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MANAGEMENT, MARKETING

MANAGEMENT, MARKETING

VLIV ORGANIZAČNÍ KULTURY NA INTEGRACI A STABILIZACI KVALIFIKOVANÝCH ZAMĚSTNANCŮ

THE INFLUENCE OF AN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON INTEGRATION OF SKILLED AND QUALIFIED EMPLOYEES

Darina Vážanská

Abstrakt

Organizační nebo také firemní kultura je fenomén a v současné době patří mezi jedno z nejvíce diskutovaných témat. Organizační kulturu firem je možné chápat jako nástroj, který dlouhodobě ovlivňuje úspěšnost a výkonnost firem. Je obecně vyjádřením toho, jak dobře je firma řízená a jaký význam má pro vedení společnosti „spokojený zaměstnanec“. Organizační kultura je formulována již v počátku existence společnosti. Nově nastupující zaměstnanec se s prvními projevy organizační kultury setkává už v procesu adaptace. Proces adaptace je z pohledu organizační kultury možné chápat jako proces ztotožnění se nejen s pravidly, ale především s atmosférou dané společnosti, která je v tomto momentu klíčová pro dlouhodobé setrvání zaměstnance v organizaci. Cílem příspěvku je zdůraznit vliv organizační kultury na integraci a udržení kvalifikovaných zaměstnanců.

Klíčová slova: *organizační kultura, proces adaptace, zaměstnanci, prvky organizační kultury, síla organizační kultury, atmosféra společnosti*

Abstract

An organizational or a firm culture is a phenomena and it is one of the most discussed topics at present. The organizational culture of firms can be understood as an instrument which influences a run of firms. It expresses how well is the firm run and how important is a “satisfied employee” for a company. The organizational culture is defined at the beginning of an existence of a company. A new employee meets a organizational culture during the process of adaptation. The process of adaptation can be understood as a process of the way and employee identifies not only with the rules but most of all with an atmosphere of the company which is very important for staying for a long time. The aim of my contribution is to stress the influence of an organizational culture on integration of skilled and qualified employees.

Key words: *the organizational culture, the process of adaptation, employees, elements of organizational culture, the power of organizational culture, the atmosphere of the company*

1. ÚVOD

Každá firma má svou vlastní firemní kulturu. Kultura firmy je v jednoduché formulaci to, co je pro danou společnost typické a to, co danou společnost charakterizuje. Firemní kultura se projevuje jednak uvnitř firmy a to vzájemnými vztahy a atmosférou na pracovišti, ale také přístupem ke svým zákazníkům či budoucím obchodním partnerům. Podniková kultura by měla vytvářet takové klima v organizaci, které by dlouhodobě přispívalo ke stabilizaci kvalifikovaných zaměstnanců.

Tento příspěvek je teoretické povahy, jehož cílem je zdůraznit vliv organizační kultury na stabilizaci kvalifikovaných zaměstnanců.

2. TEORETICKÁ VÝCHODISKA

Pojem kultura je široký, mezioborový pojem, který byl původně převzat z kulturní antropologie. Kultura zahrnuje veškeré kolektivní i individuální výtvory určité lidské civilizace. Kultura je to, s čím se člověk nerodí, ale co získává od předchozích generací, co ho během života formuje a k čemu sám větší či menší měrou přispívá.

Specifickým typem kultury ve vztahu k organizaci je organizační kultura (kultura dané organizace), někdy též firemní kultura.(www.managmentmania.com, 2016)

2.1 Pojem organizační kultura

Slovní spojení organizační kultura se poprvé nenápadně objevilo v anglosaské literatuře šedesátých let jakožto synonymum „klimatu“.

Vysvětlit pojem organizační kultura a nalézt univerzální definici pojmu „organizační kultura“ je velmi obtížné. Všechny přístupy a definice podnikové kultury vycházejí z obecného chápání kultury a liší se podle pojetí jednotlivých autorů.

Organizační kulturu je možné definovat, jak uvádí Lukášová, Nový jako soubor základních přesvědčení, hodnot, postojů a norem chování, které jsou sdíleny v rámci organizace a které se projevují v myšlení, cítění a chování členů organizace a v artefaktech (tj. výtvorech) materiální a nemateriální povahy. (Lukášová, Nový, 2010, s.18)

Hofstede ve své publikaci definoval organizační kulturu jako kolektivní programování mysli, které odlišuje příslušníky jedné organizace od druhé. Organizační kultura však není uchovávána jen v myslích členů organizace, ale také všech dalších „stakeholders“, tedy všech, kdo jsou s organizací spojeni svými zájmy a vzájemným ovlivňováním, jako jsou zákazníci, dodavatelé, odborové organizace, sousedé, orgány správy a vlády a tisk. (Hofstede, 2005, s.215)

Dle Armstronga kultura organizace zahrnuje hodnoty, normy, přesvědčení, postoje a předpoklady, které nemusí být nijak vyjádřené, ale rozhodně určují způsob chování lidí i způsob vykonávání práce. (Armstrong, 2015, s.164)

Za nejčastější prvky organizační kultury jsou považovány: základní přesvědčení, hodnoty, normy, postoje a dále vnější manifestace kultury, které bývají označovány jako artefakty materiální a nemateriální povahy.

2.2 Projevy firemní kultury při výběrovém pohovoru

Kulturu firmy je možné charakterizovat jako způsob vykonávání práce a zacházení s lidmi. Proto bývá zvykem, že zaměstnavatelé si vybírají nové lidi tak, aby do firmy zapadli. Nebo se firma snaží vychovat si své lidi v jednotném stylu. (http://www.ipodnikatel.cz/Personalni-management/firemni-kultura.html)

S prvními projevy firemní kultury se zaměstnanec setkává jako uchazeč o zaměstnání při výběrovém pohovoru. První signály přicházejí při vstupu do budovy společnosti. Mezi okamžitě pozorovatelné znaky firemní kultury patří vzhled recepce, kde se projevuje především firemní design. Firemní design zahrnuje použité barvy, vybavení recepce a logo společnosti. Mezi další pozorovatelné znaky je nutné zdůraznit prezentaci zaměstnanců na pozici recepční a to od způsobu oblékání až ke způsobu komunikace.

Po úspěšné registraci uchazeče na recepci společnosti přichází setkání s HR Business partnerem, který je pověřený vést výběrový pohovor. HR Business partneři jsou hlavními nositeli firemní kultury. Co na potenciálního zaměstnance v průběhu výběrového řízení působí:

1. Přístup a chování personalisty.
2. Jaká atmosféra ve firmě panuje.
3. Jaké vztahy ve společnosti převládají, formální či neformální.
4. Věková struktura zaměstnanců.

5. Jakým způsobem se lidé k sobě chovají.

V tomto okamžiku si budoucí zaměstnanec uvědomuje, jak firemní kultura na něj působí, co vnímá pozitivně a co negativně. A zdali je mu toto prostředí blízké či nikoliv.

2.3 Vliv firemní kultury v procesu adaptace

Neobyčejně významným faktorem se podniková kultura stává v procesu adaptace a zapracování nových zaměstnanců. Adaptace zaměstnanců, popřípadě orientace zaměstnanců, je závěrečnou etapou modelového postupu obsazování volných pracovních míst a zahrnuje formální i neformální procedury spojené s informováním, odborným zapracováním a sociálním začleněním nového zaměstnance v novém zaměstnání, popřípadě stávajícího zaměstnance na novém pracovním místě. (Šikýř, 2016, s.115)

Již v prvních dnech a týdnech ve firmě zaměstnanec zjišťuje, jak je jeho adaptační proces nastaven a do jaké míry je v tomto procesu zainteresován jeho nadřízený. Zaměstnanec by měl mít od prvopočátku působení ve firmě pocit, že ho firma potřebuje a že se jeho vedoucí o něj zajímá. Jestliže zaměstnanec nemá od svého vedoucího zpětnou vazbu, tento zájem může v zaměstnanci vyvolat pocit nepohodlí a organizační kultura může pro něj znamenat velkou a nepřekonatelnou překážku.

Adaptační proces je pracovním procesu obdobím, kdy se má zaměstnanec ztotožnit s hodnotami, normami a firemními cíli. V zájmu zaměstnavatele je nastavit takový adaptační plán, který by podpořil postupnou integraci zaměstnance do chodu firmy a dlouhodobé obsazení klíčových pozic.

2.4 Vliv firemní kultury na stabilizaci nových zaměstnanců

Odchody klíčových zaměstnanců mohou mít nepříjemný dopad na fungování a hospodaření organizace. Přitom lidé, které si organizace přeje udržet, bývají často těmi, kteří s největší pravděpodobností sami odcházejí. (Armstrong, 2015, s.304).

Mezi nejdůležitější ukazatele vypovídající o finančním zdraví firmy jsou fluktuace a míra stabilizace zaměstnanců. Vysoká míra odchodů zaměstnanců pro zaměstnavatele znamená:

- ztrátu kvalifikovaného a zaškoleného zaměstnance
- vysoké náklady na vyhledání a proškolení nového zaměstnance
- často znamená ztrátu důvěryhodnosti, která může vést až ke ztrátě obchodního partnerství
- posílení konkurenční firmy
- snížení výkonnosti celého týmu, ve kterém zaměstnanec pracoval apod.

V rámci zachování stability zaměstnanců je důležité zjišťovat příčiny fluktuace a tyto příčiny zjišťovat do hloubky, protože vysoká fluktuace je výsledkem nevyhovující firemní kultury. Jakmile je zaměstnanec v průběhu adaptačního procesu začleněn do pracovního procesu, ztotožní se s firemními hodnotami a cíli a vyhovuje mu atmosféra na pracovišti lze předpokládat, že se přizpůsobil firemní kultuře.

ZÁVĚR

V současné době zejména malé firmy postrádají schopné a kvalifikované zaměstnance. V minulosti se tento problém v podstatě nevyskytoval z důvodu vysoké míry nezaměstnanosti. V důsledku příchodu zahraničních firem si zkušenější zaměstnanci nacházejí lépe placená zaměstnání. Vysoká fluktuace kvalitního personálu je však pro malé soukromé firmy likvidující.

Organizační kultura v současné době nabývá ještě většího významu než tomu bylo v nedávné době. I menší a střední podniky si v souvislosti s odchodem kvalitního personálu uvědomují, že je nutné přilákat nové zaměstnance a udržet si stávající. Mezi nejdůležitější činitele, kteří ovlivňují stabilizaci zaměstnanců patří atmosféra na pracovišti. Atmosféru na

pracovišti určuje především přímý nadřízený svým stylem řízení a svým chováním ke svým podřízeným.
Nevyhovující firemní kultura má za následek vysokou míru fluktuace zaměstnanců. Jestliže se zaměstnanec v průběhu adaptačního procesu neztotožní s firemní kulturou, z organizace obvykle odchází. Čím je adaptační proces efektivnější, tím vyšší je míra stabilizace nových zaměstnanců.

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MARKETING A MANAŽMENT V ŠPORTE

MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT IN SPORT

Marek Ondrejka

Abstrakt

Šport je dôležitou súčasťou života človeka. Táto skutočnosť je determinovaná prostredníctvom inštitucionalizácie športu. Rovnako ako sa vyvíja ľudská spoločnosť, mení sa aj celkový prístup k športu. V tomto kontexte mimoriadnu úlohu zohrávajú marketing a manažment, ktoré si našli pevné miesto v problematike športu. Práve z tohto dôvodu sa v predkladanom príspevku venujeme analýze športu v kontexte uplatňovania marketingových stratégií a rozličných manažérskych prístupov, plne etablovaných v športovom prostredí.

Kľúčová slova: *marketing, manažment, šport*

Abstract

Sport is an important part of human life. This fact is determined by the institutionalization of sport. As human society evolves, the common approach to sport is also changing. In this context, marketing and management have an extraordinary role which found a solid place in the sport. This is the reason why we are focusing on the analysis of sport in the context of the implementation of marketing strategies and various managerial approaches, fully established in the sport environment.

Key words: *marketing, management, sport*

1 TEORETICKÉ VÝCHODISKÁ ŠPORTU

Šport je súčasťou spoločnosti už od vzniku najstarších civilizácií. Ako sa vyvíjala spoločnosť, tak sa menilo aj miesto športu v nej. V dnešnej dobe šport slúži predovšetkým pre pobavenie či ako voľnočasová aktivita prinášajúca významné benefity pre zdravie športujúcich. Šport neustále naberá na popularite, je zdrojom krásnych zážitkov, dokáže urovnať alebo zlepšiť vzťahy národov, ktoré sú k sebe nepriateľské ale tiež môže vyvolať nezdravú rivalitu. (Čorba, 2012) Prísť s jednotnou definíciou pre termín šport je veľmi náročné, pretože na šport ako celok sa dá nahliadať z mnoho rôznych uhlov. Z tohto dôvodu existuje veľký počet vysvetlení pojmu šport. Napriek tomu, ponúkame stručný prierez definíciami, ktoré sa v predmetnej oblasti vyskytujú: Na Slovensku sme až donedávna nedisponovali špecifikáciou športu na legislatívnej úrovni. Teraz to už ale neplatí a súčasne platný *Zákon o športe č. 440/2015* vymedzuje šport ako „*všetky formy telesných aktivít, ktoré prostredníctvom príležitostnej účasti alebo organizovanej účasti vedú k preukazovaniu alebo zvyšovaniu telesnej zdatnosti a duševnej pohody, formujú sociálne väzby alebo umožňujú dosahovať výsledky v súťažiach na všetkých úrovniach*“.

V rámci EÚ pojem šport popísala Rada Európy a zahŕňa v sebe všetky podoby činností vykonávaných prostredníctvom fyzickej aktivity, ktoré na základe účasti na báze organizovanosti aj neorganizovanosti prispievajú k uchovaniu alebo zlepšovaniu fyzického stavu a psychickej pohody, vplývajú na sociálne spojenia alebo sú prostriedkom na úspešné pôsobenie v súťažiach rôznej úrovne. Na základe tejto definície je možné skonštatovať, že slovenský Zákon o športe sa inšpiroval práve Bielou knihou EÚ o športe.Za šport je možné

považovať všetky aktivity, ktoré v sebe zahŕňajú pohybový prvok, a ktoré priamo alebo nepriamo vedú jednotlivca k dosiahnutiu uspokojenia potreby po zábave či hre.(Králik, 2001) Ako uvádza Vojtášek (2001), šport môžeme chápať ako telesnú činnosť vykonávanú na rekreačnej báze, ktorá konkrétnej osobe vypĺňa čas voľna alebo patrí k životnému štýlu. Na profesionálnej úrovni môže byť i zamestnaním. Šport sa dá vykresliť ako činnosť, ktorú vykonávajú takmer všetci jedinci bez rozdielu veku, pohlavia, fyzického či mentálneho stavu. Športovej činnosti sa venujú ľudia z mnohých dôvodov. Šport disponuje aspektmi, ktoré z neho robia dôležitý nástroj s veľkým vplyvom na rôzne spoločenské oblasti. V závislosti na tom, ako význam športu v spoločnosti narastá, zvyšuje sa aj výskyt negatívnych vplyvov ako napr. užívanie zakázaných prostriedkov zvyšujúcich výkonnosť alebo korupcia. Štátne záujmy a šport sa mnohokrát prelínajú. Každá krajina by preto mala venovať dôkladnú pozornosť stavu, v ktorom sa šport na jej území nachádza. Miera záujmu štátu o šport je diskutabilná, nakoľko šport funguje na báze autonómnosti a dobrovoľnosti a priveľká regulácia všeobecnými princípmi by mohla byť skôr kontraproduktívna. (Kubíček, 2012) Šport je potrebné vnímať ako aktivitu spoločenskú, ktorá nefunguje mimo práva, ale naopak, je právom viazaná v určitom rozsahu. Aj pri športe sa vyskytujú situácie meniace stav vzťahov v spoločnosti, ktoré spadajú pod rôzne právne úpravy. Šport je väčšinou činnosťou, ktorá je organizovaná a podlieha všeobecne uznávaným spôsobom konania. Tieto spôsoby nie sú právne, nedajú sa štátom vynútiť ale patria k podstate športovej súťaže alebo hry. (Čorba, 2012)

2 ŠPORT JAKO SÚČASŤ SPOLOČENSKÉHO ŽIVOTA

Z hľadiska moderného ponímania histórie, vznik prvej Československej republiky so sebou priniesol aj prvú právnu reguláciu športovej oblasti. Úrad pre správu verejného zdravotníctva a telesnej výchovy bol jednou z prvých inštitúcií kreovaných na našom území. K nemu bol po dvoch rokoch vytvorený aj Poradný zbor pre telesnú výchovu. Do sféry ich vplyvu patrili všetko, čo malo dočinenia s telesnou výchovou. Toto obdobie bolo charakteristické tým, že šport z právneho hľadiska nebol nijako regulovaný. Šport bol braný takmer výlučne za objekt súkromných záujmov a preto zásahy štátnej moci boli obmedzené. Samostatnosť, ktorá bola najviditeľnejšia pri práve na združovanie a práve na tvorbu vnútorných predpisov, bola hlavným znakom športovej obce. Obdobie samostatného Slovenského štátu prinieslo začlenenie všetkých športových organizácií do štruktúr Hlinkovej gardy.

