a job was chosen for the whole life. In this way, the importance and irreversibility of the decision were emphasized. Nowadays, the pace of life, permanent changes in the labour market, the progress of knowledge, technology, cultural and social change result in an increasing need to make new choices of education, training and retraining.

The new world implies a multiplicity of choices. The identity of a man, including the professional one, used to be shaped by ready, universal and indisputable patterns, but now, it is a kind of puzzle characterised by continuous

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construction, deconstruction and reconstruction (Melosik, 1998, cited in Melosik and Przyszczypkowski, 1998). Contemporary careers are increasingly fragmented and biographies of a mosaic type appear. Therefore, the significance of assistance obtained during the process of educational career transitions is increasing.

Therefore, it is necessary to ask a question how to prepare young people for the future. There is a need for people that think and act creatively, and are able to adapt to the continuous and unexpected changes.[1]

2 Educational and career orientation

In literature, one can find many similar-sounding terms that are used to present the content related to the choice of education and career. The most common terms include: career and educational pre-orientation and orientation, career and educational counselling, outplacement. In order to organize the terminology as criteria, four factors are distinguished. The first relates to the period in which the activities related to knowledge of professions take place. Another factor is the scope of these activities, and, above all, their content. Another factor is the form and methods of such activities, i.e. the way they are conducted. The final factor is the result of such activities, which is related to their efficiency or the lack of sufficiency effects (Wiatrovski, 2000, p. 173).

According to Z. Wiatrowski, educational and career orientation is "targeted and organized among students in schools of general education (lower and upper secondary schools). They must choose an appropriate college or higher education institution, and consequently, their career." (Wiatrovski, p. 173).

Moreover, in relevant literature, the following terms appear: career pre-orientation, educational orientation, career orientation, educational and career orientation, counselling, career guidance, outplacement, career selection and retraining.

Career pre-orientation is a system of random but deliberate activities that enable both individuals and teams to acquire knowledge about professions. These are activities taken by parents, organized in kindergartens or in primary schools.

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[1] More about challenges of education in the contemporary world: KARGULOVA, A, KWIATKOWSKI, S. M. and SZKUDLAREK, T. (eds.). *Rynek i kultura neoliberalna a edukacja: praca zbiorowa*. Kraków, 2005.; BOGAJ, A. and KWIATKOWSKI, S. M. (eds.). *Szkoła a rynek pracy: podręcznik akademicki*. Warszawa, 2006.; ŚLIWERSKI, W. (ed.). *Edukacja w wolności*, Kraków, 2008.; *WALANCIK, M.* Współczesne konteksty kształcenia pedagogów szkolnych w sytuacji różnorodności zagrożeń wychowawczych i socjalnych występujących w środowisku ucznia. Malach, J. (ed.). *Specializační vzdělávání ve školství – pojetí a rozvoj profesního zdokonalování vedoucích pracovníků výchovných poradců a preventistů sociálně patologických jevů*. Ostrava: Ostravská Univerzita v Ostravě, 2008, pp. 88-92.

Career orientation is a deliberate activity conducted among the students of lower and upper secondary schools who are facing career decisions related to the choice of a field of study and of a job. Career orientation and counselling are the activities conducted in vocational schools, so among the youth who have already decided their profession, but their knowledge of is still very low and needs to be broadened. Career guidance itself involves working people who either aspire to master their profession or, therefore they will expect some advice or will have to switch careers and choose a new one that will fully meet the new circumstances and their new needs. Activities in the field of career counselling involve people who are looking for a job, who are unemployed. Outplacement involves those who work but want to switch careers, or those who are not employed and are forced to change their careers and also those who want to retrain. Career selection is used both in choosing a career and reviewing suitability of employees.

The term of career orientation was adopted at the conference of UNESCO experts in November 1970, where it was agreed that career orientation is "[...] assistance offered to an individual so that they could take advantage of their characteristics, as well as creating the possibility of such development that they are able to choose for themselves in the course of changing conditions of life; the most appropriate type of education and career useful for the society on one hand, and on the other hand to achieve self-fulfilment." (Woyczyńska, 1973, p. 9).

While examining different definitions of the above mentioned terms in literature, educational and career orientation can be defined as helping students in choosing their education and career path, taking into account their psychosocial abilities and limitations, interests, needs, aspirations and systems of values.[2]

3 History of career counselling in Poland

Socially and legally regulated activities in the field of career counselling appeared in an organized form only in the late 1890s and the early 1900s as a result of the scientific and technological revolution. However, there is evidence that in ancient times, some activities aimed to develop an ideal profile of a worker. In Plato's Republic such personal qualities were emphasised that enable people to play their professional roles well (Szajek, 1979, pp. 13-14).

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[2] See also: BARANIAK, B. (ed.). *Współczesne problemy poradnictwa i edukacji zawodowej.* Warszawa 2007.; BEDNARCZYK, H., FIGURSKI, J. and ŻUREK M. (eds.). *Pedagogika pracy. Doradztwo zawodowe*. Warszawa: Radom, 2004.; GERLACH, R., KULPA-PUCZYŃSKA, A. and TOMASZEWSKA-LIPIEC, R. (eds.). *Wybrane problemy pedagogiki pracy w aspekcie przygotowania do zatrudnienia*. Bydgoszcz, 2008.; KARGULOWA, A. *O teorii i praktyce poradnictwa*. Warszawa, 2006.

In Poland, the origins of career counselling date back to the 16th century, when the works of Polish authors mention the need to take into account one's abilities and interests in career development since their early childhood. Counselling had been developing in the 19th century until the post-war times in the 20th century, when career counselling activities were hindered due to the criticism of dividing people according to their abilities. The late 1950s and the 1960s in Poland were the times of changing career counselling organizations. The idea was to prepare young people for the proper choice of their career in accordance with social needs, individual abilities, aptitude and interests (Szajek, pp. 14-37). A characteristic feature of counselling in the 1970s and 80s was the specialists' help to young people in choosing their career, which was offered by Educational and Career Counselling Centres, reporting to the Ministry of Education. In the 1970s, counselling units for adults were established in departments of employment social affairs, which reported to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. After political transformation, career counselling was given a new dimension. It turned out that in a market economy, people themselves had to take responsibility for their own professional future so they should plan their careers themselves.

An increase in the phenomenon of unemployment caused the issue of career counselling becoming particularly important. Not only did the purpose of career advice change, it was also suitable for employment. Adults, whose professional qualifications and aspirations did not fulfil the needs of the free market, were seeking for information as well.[3]

4 The legal foundations of career counselling in Poland

The issue of counselling in choosing a field of education is regulated in Poland by numerous acts of law.

The Constitution of the Republic of Poland from the 2nd of April, 1997 in Art. 65 says that every citizen has the freedom to choose a job and a place of work. The Article also states that public authorities pursue a policy aiming at full productive employment by implementing programmes to combat unemployment, including organizing, supporting career counselling and training, as well as public works and assisted employment (http://www.sejm.gov.pl/prawo/konst/polski/kon1.htm).

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[3] More in SZCZEPAŃSKA-WOSCZYNA, K. Challenges of the labour market for knowledge, skills and attitude of managers-to-be. MIKOŁAJCZYK, Z. and MARTIN, C. (eds.). *Formation et developement des competences manageriales dans l'Europe elargie*. Łódź: Wyd. UŁ, 2004, 358-365; LIS, M. Innowacyjny system zarządzania WCM na przykładzie przedsiębiorstwa produkcyjnego. DAWIDZIUK, S. and LEWANDOWSKI, M. (eds.). *Innowacyjność w zarządzaniu: jakością, produkcją, logistyką, personelem i organizacją. Nauka i praktyka*. Warszawa: Wyd. Wyższej Szkoły Menedżerskiej w Warszawie, 2012, pp. 63-64.

The Act from the 7th of September, 1991 for the System of Education in Section 1, obliges schools to adapt the fields and content of education to the labour market requirements and to develop students' basic entrepreneurship conducive to actively participate in economic life, to prepare students for choosing their job or the field of education and to provide conditions for the development of students' interests and talents by organizing extra-curricular activities and after-school programmes, as well as developing social activity and leisure skills.

The Maastricht Treaty from the 7th of February, 1992 also relates to career counselling in part - in Art.126. The scope of career counselling issues was extended to the education-related issues (Art.126), linking it with the process of vocational training and preparation for the labour market (Article 127) (http://eur-lex.europa.eu/pl/treaties/dat/11992M/htm/11992M.html).

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education and Sport from the 15th of January, 2001 on detailed rules of operation for psychological and educational counselling centres and other public specialist counselling centres, and the framework of the Statute of these centres (Journal of Laws No. 13 item 109) emphasizes that centres must provide assistance to students in choosing a field of study or a job (http://www.interklasa.pl/portal/index/strony?mainSP=subject pages&mainSRV=nauczyciel&methid=1074927672&page=subpage&article_id =321200&page_id=20075).

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education and Sport from the 21st of May, 2001 on the framework statutes of state kindergartens and state schools (Journal of Laws, 200, 1 No. 61, item 624 as amended) says that principals are required to include the intramural career counselling system and activities related to the choice of education in the statute (http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet? id=WDU20010610624).

Another Regulation of the Minister for National Education and Sport from the 7th of January, 2003 on the rules of providing and organizing psychological and pedagogical counselling in state kindergartens, schools and institutions (Journal of Laws, 29 January, 2003) says in Section 2.1 that the psychological and pedagogical counselling involves in particular: supporting students in choosing further education, job, career planning and providing information in this area, as well as supporting teachers in organizing the intramural counselling system and the activities associated with the choice of education and career. It also specifies the tasks and qualification requirements for career counsellors (Section 15) (http://pedagogszkolny.pl/zmoje/rozporzadzenie2.htm).

The Regulation of the Ministry of National Education and Sport from the 23rd of May, 2004 on the pedagogical supervision and the list of positions requiring pedagogical qualifications specifies indicators of activities, related among others to career orientation and student's career planning.

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education from the 12th of March, 2009 specifies qualifications required for teachers, defining schools and cases in which teachers with no higher education or completed teacher training can be

employed (Journal of Laws, No. 50, item 400). The Regulation specifies the desired qualifications of candidates for the position of a teacher - counsellor in various educational institutions.

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education from the 17th of November, 2010 sets the principles of providing and organizing psychological – pedagogical counselling in state kindergartens, schools and institutions (Journal of Laws No. 228 item 1487), says that psychological and pedagogical counselling in kindergartens, schools and institutions is provided to students by teachers, tutors and specialists who perform tasks in the field of psychology and pedagogy. In kindergartens, schools and institutions, especially psychologists, educators, speech therapists and career counsellors are called "specialists". Psychological and pedagogical counselling is provided to students, among others in the form of activities related to the choice of a field of education, of a job, education and career planning. The Regulation also defines the duties of a career counsellor.

The acts of law regulating the activities in the area of career counselling include documents in force in the Public Employment Services. The Act on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions from the 20th of April, 2004 (Journal of Laws 2008 No 69, item 415) defines that a career advisor, through group or individual career counselling helps to choose a field of education and a job. He/she takes into account psycho-physical abilities and a life situation of advice seekers, as well as current labour market needs. The Act also specifies rules of career counselling (http://www.google.pl/url?sa=t&rct=j&q= &esrc=s&frm=1& source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCwQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fisap.sejm.gov.pl %2FDownload%3Fid%3DWDU20040991001%26type%3D3&ei=lUZ6Ur6hL5 HTsgbe2ICwAg&usg=AFQjCNFz-cPEF_ikEnw_H4mrXa4iE5qHg&sig2=LnP-sczwuUh1YzuBq8coRQ&bvm=bv.55980276,d.Yms).

Regulation of the Minister for Labour and Social Policy from the 14th of September, 2010 is the standards and conditions of providing labour market services (Journal of Laws No. 177, item 1193) says in Section 36 that career counselling and information are provided through: advice or individual information, advice, group information, support offered to a national employer to select candidates for the position advertised in the national job offer, making career information resources available to those who are registered or unregistered.

A process of solving the career problem, called an "advisory process", consists in providing help by a career counsellor in the forms mentioned above and using the appropriate tools (http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU201017711 93).

5 Tasks, objectives, rules and methods of career orientation and counselling

Educational and career counselling is a system of multi-stage pedagogical and psychological activities that accompany an individual during his/her career. These include all activities related to providing help both to students and adults in planning, creating and developing careers that give satisfaction and professional success. The primary purpose of career counselling is to stimulate professional development of young people and adults. It should enable them to choose their own career path actively and independently. This objective can be achieved by providing appropriate conditions and resources, as well as developing special programmes and methods. Differentiation based on age of people enables them to know themselves, their strengths and weaknesses, to learn professions, the relaxing techniques, to cope with stress, to present themselves appropriately, to learn the principles of non-verbal communication, to write letters of applications and CVs (Lelińska, 2000).

In the current system of career counselling in Poland, the following two elements should be distinguished: career counselling for young people, career counselling for adults, the unemployed and job seekers. The former is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The latter - of the National Employment Office, reporting to the Minister of Labour and Social Policy.

Career orientation and counselling primarily involve: collecting and disseminating information on the labour market, jobs, training opportunities, providing with individual career advice, commissioning and conducting psychological, pedagogical and medical tests to determine career aptitude and career suitability; organizing and giving classes to job seekers, where they can acquire practical skills of a job search; offering assistance to companies to select candidates for the job especially for positions requiring special abilities, cooperating with institutions dealing with career counselling and orientation, doing research on unemployment in the local labour markets (Bańka, 1995, pp. 75-76).

The contemporary labour market causes the continuous development of the sphere of action, such as career orientation and counselling. Better counselling therefore means new counselling demands, namely: preventing career failures; preventing excluding processes in professional life; preventing layoffs of older workers; preventing accidental and inappropriate adaptation to the professional situation; learning to train in one's free time as a way of improving qualifications or preparing for a job, long-term career planning; decompensating effect of professional responsibilities (Waidner, Sturm and Bauer, 1996, pp. 7-8).

6 A career counsellor - requirements, role and models

The main duties of a career counsellor include offering advice to a client (student, adult) aiming to help in the following areas: recognizing the skills, competencies, interests, talents, gaining knowledge and skills in the field of self-knowledge, job search, interpersonal communication, professional and social roles, knowledge about professions, making rational education and career decisions, determining or supporting individual career and education paths, giving opinions about employment suitability on the basis of diagnosis and the opinion of specialists, interviews and document analysis.

Other duties include: collecting, compiling, disseminating information about jobs, ways of acquiring professional qualifications, the needs of the labour and education market, establishing relationships with partners and clients of career counselling services, participating in conferences, symposia, trade fairs in the sector of career counselling, employment intermediation, education, social welfare and rehabilitation of the disabled, preparing and organizing job fairs, education fairs and career days.

The most common methods of individual and group work used by a counsellor include: counselling conversation, interview and document analysis, observation, analysis of the medical tests results, specialist opinions, conducting psychological and pedagogical tests and their analysis - methods used in correlation with the career counsellor's education, group counselling: workshops, training courses, interpersonal courses, providing the group with information and conducing professional lessons.

In order to do a job of a career counsellor, it is necessary to have a university degree. It is essential to strengthen the expertise by completing postgraduate studies in the field of career counselling, excluding those who hold a diploma of an educator or psychologist specializing in career counselling. In order to perform tasks of a career counsellor, it is also necessary to have broad social competences, in addition to multifaceted knowledge.

Numerous models of career counsellor's activity include two of the most popular: directive and non-directive models within which a career counsellor can take four roles: expert, informer, consultant, and reliable guardian. The "expert" and the "informer" roles are the directive types. Their activities are based on the fundamental assumptions of the psychological concept of behaviourism. An "expert-counsellor" is the one who "knows" what is best for the advice seeker. He or she knows about the client's problematic situation, how it should be resolved. He or she is experienced, very knowledgeable, can evaluate cases very well (Wojtasik, 1993, p. 10). A counsellor may impose professional advice having regard to his/her own system of moral, ethical and cultural values (Wojtasik, p. 5).