Rok 1945 sa niesol v znamení návratu k opätovnému fungovaniu viacerých spolkov v športovej oblasti, ale keď sa v Československu v roku 1948 dostala k riadeniu štátu Komunistická strana, tak všetky spolky zase stratili svoje právomoci a stali sa súčasťou organizácií s masovým charakterom. Tieto organizácie museli na svoju činnosť získať povolenie, nestačila len registrácia ako kedysi. Všetko čo spadalo pod občiansku oblasť sa dostalo pod direktívnu politiku štátu. Centralizované riadenie v oblasti športu upravoval zákon č. 187/1949 Zb. V tomto zákone sa po prvýkrát spomína termín šport. (Gábriš, 2011). Zákon definoval rolu športu ako prostriedku, ktorý mal prispievať k zachovaniu a skvalitňovaniu zdravotného stavu obyvateľstva, prispievať k zlepšovaniu brannej pripravenosti a fyzickej stránky ľudu a mať blahodarný účinok aj na potenciu v pracovnej oblasti. (Zákon č. 187/1949 Zb.). Toto obdobie až do roku 1989 je možné charakterizovať tým, že šport bol ponímaný ako nástroj na zlepšenie schopností obyvateľstva smerom k obrane štátu. Ďalšími charakteristickými znakmi boli zmenšovanie priestoru na samostatnosť a zjednotenie riadenia športu pod centrálne orgány. Usporiadaná sústava vzdelávania na úseku športu a celospoločenská obľuba ľudí súťažiacich v športových disciplínach boli bezpochyby najväčšími kladmi danej doby. Navzdory tomu, že nie všetko sa dá považovať len za negatívne, je potrebné zdôrazniť, že šport bol v danej dobe prostriedkom

upevňovania moci politikov a aj športové výsledky spolu s edukáciou mali za cieľ poukazovať na prevahu vládnuceho režimu nad kapitalizmom.

Nežná revolúcia v roku 1989 viedla k zmene režimu a to sa dotklo aj problematiky športu. V športe sa odštartovali procesy odštátňovania a presunu ústredných právomocí na nižšie orgány, a to aj v oblasti financovania. Prvok politickej angažovanosti v športovej oblasti však bol stále prítomný, aj keď už v menšej miere. Šport sa napr. využíval v rámci naháňania volebných preferencií. Novinkou pri športe bolo zavádzanie regulácií na úsekoch, pri ktorých právna úprava dosiaľ neexistovala, ako trebárs privátna ekonomická činnosť v športovej oblasti. Dôležité bola aj zmena celkového pohľadu na telovýchovu, keď už nebola vnímaná ako nástroj podporujúci prípravy na obranu vlasti ale ako nástroj sledujúci idey humanizmu. Po páde „komunizmu“ sa Slovensko začlenilo do spoločenstiev medzinárodného charakteru, čo viedlo k podpísaniu a prijatiu rôznych zmlúv s medzinárodnou platnosťou, ktoré určujú pozíciu našej krajiny a zaväzujú nás k regulácií športových aktivít na právnej báze.

Od vzniku samostatnej Slovenskej republiky bola úprava športovej oblasti na právnej báze značne rozdrobená. Rôzne aspekty športovej problematiky boli upravené viacerými právnymi normami, čo bolo z hľadiska celkového fungovania športu nevyhovujúce a v tomto období prevažoval prvok nejednotnosti. V tomto smere je potrebné poukázať na dva hlavné zákony venujúce sa športu po roku 1989. Prvým je Zákon o telesnej kultúre, ktorý sa venoval vymedzeniu orgánov a inštitúcií pôsobiacich v oblasti športu a rovnako aj ich pôsobností. Je nutné však podotknúť, že rozsah tohto zákona bol obmedzený, a teda zďaleka nepostačoval na pokrytie takej širokej témy, akou šport nepochybne je. Druhým je Zákon o organizácií a podpore športu, ktorý staval na Zákone o telesnej kultúre a určoval napr. povinnosti štátu pri vytváraní kvalitnejších podmienok na športovú činnosť pre nadaných športovcov, športovcov profesionálov i pre mládež, ako riešiť sporové konania športového charakteru a kroky zamerané na boj proti používaniu zakázaných látok v športe. V tejto právnej úprave však úplne absentovali alebo boli len veľmi stručne vymedzené viaceré dôležité témy. Za všetky možno spomenúť dotovanie športovej oblasti z verejných prostriedkov, ktoré nebolo riešené veľmi podrobne, alebo vzdelávanie v športe, ktoré nebolo riešené vôbec. V tomto kontexte je potrebné dodať, že po prijatí Zákona o organizácií a podpore nedošlo k odstráneniu účinnosti predchádzajúcej právnej normy, čo nejednotnosť v rámci právneho fungovania športu ešte prehĺbilo. (Gábriš, 2011)

3 ÚLOHA MARKETINGU A MANAŽMENTU V ŠPORTE

Manažment sa v súčasnom svete považuje za podstatnú oblasť našej spoločnosti. Racionálne sa používa v každej inštitúcií, s ktorou prichádzame do kontaktu a preto má dopad na nás všetkých. Manažment môžeme definovať rozlične a kvôli tomu je nutné vysvetliť jeho hlavné významy: Manažment v podobe praktickej aktivity zahŕňa činnosti realizované manažérmi so zámerom dosahovať určité výsledky. Manažment z hľadiska vedy predstavuje ucelený komplex informácií o riadení, jeho zásadách a spôsoboch. Tieto informácie sa dajú študovať a je nutné ich v praxi využívať. Manažment sa v súčasnom svete považuje za podstatnú oblasť našej spoločnosti. Racionálne sa používa v každej inštitúcií, s ktorou prichádzame do kontaktu a preto má dopad na nás všetkých. Manažment môžeme definovať rozlične a kvôli tomu je nutné identifikovať jeho hlavné významy:

1. Manažment v podobe praktickej aktivity zahŕňa činnosti realizované manažérmi so zámerom dosahovať určité výsledky

2. Manažment z hľadiska vedy predstavuje ucelený komplex informácií o riadení, jeho zásadách a spôsoboch. Tieto informácie sa dajú študovať a je nutné ich v praxi využívať.
3. Manažment ako určití pracovníci spojení spoločnou činnosťou. Hovoríme o manažéroch, ktorí majú za úlohu to, aby boli dosahované požadované výsledky a aby organizácia fungovala na najvyššej úrovni. (Sedlák, 2012)

Športový manažment je premyslené konanie pri správe organizácií pôsobiacich v športovom a telovýchovnom prostredí, ktoré minimálne čiastočne vykazujú znaky podnikania. (Čáslavová, 2009) Ďalší pohľad na manažment športu ponúka Chelladurai (1994), podľa ktorého ide o obor, ktorý sa zameriava na koordináciu poskytnutých ľudských a materiálnych zdrojov, relevantných technológií a možných eventualít tak, aby došlo k úspešnému prevedeniu a odovzdaniu určitej služby v oblasti športu.

Podľa Kotlera a Kellera (2013) sa marketing zameriava na rozpoznanie a saturovanie potrieb ľudskej spoločnosti. Ak je marketing funkčný a kvalitný, vytvára v zákazníkoch chuť zaobstarať si služby a tovary a tým pádom má pozitívny dopad aj na zamestnanosť. Karlíček a kol. (2013) popisujú marketing ako postup aplikovaný manažérmi, ktorý má za úlohu odhaliť, predvídať a nasýtiť zákazníkove potreby a popri tom generovať profit.

„Marketing je zameranie podnikateľa na využívanie a kontrolu riadenia firmy s cieľom podať pomocnú ruku zákazníkovi pri riešení jeho problémov pomocou rôznych marketingových činností. Je tiež metódou riadenia firmy na vykonávanie všetkých podstatných obchodných rozhodnutí vplývajúcich na zákazníka. Marketing predstavuje podnikateľskú stratégiu, ktorá pri svojich vlastných aktivitách predvída reakciu trhu a pritom vopred zohľadní ovplyvniteľnosť reakcií. Marketing sa považuje za riadené podnikanie vo vzťahu k trhu. Má za úlohu i plánovanie a odsúhlasenie investičnej činnosti, výroby, distribúcie, predaja a reklamy. Tieto aktivity orientuje na možnosti a požiadavky trhu s cieľom vylúčiť chybné investície, usmerniť výrobu a predaj do maximálne atraktívnych trhových oblastí, maximalizovať zisk, udržať trhovú pozíciu a zabezpečiť prosperitu firmy. Pod pojmom marketing rozumieme všetky úsilia (takmer) a snahy zamerané na vytvorenie, udržanie a rozšírenie trhu za ekonomicky triezvych podmienok, t.j. nie za každú cenu.“(Rajt, 2000, s. 33-34)

Marketing nemožno definovať len ako jednoduchý predaj výrobkov. Predajom rozumieme schopnosť presvedčiť kupujúcich aby si zaobstarali produkty, ktorými už firma fyzicky disponuje. Naopak marketing sa snaží na základe analýzy požiadaviek zákazníkov modifikovať sortiment, ktorý firma vyrába, aby sa dosiahli čo najvyššie čísla predaja. (Kerestúrová, 2015) Pod marketing športu spadajú činnosti spotrebiteľov a marketingových pracovníkov, ktorí vo zvyšujúcej sa miere používajú šport na spropagovanie svojho produktu. (Gray, McEvoy, 2005)

V športovom marketingu slúži šport v akejkoľvek podobe ako nástroj, ktorý napomáha zvyšovaniu tržieb. Tento marketing pracuje so športom ako s podporným nástrojom na skvalitnenie marketingu ako celku. Daný systém nevyužíva len vrcholový ale aj amatérsky šport. Vďaka tomu, že existuje mnoho kanálov a prostriedkov ako šport sledovať, tak aj športový marketing môže mať veľké množstvo podôb. Freyer (1991) prezentuje myšlienku, že športový marketing je spôsob nazerania na riadenie, ktorý ovplyvňuje situácia na trhu a ktorý využívajú firmy zo športovej oblasti. Pri tomto spôsobe je nutné rozmýšľať v dlhodobom horizonte a konať systémovo. To, či bude marketing športu úspešný alebo nie je podmienené tým, ako budú spracované relevantné danosti konkrétneho športu a tiež tým, či sa podarí vyriešiť problémy špecifické pre túto oblasť. Do odboru športový marketing môžeme

zaradiť každú činnosť, prostredníctvom ktorej sa má vyhovieť požiadavkám zákazníkov v športovej oblasti. (Mullin, Hardy, Sutton, 2000)

Schlossberg (1996) uvádza, že šport začal fungovať ako platforma pre uplatňovanie marketingových stratégií v dôsledku svojej dispozície spájať služby a tovary so športovcami, ktorých verejnosť často považuje za svojich hrdinov. Svet športového marketingu, resp. sponzoringu, sa za roky významne zmenil. Dospel. Nie síce tak dramaticky rýchlo ako svet technológií, ale za posledné dekády prešiel štyrmi, čím ďalej, tým viac sofistikovanými érami.

Koniec veľkým logám
Prvá éra bola charakterizovaná snahou o čo najväčšiu viditeľnosť loga. Hlavnými cieľmi boli vizibilita loga a poznateľnosť značky. Mnohokrát rozhodovanie o tom, koho/čo sponzorovať, bolo výhradne na majiteľovi, prípadne najvyššom predstaviteľovi firmy podľa ich osobných preferencií. Táto éra bola v západnej Európe v 70. a 80. rokoch.

Jednoducho hard sale
V 80. a 90. rokoch prišla nová éra, charakterizovaná absolútnym sústredením pozornosti na priamy dosah sponzoringu na predaj. Návratnosť investície do sponzoringu bola hodnotená podľa parametrov, ako boli dodatočné tržby, forma podpory predaja, vplyv na obchodné výsledky a podobne. Všetky ciele však boli „len“ krátkodobé, bez toho, aby sa prihliadalo na stredno-, resp. dlhodobý vplyv sponzoringu na značku.

Sponzoring je súčasťou stratégie značiek
Tretia éra sponzoringu, charakteristická pre prelom milénia, bola doteraz najväčším posunom. Do popredia sa dostali potreby značky, integrácia sponzoringu do celkové ho marketingového mixu, stanovovanie rôznorodých marketingových cieľov. Pomer krátkodobých a dlhodobých cieľov sa stal vyváženým.

Značky už myslia na zákazníkov
Zatiaľ posledná, štvrtá éra, ktorú registrujeme vo svete ostatných 5 rokov, je charakterizovaná ako posun od zdôrazňovania potrieb značky k zdôrazneniu potrieb trhu a cieľových skupín. Úlohou sponzora tak nie je hľadať spôsob, ako vtiahnuť ľudí do príbehu značky, ale ako zakomponovať značku do príbehov a života ľudí/zákazníkov.

Kde sa nachádza sponzoring na Slovensku?
Nech si každý sám spraví audit u seba a porovná sa s trendmi vo vyspelých krajinách sveta. Aj u nás už niektoré spoločnosti a značky majú sponzoring na úrovni tretej éry, žiaľ, väčšina miestnych firiem a sponzorov zostáva stále iba na začiatku tejto púte. Pritom je zrejmé, že sponzoring v športe, resp. športový marketing, už dávno nie je o vešaní log na športoviskách ani o „sponzorských balíkoch“ rozdelených do jednotlivých úrovní, ktoré vám ponúkajú majitelia práv a kde musíte takmer lupou hľadať svoje logo – a je jedno, ako kreatívne sú jednotlivé úrovne partnerstva nazvané (či už GRP = generálny reklamný partner, HRP= hlavný reklamný partner, atď.).V neposlednom rade sponzoring nie je ani o pasívnom vyhodnocovaní stoviek žiadostí o podporu, ktoré dostáva každý marketingový manažér. Sponzoring dnešnej doby by mal byť taký, ktorý má v centre záujmu konzumenta, resp. zákazníka a jeho potreby. Sponzoring má totiž jednu obrovskú výhodu: umožňuje nám neobvyklý prístup k príbehom a životom našich zákazníkov prostredníctvom toho, čo majú radi, čo ich baví a zaujíma a čo je navyše aj prirodzenou súčasťou ich každodenného života. Byť súčasťou každodenného života ľudí je snom pre väčšinu marketérov a značiek. Cieľom sponzorov a samotného sponzoringu dnes nie je budovanie spojenia značky so športom, ale

prostredníctvom športu spojiť značku so zákazníkmi. Povedzme si to na príklade futbalu a piva. Nie je to futbal, kto kupuje pivo. Sú to fanúšikovia. Futbal je nástroj ako sa dostať k cieľu. A preto tvrdenie, že sponzoring mnohokrát neprináša prakticky nič a je zbytočným plytvaním financiami, nie je správne. Firmám alebo sponzorom, ktorí to tvrdia, chýba v 90 % prípadov strategické smerovanie, trpia nedostatkom poznatkov, schopností a nedostatočným stotožnením sa so sponzoringom naprieč celou firmou. S takýmto pohľadom na vec nemôže žiadna firma/značka naplniť skutočné ciele prostredníctvom sponzoringu.

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GENDER MANAGEMENT: VÝVOJ MZDOVÉ NEROVNOSTI V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE

GENDER MANAGEMENT: DEVELOPMENT OF THE PAY GAP IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Věra Rubáková

Abstrakt

České ženy jsou placené hůře než muži. Rozdíl mezi jejich příjmy patří k největším v Evropě. Přestože jsou ženy vzdělanější než muži, jsou více ohrožené nezaměstnaností. V České republice je rozdíl v odměňování mužů a žen druhý nejvyšší v rámci unijních států, hned po Estonsku. Nerovnost v odměňování mezi muži a ženami je v České republice přetrvávající a silně zakořeněný problém, který se více než desítky let nepodařilo zmírnit, ani zlepšit. České ženy dlouhodobě vydělávají v průměru o 22 % méně než čeští muži. Na tuto nerovnost ovšem nelze nahlížet jako na izolovaný problém, protože je silně provázána s odlišnou pozicí žen a mužů na trhu práce s genderově specifickými představami o roli ženy a muže v rodině a ve společnosti. V tomto ohledu je genderová nerovnost na základě pohlaví spíše indikátorem nastavení širších vztahů v rámci trhu práce a celé společnosti a zároveň je i indikátorem úspěšnosti politik rovného zacházení a rovných příležitostí žen a mužů.

Klíčová slova: *trh práce, diferenciace mezd, průměrná mzda, medián mezd, gender pay gap, zaměstnanost.*

Abstract

Czech women are paid worse than men. The difference between their incomes are amongst the highest in Europe. Although women are more educated than men, they are more threatened by unemployment. In the Czech Republic the difference in renumeration, between men and women is the second highest amongst the EU countries, just after Estonia.The disparity in renumeration of men and women in the Czech Republic, is a permanent and deep-rooted problem, not getting smaller or better for tens of years. In long-term, Czech women earn by 22% less than men, on average. This disparity cannot be seen as an isolated problem, because it is much linked to a different position of women and men on the labour market, and to the gender specific ideas of the female or male roles in a family and society. Regarding this, the gender disparity is rather an indicator of the general settings on the labour market and generally in the society, as well as an indicator of policy of equal treatment, and equal opportunities for women and men.