An "informer" is less directive than the "expert". His/her role is mainly to provide information on specific jobs, education paths, the labour market needs

and opportunities for future employment. In general, it can be said that in directive counselling it seems to be more important to achieve the counsellor's goal rather than have a human contact with him or her (Wojtasik, 1993, pp. 10-12).

Non-directive counselling imposes a role of either a "reliable guardian" or a "laissez-faire" counsellor. In this model, a counsellor offers to an advice seeker unconditional acceptance, respect, understanding, tolerance and empathy. He or she leaves space for the development of the individual, but does not take responsibility for solving the problem of the advice seeker. This does not make him or her comply with his/her decisions. He or she does not claim to be a moral role model for advice seekers, but he or she accompanies in solving human dilemmas and making career decisions. 'Voluntary acceptance of help" is extremely important here. A man having freedom of choice can create his or her own destiny. A counsellor provides him or her only with mental support (Wojtasik, p. 9). In this model, the career counsellor's task is to help the advice seekers "regardless of the values they express" (Węgłowska-Rzepa, 1988, cited in Kargulowa and Jędrzejczak, 1988, p. 59).

Career counselling is gradually departing from the directive model in favour of the non-directive one. The idea is not to give advice-seekers ready-made recipes or solutions to their own problems, but to teach them how to solve them by themselves.

7 Examples of good practice

In Poland, there are many examples of good practice in the area of career counselling, both at schools and in external institutions. School Career Centres are popular at schools and they are established based on the belief that a process of human professional development starts in early childhood. It is a period when our attitudes to work develop alongside with our skills and abilities and the first educational decisions are made. School Career Centres are places where school career counsellors work with young people. This work can take many forms: lectures, talks, training, courses, group workshops, individual counselling and own work supervised by the school career counsellor. These resources for the constant presence of a school career counsellor enable young people of lower and upper secondary schools to have a chance to learn about the labour market and develop their vocational and non-vocational skills so successfully, that they can compete for a place in the working life with young people from other European Union countries.

Career guidance and counselling services are also provided by the Voluntary Labour Corps (OHP), which established Centers for Education and Labour employing counsellors. OHP is a state-governed unit whose main tasks include: to support the education system by making young people socially, professionally and economically active; to take steps to improve qualifications or retrain; to

support initiatives aimed at combating unemployment and educating in the work process. This is including organizing employment and international youth cooperation.

The purpose of the OHP's activity is to create conditions for the proper social and professional development of young people, including specific actions targeting disadvantaged young people. Voluntary Labour Corps, as an institution of the labour market, conducts comprehensive activities related to the labour market and addressed to young people between 15-25 years of age.

Within OHP, activities for the labour market are conducted by nearly 620 entities, which include: Youth Education and Job Centres, Mobile Vocational Information Centres, Youth Employment Centres and their branches, Youth Career Centres, Job Agencies, ESF Vocational Training Centres and Job Clubs.

In 2012, in Youth Employment Centres, more than 178 thousand young people looking for a job were registered, 175.000 jobs were acquired, more than 180 thousand people were offered a job, and 117 thousand of them took up a job. An important role is played by job exchanges and job fairs organized every year by all Youth Education and Job Centres throughout the country and by their subordinate units. In 2012, the OHP organized 204 job fairs and 1268 job fairs across the country, where young people had the opportunity to establish contact with employers and to have access to job offers and to familiarize with possibilities of obtaining support from the OHP in developing individual careers. More than 90 thousand places of employment were offered at job fairs and on job exchanges.

Career Development Offices operating at universities also play an important role.[4] The main determinant of their activity is the difficult situation of graduates in the labour market, so the problem of finding a satisfactory job. There is also the problem of adjusting the qualifications and interpersonal skills to the needs of the labour market in the EU. In education, new challenges are emerging, which include: adapting study programmes to the requirements of the contemporary labour market, also increasing the level of education, making changes in the educational offer, defining key skills, establishing cooperation with other institutions, including those outside the field of education, using information and communication technology, as well as increasing the flexibility of different solutions (Szczepańska-Woszczyna, 2007, cited in Szczepańska-Woszczyna and Dacko-Pikiewicz, 2007, p. 7). In these areas, the career development office is an intermediary between university graduates, students and the labour market.

According to the Act on Employment Promotion and Labour Market Institutions, Career Development Offices are units run by universities, which offer employment support to university students and graduates.

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[4] More about activities of career development offices: MADEJ, E. Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi. *Akademickie biura karier*, No 2, 2005, pp. 76-84.

8 Conclusion

Choosing the proper field of education can influence subsequent choices, including the educational ones. It is important to choose the educational path that develops creativity and teaches us how to make own decisions. A particularly important aspect is to draw attention to graduate employability and their ability to undertake economic activity (Połturzycki, 2005, p. 21).

Unfortunately, the first educational decisions are taken when people are too young, immature or with little independence, full of anxiety and in need for support. The first support is offered by the family, but this help is unprofessional, based on emotional ties and is often subjective.[5] To make it more objective, a system of organized specialist and professional assistance based on rational principles is necessary.

Taking into account the changes in the world of work, employment, technology and social life, activities in the field of educational and career counselling must be modified and thereby extended so as to meet the requirements of the 21st century. Nowadays, the labour market is very diverse and dynamic. Employers demand more of workers, on the other hand the development of science and technology gives easier access to knowledge, etc., so employees are able to meet the increasing demand.

Educational and career counselling is no longer seen as a one-off help to a person who is looking for a new education and career path. It is a process in which a counsellor helps his or her clients achieve a better understanding of themselves in relation to the working environment, leading to making good choices of education, the nature of work and proper professional adjustment. It is necessary to offer such forms of assistance to those seeking new ways of personal development, experiencing failure and having a general sense of confusion. Therefore career development offices at universities play such an important role. Along with the increasing demands of the labour market, changing economic and social conditions, the goals of institutions conducting activities in educational and career counselling are also changing and expanding.

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[5] More about a role of family in creating child's identity in:: NIKITOROWICZ, J. *Kreowanie tożsamości dziecka. Wyzwania edukacji międzykulturowej,* Gdańsk: Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Psychologiczne, 2005.

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Medical Education in the Field of Communication as a Value and a Means of Health Quality Improvement

Jana Goriup – Kleopatra Kodrič[*]

Vita brevis, ars longa, accasio valucris, experientia periculosa, idicium, difficile. Nec vero satis est, medicum suum fecisse officium, nisi suum quoque aegrotus, sum astantes faciant, sintque: externarite comparata.

Life is short, art is long, opportunity is fleeting, experience is dangerous, judgement is hard. It is not enough if the doctor does his job, when it is necessary, but the patients have to contribute their part as well and so do other life circumstances. (first Hipocrates Aforism)

Abstract: The article discusses the issues of communication between a doctor and a patient as one of the main approaches within the patients' medical treatment. This approach, which includes the field of communication in medicine as a value, more and more appears as obligatory not only in the field of profession itself, but also in the field of the patients' needs. Communication covers a huge part of our social as well as intimate lives. Our social functioning is based on communication. The transfer and preserving of values is based on communication. Especially in the field of medicine, the function of communication appears to be one of the key elements to allow a better and complete treatment of the patient. The article discusses studies which have shown that communication skills have to be developed, it is advisable to introduce them into the educational programmes for med students and medical staff. Researches have shown that students, who were taught the field of communication skills, later as doctors or medical staff obtained a lot more information about patients than those who were not given such education.
Key words: communication, doctor, patient, education, values.

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1 Introduction

Communication is the central and most basic process in society. Communication intertwines the broadest segment of society, i.e. from the public sphere to the most basic cell of society – the family. Apart from all the important processes taking place in our lives and the public sphere, communication (between family members, within a team, at work, between doctors and patients) and solving problems as current issues have become the central thematic chapters in the field of health. Brajša (1982) defines conflicts as a relationship crisis or crisis in development. The one who does not admit the existence of the development crisis denies development. There is no development without conflicts (Brajša, 1982, p. 52). The doctor-patient relationship and the question of trust are among the key issues that must be dealt with.

Communication allows people to interact and co–operate. Communication in the field of medicine represents a two-way flow of messages between the doctor and the nurse on one side and the patient on the other side, with empathy and trust being very important here. The essence of the doctor's empathy is his/her ability to listen. Doctors who are able to recognize their patients' feelings are more successful in their treatment.