Key words: *labour market, differentiation of wages, average wage, median wage, gender pay gap, employment*

1 ÚVOD

V posledních několika desetiletích se svět snaží přiblížit k rovnosti žen a mužů a zcela jistě zaznamenal pokrok žen v celé řadě ekonomických, sociálních a politických ukazatelů ve všech oblastech světa. Nicméně na celém světě ženy zůstávají v nevýhodě oproti mužům ve významných oblastech sociálního, ekonomického a politického života. Problematika rovných příležitostí žen a mužů je v současné době stále velmi diskutovaným a aktuálním tématem. Významné společnosti na českém trhu čím dál častěji začleňují genderové otázky do své personální politiky většinou po vzoru zahraničních firem, ale faktem ovšem zůstává, že

genderová problematika nebo rovné příležitosti nepatří pro většinu českých společností k otázkám, kterým by bylo užitečné věnovat jakoukoli zvýšenou pozornost, což dokazují různé studie a výzkumy. Například Jacobsen (2016) konstatuje, že v řadě zemí je mezi pracovníky s plným úvazkem mzdový rozdíl mezi pohlavími přibližně 15 %. Křížková, Penner a Petersen (2008) rozebírají problematiku rozdílného odměňování žen na stejných pracovních pozicích jako muži. Schwartz a Han (2014) se orientují na zvrat v oblasti genderové nerovnosti ve vzdělání, což má potenciálně dalekosáhlé důsledky na uzavírání a rozpad manželství, zakládání rodiny a rodinné vztahy. Kolev a Robles (2015) s využitím dat celonárodního průzkumu analyzují mzdovou rozdílnost podle pohlaví v Peru v letech 2005–2011.

Rovnost mezi muži a ženami patří mezi základní principy a právo Evropské unie. Evropská komise dlouhodobě usiluje o zlepšení postavení žen na trhu práce a ve společnosti všeobecně. Krok za krokem dosahuje výsledků, ale o dosažení genderové rovnosti se stále nedá mluvit. Největší genderové rozdíly můžeme vysledovat v oblastech, jako jsou: podíl na trhu práce, ekonomická nezávislost, mzdy a důchody, rovnost na vedoucích pozicích nebo boj proti násilí na základě pohlaví (Evropský parlament, 2017). Zásada, že muži a ženy by měli obdržet stejnou odměnu za stejnou práci, je zakotvena v evropských smlouvách již od roku 1957 (dnes v článku 157 SFEU). Článek 157 SFEU také opravňuje EU jednat v širší oblasti rovných příležitostí a rovného zacházení v záležitostech týkajících se zaměstnání a povolání (Evropský parlament, 2017).Genderová rovnost je v České republice také horkým tématem. I když je tato problematika zakotvena v řadě dokumentů a iniciativ, které jsou každoročně aktualizovány, současná situace ukazuje, že genderová rovnost nebyla plně dosažena (vládní strategie pro rovnost v České republice, 2014). Zde se ovšem nabízí otázka, zdali všechny teze zakotvené v různých smlouvách a článcích EU a v ČR jsou natolik účinné, aby nedocházelo k diskriminaci na trhu práce a k mzdové nerovnosti. Za mzdovou diskriminaci žen lze tedy považovat situaci, kdy ženy pobírají bez objektivních příčin jinou mzdu než muži (Ehrenberg a Smith, 2003).

Domnívám se, že nerovnost v odměňování mezi muži a ženami je v České republice přetrvávající a silně zakořeněný problém, který se více než desítky let nepodařilo vyřešit, ani zlepšit. Přestože se v 21. století ve vyspělém světě tento rozdíl dlouhodobě snižuje, jedná se o stále velmi citlivé téma. Česká republika se v rámci Evropské unie řadí ke skupině zemí s nejvyšším rozdílem v odměňování žen a mužů. Podle posledních dostupných dat z Českého statistického úřadu za rok 2017, činí průměrný rozdíl v odměňování žen a mužů v EU-28 16,3 % a v ČR 22,5 %. V České republice, Rakousku, Německu, Estonsku ženy vydělávají v průměru o 23% méně než muži. Naopak nejmenší mzdové rozdíly jsou v Itálii a v Lucenburku 5,5% (Český statistický úřad, 2017). Nerovné odměňování žen a mužů představuje významnou nerovnost mezi ženami a muži, kterou však lze na rozdíl od některých jiných genderových nerovností „změřit“ a učinit ji tak lépe viditelnou (Křížková a spol., 2017).

Cílem předkládaného článku je poukázat a dokázat, že existuje výrazná mzdová nerovnost vyplývající z nerovného postavení mužů a žen na trhu práce v České republice. Je třeba také nastolit otázku: „Jaké důsledky mají mzdové nerovnosti mezi muži a ženami na ekonomiku“? Hlavním přínosem tohoto článku je tak ukázat, kde na trhu práce platové rozdíly především vznikají. Tato znalost pak může pomoci určit priority politik zaměřených na zmenšení genderových rozdílů.

2 POSTAVENÍ ŽEN A MUŽŮ NA TRHU PRÁCE

Cílem Evropské unie je dosáhnout 75% zaměstnanosti mužů a žen v roce 2020. K tomu je zapotřebí směřovat úsilí k usnadnění účasti žen na trhu práce, a to především možností lépe kombinovat péči o dítě a profesní povinnosti (European Commission, 2017). Způsob, jakým se ženy pohybují ve veřejném prostoru a jak jej užívají, se v posledních 50. letech výrazně změnil. Na jednu stranu se zvýšila zaměstnanost žen a jejich účast na veřejném životě. Na druhé straně přetrvávají zažité genderové role (péče o domácnost a děti). Ženy v produktivním věku proto často řeší slaďování pracovních a rodinných povinností, což ovlivňuje to, jaké potřeby ve veřejném prostoru mají (Kongres žen, 2013). Míra zaměstnanosti žen v EU se pohybuje od přibližně 40 % do 75 %. Průměr EU činí 75,8 % u mužů a 62,5 % u žen. Aby bylo dosaženo cílů Akčního plánu, tedy 75% míry zaměstnanosti žen a mužů, je třeba věnovat zvláštní pozornost účasti starších žen, osamělých rodičů, žen se zdravotním postižením, migrujících žen a žen z etnických menšin (European Commission, 2017). Ženy pracují na částečný úvazek více než muži (více než 75 % zaměstnaných na částečný úvazek) a na hůře placených pracovních místech. Téměř 60 % absolventů vysokých škol v EU jsou ženy, ale představují méně než 33 % vědců a inženýrů po celé Evropě, přesto představují téměř 80 % celkové pracovní síly ve zdravotnictví, vzdělávání a v oblasti sociální péče. Genderově segregovaný pracovní trh, obtížnost vyvážení pracovního a rodinného života, podhodnocení dovedností a práce žen jsou některé z příčin přetrvávajícího rozdílu v odměňování žen a mužů. Ženy v EU vydělávají v průměru o 16 % méně než muži za každou odpracovanou hodinu (European Commission, 2017).

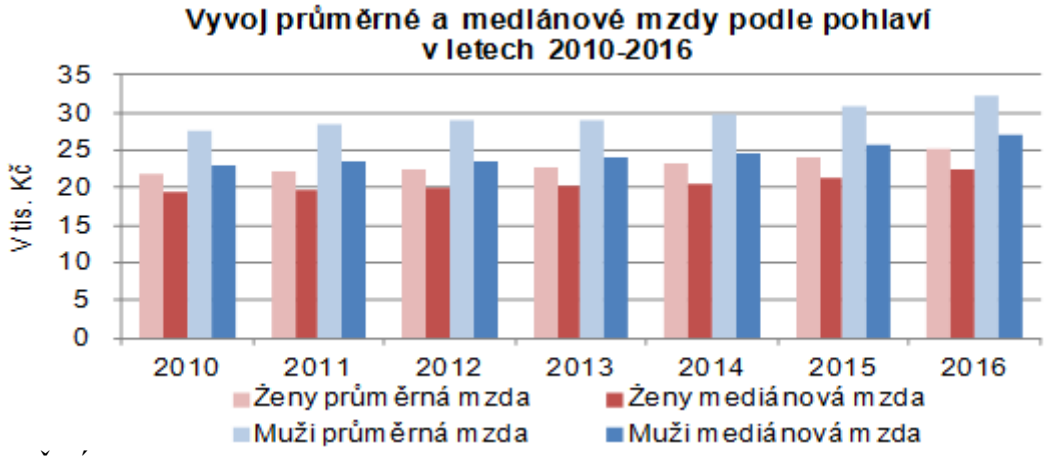
3 VYVOJ PRŮMĚRNÉ A MDIÁNOVÉ MZDY V ČR PODLE POHLAVÍ V LETECH 2010-16

V následující části článku se zaměřím na současný stav rozdílů v odměňování žen a mužů v ČR na základě dostupných dat publikovaných Českým statistickým úřadem v rámci publikace Struktura mezd zaměstnanců a zaměstnankyň 2017. Předmětem analýzy vývoje mezd v ČR mezi muži a ženami, budou hodnoty genderových rozdílů v odměňování v závislosti na pohlaví, věku a vzdělání. GPG – Gender Pay Gap – je počítán jako relativní rozdíl mediánu mzdy mužů a žen vztažený k mediánu mzdy mužů a vyjadřuje se v procentech. Gender Pay Gap však v žádném případě nelze používat jako indikátor pro měření diskriminace, neboť současně obnáší informaci za segregaci na trhu práce a promítají se v něm různé vlivy struktur věkových, vzdělanostních, postavení v zaměstnání, druhy ekonomických činností a dalších. Průměrné i mediánové mzdy žen i mužů v posledních letech rostly pouze mírně. K většímu růstu došlo až v roce 2016. Celková průměrná mzda v roce 2016 dosáhla úrovně přes 29 000 korun. Svého maxima se dočkala i reálnější střední hodnota mezd, mediánová, která činila téměř 25 000 korun. Mzdy žen vždy byly nižší než mzdy mužů, a to bez ohledu na okolnost, zda se jednalo o mzdy průměrné či mediánové. Bereme-li v úvahu mediány, které nejsou náchylné na krajní hodnoty, vidíme, že Gender Pay Gap (absolutní rozdíl platu mužů stanoveného jako 100 % a podílu platu žen k platu mužů vyjádřeného v procentech) se prakticky vůbec nemění – a osciluje kolem hodnot v rozmezí 15,4 – 16,2 %. Pokud naopak chceme vidět vliv extrémních hodnot a porovnáme průměrné mzdy žen a mužů, zachytíme mezi roky 2010 a 2011 nepatrný nárůst GPG o 1,5% bodu (s tím, že v dalších letech následoval opět mírný pokles). V roce 2016 byla hodnota GPG vypočteného z průměrných mezd 21%, v případě mediánových mezd 16%. Viz graf. č. 1.

V České republice některé studie poukazují na to, že pozici žen na trhu práce silně ovlivňuje poměrně veliký rozdíl mezi výdělky mužů a žen. Balcar a spol. (2012) na datech z roku 2011 zjistili, že ženy vydělávají v průměru 77,8% průměrné mužské mzdy. Ve své hypotéze potvrdili, že část mzdového diferenciálu mezi muži a ženami lze vysvětlit odlišnými

preferencemi ohledně účasti na trhu práce. Naproti tomu Pytlíková et al.(2012) podává komplexní analýzu mzdového diferenciálu v ČR s ohledem na preference, manželský status a genderové charakteristiky. Dodávají, že ženy, které jsou více orientovány na pracovní kariéru, vyhledávají pomoc v domácnosti více než ženy, které jsou orientovány více na rodinu.

Graf č. 1



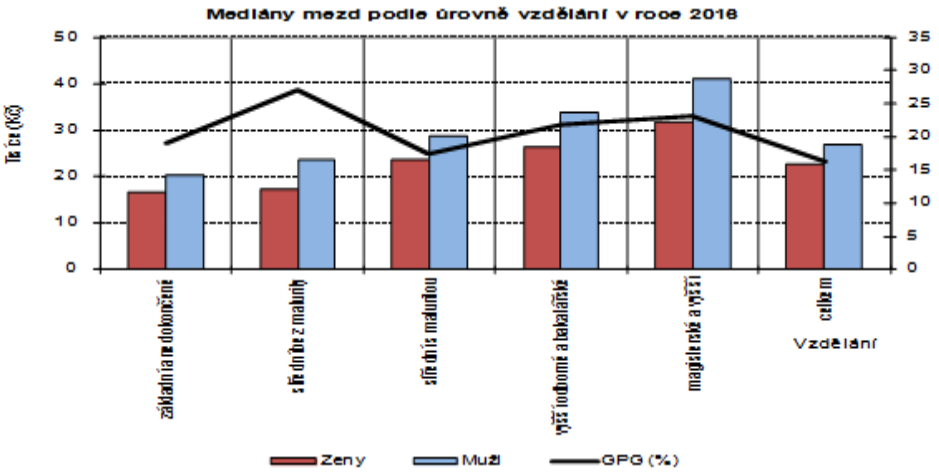
Zdroj: ČSÚ, 2017

3.1 Mediány mezd podle úrovně vzdělání

Mediánová hrubá měsíční mzda představuje reálnou, extrémními hodnotami nezkreslenou střední hodnotu úrovně mezd jednotlivých zaměstnanců. Do hrubých mezd se ve strukturální statistice počítají všechny mzdy za práci včetně prémií, odměn a dalších platů, dále veškeré náhrady mzdy za neodpracovanou dobu (dovolenou, svátky, překážky v práci apod.) a odměny za pracovní pohotovost za celý rok. GPG – Gender Pay Gap – je počítán jako relativní rozdíl mediánu mzdy mužů a žen vztažený k mediánu mzdy mužů a vyjadřuje se v procentech. Ženy vydělávají méně než muži, a to bez ohledu na úroveň vzdělání. Nejvyšší rozdíly byly v roce zaznamenány v případě středoškolského vzdělání bez maturity (kde je v populaci výrazně více mužů), hodnota GPG zde představovala přes 27 %. Ačkoli vysokoškolské vzdělání je dnes už spíše doménou žen, hodnota GPG u osob s vysokoškolským vzděláním je relativně vysoká. V případě pětiletého a vyššího ukončeného studia na univerzitě překročila 23 % a v případě studia bakalářského a vyššího odborného 21 %. Nejnižší rozdíly byly zaznamenány u mezd středoškoláků s maturitou (zde převažují v celkové populaci ženy). Tato vzdělanostní kategorie vykazovala 17,4% GPG v neprospěch žen. Viz graf. č. 2.

Podle Mysíkové (2007). Ženy s nízkou kvalifikací a vzděláním a tedy s potenciálně nízkou dosažitelnou mzdou se často rozhodují na trh práce nevstupovat, neboť tato mzda jim není schopná vynahradit náklady obětované příležitosti péče o děti a rodinu. Upozorňuje, že zavádění opatření sociální politiky (mateřský příspěvek, rodičovský příspěvek, společné zdanění manželů) tyto ženy ještě více odrazují od účasti na trhu práce, protože jim ještě tyto náklady zvyšuje. Naopak ženy s vysokou kvalifikací a vzděláním by naopak obětovávaly vysoké výdělky, pokud by na trhu práce neparticipovaly.

Graf č. 2

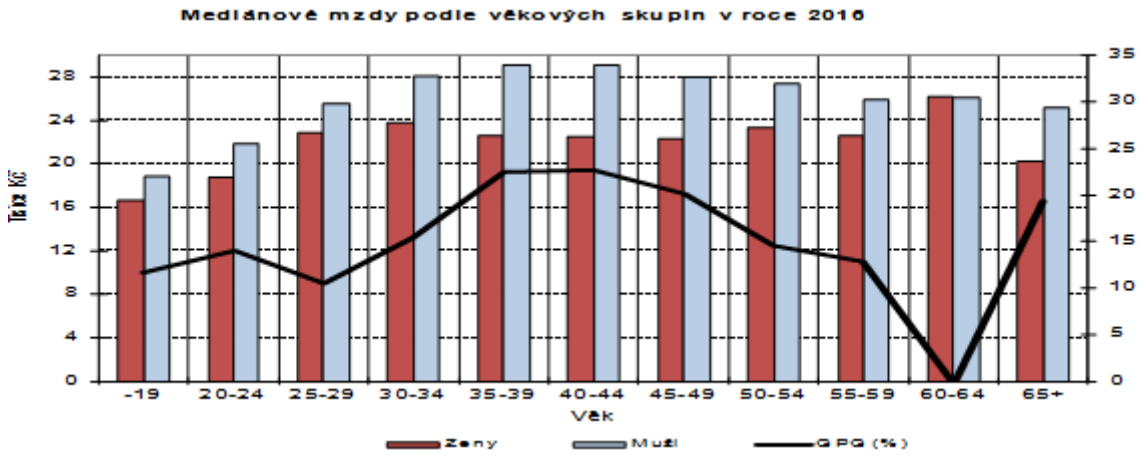


Zdroj: ČSÚ, 2017

3.2 Mediánové mzdy podle věkových skupin

Do devatenácti let věku je na trhu práce více žen s maturitou než mužů a ženy častěji než muži v tomto věku pokračují ve vysokoškolském studiu a na trh práce zatím nevstupují. Hodnota GPG je v tomto věku relativně nízká, a to ani ne 12%. Ve věku 20-24 let již vidíme nárůst této hodnoty na více než 14 %. To už se na trhu práce objevují i muži s vysokoškolským (bakalářským) diplomem, kteří častěji odcházejí do soukromé sféry. Při pohledu na hodnoty GPG v jednotlivých pětiletých skupinách je na první pohled zřejmé, že významným faktorem hrajícím roli v odlišné úrovni žen a mužů je odchod žen na mateřskou a rodičovskou dovolenou. Ve věkové kategorii 25-29 let činí hodnota GPG 10,5 %. V tomto věku se na trhu práce uplatňují absolventky vysokých škol, které budují svou kariéru. Hodnota GPG pak ale strmě stoupá až k hodnotě 22,5 % ve věkové kategorii 35-39 let. I když po 44. roce života GPG pozvolna klesá, ženy již muže, kteří zatím bez přerušení budovali svou kariéru, nedoženou. V podstatě nulová hodnota GPG ve věku 60-64 let je způsobena odlivem nízkopříjmových osob do důchodu s tím, že v zaměstnání zůstávají spíše lidé vysoce vzdělaní a kvalifikovaní. Strmý nárůst GPG ve věku 65 a více let je potom dán rozdílnou strukturou žen a mužů, kteří jsou v tomto věku ještě ekonomicky aktivní (ženy v tomto věku častěji berou ze svého pohledu podřadnější a hůře placená zaměstnání).

Graf: č. 3



Zdroj: ČSÚ, 2017

4 DŮSLEDKY PRO EKONOMIKU

Genderová platová mezera s sebou přináší závažné dopady na velký počet osob. Fernández a Pena-Boquete (2011) zkoumali makroekonomické a mikroekonomické dopady diskriminace na trhu práce. Zaměřili se zejména na vztah produktivity a platové diskriminace na základě pohlaví. Zjistili, že genderová diskriminace má dopady na celý trh práce. Podle jejich zjištění nárůst diskriminace způsobuje pokles produktivity práce a změnu v rozdělení pracovních pozic mezi ženy a muže. Genderová platová mezera neovlivňuje pouze životy žen, ale mnohdy i jejich dětí. Způsobuje nižší životní standard a chudobu žen ve vyšším věku, protože nižší příjmy v průběhu života mají za následek nižší penzi. Tento dopad je závažný zejména z důvodu vyšší průměrné délky života, které ženy dosahují. V roce 2012 byly domácnosti starobních důchodců jednotlivců, které jsou ohroženy příjmovou chudobou více než průměrná populace, tvořeny ze 77,4 % domácnostmi žen, u nichž byl zjištěn i nejvyšší podíl materiálně deprivovaných osob (Kalmus, 2012).

Ekonomické argumenty pro dosahování genderové rovnosti jsou důležité, nicméně je třeba si uvědomit, že to nejsou argumenty jediné. Právo žít život podle vlastní volby, které je podmíněno genderovou rovností, je základním lidským právem (Křížková a spol, 2017).

Přestože existují studie, které ukazují, že v krátkodobém horizontu mohou být nižší mzdy žen pro ně určitou konkurenční výhodou, a to zejména v exportně orientovaných zemích (Seguino, 2011), příklad České republiky, kde jsou oproti okolním zemím obecně velmi nízké mzdy, ukazuje, že politika založená na nízkých mzdách má za následek množství pracujících chudých a rozhodně není dobrou strategií ani pro ženy, ani pro muže, ani pro společnost jako celek (Švihlíková, 2015).

Rozvojové cíle tisíciletí OSN explicitně propojují ekonomický rozvoj s vyrovnáváním příležitostí pro ženy a muže. I když dosud existuje poměrně málo studií, které by vztah mezi genderovou rovností a ekonomickým růstem jednoznačně prokazovaly, jejich výsledky ukazují pozitivní dopad, a to zejména v dlouhodobém horizontu (Morais Maceira, 2017).

Skotsky (2006) dodává, že se obecně ukazuje, že nárůst vzdělání žen a zvýšení jejich příležitostí uplatnit se v placené práci, stimuluje ekonomický růst. Zpráva Světové banky zdůrazňuje, že snížení mzdových rozdílů zlepší vyjednávací pozici žen v domácnosti a zvýší investici žen do vzdělání a do zdravotní péče o sebe a o děti. Tyto pozitivní změny by pak měly mít pozitivní dopad na společnost jako celek (Razavi, 2011). Bylo také zjištěno, že vzhledem k tomu, že ženy jsou primárními pečovatelkami o děti, mají také větší tendenci oproti mužům utrácet za zboží a služby, které přispívají ke zvyšování lidského kapitálu dětí. V rámci domácností tedy směřují výdaje více ke vzdělávání, jídlu a zdravotní péči o děti (Stotsky, 2006).

Cavalcanti a Tavares, (2016) uvádí, že genderové rozdíly v odměňování mohou odrazovat ženy od participace na trhu práce a to může snižovat hrubý domácí produkt. Studie Evropského institutu pro genderovou rovnost, shrnuje prokázané pozitivní ekonomické dopady snižování genderových mzdových rozdílů do třech oblastí: růst hrubého domácího produktu, zvyšování úspor žen a zvyšování výdajů na zboží a služby pro děti a na takové zboží a služby, které jsou udržitelné a šetrné k životnímu prostředí (Morais Maceira, 2017).

5 ZÁVĚR

Rozdíly v odměňování žen a mužů představují celosvětový problém. V rámci členských zemí EU i ČR se této problematice věnuje zvýšená pozornost. Z komplexity tohoto problému

pramení nutnost řešit jej v různých rovinách a mezi mnohými spolupracujícími aktéry, stejně jako nutnost řešit jej v návaznosti na nadnárodní i národní systém, minimálně v legislativní rovině. Složitost problematiky nerovností v odměňování žen a mužů a její provázanost s jinými tématy či problémy vyžaduje komplexní přístup k jejímu řešení. To by ale mělo vždy vycházet z premisy, že poskytování stejné odměny za stejnou práci anebo za práci stejné hodnoty je zásadní pro spravedlivé odměňování lidí za výkon v jejich placené práci (Křížková a spol, 2917).

Podle posledních dostupných dat z Českého statistického úřadu za rok 2017 činí průměrný rozdíl v odměňování žen a mužů v EU-28 16,3 % a rozdíl v ČR 22,5 %. Rozdílné odměňování žen a mužů je jevem komplexním, protože se v něm projevuje množství faktorů, které souvisí s genderovou strukturou pracovního trhu, s praxemi a systémy odměňování na pracovištích, s nedostatečným řešením slaďování pracovních a rodinných povinností, ale také s genderovými stereotypy, které si spojujeme s rolemi žen a mužů a následně s jejich volbou vzdělávacích drah a povolání.

Analýza genderových rozdílů v odměňování podle průměrné i mediánové mzdy žen i mužů v posledních letech rostly pouze mírně. Celková průměrná mzda v roce 2016 dosáhla úrovně přes 29 000 korun. Svého maxima se dočkala i reálnější střední hodnota mezd, mediánová, která činila téměř 25 000 korun. Mzdy žen vždy byly nižší než mzdy mužů, a to bez ohledu na okolnost, zda se jednalo o mzdy průměrné či mediánové.

Ze socio-demografických ukazatelů má vliv na genderové rozdíly v odměňování věk a vzdělání. Nejvyšší rozdíly byly zaznamenány v případě středoškolského vzdělání bez maturity (kde je v populaci výrazně více mužů), hodnota GPG zde představovala přes 27 %. Nejnižší rozdíly byly zaznamenány u mezd středoškoláků s maturitou (zde převažují v celkové populaci ženy). Tato vzdělanostní kategorie vykazovala 17,4% GPG v neprospěch žen Nejnižší mzdové rozdíly byly zaznamenány ve věkové kategorii 60-64 let je způsobena odlivem nízkopříjmových osob do důchodu s tím, že v zaměstnání zůstávají spíše lidé vysoce vzdělaní a kvalifikovaní., hodnota GPG je v podstatě nulová. Nejvyšší rozdíly byly zaznamenány ve věkové kategorii 35-39 let, hodnota GPG je 22,5%

Rostoucí celosvětový význam žen v ekonomických oblastech je nesporný a zjevný – ženy se více zapojují do trhu práce, v mnohých zemích dosahují vyšší úrovně vzdělanosti než muži, rozhodují o větším podílu výdajů domácností. Na druhou stranu je možné jejich postavení zhodnotit jako nerovné, neboť i při vyšší úrovni vzdělanosti jen málokdy obsazují nejvyšší místa v oblasti politické i korporátní, jejich příjmy jsou obvykle nižší, než jsou u mužů, a to i za identickou práci. Situace v České republice se vyznačuje všemi výše jmenovanými prvky.

Podle Světového ekonomického fóra (WEF) se globální nerovnost mezi pohlavími v posledním roce zvýšila, a to poprvé od prvního měření před 11 lety. Česká republika se ve srovnání společenského postavení mužů a žen ve 144 zemích umístila na 88. místě a v souhrnném indexu je mírně nad váženým průměrem. Podle WEF potrvá zacelení "genderové mezery" ve světě za současných trendů ještě 100 let. V uplynulém roce navíc pokračoval trend růstu příjmové nerovnosti mezi muži a ženami. Při pokračování současného trendu jev vymizí až za 217 let, uvedl WEF. Příjmová nerovnost je největší slabinou České republiky; v tomto dílčím ukazateli je až na 92. místě. Jen o jednu pozici lepší je situace v otázce politické participace. Na druhé straně je Česko mezi pěti zeměmi, kterým se v uplynulých 12 měsících podařilo dorovnat rozdíly v oblasti vzdělávání a zdraví (WEF, 2018).

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CHALLENGES TO MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISES (MNES) UNDER TAX CUT AND JOB ACT

Yen-Chih Lee

Abstract

Multiple risks confront MNE every day. Since 2018, MNEs based in the U.S. enjoy a lowered corporate tax rate and no tax burden on foreign profits. The switch from the past worldwide tax system to the current territorial tax system does encourage MNEs to invest globally, while the tax-free option stops MNEs to find excuses to hide profits overseas. As to the past overseas profits, a lowered one-time repatriation tax offers MNEs a chance to bring back past profits to pay back domestic debts, buy back shares, distribute profits to shareholders, raise employees' wages, or invest in companies' projects. However, new rules bring in new challenges, and lowered tax burden results in an increase of the cost of debt. Moreover, a continued interest rate hike and a significant dollar appreciation accompany with the expected economic growth and the inflow of a vast of repatriated profits. Besides benefits, there are challenges and risks under the new U.S. tax rules.

Keywords: *Tax cut, MNE, financial management, financial risks.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Lee (2017) pointed out that before 2018, multinational enterprises (MNEs) based in the U.S. needs to pay the highest corporate tax rate of 38.9% among OECD countries (Kurtzleben, 2017), which has driven MNEs to create tax-haven subsidiaries in countries like Bermuda, the Cayman Islands, Panama, and others. Some companies even settled their headquarters overseas to avoid direct U.S. taxation (Eiteman et al., 2012). For many years, politicians view the tax avoidance by MNEs as a serious political issue and consider that MNEs have shifted numerous jobs out of the U.S. Studies indicate that there are about 14 million outsourced jobs moved out of the U.S. and it is more than the 7.5 million unemployed Americans in 2017 (Amadeo, 2018a). Politicians therefore reason that if MNEs could repatriate their oversea profits, the U.S. unemployment rate would significantly decrease. For this reason, President Trump pursued a dramatic tax reform and was successful to persuade legislators to enact the U.S. Tax Cuts and Jobs Act of 2017.

Before 2018, besides the high corporate tax rate, the U.S. adopted the worldwide taxation system. In comparison, major industrialized countries have lowered their corporate tax rates in the past decades and transferred the worldwide taxation system to a territorial system to tax only domestic incomes and ignore the worldwide earnings. Hence, following the global trend, Tax Cuts and Jobs Act of 2017 lowers the maximum corporate tax rate to 21%, and changes the past worldwide tax system to the territorial tax system. Under the worldwide tax system, MNEs pay tax on foreign earned income when bringing back the overseas profits. In contrast, under the territorial tax system, there is no tax on foreign profits. In the meantime, the Act set a one-time repatriation tax rate of 15.5 percent on cash and 8 percent on equipment to attract MNEs to repatriate the $2.6 trillion MNEs hold in foreign countries (Amadeo, 2018b). Overall, Trump's tax reform (TTR) is favorable to MNEs.

2. GLOBAL CORPORATE TAXATION TREND

In the past, the U.S. adopts the worldwide taxation approach so that each company's worldwide earnings should be in the parent MNE's tax filing return (Scholes, et al., 2015) to endure with the highest corporate tax rate among OECD countries. Studies show that after tax deductions and credits, Japan, the U.K., and the U.S. are with the top three highest corporate

tax rates of 21.7%, 18.7%, and 18.6%, respectively (Kurtzleben, 2017). To reduce tax burden, MNEs create tax-haven subsidiaries in countries with a low tax rate, a stable currency, a good supporting system, and a reliable government (Eiteman et al., 2012). The commonly adopted tax strategy is the "double Irish with a Dutch sandwich" which involves two Irish subsidiaries, one Dutch subsidiary, and one offshore subsidiary at tax-heaven country (Obry, 2014). Moreover, some American companies even move their headquarters overseas to avoid directly the worldwide taxation by the U.S. government. For instance, by merging with a foreign company, a U.S.-headquartered company moves its legal headquarter overseas. This is the corporate inversion and it appears only on paper without actually moving the company's operations overseas so that the company can still take advantage as a U.S.-based firm (Zients, 2016). Currently, there are approximately $2.6 trillion in corporate earnings staying overseas (Amadeo, 2018b). Apple, Microsoft, Cisco, Google, and Oracle are among the major companies holding the biggest overseas cash piles (Linnane, 2017). Most interestingly, those MNEs use the hided foreign earnings to purchase the U.S. Treasury bonds to earn interest paid by the U.S. government. For instance, Apple received more than $600 million in interest in 2011-2016 by holding Treasury bonds purchased with its overseas profits (Wong, 2016).

If a high corporate tax rate has been the driving force behind MNEs' corporate inversion effort, what have other countries done about this issue? Actually, most industrialized countries have been reducing corporate tax rates in the last decades in order to remain competitive in the global market. Table 1 shows the changes of the statutory corporate tax rate of G7 countries from 2000 to 2017. The U.S. corporate tax rate has reduced by only 0.8% during this period, and it is far below the 9% reduction initiated by France. Actually, five other countries all show an even higher reduction of 29.6% ~ 41.9%. In addition. other studies indicate that more than 90% of OECD countries have reduced their corporate tax rates since 2000 and the average corporate income tax rate for the top 50 countries has dropped from 37.5% in 2000 to 31.9% in 2010 (Sanger, 2011).

Table 1: Changes of the statutory corporate tax rate (2000-2017), peak personal income tax rate (2000-2016) (OECD, 2018a), and the contribution of the corporate tax revenue to total tax revenue (2000-2016) (OECD, 2018b)) of G7.

G-7 Country	Statutory corporate tax rate (%)		Percent change (%)	Contribution of the corporate tax revenue to total tax revenue (%)		Percent change (%)	Peak personal income tax rate (%)		` Percent change (%)
	2000	2017		2000	2016		2000	2016	
Canada	43.6	26.7	-38.8	12.2	10.0	-18.0	29	33	13.8
France	37.8	34.4	-9.0	6.9	4.5	-34.9	53.25	45	-15.5
Germany	52.0	30.2	-41.9	4.8	5.3	10.4	51	45	-11.8
Italy	39.5	27.8	-29.6	6.9	5.5	-20.3	45.5	43	-5.5
Japan	43.3	30.0	-30.7	13.7	12.3 (2015)	-10.2	37	45	21.6
United Kingdom	30.0	19.0	-36.7	10.6	8.4	-20.8	40	45	12.5
United States	39.2	38.9	-0.8	7.9	8.6	8.9	`39.6	39.6	0.0

In addition, in the industrialized countries, there is an ongoing trend of moving away from the worldwide taxation, which is to tax corporates with income from all over the world, toward the territorial taxation, which is to tax only incomes earned domestically (Sanger, 2011). Studies show that in 2000, 17 OECD members adopted the worldwide systems, but in 2010,

27 of the 34 OECD member countries deployed some forms of the territorial systems (Dittmer, 2012). For instance, the U.K. and Japan replaced their worldwide tax systems with the territorial tax systems in 2009.