When getting in touch with a patient, the doctor takes responsibility not only for the treatment but also for the patient as an individual. An individual approach based on mutual communication must be applied. The essence of building trust is communication, however, it must not be stereotypical, routine, phlegmatic or impersonal.

The relationship between the doctor and the patient is based on an interactive process and has to be equal. The doctor has the role of an experienced professional and the patient is his/her active co-operator in the process of treatment. While building the relationship with a patient, The Medical Deontology Codex (http://www.zdravniskazbornica.si/zzs.asp?FolderId=386) can be helpful for the doctors. The Codex is meant to be used as a guide for doctors when assessing his way of treatment. In the postmodern society, the relationship and communication between the doctor and the patient are often perceived as negative, especially due to the deficient and (sometimes) simple health care organization. Doctors do not have enough time for one patient (7 minutes on average!!!) and patients become objects for the doctor. Thus, medicine is going through a crisis of mistrust based on the depersonalisation of the patient.

2 Communication and education of doctors

In the process of communication with patients, doctors often face demanding situations since clinical practice requires high degree of empathy on the side of doctors. On the other hand, doctors are also advised not to show patients their feelings and emotions. They must realize that empathic communication is

neither a method nor a technique and it cannot be "easily learnt". However, sympathy and empathy are crucial dimensions within the relationship between the doctor and the patient.

In their offices, doctors are confronted with their daily routine work because of many patients, but especially due to the enormous lack of time for them. Doctors often advise their patients (by routine) to go to another doctor, i.e. to see a specialist. The result of such a relationship is unsatisfied and disappointed patients who wander from one office to another, from clinic to clinic and whose expectations have not been fulfilled (Gottschlich, 1998, p. 35). A respect towards patients' autonomy and dignity are the essential features of doctors' empathetic communication.

Ule (2003) states that the results of research on general medicine study programmes show that doctors do not possess enough knowledge about communication. During their studies, they are only given general instructions on how to interview patients. These instructions are referred to diagnostic methods. Most doctors are enabled to competently find the history of physical symptoms, however, they are not trained nor motivated to connect these to patients' psychological and/or social symptoms (for example: fears, conflicts in their surroundings, etc.). Thus, the author notices that a lot of students finish their medicine studies without adequate communication skills.

In the paper entitled Communication Skills for Medicine (2004) the authors Margaret Lloyd and Robert Bor discuss what should good communication be like, reminding that communication is the core of health care. Special attention should be paid to the research of Peter Magguire in Manchester who, together with students of medicine, interviewed patients about the students' ability to perform an interview. The patients were attracted by those interviewers who showed warmth and attention as well as those they could easily communicate with. Those students introduced themselves to the patients, showed self–awareness, listened to the patients, reacted to their comments and asked questions in an appropriate way without repeating themselves. This is also the answer to the question why good communication is important. It allows a better care of patients.

Doctors who communicate with their patients well and in an appropriate way, set a detailed diagnosis and can also see a patient's emotional instability. Thanks to the possession of that skill, patients trust the doctor and follow the doctor's instructions during treatment. It is also evident that communication has a positive impact on patients' physical condition, e.g. their blood pressure. Research has shown that patients whose communication with their doctors was successful, had less problems with high blood pressure or were successful at stabilising it (Lloyd and Bor, 2004, pp. 3-4).

Each patient must be aware of his role and tasks in the process of diagnostics, during treatment and has to take responsibility for this process. One of the

patient's task it to respond to the doctor's findings and initiatives, passively or actively depending on the situation.

Despite the above mentioned, there is still some bad communication present between the doctor and the patient. A research (Lloyd and Bor, 2004), focused on the patients' reactions to the surgeon's demands, has been realised in Florida. Comparing the patients' reactions to the surgeon's demands, the complaints mainly referred to the doctors' behaviour, i.e. they were not listening, did not inform the patients and did not show any interest or understanding towards them. In countries where patients complain less about their doctors they openly express their dissatisfaction regarding the way their doctors communicate with them. The authors' answer to the question whether communication skills can be learnt is that this is impossible if med students copy the communication model of their teachers. A good communication model needs effective elementary schooling and education in the field of communication. Realizing this fact, some medical educational institutions have already reacted to the need for good elementary communication and have already included a subject based exclusively on gaining knowledge and skills in the field of communication into the process of professional (medical) education.

In the 1970s of the last century, studies were performed, by students of psychiatry, too, in the field of teaching communication between doctors and patients to find out about the problems in the doctor-patient communication. The most important two reasons standing out were that the doctors did not obtain all necessary information about the patient and they "forgot" to ask the patient some essential questions about their problems, since they did not notice any non-verbal messages of the patient: in brief, they showed no interest (Lloyd and Bor, 2004, pp. 4-5).

In the course of this study, the students were divided into two groups, the control group and the feedback group. Their task was to obtain information about the patient and his/her anamnesis within 15 minutes while being recorded. An additional task of the feedback group was to handle two more patients. Again, this procedure was recorded. After the interviews, they discussed their mistakes with their mentor. Afterwards, both groups made an additional interview with the patients, which showed that the feedback group was more successful in communication, since they had obtained three times more information about the family anamnesis of the patients than the control group. Similar studies were realized with the medical staff, too, and most of them showed that students, who had been taught the field of communication with the patient, in the end had much more success in communication with patients. An interesting question, which arose in this, was whether the gained knowledge in the field of communication would fade after some time or it would remain. The question was answered and confirmed by the same study four to six years later, when the interviewed people, who had been the same students at that time, were already doctors. Again, the hypothesis confirmed that the feedback group students, i.e.

the group which had attended additional education in the field of communication with patients, were better at communication. Finally, we can confirm the fact that good communication can be learnt and it helps to build a good relationship with the patient (Lloyd and Bor, 2004, p. 5).

Doctor-patient communication is a process in the organization where the doctor works. He/she guarantees the flow of information from its source to the user, i.e. the patient or family member (Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, pp. 175-176). Such a communication exceeds economic, social, cultural or interpersonal differences and produces trust, respect and co-operation. However, good communication does not necessarily mean that the doctor and the patient will agree in everything and it does not mean that there will be no dissatisfaction, mistakes, faults, complaints or even conflicts. These can also be the consequence of unrealistic expectations of the patients and their "blind trust" in medical technology as well as a lack of knowledge or understanding such procedures. Another reason could be the doctor's routine approach towards the patients, a lack of motivation for work or professional disinterest. This kind of complaints may be reduced by good communication.

Greene says that the majority of cultures do not use compulsive communication anymore, even "under-cover" compulsion, as he names it, is out and nowadays not used. The fact that it is not effective in motivation anymore is very important (Greene, 1991, p. 28).

When, in the process of communication, the doctor should get closer to the patient as a co-speaker and to show respect towards him/her. The doctor should try to listen to the patients and find out what they want, what troubles and motivates them. Ule (2003) accentuates that communication is based on mutual respect and she also exposes that communication is a form of treatment (as well). In each communication relationship there is an unfelt and priceless treatment potential hiding, however, there are unexpected dark sides which can arise as well and these arise due to the doctor's relationship towards him/herself or his/her own wounds which are hidden many times. Research has shown that being isolated from communication makes people sick. For such people seeing the doctor means running away from isolation and, of course, such patients wish to talk to the doctor even more. That is why the author emphasises that family doctors should "play" the role of a communication therapist (Ule, 2003, p. 131).

If the patient sees that the doctor will not give any clear instruction and answers to his questions about his/her health problems, he feels helpless, numb and becomes inactive in the process of treatment. Their reactions are unmotivated and it seems that they accept their situation. That is why they do not ask questions nor express their doubt. They become "obedient", manageable, and especially in the process of treatment, they co-operate.

On the contrary, the patients' style of communication influences the doctor who should pay attention to the patient also on the level of his/her own perception of the disease. Research confirms that the patient's perception of the illness

significantly influences the course of treatment. Surely, each doctor-patient relationship has its own characteristics. Unfortunately, patients do not have many positive communication experiences nowadays. From the doctor's point of view, the communication is mostly set into some conversational routine to find out the diagnosis and for further treatment. Research (Gottschlich, 1998, p. 10 cited in Ule, 2003) confirms that, due to this conversational routine, doctors do not obtain essential information which would be helpful for a higher quality treatment (Ule, 2003, pp. 131-132).