By reducing the corporate tax rate and adopting the territorial tax system, the contribution of the corporate tax revenue to each country's total tax revenue has reduced. Table 1 shows that besides the U.S. and Germany, five other countries have intentionally reduced the corporate tax contribution from 2000 to 2016. France reduced about 34.9% and it followed by the U.K. with 20.8%, Italy with 20.3%, Canada with 18%, and Japan with 10.2% (to 2015). Germany shows an increase of 10.4% but the contribution of the corporate tax revenue to total tax revenue was just about 5.3% of all tax revenues, which implies that there was little room for Germany to create significant reduction in the corporate tax revenue.

Does the reduction of the contribution of the corporate tax affects the growth of total tax revenue? Analyses indicate that the major tax items of each country are individual tax, corporate tax, social security contributions (SSC), property tax, goods and service tax (i.e. the sales tax), and other tax items. Different country has different kinds of tax acting as the dominant contribution items. In general, individual tax, SSC, and the sales tax are the dominant tax items of all these G7 countries. Corporate tax contributed only about 5.8% - 13.2% of the total tax revenue in different countries and were not the major contributor (OECD, 2018b). Table 2 shows the percentage change of GDP (UN, 2018), total tax revenue, individual tax, corporate tax, social security contributions (SSC), property tax, goods and service tax, and other tax items of G7 countries between 2000 and 2016 (OECD, 2018b). Except for Japan, other six country's GDP grew from 2000 to 2016 for more than 35% and the total tax revenue grew for more than 60%. Among those countries with a decrease of the contribution of the corporate tax to the total tax revenue (Table 1), the increase in the total tax revenue seems to be due to a large increase in individual tax, SSC, property tax, and sales tax. In other words, a steady economic growth may have contributed to the growth of individual income and consumption, which leads to the growth of individual tax, SSC, property tax, and sales tax. The reduction of the corporate tax burden seems to have no direct link with the growth of the economy and the total tax revenue. This is particularly true in Germany. The country's corporate tax rate has reduced by 41.9% but GDP grew by 48.9% and the total tax revenue grew by 84.7%.

Among G7 countries, Japan has reduced the corporate tax rate by 30.7% but this country was with only 1% GDP growth and 7% growth in the total tax revenue during 2000 – 2016 (Table 2). This is probably due to a slow economic recovery. As to the U.S., the country's corporate tax rate has reduced by only 0.8% but GDP grew by 81.1% and the total tax revenue grew by 67.1%. The corporate tax revenue has increased by 82.2% during 2000 – 2016. In other words, the economic growth may not be very sensitive to the change of the corporate tax rate. The reason is probably due to the low contribution of 5.8% - 13.2% of the corporate tax in the total tax revenue. Still, major industrialized countries have cut their corporate tax rate and switched to the territorial tax system, which suggests that the action may be favorable to stimulate economic growth by stimulating companies to invest more with the reduced tax burden, even though the comparison between Germany and Japan suggests that the intended effect may not appear in every country.

Table 2: Percentage change of GDP (UN, 2018), total tax revenue, individual tax, corporate tax, social security contributions (SSC), property tax, goods and service tax, and other tax items of G7 countries between 2000 and 2016 (OECD, 2018b). Tax items with the percentage change larger than that of the total tax revenue is with an underlined mark.

	GDP	Total Tax Revenue	Individual tax	Corporate Tax	Social security contributions	Property tax	Goods & service tax	others
Canada	85.7%	86.9%	85.5%	52.6%	106.6%	134.5%	80.0%	63.6%
France	49.5%	89.4%	99.8%	23.5%	94.2%	150.2%	78.8%	82.5%
Germany	48.9%	84.7%	94.1%	102.6%	78.3%	129.3%	78.6%	67.9%
Italy	35.9%	71.0%	77.8%	23.3%	81.2%	138.8%	72.5%	-10.1%
Japan (2000-2015)	1.0%	7.0%	-4.1%	-4.3%	19.8%	-16.5%	16.5%	6.1%
United Kingdom	79.0%	60.2%	50.4%	27.5%	80.2%	76.3%	63.5%	-
United States	81.1%	67.1%	59.1%	82.2%	70.2%	68.0%	75.4%	-

Does tax cut be favorable to the economic growth? According to Laffer (2014), cutting tax will lower the tax burden of individual and business and stimulate more consumption and investment, which are both favorable to the economic growth. However, the effect will take place when the tax rate reaches a prohibitive high range. Table 1 also lists the change of the peak personal tax rate of G7 countries from 2000-2016. Three countries did cut the peak personal tax rate, but not the other four countries. Linking data in Table 2, it shows that there should have other reasons besides tax cut to stimulate the economic and the total tax revenue growth during 2000-2016. At least, cutting corporate tax rate did not accompany with a slowdown in the economy and the total tax revenue.

3. TRUMP TAX REFORM AND MNES

On December 22, 2017, President Trump signed the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act (TCJA) and formally enacted the most comprehensive tax reform in the last 30 years. The ultimate goal of Trump tax reform (TTR) is to increase jobs in the U.S. and to offer historic tax relief to families and small business owners. For individuals, the Act keeps the current seven income tax brackets but lowers the peak tax rate of 39.6% to 37% from 2018 to 2025 (Amadeo, 2018b). For business, the Act lowers the peak corporate rate from 35% to 21%, raises the standard deduction of pass-through businesses by 20%, limits the deduction of business interest expense to 30% of income, and replaces the worldwide tax system with the territorial tax system. As for the trillions of dollars of corporate profits held overseas, the Act sets a one-time tax rate of 15.5% on cash and 8% on equipment (Amadeo, 2018b).

The dramatic tax reform is going to affect all taxpayers and businesses with an estimated total tax cut about $1.5 trillion and an average 0.7% GDP growth above the baseline over the coming 10 years (JCX, 2017a, b). In addition, the federal deficit, which is currently about $665 billion, will increase to $1.5 trillion in 2018. The debt held by the public, which is about $14.7 trillion and equivalent to 77% of GDP in 2017, will increase to $28.7 trillion and about 96% of GDP in 2028 (CBO, 2018). The economy growth projected by CBO will be 3.3%, 2.4%, 1.8%, and 1.5% in 2018-2021, respectively, while the unemployment rate will be about 3.6% - 3.8% in 2018 -2020 before climbing up about 4.4% in 2021-2022. In other words, TTR will stimulate economic growth in the first few years but the effect will slow down gradually. One of the reason is the negative effect caused by the consistent interest rate hike by the Federal Reserve Board to offset the inflation growth accompanied with the economic growth (Entin, 2018).

Clearly, MNEs should evaluate the effect of TTR and respond accordingly (Lee, 2017). The first suitable action is to assess the amount of tax reduction, evaluate options on repatriating and distributing overseas profits, and project the likelihood of the interest rate hike and the dollar appreciation in the following years. Adequate actions should be in place as early as

possible to take advantage of the extra amount of funding offered by the government through tax cut, one-time repatriated tax, and the territorial tax system. For instance, the one-time "repatriation tax" applies to not only C corporations but also S corporations and individuals who have certain foreign earnings and profits made since 1987 and held overseas. The tax due can spread over an eight-year period by installation but the first payment was due on April 17, 2018 (Lyons, 2018). In other words, MNEs had very little time to hesitate after the enactment of Tax Cut and Job Act. Actually, news about a peak level of bids for mergers and acquisitions (MA) in early 2018 implied that MNEs took desired moves promptly (Davies, 2018). In addition, to those with headquarters already moved out, whether to move back to enjoy the low corporate tax would be a serious issue to decide. For instance, Broadcom decided to move back from Singapore to Delaware with its headquarter in San Jose (Friedman, 2018). With the territorial tax system in place, many MNEs with headquarters located abroad are very likely to move back soon.

The second suitable action is that MNEs ought to monitor the impacts of repatriating overseas profits to the financial market. To be precise, MNEs are likely to repatriate their past overseas profits if they wish to remain as U.S. domestic companies and enjoy the benefits of the lowered corporate tax rate and the territorial tax system. In the past, to manage deferred profits, MNEs have established financial management firms to purchase Treasury bonds and earn tax-free interests without directly linking to the parent MNEs (New River Investments, 2016). In the meantime, since these companies still need capital to fund their domestic and international projects, MNEs often issue corporate bonds and acquire domestic debts. If MNEs' overseas profits were all back to the U.S., there would be a period of massive sellout of Treasury bonds and the buyback of corporate bonds. Records show that Ireland is the third largest creditor of the U.S. government by holding more than $300 billion of U.S. Treasury bonds by subsidiaries of U.S. MNEs (Oh, 2017). Interestingly, in February 2018, a drop of $13.5 billion of Irish-based holdings of U.S. Treasuries occurred, which was the biggest monthly drop and implied the possibility of the retrieval of MNEs' repatriated profits from bonds to cash (Rao and Carvalho, 2018). In other words, a huge sellout of Treasury bonds may be undergoing. In addition, the repatriation is with a one-time lowered tax rate. Hence, MNEs must arrange things far ahead of time to ensure that all qualified capitals are back with a sufficient amount of capital available to fulfill the repatriation-tax liability. Since there are so many big MNE players involved in this event, the impact on the financial market, particularly the bond market, would not be trivial.

The third suitable action is that MNEs must be aware of new tax rules related to the territorial tax system, which includes the participation exemption, the global intangible low tax income (GILTI), the foreign derived intangible income (FDII), and the base erosion and anti-abuse tax (BEAT) (Pomerleau, 2018). The participation exemption is the rules that MNEs must meet to exempt from the U.S. tax when earning foreign profits. GILTI is a newly defined foreign income of earnings exceeding 10% return of the "qualified business asset investment" (QBAI), which is the sum of all invested depreciable assets. GILTI is subject to a tax rate between 10.5% and 13.125%. FDII is similar to GILTI but it is about income created from the use of intellectual property in the U.S. and FDII is subject to 13.125% tax rate. As to BEAT, it is a 10% minimum tax (5% in 2018) to prevent MNEs from shifting profits all out of the U.S. There are more details into these new regulations and MNEs must pay great attention to maneuver among them. In specific, rules on distinguishing domestic income and allowable foreign income are very likely to affect MNEs' decisions on their domestic and international operations.

The fourth suitable action is that MNEs will need to reformulate their capital budgeting plans. Under a higher corporate tax rate, the benefit of tax deduction on debt is the major reason that many companies pursue a higher debt burden to acquire needed capitals. With a significant

reduction of the tax rate from 35% to 21%, the tax deduction benefit will decrease by 40%. Companies will have two choices in making their capital budgeting plans. The first option is to increase the company's debt ratio to compensate for the reduction of the tax deduction benefit. However, increasing the debt ratio may create a negative effect on the company's credit rating while increasing the company's interest burden and lowering its earnings. The second option is to increase the weight of equity and issue more shares. However, the company may worry about the decrease of its market price and the effect of a dilution of distributable profits to shareholders. In certain conditions, the issuance of shares may not be as successful as expected, which would affect the planned investment projects. Fortunately, as multinational enterprises, MNEs have an additional option to acquire foreign debts or issue shares abroad to avoid difficulties faced after the domestic tax reform. In other words, the task of capital budgeting will become more complicated than before.

The fifth suitable action is that MNEs will need to put more efforts on dealing with the ongoing trend of interest rate hike and on reducing risks associated with the sudden exchange rate change. In principle, the tax reform aims at increasing domestic investments and jobs to push for a stronger economic growth in the U.S. To counteract the expected rise of inflation, the Federal Reserve Board is ready to raise the interest rate in the coming years (Appelbaum, 2018). This will worsen MNE's debt burden while facing strict demands from shareholders for higher returns. Earlier planning to lower company's domestic debt burden through international budgeting would be an optimal option. In addition, accompanying the increasing inflow of capital, a strong appreciation of the U.S. dollar is likely to happen which may not be beneficial to the export business. Strategies useful to mitigate the currency exchange rate risks should be constantly ready to deploy because sudden fluctuation of foreign currency exchange rate could happen when events such like interest rate hike or a significant amount of repatriated profits returning to the U.S occurs. The task to minimize the impacts of the transaction, translation, and operating risks to MNEs will be much more critical than before.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Analyses done by Phillips et al. (2017) revealed that 73% Fortune 500 companies operated one or more subsidiaries in tax heaven countries in 2016. More than half of those 500 companies have at least one subsidiaries in Netherlands, and 57% of them have at least one subsidiary in Bermuda or the Cayman Islands. Roughly, a total of $2.6 trillion company profits were offshore. Apple ($246 billion), Pfizer ($199 billion), Microsoft ($142 billion), and General Electric ($82 billion) accounted for more than 25% of the total amount. Based on these companies' public disclosure data, it revealed that they paid on average only 6.1% foreign tax for those profits. Since foreign-paid tax could be treated as foreign tax credit in the U.S., therefore, those companies would need to pay 35% - 6.1% = 28.9% repatriation tax to IRS if profits returned to the U.S. before 2018. Hence, the one-time repatriation tax rate of 15.5 percent on cash and 8 percent on equipment set by the Tax Cut and Job Act of 2017 is most favorable to those MNEs (Amadeo, 2018b).

On January 17, 2018, Apple announced that the company planned to pay about $38 billion repatriation tax to bring back its overseas profits and intended to invest $350 billion over the next five years to create 20,000 new jobs (Balakrishnan, 2018). In the meantime, the company released its holdings of corporate bonds in preparation of bring overseas cash back. Approximately, 55% of Apple's overseas profits were in corporate bonds (Ahmed, et al., 2018). Later, on May 1, 2018, Apple announced that it has already spent $22.6 billion to buy back its own stock and it will spend another $100 billion to buy back more stocks. In addition, Apple will increase its dividends by 16% to distribute more than $20 million to its shareholders (Wiener-Bronner, 2018).

By May 1, 2018, except for Apple, most MNEs did not announce their plans on repatriating overseas profits. Still, signals appeared indicating that most MNEs were in the process of bringing back profits. For instance, a significant monthly drop of $13.5 billion of Irish-based holdings of U.S. Treasuries occurred in February 2018 (Rao and Carvalho, 2018). Since most MNEs adopt the "double Irish with a Dutch sandwich" strategy (Obry, 2014), Ireland is the place hosting subsidiaries of Apple, Pfizer, Microsoft, General Electric, IBM, Johnson & Johnson, Cisco, Google, and many other MNEs. Therefore, the signal may indicate that a massive sellout of Treasury bonds by MNEs to repatriate profits is undergoing. In addition, bids for global mergers and acquisitions (MA) in the first quarter of 2018 reached a record high of $1.2 trillion (Roumeliotis and Barbaglia, 2018). According to a survey of 300 S&P 500 companies in 2017, 42% of them would put the repatriated money into M&A (Richter, 2018). Therefore, the historical record M&A bid offers another signal of the ongoing foreign profit usage.

With corporate tax cut, one-time repatriation tax, and territorial tax system, the most interested question is whether domestic investment will increase significantly in 2018. By May 2, 2018, such signal is not clear yet (Phillips and Tankersley, 2018). Actually, survey about the usage of repatriated profits suggested that most companies intend to pay corporate debts, buy back stocks, and M&A. Capital expenditure was among the interested list but not at an impressive level of concern (Richter, 2018). If not using repatriated profits for new investments, then companies will have to wait until expected profits in 2018 to occur and the saved tax revenue by the new tax rules will be available for new investments. Therefore, the earliest signal of investment boon may optimistically appear in the third quarter of 2018.

In general, Apple's announcement on May 1, 2018 meets the experts' expectation of the usage of repatriated profits. In 2004, the Congress have passed the Homeland Investment Act of 2004 to provide an opportunity for companies to repatriate their profits in 2005 with an 85% tax cut to a tax rate of only 5.25% (Eiteman, et al., 2012), which was much lower than the current 15.5% for cash and 8% for equipment. Approximately, about 843 firms among 9,700 eligible companies participated and brought in about $312 billion repatriated overseas profits in 2005. However, about 91% of those repatriated profits mainly used for repurchasing shares to increase compensations to shareholders, an action which disallowed by the Act (Durden, 2017). The reason that companies could avoid punishments is that the repatriated overseas profits were mixing with other funds, which made it difficult to trace. In other words, if overseas profits returned in 2018, MNEs would very likely follow Apple to purchase shares and distribute more dividends.

Overall, Tax Cut and Job Act of 2017 fits the main trend among industrialized countries to cut corporate tax rate and to replace the worldwide tax system with the territorial tax system. In addition, the one-time repatriation tax offers a lowered tax burden to incentivize MNEs to bring back overseas profits. To make the best out of the tax reform, MNEs need to master rules to separate smartly its domestic and foreign earnings to minimize its domestic tax (Pomerleau, 2018), and to repatriate and distribute its past overseas profits to create favorable financial condition. Furthermore, the cost of debt will increase due to a less favorable tax deduction, which would make MNEs' capital budgeting much more difficult than before unless adopting the global budgeting strategy. In the meantime, a strong appreciation of the U.S. dollar is likely to happen when trillions of repatriated overseas profits are into the U.S. in along with a strong expectation of the economic growth after Trump tax reform. Therefore, MNEs will have a tough time managing foreign currency exchange risks due to the likeness of a strong fluctuation of the U.S. dollar. Moreover, the Federal Reserve Board will continue to raise the interest rate to offset the accompanied inflation, which will increase the cost of capital, counteract the economic growth, and fuel up the dollar appreciation. In other words,

even with the corporate-favoring new tax rules, MNEs are facing more challenges than before to minimize the capital cost and financial risks.

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BONITY INDEX AND ITS APPLICATION IN PROJECTS

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Abstract

In 2017, the Ministry of Economy of the Slovak Republic announced several calls for projects. Within the Operational Program Research and Innovations, the Ministry published the Call for Applications for non-repayable grants aimed at promoting innovations through industrial research and experimental development in the domain Healthy Food and Environment (code OPVAI/DP/2017 1.2.2 – 13). Applicants also had to meet the required level of bonity index (BI), (BI greater than or equal 2). The paper analyses the data, based on approved projects and assesses whether the BI requirement corresponds to the project objective – increasing competitive position and sustainability of an entrepreneurial institution (applicant). The conclusion, based on analysis results, presents a proposal to modify the call (in relation to BI).

Key words: *credit scoring model, bonity index, support of innovations, project, competitive ability*

INTRODUCTION

In 2017, the Ministry of Economy of the Slovak Republic announced several calls for projects. Within the Operation program Research and Innovations, they announced the Call for Applications for non-repayable grants aimed at promoting innovations through industrial research and experimental development in the domain Healthy Food and Environment (code OPVAI/DP/2017 1.2.2 – 13).

The project objective is the support of projects focused on the achievement of product innovations or processes via research and development activities. Moreover, it discusses finalisation of innovation measures, i.e. the development of achieved innovation and its implementation into production processes. The expected result will help increase innovation level in enterprises.

The project idea is to increase competitive position of enterprises and long-term sustainability via support of innovations in enterprises (OPVI, 2017a). Increasing sustainability will impact the standard of living of Slovak citizens.

Applicants for non-repayable financial grant had to present, (besides other conditions) – the level of bonity index. The condition was that the level of BI should be equal or higher than 2 (OPVAI, 2017a). This requirement is based on the assumption, (according to the authors of this paper), that the level of an enterprise and its ability to implement innovations as well as long-term sustainability of entrepreneurial activities is guaranteed by the BI level in the current year, (in the conditions year 2017 is requested). The project implementation assumes co-financing of the entrepreneurial subject and the financial amount depends on an authorized activity, actions, and the applicant's region.

In the paper, we will verify whether the BI application corresponds to the project objective – increasing of competitive position and sustainability of an entrepreneurial subject (applicant). Moreover, we will discuss the assumption of a sponsor (that submitted BI ratio is relevant to the conclusion towards economic sustainable development). The innovation itself and its implementation in an enterprise will be the accelerator of its economic recovery. In the context of the project, it seems that the higher value of BI (on the scale from “good” to “extremely good”) and fulfilment of other conditions lead to higher chance of receiving a

non-repayable financial grant – they increase the evaluation of the presented project. The BI calculation based approach falls into categories – credit and bonity models.
Their objectives are expressed on the basis of financial ratio analysis to summarize the overall enterprise condition. In literature (Day, 2003), there is a set of models similar to BI – for example, Beavers model, Z-scores; the authors assign them to credit risk models that are the quantification of an enterprise health for financing company by external resources – banks.
The presented approach is described in Fig.1.

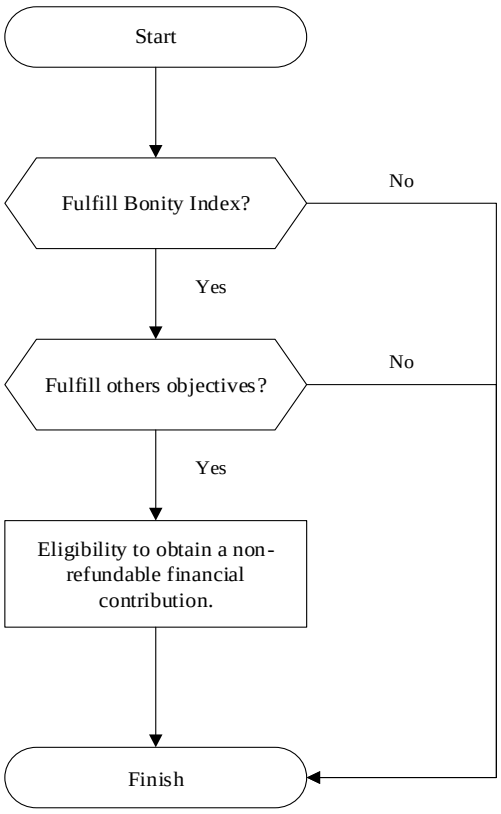

Fig.1 Project scheme

In the paper, the following project assumptions are verified:

- Hypothesis 1)

BI value equal or less than 2 means that the key functions of an enterprise are in threat. It also indicates that its ability to develop and implement research project for developing and implementing innovations in an enterprise is threatened.
Remark on Hypothesis 1: According to the sponsor, the required level of creditworthiness guarantees that an enterprise that plans to implement research project will be stable (in the future) to a certain degree and will have sufficient resources to perform the project. The achieved level of BI, therefore, does not correspond to the current position of an enterprise but to its expected, forecasted future – with the objective to minimize potential problems in research project performance and development of innovation projects.

- Hypothesis 2)

BI value equal to or greater than 2 is a sufficient condition for the conclusion that an enterprise has potential to perform research and development project for development and implementation of innovations in an enterprise.

Remark on Hypothesis 2: BI value equal to or greater than 2 represents a company stability. The enterprise has sufficient potential (material, financial, human resources) for implementing research projects and innovations in an enterprise at present and in the future.
The BI quantification is on the sponsor's web page – see Tab. 1:

Tab. 1: Scheme of BI calculation
(Source: OPVAI, 2017b)

Rating indicator	*Formula*
Ratio of net working capital and external capital	X_1=_ČPK/_CZ
Ratio of total assets and external capital	X_2=_CZK/_CK
Ratio of EBIT and total capital	X_3=_HZ/_CZK
Ratio of EBIT and total performance	X_4=_HZ/_CV
Ratio of stocks and total assets	X_5=_Z/_CM
Ratio of sales and total assets	X_6=_CV/_CZK
Bonity Index	$1{,}5X_1+0{,}08X_2+10X_3+5X_4+0{,}3X_5+0{,}1X_6$

Tab. 2 Scale for BI evaluation
(Source: OPVAI, 2017b)

Bonity index	*≤ - 2*	*≤ - 1*	*≤ 0*	*≤ 1*	*≤ 2*	*≤ 3*	*>3*
Situation of a company	Extremely bad	Very bad	Bad	Certain problems	Good	Very good	Extremely good

1. REVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

To define the term bonity index, we must start with the term bonity. Bonity is defined by (Šíbl, 1996) „...as a brand name, reputation, ability of an enterprise to pay its payables to banks, insurance companies, suppliers“.
Bonity of an enterprise is defined as „an ability in time and in the amount to fulfil its payables. It expresses a reputation, quality and an ability to pay. These indicators are applied by banks before a loan provision or by investors before starting cooperation. The method is focused on revenue, profit and cash flow“(Ekonomický slovník, 2018). Bonity index is based on elements of multivariate discriminatory analysis according to a simplified method (Sedláček, 2001). BI calculation is most frequently applied in Central European countries, especially in Switzerland, Austria, and Germany (Sedláček, 2001; Vochozka, 2011).

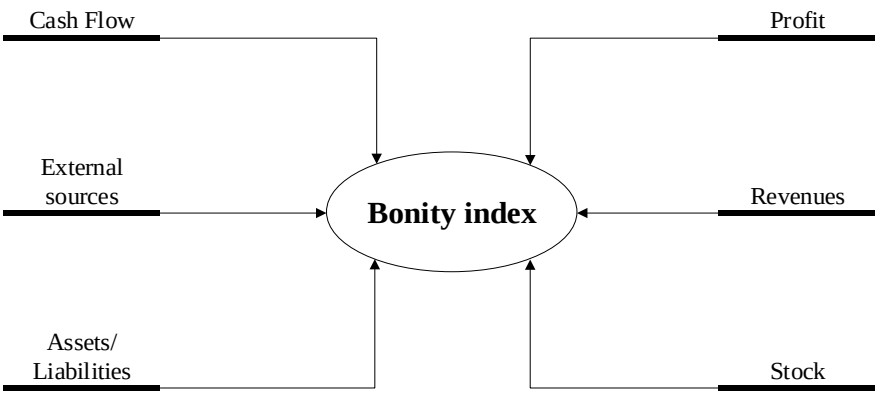

Fig.2 Input data for BI
https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/00207548508904734?needAccess=true calculation
Modified according to (Vochozka, 2011; Konečný, 2006]

Financial analysis of an enterprise leads to categories: credit scoring models (within it can be assign BI) and bankruptcy models. The value 0 is considered a critical value. If BI is positive, the enterprise indicates positive credit scoring value (creditworthiness), if negative, it is threatened by bankruptcy. The authors Konečný (2006), Vochozka (2011), Sedláček (2001), Šíbl (1996) present BI scale (-∞; ∞) and equation (1) to quantify BI.

$$Bonity\ index\ (BI) = 1{,}5x\frac{Cash\ Flow}{External\ capital} + 0{,}05x\frac{Capital\ total}{External\ capital} + 10x\frac{Earning\ before\ tax}{Capital\ total} + 5x\frac{Earning\ before\ tax}{Total\ revenue} + 0{,}3x\frac{Inventories}{Total\ assets} + 0{,}1x\frac{Total\ revenue}{Capital\ total} \quad (1)$$

2. METHOD

For the research purpose, a random sample of 20 enterprises was selected, (out of the database of all successful project grant applicants). The databases www.finstat.sk, www.registeruz.sk were applied as financial data sources.

To verify the paper hypotheses, we executed the following steps:

- we selected a randomized sample of an entrepreneurial subject – from the database of applicants with approved grant applications,
- for the selected business entity we quantified an BI for the time period 2014-2016 (in the project conditions 2017 was required),
- the results of each enterprise were subsequently analysed.

In the analysed period 2014-2016, enterprises could achieve the BI within the interval – see Tab.2. The basis for the decision was 2017 and the value of the BI indicator for this year.

In our approach, we split the sample of 20 enterprises into the categories of large, middle, small and microenterprises. This structure is based on Tab. 3

Tab.3 Categories of enterprises
(Source: Majková 2008)

Category	*Nr. of empl.*	*Yearly revenue*	*Total capital*
Large	>250	>50 mil. €	>43 mil. €
Middle	<250	<=50 mil. €	<=43 mil. €
Small	<50	<=10 mil. €	<=10 mil. €
Micro	<10	<=2 mil. €	<-2 mil. €

3. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The sample of 20 enterprises with approved non-repayable financial grant was analysed in terms of the following variables:

- category of enterprises and the achieved level of BI in years 2014-2016,
- three possible situations that could happen during the analysed time period 2014-2016 (improvement, stabilization and worsening of BI) in individual enterprise categories.

The following table and figures (Tab. 4; Fig. 3 – Fig. 6) present the results.

Tab.4 List of sorted enterprises according to size of enterprise – according to the year

Criteria – size of enterprise.	*1-st year*						
	Extremely bad	*Very bad*	*Bad*	*Certain problems*	*Good*	*Very good*	*Extremely good*
Large			1		1		
Middle					3		2
Small			1	2	5	1	1
Micro			2				

Criteria – size of enterprise.	*2-nd year*						
	Extremely bad	*Very bad*	*Bad*	*Certain problems*	*Good*	*Very good*	*Extremely good*
Large			1		1		
Middle			1			2	2
Small			2	2	1		5
Micro			2				

Criteria – size of enterprise	*3-rd year*						
	Extremely bad	*Very bad*	*Bad*	*Certain problems*	*Good*	*Very good*	*Extremely good*
Large			1		1		
Middle					2	1	2
Small				3	3		5
Micro							2

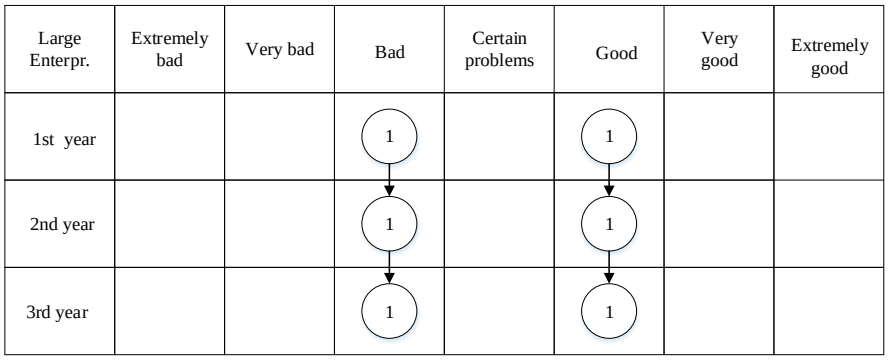

Fig. 3 Graphical presentation of improvement, worsening or stabilization of BI in a large enterprise

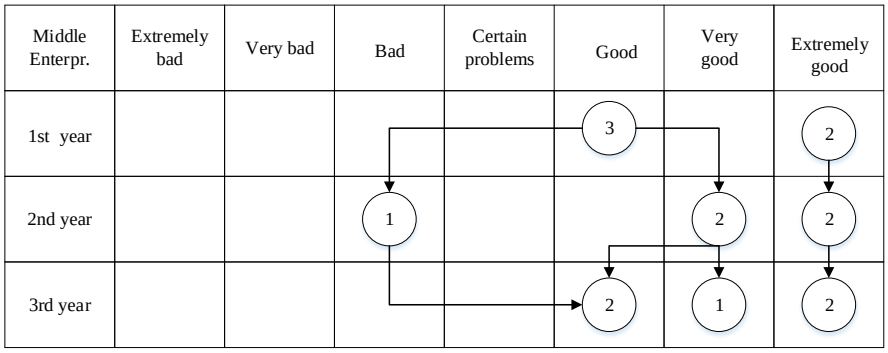

Fig. 4 Graphical presentation of improvement, worsening or stabilization of BI in a middle enterprise

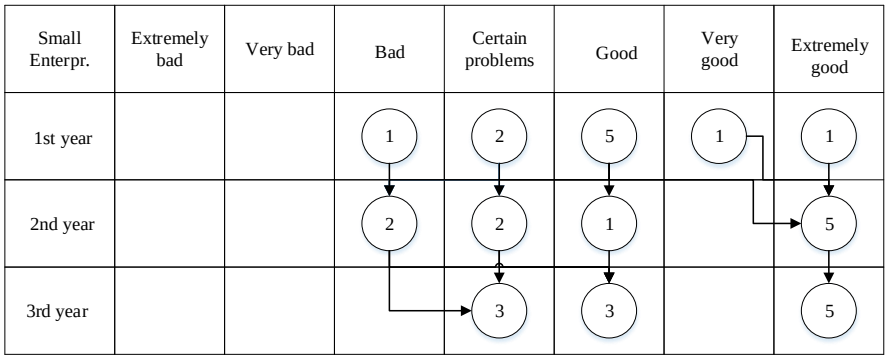

Fig. 5 Graphical presentation of improvement, worsening or stabilization of BI in a small enterprise

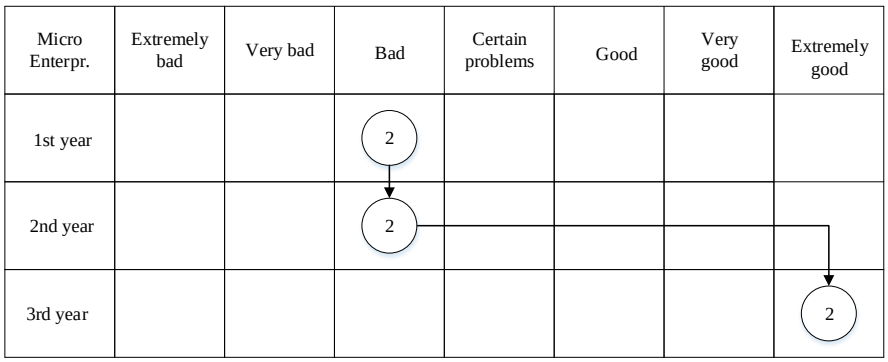

Fig. 6 Graphical presentation of improvement, worsening or stabilization of BI in micro enterprise

Tab. 4 is based on the analysis and calculation during February – April 2018. For each entrepreneurial subject, BI for the period 2014 – 2016 was calculated.
Fig. 3 - Fig. 6 summarize the results for Tab. 4, where for each entrepreneurial subject BI development in 2014-2016 was analysed. The status „improvement" indicates when during the time period positive development of BI was recorded (e.g. from status „extremely bad" to another status). A similar approach was applied also for statuses „worsening" and „stabilization". Thus, during the analysed period, each enterprise could acquire conditions such as the second period of "improvement" and the third period of "stabilization" (always comparing the achieved BI status to the BI value in the previous period).
The following results can be derived from the previous analysis:

- only for 2 large companies, it was valid that the BI value was neither changed nor stable during the analysed years; out of the total number of 20 enterprises, which were allocated the non-repayable financial grant, only 2 were large enterprises, that is 10%,
- for small and middle enterprises (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5) it was valid that during the analysed years there were negative transfers as well as positive ones; negative means transition from the level corresponding to the project approval to the level of non-compliance BI> = 2,
- microenterprises proved in years 1-2 insufficient levels of BI and year 3 transfer to BI "extremely good"; there were 2 micro-enterprises; the shift in the evaluation was extreme - nothing similar happened in other categories of enterprises; this increase appears dubious,
- in the surveyed sample, only 10% of enterprises maintained a constant value over the whole period; from the point of view of the bidder's requirement, the BI value was constant for 10% of the surveyed enterprises throughout the 2014-2016 period.