Some researchers (Fox, 1993, Hak, 1994, Roth, 1969, cited in Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, pp. 102) say that the way of communication between patients and doctors varies according to individual social groups. Based on their findings, communication is of a higher quality between the members from the middle and higher social classes, not due to the social status of the social groups nor their status in the community, but due to their similar cultural background since doctors originate from these social classes and therefore the cultural similarity is obvious.

Ule (cited in Janežič, 2004, pp. 22-23) accentuates that treatment has been connected with communication in different forms for ages. She exposes that communication is based on mutuality and mutual engagement of the doctor and the patient as in this way the dualism between the doctor and the patient is exceeded. However, here we have to consider that illness, as well as the process of treatment itself is not only the patient's problem but the doctor's as well. Ule is convinced that the doctor's words represent the means for helping and treating the patient, however they can also be harmful. This way the doctor and the patient become partners in the process of treatment. In this process communication plays a significant role as both the patient and the doctor act as partners in the process of communication complementing and assessing each other based on their experiences and knowledge. Often, we are not aware enough that conversation means a lot more to the patient than just medicine. Kind and friendly words let him/her hope to recover (Janežič, 2004, pp. 22-23).

Unfortunately, communication is often a one-way process because patients (mostly) do not speak much or are silent, it is only the doctor who speaks. Kersnik (cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 23) believes that doctors should know and effectively use both the verbal and the non-verbal forms of communication. Most of all he/she should be able to lead a consultation with the patient, say bad news, ease the patient's and his/her relatives' acceptance of terminal phases, talk about mental signs without embarrassment, rationally use medicine for the treatment of mental problems and consult psychic help. The author reminds us that patients must feel that the doctor pays attention to them and is ready for consultation. However, such interaction requires the possession of communication skills (Janežič, 2004, pp. 23-24).

As our discussion includes the field of communication between the doctor and the patient, it is necessary to expose the fact which, by Ule (2003), is named

motivating communication field. It is of elementary importance for a hurt modern human being. It is the communication between the doctor and the patient which has a main, central position, no matter if this position is opposed and underestimated in modern medicine. This is the reason why the relationship between the doctor and the patient is determined to fail in advance. The main problem here is the identity of both, what is the reason why doctors' communication is intended just for diagnosing, noticing and standardising the illness (Ule, 2003, p. 131).

3 Patients' needs in communication with the doctor

In the article Working toward the best doctor–patient communication (2011), Leo L. F., a psychiatrist and a representative of the Clinical Centre of the Pediatric Section in Singapore, presents the results of an analysis made in 1989. It revealed that doctor-patient communication is a one–way process as the doctor mainly gives instructions instead of allowing to run the communication mutually. Doctors should motivate patients to play an active role in the conversation, i.e. during the medical consultation including the discussion about a patient's physical condition. When patients notice that the doctor is listening to them, they starts to appreciate and consider them more. Such a process is very important for doctors as well since in mutual communication they can notice how the patient understands and accepts the whole medical process. If patients are involved in the process of communication in such a way, they can monitor and view their own treatment in a different way. The author accentuates that doctors are expected to explain the patients their health condition in a comprehensible way. He also consults an appropriate vocabulary that would allow and at the same time simplify and unify the process of doctor-patient communication. The same author exposes the function of the bio-psycho-social factor to assure a more qualitative communication with the patient. Doctors usually do not pay enough attention to the psycho–sociological views of treating the patient. The study by Baberg et al. (Baberg, 2001, cited in Leo, 2011, p. 721) notices that patients' problems are not only of medical but of psychological–emotional nature as well. This is why the author emphasises that doctor-patient communication does not include only questions from the field of symptomatology but social, emotional and behavioural questions as well. In this way, both the doctor and the patient are more satisfied since the patient can co–operate actively in the process of treatment and thus help to establish a partnership with the doctor.

In order to make the doctor-patient communication effective, non–verbal communication is essential.

However, the non–verbal way of the doctor's communication is often disregarded. If non-verbal communication is suitable, indicators such as body language, eye contact and the colour of the voice indicate the patient the level

and intensity of the doctor's interest in his health or health problem. At the same time, non–verbal communication can indicate how much and whether the doctor appreciates the information obtained from the patient. If a doctor manages and considers all the above mentioned, the patient is more satisfied. Surely, the doctor should be aware of the most important signs of non–verbal communication, e.g. face gestures, smiling, mimes, body language, hand position etc.

At this point, the author is right, claiming that a doctor should not use the mentioned elements in his/her communication, neither should he use them just as an example for the purpose of his communication with the patient. A successful, good quality communication process can be characterised by "the ability to communicate with patients in an ethical and effective way it has become a fundamental skill expected from each specialist." (Leo, 2011, pp. 720-725)

Every interpersonal contact is mutual, which means that all we say or even do not express (through our appearance, movements, face expressions, dressing style, etc.) influences the other person. This person can react by showing appreciation, thoughts or even rejection. Our words and the facial expression can make one feel comfortable or, on the contrary, we can even cause some discomfort. When two people meet, their communication is always interactive. We sometimes feel uncomfortable because of the voice of the other person while communicating or even because the other person has no eye–contact with us. Despite all these facts, the conviction that communication is something usual, known to everybody and everyone knows how to communicate, prevails. Words are the essential means of conversation. Communication is always a process of awareness whereas silence expresses a dysfunction in communication. Especially in the field of sociology of health, there is lots of prejudice regarding communication, i.e. communication is unimportant due to other, more important activities and the patient is an unintellectual being who will not understand anything. However, appropriate communication can allow a faster and more correct diagnosis as well as more satisfaction of the patients (Rakovec–Felser, 2002, pp. 206-207).

A problem in doctor-patient communication is presented by the fact that doctors play several very important roles when organizing their work. These roles can be expressed in the process of communication. Thus, the doctor can function as "receptionist" who controls the flow of communication through a communication network. Such a position can be either formal or informal. He/she can also have the function of a moderator or some bridge connecting individual communication sub–systems. It is important that the doctor as the transmitter of the information flow is among other team members, individuals and groups, however, he is not a part of sub–systems which connect them otherwise. A doctor can also be a leader of opinion, and as such plays an informal role of influencing opinions, values, behaviour and decisions of the

patients. The doctor is a formal leader who is hidden. In this case, he/she must be confident, supportive and should have an influence on other group members (anonymous alcoholics). Here his/her role is to remove the limits within the organisation. The higher the doctor's position in the hierarchy of the organisation is, the stronger his influence on the flow of information is. Such a doctor has a lot of social power which is very important for his/her work as well as life environment (Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, p. 189).

When being in contact with patients, doctors are responsible both for the treatment of a particular illness or disease and patients as individuals. Gadžijev (cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 17) says that he/she is often told by young doctors that, during their studies, they were not taught how to communicate appropriately with patients and their family members.

A doctor must be aware of the fact that doctor/patient communication is a complex process, therefore he/she should be interested in the context of patient's life as well (family situation, work circumstances, status, relationships). He/she should also learn about the patient's personal characteristics (self–image, social and cultural capacity, emotional strength, ability to control difficult situations, ability of self–defence, etc.). Furthermore, he/she has to learn about the history of the patient's disease, obtain sufficient information for setting the appropriate diagnosis and understand the patient's problems.

A bad doctor can be characterised as somebody who treats patients as numbers, and does not listen to them. Research has shown that not being treated as an individual with feelings and emotions, patients mostly perceive as unacceptable Thus, the lack of trust endangers the doctor-patient relationship. Patients are the ones who are forced to trust (Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, p. 103).

The actors of a communication process establish mutual connections, their own world and also try to keep these connections (Ule, 2009, p. 16).

The question of good communication with patients and of appropriate information delivery is of a great importance in medicine and health care. Philip Lay (cited in Payne and Walker, 2002, pp. 99-100) found that good communication is a very important component for patients. This is especially true when we want the patient to consider appropriately the doctor's advice regarding taking medicine, as inappropriate use of medicine can have bad consequences. The use of technical slang in medicine is a common communication problem as well.

Communication is a part of treatment, it is based on mutuality and mutual engagement, especially calming the other person. That is why effective communication in medicine depends on several factors. The most important factor here is to respect the patient and consider his/her views and opinions. During the process of communication, eye–contact is necessary and the doctor has to take his/her time to explain things in an appropriate, simple and comprehensible way (Prebil, Mohar and Fink, cited in Kapler, 2011, p. 31).

Special features of communication, especially ethical principles, respecting the patient's personality, considering the obligation of secrecy, the patient's rights, his/her culture and the principle of co-operation which includes the principle of partnership without a hierarchy as well. Generally, it is necessary to get rid of the former relationship between a high–standing, all–knowing doctor and a totally dependent weak patient. Medical work should be based on interaction and it is the doctor who should take care of this. Thus, the relationship between the doctor and the patient should be warm, human and characterised by a certain level of sympathy on the side of the doctor. Certainly, the patient above all needs good treatment and not sympathy, but there is also some emotional affection needed which should not be an obstacle for a doctor (Trček, 1994, pp. 189-199). Since the nature of doctor-patient communication is complex – it unites professional distance and the intimacy of the patient's problems, it is hard to set and define exact rules of communication. What is more, communication in this profession is influenced by various factors and, sometimes, by special, unusual situations. Nevertheless, there are some communication competencies that every doctor should possess, i.e.:

- giving exact and sufficient information,
- careful and active listening and reacting to the patient's resistance,
- correct or appropriate interpreting of the diagnosis, giving clear and comprehensible instructions to the patient, professional behaviour (especially when having a physical contact during health examination),
- respecting the patients' decisions and believes, obtaining credibility and trust.

There is no doubt that doctors must pay attention to each patient, treat them as subjects with own believes, fears, feelings and not as just one of several cases. Each patient is a different individual and, therefore, needs a different approach on the side of the doctor. The problem is that doctors do not have a universal recipe for successful communication and building a high quality relationship with their patients.

4 Classification of doctor-patient relationships

Židanik (cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 19) states that the doctor-patient relationship develops through three phases as follows:

- initial contact – i.e. defeating the first rejection up to the beginning of the therapeutic relationship – an active search for the doctor and making appointments with the recommended doctor,
- evaluation of the doctor – i.e. the phase of development or checking if the doctor is interested in the patient and the patient compares the doctor with other doctors and,
- the phase of balancing – i.e. the establishment of a mutual relationship – the doctor is adequate according to the patient's expectations.

Here Ule notices that the relationship between the patient and the doctor is ambivalent, it is expanded from the patient's uncertainty to the doctor's routine. This is the point where several mistakes of communication between the doctor and the patient emerge from.

In medical practice, Wolf and Flis (Ule, cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 19) distinguish between three models of relationships between the doctor and the patient as follows:

- paternalistic model
- contractual model and
- partner model.

The paternalistic model is based on the doctor's ability and conviction that only he/she is able to help the patient with his/her health problem. In this model the patient is passive whereas the doctor is dominant. Simultaneously, this means that trust in the doctor-patient relationship is very important for treatment. The paternalistic relationship is mostly established when the patient's life is in danger, i.e. in case of accidents, epidemy, surgery, etc. In this model of co–operation the patient is passive and, therefore, totally depends on the doctor.

In the contractual model, the patient asks for medical service and meets a doctor who is the supplier of such medical service. This relationship is to be found in medical centres where various therapeutic and diagnostic services are offered (surgeries, sanatoriums, spas, rehabilitation centres, etc.). This model is more or less a part of marketing mechanism, which mainly occurs in labs, RTG, in cases of minor surgeries, in the field of aesthetic and plastic surgery.

Janežič (2004, pp. 19-20) believes that a partner relationship between the patient and the doctor is the one which allows the patient and the doctor to be equal partners in the process of treatment. Such a relationship is important especially in the treatment of chronic diseases. In this relationship the doctor is an experienced expert and the patient is his/her partner in the process of treatment. Such a relationship can also include the patient's family members who take part in the process of treatment. Ule (cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 20) notices that doctors often combine models of relationships, especially the contractual and the paternalistic relationship, since these do not require as much effort as the partner relationship does.

Gadžijev (cited in Janežič, 2004, p. 21) notices, that in communication with patients, doctors often try to hide their insufficient communication skills by presenting various papers and brochures including complications. Patients often welcome such an approach as they are given information about his disease. But it is not enough, doctors should pay more attention to their patients, they should be given a sufficient amount of information about their disease, diagnosis, treatment and possible complications.

Successful communication requires knowledge of the partner's culture on the doctor's side, i.e. the partner in the process of communication (e.g. the patient, family members, etc.). This mostly depends on the norms and values of the

society in which the process of communication takes place. For instance, when meeting someone, a Slovene usually shakes hands whereas an Indian bows. If a doctor experiences major cultural differences at his work and in communication, he/she violates the rules and principles of the partner in case that he/she is not aware of them. This is not only uncomfortable but the doctor is also expected to expand his knowledge and to understand the messages in communication, i.e. be able to describe and foresee how the others will behave and to understand their reactions. The most frequent obstacles in communication between the doctor and foreigners are ethnocentrism, stereotypes and prejudice. Communication between people with the same or similar cultural background is definitely easier (Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, pp. 193-194).

Certain social and cultural factors come to expression when doctors meet people with other habits and from other cultural and social environment. In such cases, people behave in the way they were taught. Thus, communicating with foreign patients does not only mean understanding a foreign language but it also requires open-mindedness and a capacity to accept differentness. Belonging to a certain social class influences the way how somebody accepts, understands and reacts in a certain situation. Thus, the factors of our environment are connected not only to social but also to cultural factors. The technical aspects of communication are important as well, especially nowadays. As much information as possible must be processed in a short time. Media and IT–systems play a crucial role here. The latter have a great influence on the possibility of diagnosing and clinical treatment and they are more and more included in the work of nurses and doctors (Filipič, 1998, pp. 221-222).

In the report by the Association of American Medical Colleges entitled Contemporary Issues in Medicine: Communication in Medicine (Report III), in the chapter discussing the importance of effective communication in medicine one can find a research by Barbara Korsch et al., published in the late 1960s, which inspired several studies about communication between doctors and patients. The resolution, confirmed by two committees, i.e. the Liaison Committee on Medical Education and the Committee of the Accreditation of Canadian Medical Schools in 1995, confirms this need for more and more knowledge in the field of communication in medicine in North America. Communication skills are essential for the effectiveness of doctors' work. Their skills have to be assessed and developed by instruction. They refer to their responsibilities including communication with patients, the patients' families, colleagues and other medical staff. Similar orders from the past, obviously were not sufficient in order to change the curriculum. Theory and practice of developing communication skills need systematic attention, elementary knowledge of communication has to be included in the medical curriculum and communication skills have to be assessed. The development and extension of a humanistic approach, which is focused on the patient, have to be accented (Association of American Medical Colleges, 1999, pp. 5-6).

5 Conclusion

The analysis presented allows us to conclude that the global problem of communication in medicine or the doctor-patient communication is in the centre of attention of medicine and health care. Thus, personal, sincere communication between the doctor and the patient on an interpersonal level is an important process stretching to the field of science and social values as well.

Research shows that there is still a lot to do in order to improve the relationship between the patient and the doctor in the field of communication. A survey among the Slovene public (Toš and Malnar, 2002, cited in Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, pp. 125-126) confirmed a high level of trust in doctors as two thirds of the respondents stated that their doctor does everything for them. According to the interviewees, the profession of the doctor enjoys a high level of reputation as well. Furthermore, it is necessary to accentuate the fact that the results showed great correlation between the feelings of happiness and the health of people. The contentment of people referring to their life and feelings of happiness is much worse when their health condition is bad (Bezenšek and Barle, 2007, p. 126).

It is a fact that there is a shift as for healthy lifestyle. Programs supporting better health of individuals gain more and more attention. Thus, expectations regarding the doctor-patient relationship are high. This means that the paternalistic or the contractual model of relationship should grow into the partner model or co–operation between the doctor and the patient which would guarantee an increased quality of values in the society.