4. CONCLUSION

From the results mentioned above, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- BI criteria do not sufficiently prove the availability of resources and the company's readiness in the short term to maintain or increase competitiveness,
- based on the research, it cannot be concluded that if an enterprise does not reach BI <=2 it is/will be in bankruptcy and therefore unable to perform the research project (rejection of hypothesis 1),
- it cannot be unequivocally argued from the survey that companies with BI> = 2 will be fully able to implement the project; by analysis of the set in the monitored period

the situation of decrease from state BI> = 2 to the level of non-acceptability for the project in the analysed period was also identified (rejection of hypothesis 2).

Therefore, it can be concluded that BI ratio for the current year as in the project proposition should only be considered supplementary, additional information. The other possibility is to submit the last 3 years – from which the expected trend in a company and the sustainability of the business activity of the analysed enterprise can be derived.

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DEVELOPMENT OF PREREQUISITES FOR ETHICAL LEADERSHIP IN THE ARMY OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Zdeněk Mikulka

Abstract

The main prerequisites for ethical leadership in the Army of the Czech Republic (hereinafter referred to as ACR) are ethical education and the ethical leadership of military professionals, as well as the readiness of the military environment to adopt ethical leadership. In the first chapter of the paper, the bases for the implementation of ethical leadership into the military environment are specified. In the second chapter, using the problem tree method, Delphi method, and stakeholder influence analysis, analyses assessing the readiness of the Czech army environment for ethical leadership in 2013 and 2017 are described. It was found out that the Czech Army, despite some improvements, is still not sufficiently prepared for ethical leadership.

Key words: *ethical leadership, ethical education, military environment, military professional, Army of the Czech Republic*

1 BASIS FOR ETHICAL LEADERSHIP IN THE MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

In recent years, the need for an approach to human resources, which is collectively called leadership, has been increasingly emphasized in organizations of various types. The development of leadership brings significant information, which shows that one of the criteria for assessing a leader are the values he or she professes, and whether his/her professional behaviour reflects the values. The leader's positive attitude, which is consistent with his/her values, is expressed by the notion of ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120).

The nature of current military and non-military activities, the demands placed on military professionals and, in particular, the demand for the ability of functional teamwork of many individual specialists require a specific approach to subordinate management at all hierarchical levels of the military organization (tactical, operational and strategic). The result is the need to profile a current commander as a leader who retains the manager's skills.

Leadership as a complex approach is an important starting point for the contemporary military. Therefore, it is also important to find the answer to the question of whether current military organizations (armies) are ready to implement ethical leadership and use its potential for the development of a combat ethos. The text created within the framework of the specific research project on Moral Integrity and the Personality of a Member of the ACR examines the preparedness of the Czech army environment for ethical leadership. The main methods used for obtaining results were the content the analysis of the readiness of the ACR environment using the tools of strategic analysis and the subsequent interpretation of the results.

Under the conditions of the ACR, the quality of ethical leadership is influenced by the theoretical, historical, normative, situational and personality assumptions and preparedness of the military environment. Theoretical, historical, normative and situational assumptions have already been dealt with in detail in the descriptive study by Mikulka, Nekvapilová, and Fedorková (2018). Personality assumptions have been investigated within the research into the level of moral integrity of the ACR members, which has demonstrated the need to build and develop a professional moral-value attitude in the ACR members (Mikulka 2017, pp. 98-117) using the system of ethical education (Mikulka 2017, pp. 117-139).

2 ANALISIS OF THE READINESS OF THE CZECH MILITARY ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Objectives of the analysis and the methods used

In order to analyse the readiness of the Czech military environment to ethical leadership, the following objectives were set:

- Evaluate the role of military (professional) ethics in the process of education and training of the ACR military professionals.
- Identify current problems connected with practical implementation of ethical education in the ACR.
- Characterize the significant risks that may affect the influence of ethics and military (professional) ethics on the education and training of the ACR military professionals.

To identify the current issues, the problem tree method was applied using the data obtained via the Delphi method. Consequently, for the risk analysis, a stakeholder analysis method was used.

The Delphi method is based on "gradual detection and observation of experts' prognosis (opinions)" (Grasseová et al., 2010, p. 186). Restrictions and risks connected with the use of this method (relatively small sample of respondents, subjectivity of answers, motivation to participate, the fact it is a time-consuming method and the need to use the feedback if there is no consensus) were partially minimized by the fact that the wording of the questions followed, in the case of the 2013 analysis (hereinafter referred to as the 2013 analyses), previous unstructured interviews and close professional co-operation with a chosen group of experts. In the case of the 2017 analysis (hereinafter the 2017 analyses), it followed the results of the 2013 analysis (Mikulka 2014, pp. 25-26).

A more precise definition and identification of problems and the identification of the key negative statements were made using the problem tree heuristic. To create the problem trees, a set of statements that came from collecting and evaluating the answers of Delphi experts was used. Then, stylistically modified negative statements from which a key problem was identified (statement) were chosen. The remaining issues (negative statements) were divided into causes and consequences. In order to establish the basic assumptions about the link between risks and stakeholders in relation to military professional ethics and ethical education in the ACR, an analysis of the influence of stakeholders was used. Its implementation consisted of identifying the stakeholders, formulating risks and assumptions concerning these stakeholders, evaluating them in terms of their significance and certainty, and then analysing the relationship of stakeholders with the development strategy - in this case with military ethics and ethical education (Grasseová et al. 2010, p. 201).

2.2 The respondents' characteristics and development of the analysis

Four groups of experts were selected for questioning: military chaplains, the academic staff of the University of Defence (hereinafter referred to as UoD), teachers of the Training Command - Military Academy (hereinafter referred to as TC-MA) and lecturers on risk behaviour prevention. The reason was the fact that only these specialties systematically deal with the issues of military ethics, ethical education, and ethical propaedeutic in the ACR. In the case of academic staff of the University of Defence, the criteria included the pedagogical work of the person and his/her professional and scientific activity. In the case of military chaplains, the criterion was the fact whether the chaplain is engaged in the field of military professional ethics and ethical propaedeutic. In the case of TC-MA teachers, the criterion was their pedagogical activities orientation. In the case of the risk behaviour prevention lecturers, it was their lecturing activity focusing on the issues of military ethics. In accordance with these

criteria, a list of experts comprising 32 persons (Mikulka 2014, p. 9) was created in the case of the 2013 analysis. In the case of the 2017 analysis, a list of experts comprising 36 persons (Mikulka 2017, p.57) was created.

The process of data collecting using the Delphi method included a preparatory, implementation and evaluation phases. The preparatory phase included the setting of objectives and analytical methods to achieve them, creating the list of experts, their participation in the questioning and, in particular, the preparation of the questionnaire itself. For each question, the invited expert was offered the option of choosing the preferred answer, while each answer corresponded to the particular numerical value (YES = 1, RATHER YES = 2, RATHER NO = 3, NO = 4). For each question, it was possible to choose only one possible answer and to provide a more specific, verbal commentary. The implementation phase included electronic distribution of the questionnaires to selected experts and the subsequent collecting of filled-in questionnaires of the first round. After the questionnaire was sent out and then received back, 14 responses were obtained in the 2013 analysis, and in the 2017 analysis, 26 responses were received. The evaluation phase included statistical analysis of the responses using the median and quartile span, their compilation and processing. Already in the first round of questioning, both analyses showed a sufficient consensus of experts. Thus, no further rounds were necessary. The output of the questionnaire for both analyses was a set of statements, which was still used to define and identify the problems.

The following procedures have been proposed for further analysis: create and visualise the problem tree and analyse the stakeholders' influence.

Within the analysis of readiness of the Czech military environment to ethical leadership, the author identified the following stakeholders:

- Students: the ACR military professionals at basic positions (units' members, UoD students, professional and career courses participants).
- Educators: UoD and TC-MA teachers, military chaplains, and risk behaviour prevention lecturers.
- Unit commanders, leaders, people authorised to command.
- Commanders of military bases and installations.
- Authors (guarantors) of professional training programmes and military training.
- UoD and TC-MA management, and Personnel Agency (hereinafter PA) of the ACR.
- ACR Command (headquarters, centres, agencies, general staff), representatives of the Ministry of Defence (hereinafter referred to as rep. of the MoD).

The prerequisites concerning stakeholders were set as the answers to the question: How credible supportive (S) and limiting (L) prerequisites in relation to military ethics and ethical education can be made about individual stakeholders?

Evaluation of the prerequisites in terms of their significance and certainty was done by means of The Matrix of prerequisites evaluation in terms of their significance and certainty. The assignment of the degree of significance and certainty of individual assumptions was done on a point scale ranging from 0 to 9 points, and the influence of the stakeholders on the strategy - military ethics and ethical education and the degree of certainty of fulfilling individual prerequisites (Grasseová et al., 2010, p. 202).

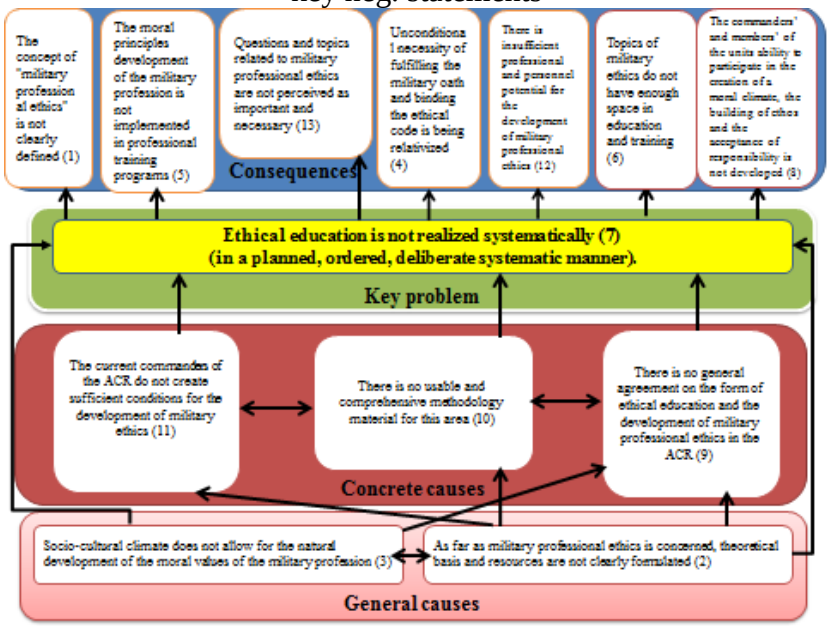
2.3 The 2013 Analysis

The following key negative statements have been selected and stylistically modified from the experts' responses file which was created on the basis of the data collection and evaluation using the Delphi method:

1. The concept of "military professional ethics" is not clearly defined.
2. As far as military professional ethics is concerned, theoretical basis and resources are not clearly formulated.
3. Current socio-cultural context does not allow for the natural development of the moral values of the military profession.
4. Military professionals do not have a clear awareness of the unconditional necessity of fulfilling the military oath and the binding nature of the ethical code.
5. The moral principles development of the military profession is not implemented in professional training programs.
6. Issues of military ethics do not have enough space in education and training.
7. Ethical education is not realized systematically.
8. Ability of unit commanders and members to participate in the creation of a moral climate, building the ethos and the acceptance of responsibility for the entrusted values is not developed.
9. There is no consensus on the form of ethical education and the development of military professional ethics in the ACR.
10. There is no usable and comprehensive methodology material for this area.
11. The current commander corps of the ACR do not create sufficient conditions for the development of military ethics.
12. There is insufficient professional and personnel potential for the development of military professional ethics.
13. Issues and topics related to military ethics are not perceived as important and necessary.

The following statement was identified as the main (key) one: Ethical education is not realized systematically (7); statements no. 3,2,9,10,11 were identified as causes; statements no. 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 13 were identified as consequences. The statements were then put together into a problem tree which allows understanding the structure of the problem.

Pict.1 Problem tree of the 2013 analysis for identification of the influence and links among key neg. statements



Source: the author

The prerequisites concerning the 2013 analysis stakeholders are formulated in the following table using supportive (S) and limiting (L) prerequisites:

Table1: Formulation of prerequisites concerning the stakeholders

Students	S – willingness to participation in ethical education programs within both the training hours and organized activities which are in accordance with the training plan L – unwillingness to participate beyond the official training hours
Unit commanders, leaders, people authorised to command	S – willingness to passive cooperation with the educator on the development of the combat ethos of their unit, to enable them to implement ethical ed. unless it interferes with other program priorities L – unwillingness to personal participation, educating in this area, and performing their own activities
Commanders of military bases and installations	S – willingness to create prerequisites for the military prof. ethics development L – unwillingness to personal participation, educating in this area, and performing their own activities
Authors (guarantors) of professional training programmes and military training.	S – willingness to cooperation (change) based on an official decision L – unwillingness to perform their own activity especially without an official approval coming from the superior level of command.
Educators	S – willingness to learn and develop military professional ethics L – unwillingness to subordinate to programmes and ideas coming from "outside"
UoD, TC-MA, and PA ACR management	S – willingness to provide teaching and developing military professional ethics L – unwillingness to do so at the expense of other subjects and programs
ACR Command, rep. of the MoD	S – willingness to promote the development of professional ethics at the level of documents, regulations ... etc. L – unwillingness (an impossibility) to change the system settings in the form of personal engagement with potential risk

Source: the author

Evaluation of the acquired prerequisites in terms of their importance and the certainty of the 2013 analysis:

Table 2: Evaluation of the assumptions obtained in terms of their significance and certainty

Stakeholders	**Main prerequisites**	**Significance**	**Certainty**	**Analysis results**
Students	Supporting Limiting	4 3	7 6	Influence Influence
Unit commanders, leaders, people authorised to command	Supporting Limiting	8 5	8 5	Accept / Persuade Influence / Educate
Commanders of military bases and installations	Supporting Limiting	8 5	5 7	Educate Influence
Authors (guarantors) of professional training programmes and military training.	Supporting Limiting	7 6	6 6	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
Educators	Supporting Limiting	9 6	7 7	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
UoD, TC-MA, and PA ACR management	Supporting Limiting	8 7	6 8	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
ACR Command, rep. of the MoD	Supporting Limiting	8 8	7 7	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade

Source: the author

2.4 The 2013 analysis results

The 2013 analysis showed the following conclusions: The reality of the personal and professional life of military professionals is influenced by the existing social climate with the absence of positive patterns and a clear focus on fulfilling value imperatives. In the case of military professionals, this is confronted with the issue of internalization with a commitment to the unconditional fulfillment of the military oath.

The theoretical basis for military professional ethics and the notion of "professional ethics" are not sufficiently defined in the ACR; there is no consensus on the form of ethical education. It is also not known who and how much should be involved in it. There is no comprehensive methodology material or sufficient professional and personnel potential for ethical education and the development of professional ethics. As a result, ethical education and the development of professional ethics do not provide sufficient support in training programs for the units and are not systematically implemented into practical training. Practical ethical propaedeutic is carried out in a non-systematic way; it is a matter of the unit commander's will and a personal invention of the local military chaplain. From this point of view, ethical seminars carried out in basic and career courses which take place at TC-MA and in lessons at the University of Defence are understood as a positive exception.

The natural consequence of the above described phenomenon is the fact that issues and topics related to military professional ethics are not perceived by the members of the ACR as important and necessary and the long absence of systematic education in the field of professional ethics has a negative impact on the ability of commanders and members of the units to build and develop the combat ethos.