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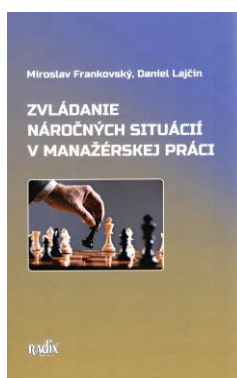http://www.dpbs.si/upload/63577491ee_KAKO_DOBRO_KOMUNICIRATI_Z_ZDRAVNIKOM.pdf

REVIEWS

**Zvládanie náročných situácií v manažérskej práci
[Coping with Demanding Situations in Managerial
Work]
(Miroslav Frankovský – Daniel Lajčin)**

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Miroslav Frankovský and Daniel Lajčin, the authors of the monograph, analyse and suggest methodological solutions for the work of managers who, if in possession of knowledge, competencies, creativity and willingness to learn, have a huge influence on the good functioning of a firm. Managers face various challenging situations that they have to deal with. It is an area of work in which coping with demanding situations play a significant role as it is often connected with solving the existential issues of life. Its results not only affect the whole context of a person's life but also the effectiveness of their managerial activity and functioning of an organization as a whole.

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The contemporary world pays attention to the questions of what these demanding situations really are, what makes them demanding, where we can encounter these situations, what the specifications in the management of an organization are, how it is possible to cope with them and what influences this coping. The reviewed publication in its six chapters focuses primarily on finding the answers to these questions as they are related to the ways managers behave or respond when coping with demanding situations in managerial work.

Demanding situations, according to Frankovský and Lajčin, may be perceived by managers as problematic, critical, conflicting, complicated, unpleasant, stressful or as a possibility to express and enforce one´s abilities, as a challenge or a stepping-stone for their career advancement. Some managers may keep avoiding demanding situations, some perceive them as a normal part of their work and some may even seek them intentionally. The intensity of the situations in managerial work should therefore be interpreted within the context of situational characteristics of performing this work and personality traits of a particular manager. The choice of the form of behaviour in such situations may lead to various consequences. According to how an individual copes with these situations, the behaviour of a person may be defined as self-strengthening or self-threatening. The authors' theory is based on the work of Frankovský, Ištvániková, Štefek (2009) and Fedáková (2002).

Encountering demanding situations by managers, coping with them and residues of these processes may substantially influence the quality of their lives, existence, and their mental and physical health, which is dealt with in the second and third chapter of the monograph. The authors say that searching for effective forms of coping with demanding situations in managerial work is a process which must be based on the interdisciplinary viewpoint on the given problem.

Formulating the essential research questions for coping with demanding situations in managerial work according to Frankovský (2003) assumes: 1. The identification, characterization and classification of situations which managers perceive as problematic, demanding, conflicting, complicated, stressful and unpleasant. 2. The analysis of behaviour of managers when solving and coping with these situations. 3. The nalysis of the interrelations between the forms of coping with demanding situations in managerial work and the dispositional characteristics of a manager.

These three contexts according to Lajčin and Frankovský (2011) are connected with:

- the choice of persons for the managerial positions where they inevitably encounter demanding situations
- preparation of managers at these positions for the effective coping with demanding situations in the management of an organization
- processing the procedures of solving these situations in an organization and its training at the individual levels of management, for example, for highly

risky situations. When defining these contexts the authors cite the thoughts of Pitt and Sims (1998), Talbot (1997) and Slaven and Flin (1994).

The objective of the reviewed monograph is to enrich the knowledge in the area of coping with demanding situations in managerial work both at the methodological level as well as the level of the development of the theory about this area.

Authors therefore paid attention both to the general, theoretical and methodological contexts of framing the issues connected to the ways of coping with demanding situations in managerial work, and the possibilities of measuring, detecting and predicting the behaviour of managers in these situations and the interrelations between the ways of coping and factors occurring in the context of demanding situations.

The scientific monograph presented also the information and knowledge about the development of a new original SSPMPR methodology (Lajčin, Frankovský, 2011) – Ways of behaving in managerial work – which is developed for the needs of detection and prediction of the behaviour of managers when solving demanding situations. Taxonomically, five factors – emotional factors of coping, cognitive factor of coping I, cognitive factor of coping II, behavioral factor of coping I, behavioral factor of coping II – are characterized to enable the assessment of the forms of behavior in demanding situations in managerial work. From the methodological point of view their findings may contribute to the discussion about the interactional approach to the research in social sciences and about the question of dispositional, i.e. situational drafting of the methods of investigation in this area of knowledge.

The presented findings to increase the quality of selection of qualified persons for the managerial positions, education and training of managers, as well as prediction of the possible risk factors of coping with demanding situations in managerial work.

For the development of economy, such theoretical and methodological studies written with the intention to uncover the ways and causes influencing managers' work are very important.

Kritické a tvořivé myšlení v edukaci a výzkumu [Critical and Creative Thinking in Education and Research]
(Jarmila Novotná – Jana Jurčíková)

*Slávka Čepelová**

Jarmila Novotná and Jana Jurčíková, the reviewers of the submitted monograph, have focused the monograph on a serious aspect of the educational process. The monograph's main objective - critical and creative thinking in education and research – should actually be the reality in everyday education in our schools. "Milénium" - the national program of education and nurture, expects students' thinking processes to be almost unlimited. The reviewers present theoretical knowledge combined with demonstrational methods of the development of one´s own critical and creative thinking. Equally coessential is the reviewers' research undertaken with university students from Tomáš Baťa University in Zlín. The unique part is that the reviewers have provided practical methods suggestions alongside the professionally written, theoretical chapters.

Despite the transformation of education as the main aim of "Milénium", there have not been enough occasions for self-experience moments in new teachers' critical thinking. This is why this monograph has considered a possible way for pedagogical students to be given - the opportunity to employ their own experience with the method of developing critical thinking during their university studies. The importance of the submitted monograph is in its usability by readers - the students of faculties of education. As it is known in general, thinking as a mental process is at the highest level of cognitive processes. However, most teaching styles have not changed – teachers pass complete knowledge to students without allowing any space for the students' critical thinking and, surely, they neither do not develop the students' thinking nor their personality. We expect that most of the monograph´s readers were taught by using the above mentioned teaching style. From this point of view, the monograph is timely and necessary for pedagogical students because of the monograph's objectives.

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The monograph is divided into a theoretical and an empirical part. The authors also offer a guide on how to use the monograph in line with the methods and the rules of critical thinking. The monograph's theoretical part discusses and defines the notion of personality and pays attention to cognitive psychology of individuals, their key competencies, critical and creative thinking. This part is finished by a summary of the theoretical aspects, as represented by a scheme, which characterizes the relationship between personality and critical and creative thinking.

In the second, empirical part, the authors bring the results of a research from the USA and the outcomes of a research realized by Czechoslovakian academic researchers. The authors' research has also engaged in the exploration of critical and creative thinking in tertiary education. We consider it very important and necessary to verify the theoretical aspects of creative and critical thinking in practice. The research was performed at Tomáš Baťa University in Zlín with the students of this university. However, there is a weak spot in the research and that is the number of students involved. The summarized research offers various recommendations for practical usage.

We welcome the division of the monograph into several parts in a logical flow and also that the authors ask confirmation questions at the beginning of every chapter. The originality is also very satisfactory. The attractiveness of the paper is that it highlights the efficacy of each chapter as a part of the whole monograph. In the study process, the reader follows the basic components essential for the correct understanding of the notion "critical and creative thinking" step by step. In chapters being logically ordered, the authors have reached a general and an integrated view on the whole notion of personality. They show the specific theory of personality, the methods of personality research and, finally, they reach the basics of critical and creative thinking in crucial personal powers. The results of their own, but also of the foreign research are supported by the latest trends of the education of personality in the states of the EU or the OECD.

Finally, we evaluate this monograph highly positively and we can recommend it as a study material for all students of pedagogy. We appreciate its formal merits, as has already been mentioned in this review. We also appreciate its content. From our point of view, the monograph is easy to read, yet the authors have maintained a professional style. The specific style of the scientific work is upheld throughout the whole monograph.

Questions and recommendations:

The author's research was undertaken with two classes of social pedagogy students, at Tomáš Baťa University in Zlín. We recommend to apply this research to other pedagogical fields of study and to extend the number of respondents.

For which fields of university study, would the authors recommend their methodic programme for developing critical and creative thinking skills?

INFORMATION

The Jubilee of
Professor PhDr. Jozef Konôpka, CSc.

Miron Zelina[*]

A precious person and an outstanding university teacher Professor Jozef Konôpka celebrates his 80th birthday this year. He has been deeply involved in work in the fields of pedagogy and psychology in Slovakia, which he has influenced by his teaching practice, his written reviews and his membership of various committees (he has also been a member of professional committees on pedagogy). He has always asserted that pedagogy should follow the rules of scientific work. At the same time, he has not only been a rigorous reviewer, but also a highly empathetic person, taking into account the personalities of students and of applicants for research and pedagogical degrees. He comes from Kalinka, a village where he spent a beautiful childhood closely connected to work and the environment. He originally studied at the Slovak Agricultural University in Nitra; but his interest in plants and cultivating them gradually grew into an interest in the analogy between growing plants and educating people. That was why his further studies focused on pedagogy in the field of agricultural professionals. He worked at the Agroinstitute in Nitra, where teaching in the agrarian sector was taught. His education and interests enabled him to specialise

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in the field of experimental pedagogy. He has become a specialist, supporting the application of methods based on solid methodological and statistical pedagogy and, studying the context and principles of education. He has been a member of six scientific boards of educational faculties in Slovakia and has supervised and reviewed many diplomas, dissertations and habilitations theses. He has worked at the Faculty of Education of Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra and at the Department of Pedagogy of the Faculty of Philosophy of Comenius University in Bratislava and has cooperated with the Department of Andragogy of Comenius University in Bratislava. His knowledge and experience of biology and chemistry, especially in methodology, are invaluable in the field of pedagogy, too. He is known as a great violinist and a bandmaster and his relationship to folk music and culture have had an influence throughout all his life and have also determined his relationship to traditions and people. He himself says that he is a country boy, and his love of the soil, the countryside, and folk traditions is symbolic – whether in science, in research or in educational work he has stayed "grounded", not flying in the lofty heights of theory, but bringing people knowledge, and new insights, information useful for everyday life in educating new generations. He is very popular both among students and colleagues.

His professional, but especially, human contribution is in "watching", that is in following the principles of experimental pedagogy, including statistical methods applied in experimental and observational methods of research in pedagogy and psychology (V. Filkorn). The experience he has gained from his practice, where he has insisted on asking students questions regarding the relevance of their theses, whether their novelty can be proved and if they are shown to be valid and useful both in theory and practice. He is one of those experts who do not insist on rigidly following the principles of scientific research but rather on taking into account the abilities of a particular student, his motivation for study or for scientific work. Today, when there is a large scale of methods of research and realization of scientific work at the level of diploma, dissertation or habilitation theses, he recommends going back to the roots of scientific research; its original sense and mission. In this lies the value of his work, not only for the present, but also for the future. He often reminds us that the process of cultivation of one's personality, is like the cultivation of a plant – creating conditions for growth; stimulating, supporting and measuring real contributions and the effects of this development as accurately and objectively as possible. Like a plant, a human being should be as useful as possible for others.

We wish Professor Konôpka many years of positive thinking and the continuity of his positive approach to people which is characteristic of him, and also good health and a great joy from his grandchildren. We hope he will continue to be a positive role model for younger generations, who he has influenced in accordance with the intentions of his philosophy of life: to be human and to do everything you can to become a good and wise person.

12th Central European Scientific Symposium (History of Central European Adult Education XII): Economy – Money – Ethics – Politics - Adult Education - Europe's Responsibility Hungary, Debrecen, 1st – 4th October, 2014

Viola Tamášová[*]

The History of Central European Adult Education:
The science of European adult education and the practice of adult education improved spectacularly in the 1980s and 1990s. The international conferences on the history of adult education held in Oxford (1986), Aachen (1988), Jerusalem (1990), Strobl (1992), Brdo (1994), and Jena (1996), mapped the impacts and assessed the new routes of adult education. A team of scientists established around Franz Pöggeler has formed a common way of thinking throughout Europe in this field.

The idea arose at the Brdo conference that it would be worth researching the history of adult education in the Central European region, and the Maribor based professor Dr. Jurij Jug and professor Dr. Franz Pöggeler from Aachen put themselves at the head of the project with Dr. Jože Lipnik and Dr. Jana Bezensek followed them from Maribor, Dr. Elke Gruber joined the group from Graz-Klagenfurt, Dr. Wilhelm Filla, Secretary General at VÖV, from Vienna. After this, the idea of a Central European adult education symposium got the next supportive jolt from Germany: professors Dr. Martha Friedenthal-Haase, Dr. Volker Otto and Dr. Heribert Hinzen supported it and more and more scientists realized the importance of the series of conferences: Dr. František

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Mezihorák in the Czech Republic, Dr. Zenon Jasiński in Poland and professors Dr. Andor Maróti, Dr. Pál Soós, and Dr. Mihály Sári in Hungary.

To share thoughts, researchers and university lecturers from 10-12 countries (not only) from Central Europe assembled regularly in Brdo (1995), St. Wolfgangin Strobl (1996), Rogaška Slatina (1997), Debrecen (1998), Rogaška Slatina (1999), Pécsvárad (2000), Retzhof/Graz (2001), Opole/Radom (2002), Klagenfurt (2006), Pécs (2008), and Dubnica nad Váhom/Trenčianske Teplice (2012), and several volumes came to life as a result of this cooperative mental work.

During the eighteen years, unfortunately, some of the initiators died of old age which hindered them from taking part at conferences organized in different countries in rotation. However, the newly entering generations of scientists picked up the "abandoned torch" and newer and newer institutions started backing the organizers of the conferences. The main patron of the latest conference held in Trenčianske Teplice was the Dubnica Institute of Technology in Dubnica nad Váhom, SR in cooperation with Eötvös József College of Baja. Viola Tamasova (the scientific guarantor of the Symposium), and her institution – DTI-Slovakia, provided a location and conditions for successful academic work, and the content of the conference was later published in two volumes titled Quality the Context of Adult Education and Lifelong Education and Quality Management System of Universities and the Quality of Education.

In Trenčianske Teplice, the plenum of the conference approved that the History of Central European Adult Education XII be held in Debrecen again in 2014, the theme of which is Economy-Money-Ethics-Politics-Adult Education -Europe's Responsibility.

The location is Debrecen, the University of Debrecen and Seat of the Debrecen Academic Committee of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences.

Planned date: 1st - 4th October, 2014.

The backing institution is the Institute of Educational Sciences of the University of Debrecen. The symposium is organized by the Department of Adult Education, as well as Cultural Association for the Development of Adult Education, KultúrÁsz Cultural Association and Dubnica Institute of Technology in Dubnica nad Váhom (Slovakia).

Several plenary sessions and other sessions are planned at the symposium, and a tour of Debrecen, the "Calvinist Rome," as well as a cultural trip in the Tokaj and Sárospatak regions will be included in the program.

More information: web: www.dti.sk/sympozium2014@dti.sk History of Central European Adult Education XII

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Authors of reports of original research should present an accurate account of the work performed as well as an objective discussion of its significance. Underlying data should be represented accurately in the paper. A paper should contain sufficient detail and references to permit others to replicate the work. Fraudulent or knowingly inaccurate statements constitute unethical behavior and are unacceptable. Review and professional publication articles should also be accurate and objective, and editorial opinion' works should be clearly identified as such.

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Authorship of the paper

Authorship should be limited to those who have made a significant contribution to the conception, design, execution, or interpretation of the reported study. All those who have made significant contributions should be listed as co-authors. Where there are others who have participated in certain substantive aspects of the research project, they should be acknowledged or listed as contributors. The corresponding author should ensure that all appropriate co-authors and no inappropriate co-authors are included on the paper, and that all co-authors have seen and approved the final version of the paper and have agreed to its submission for publication.

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Please write your text in good English (American or British usage is accepted, but not a mixture of these). The submission should not exceed 20 pages with figures and tables (format A4, Times New Roman 11, single space). Use decimal points (not commas); use a space for thousands (10 000 and above).

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