2.5 The 2017 analysis

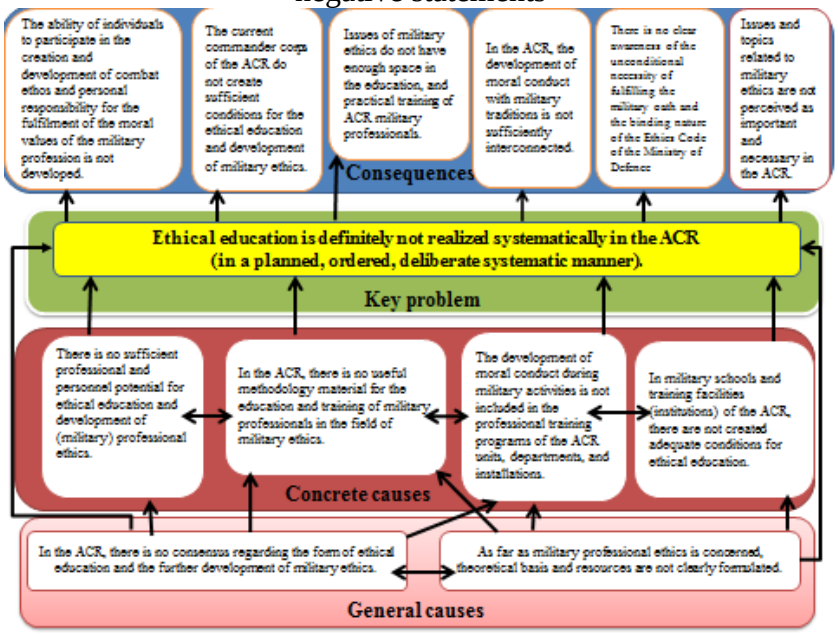
The 2017 analysis follows the 2013 analysis (Mikulka 2014). The findings of the 2013 analysis were used by the author in the follow-up 2017 analysis, which was processed in the time from November 2016 to April 2017 (Mikulka 2017, pp. 55 – 66).

The evaluation of the questionnaire results using the Delphi method showed the following conclusions:

1. The concept of "military (professional) ethics" is clearly defined in the ACR.
2. As far as military professional ethics is concerned, theoretical basis and resources are not clearly formulated.
3. The ACR environment allows for the natural development of the moral values of the military profession.
4. In the ACR, the development of moral conduct with military traditions is not sufficiently interconnected.
5. As far as military professionals are concerned, there is no clear awareness of the unconditional necessity of fulfilling the military oath and the binding nature of the Ethics Code of the Ministry of Defence staff.
6. In military schools and training facilities (institutions) of the ACR, there are not created adequate conditions for ethical education.
7. Topics of military (professional) ethics do not have enough space in education and practical training of the ACR military professionals.
8. The development of moral conduct during military activities is not included in the professional training programs of the ACR units, departments, and installations.
9. Ethical education is definitely not realized systematically in the ACR.
10. In the ACR, the ability of an individual to participate in the creation and development of the combat ethos of the unit and personal responsibility for the fulfilment of the moral values of the military profession is not developed.
11. In the ACR, sufficient professional and personnel potential for ethical education and development of (military) professional ethics currently does not exist.
12. In the ACR, there is no consensus regarding the form of ethical education and the further development of military ethics.
13. In the ACR, there is no useful methodology material for the education and training of military professionals in the field of military ethics.
14. The current commanders of the ACR do not create sufficient conditions for the ethical education and development of military (professional) ethics.
15. Issues and topics related to military ethics are not perceived as important and necessary in the ACR.

The following statement (no. 9) was identified as the main (key) one: Ethical education is definitely not realized systematically in the ACR (in a planned, ordered, deliberate, and systematic manner), statements no. 2,11,13,8,6,12 were identified as causes; statements no. 7,14,10,4,5,15 were identified as consequences. These statements were subsequently put together into a problem tree which allows visualization of the causes and consequences as well as of mutual relationships. This leads to better understanding of the structure of the problem.

Picture 2: The problem tree of the 2017 analysis identifying influence and links of key negative statements



Source: the author

The prerequisites concerning the stakeholders of the 2017 analysis are formulated in the following table using supportive (S) and limiting (L) assumptions:

Table 3: Formulation of prerequisites concerning the stakeholders

Students	S – willingness to participate in ethical education programs within both the training hours and organized activities which are in accordance with the training plan L – unwillingness to participate beyond the official training hours
Unit commanders, leaders, people authorised to command	S – willingness to passively cooperate with the educator on the development of the combat ethics of their unit, to enable implementation of et. education unless it interferes with other priorities L – unwillingness to personal participation, educating in this area, and performing their own activities (subordinates‘ character development, the role of a pattern)
Commanders of military bases and installations	S – willingness to create prerequisites for the military professional ethics development and for ethical education L – unwillingness to personal participation and performing their own act.
Authors (guarantors) of professional training programmes and military training.	S – willingness to cooperation (change) based on an official decision L – unwillingness to perform their own activity in this sense
Educators	S – willingness to learn and develop military professional ethics L – unwillingness to subordinate to programmes and ideas coming from “outside”
UoD, TC-MA, and PA ACR management	S – willingness to provide teaching and developing military professional ethics and implementing ethical education L – unwillingness to do so at the expense of other subjects and programs
ACR Command, representatives of the Ministry of Defence	S – willingness to promote the development of professional ethics at the level of documents, regulations (The Doctrine of the ACR, etc.) L – unwillingness (an impossibility) to change the system settings in the form of personal engagement with potential risk

Source: the author

Evaluation of the acquired prerequisites in terms of their significance and certainty of the 2017 analysis:

Table 4: Formulation of prerequisites concerning the stakeholders

Stakeholders	**Main prerequisites**	**Significance**	**Certainty**	**Analysis results**
Students	Supportive Limiting	4 3	7 6	Influence Influence
Unit commanders, leaders, people authorised to command	Supportive Limiting	8 5	8 5	Accept / Persuade Influence / Educate
Commanders of military bases and installations	Supportive Limiting	8 5	5 7	Educate Influence
Authors (guarantors) of professional training programmes and military training.	Supportive Limiting	7 6	6 6	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
Educators	Supportive Limiting	9 6	7 7	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
UoD, TC-MA, and PA ACR management	Supportive Limiting	8 7	6 8	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade
ACR Command, rep.of the MoD	Supportive Limiting	8 8	7 7	Accept / Persuade Accept / Persuade

Source: the author

2.6 The 2017 analysis results

The problem tree heuristic identified as a central (key) problem that limits the role of military ethics and ethical education in the ACR, the fact that "ethical education is not realized in the ACR systematically". Among the other identified causes we can find inadequately formulated theoretical basis, lack of professional and personnel potential, lack of methodology material for the education and training of military professionals in the field of military ethics, the fact that the development of moral conduct during military activities is not included in the training programs of the ACR units and installations. It also turned out that there are not created adequate conditions for ethical education in the ACR schools and training facilities (institutions), and that there is no consensus on the form of ethical education and the further development of military (professional) ethics in the ACR. These statements show that the problem of the role of military professional ethics and ethical education in the ACR is related to the attitude of commanders and decision makers and also to the problem of insufficient professional, methodical, personnel and, ultimately, scientific and research conditions.

This was also confirmed by the stakeholders' influence analysis. The analysis proved that tactical and operational levels - units commands, company/battery battalion/section/squadron, brigade/base/wing, and operational command have the biggest influence on the professional ethics development. Lesser influence then could be seen at subjects on strategic level - General Staff, Ministry of Defence (creating doctrines, documents, conceptions…). However, this thesis is particularly relevant for supportive factors; in limiting factors the greater number of limiting risks is at the strategic level which is (possibly) related to a higher degree of military-political responsibility. From the appropriate way of influencing the stakeholders' point of view, the tactical positive influence prevails (education, training, personal example). Operational and strategic levels seem to be a suitable way of corresponding argumentation, which presupposes knowledge and findings (based on the practice and scientific results).

The 2017 analysis offers an expert perspective of the view at the current state of military ethics and ethical education and is in accordance with the doctrinal perspective. The clear emphasis of the Doctrine of the ACR on the development of the combat ethos brings the military ethics and, above all, ethical education into the position of one of a few tools which can be built and developed (The Doctrine of the ACR, 2013, p.9).

3 CONCLUSION

When both analyses of the Czech military environment readiness to ethical leadership are compared, it can be seen that the key situational prerequisites, i.e. the quality of the environment in which the ethical leader is formed and in which ethical leadership is fulfilled, remain practically unchanged. The decisive aspect for the quality of the environment, in which the ethical leader is formed, is the quality of the training system of military professionals and military leaders of the ACR. This quality is related to the process of deliberate and unintentional transfer of patterns of proper behaviour. This process is practically fulfilled via the development of military professional ethics and, above all, via the development of ethical education and propaedeutic. The 2013 and 2017 analyses results and their comparisons show that the required development does not occur. It can be positively assessed that the concept of "military (professional) ethics" in the Czech military environment is clearer and more understandable in 2017 than in 2013. It can also be seen that the Czech military environment in 2017, compared to 2013, enables developing military moral values for military professionals better. However, there has been no qualitative shift in dealing with key issues and topics.

The repeated analysis leads to the conclusion that ethical education and ethical propaedeutic in the Czech military are still conducted in a non-conceptual way and in insufficient scope. The realization itself depends on the conditions, which will be created by individual commanders, the chiefs, and managers responsible for the military and professional training. It also depends on the possibilities, approach and invention of individual educational subjects dealing with this issue.

The natural consequence of the situation described above is the fact that issues and topics related to military professional ethics are not perceived as important and necessary in the ACR and do not receive adequate attention. The long-term absence of systematic education in the area of professional ethics negatively affects the process of deliberate and unintentional transfer of proper behaviour patterns and has a negative impact on the capability of commanders and members of units to build and develop the combat ethos, which is considered by the Doctrine of the ACR as one of the key elements of functioning armed forces and as an absolute requirement in relation to all members of the ACR (The Doctrine of the ACR, 2013, p.9).

The 2013 and 2017 analyses have repeatedly proved the tension between the doctrine and its demands and the everyday life reality at individual departments and installations of the ACR (including the educational ones). The perception of the importance of the professional ethics and ethical education in the everyday life reality in the Czech Armed Forces does not correspond to the doctrinal demand that attributes to professional ethics and ethical education the role of the main instruments for the development of the combat ethos.

The analysis showed that the Czech military environment is neither sufficiently prepared for a doctrinal approach to military ethics and ethical education, nor for ethical leadership. Changing the quality of the military environment and creating conditions for the fulfilment of

ethical leadership and, by its means, the requirements of the Doctrine of the ACR is conditioned by the creation of a functional model of ethical education and ethical leadership and their successful practical realization.

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CONTENT ANALYSIS OF SELECTED AUDIOVISUAL ADVERTISING FACTORS IN THE PHARMACEUTICAL INDUSTRY – SLOVAKIA

Zuzana Schlosserová

Abstract

This paper deals with the areas of audio-visual advertising and the pharmaceutical industry that we have united in our research, as advertising today is not avoided and the pharmaceutical industry is one of the most dynamically developing sectors of the economy and the market. The purpose of the contribution was to find out the content of the audio-visual advertisement of companies operating in the pharmaceutical industry broadcast on the territory of Slovakia. The methodology we used to get our results was content analysis. We used to analyze selected factors of the audio-visual commercials of pharmaceutical companies in several categories broadcast by private TV companies in Slovakia for ninety-two hours. This study highlights the diversity of the form and content of audio-visual advertising today in such a narrowly defined industry as the pharmaceutical industry.

Key words: *audio-visual advertising, pharmaceutical industry, content analysis, Slovakia*

1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of our work is advertising in the pharmaceutical industry, with emphasis on audiovisual advertising. We have chosen the pharmaceutical industry for two reasons: strong position of the industry in the economy and hitherto unanalyzed area of advertising in Slovakia. We have selected audiovisual advertising because it is one of the most frequently represented forms of advertising in Slovakia.

1.1 Pharmaceutical industry

Pharmaceutical industry operates in the field of pharmacy. Pharmacy specializes in testing the medicinal products, placing the medicinal products and medical aids on the market and putting medical devices into operation, production of medicines, wholesale distribution of medicinal products, provision of pharmaceutical care, quality assurance and control, control of effectiveness and safety of medicinal products and devices (Collection of Laws of the Slovak Republic, online (cited on 2018-04-18]). Pharmaceutical industry is facing major challenges all over the world in the field of science and research and in the field of economy and policies. The average life expectancy of people has increased from 45 years at the beginning of the 20th century to around 78 years at present. This is a consequence of several factors, including broader medical knowledge, better technology and, undoubtedly, the developing pharmaceutical industry thanks to the continuous progress of science and technology (Kola, Landis. 2004). At present, the turnover of the pharmaceutical industry in Slovakia is almost ten billion euro per year and the industry employs about forty thousand employees, which shows the strength of this sector in a market economy (Haluza. 2016 on-line [cited on 4/15/2018]).

1.2 Audiovisual advertising

Even in the age of Internet advertising, many customers are still wavering whether or not to move a significant part of the expenditure away from audiovisual advertising. They still point to the important role of branding, which is achieved through this type of advertising

(Draganska, Hartmann Stanglein. 2014). The advantage of audiovisual advertising lies in the fact that it combines the visual and audio component, which can be processed by the recipient both consciously and non-consciously. Music combined with images and speech in audiovisual advertising can affect many psychological processes in the consumer (Shevy, Hung. 2013). Advertising practice shows that the very presence of the audio component is not enough to increase the intended advertising effect, but must be backed up not only by images but also by other components (Herget, Schramn, Breves. 2017).

2 METHOD

The aim of our research was to use content analysis to identify the contents, form and selected factors of audiovisual advertising broadcast by the Slovak pharmaceutical companies.

We have chosen content analysis since this method is an objective, systematic and quantitative description of select materials. Parallel to the examination of the lexical aspects of the text, there also exists an analysis of nonverbal elements (Gavora, 2000) in content analysis. Content analysis is a unique methodology not only on the comparative level of communication, but also on the level of description of the main trends, manifestation of the communication content, and identification of intention of the clients ordering the advertising messages (Su. 2017). We have decided to use quantitative content analysis, which is characterized by high structural nature and selectivity, with a high degree of verifiability. An advantage of this method is the possibility to process a large quantity of materials (Scherer, 2004).

We have opted for random selection of items in the category of audiovisual advertising. In this type of selection, the items are selected at random and the selection of items is not dependent on the assessment of the researchers carrying out the research. Random selection is made so that all items have the same likelihood to be selected into the research process (Thompson, 2012).

If the content analysis of a statement is to be valid, it is necessary to define the research subcategories; we have opted for the following:

- Types of audiovisual advertising: TV commercial, program sponsorship, sponsor of an event advertised on TV
- Duration of advertising: 0-15 seconds, 16 - 30 seconds, over 30 seconds
- Product range advertised in the commercial: pain killers, medicinal products for the respiratory tract, medicinal products for women's diseases, medicinal products to support immunity, medicinal products for the locomotor system (to each of this sub-category, determination of gender of the person appearing in the given ad), other
- Theme used in the ad: fear, humor, disease, family, other

Based on the above, we have set the following research question, which includes several sub-questions:

RQ1: What makes audiovisual advertising by pharmaceutical companies specific in the selected categories in our country?
(types, length, gender, theme and product range presented in audiovisual advertising)

The research was carried out within the timespan of ninety two hours in March 2017 on the advertising material broadcast by TV JOJ and TV Markíza in Slovakia.

Our research is primarily limited by the fact that it was carried out by a single researcher – had several employees been involved, it would have been possible to analyze a larger amount of materials and cover more than two television stations over a longer period of time.

3 RESEARCH RESULTS

3.1 Types of audiovisual advertising

In our research, we chose three most frequently occurring types of advertising in our media: classical advertising, program sponsorship and a pharmaceutical company as a sponsor of an event advertised on TV. Classical advertising had the highest representation, with 95% and 41 television commercials. A pharmaceutical company as a program sponsor occurred mainly in the evening hours, and only on TV JOJ, with 4 audiovisual commercials. Audiovisual advertising with a pharmaceutical company as a sponsor of an event advertised on TV was not represented. We conclude that the companies operating in the pharmaceutical industry still prefer the classic form of audiovisual television advertising. We present the results in a visual format.

Types of audiovisual advertising		
Commercial	Program sponsorship	Sponsor of an event advertised on TV
41	**4**	**0**
total: 45		

Table 1. Types of audiovisual advertising

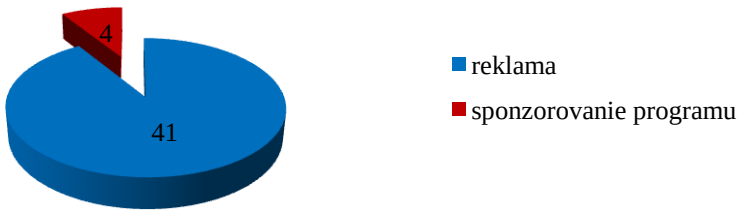

Chart 1. Types of audiovisual advertising

3.2 Length of audiovisual advertising

The length of audiovisual advertising was divided into three sub-categories based on the consideration that the length of the commercial is limited in the case of program sponsorship. Our examined sub-categories were the following: advertising of 1 - 15 seconds, with 14 items, which represents less than one third of the total number of analyzed commercials. The remaining 31 advertising spots were in the 16 - 30 seconds sub-category, which can be explained by the fact that the companies active in the pharmaceutical industry need to include more information in the advertising spot, which can be achieved by longer commercials. We registered no advertising in the “over 30 seconds” sub-category. The results are presented in the following table and chart.

Length of audiovisual advertising		
1– 15 seconds	16– 30 seconds	Over 30 seconds
14	**31**	**0**
total: 45		

Table 2. Length of audiovisual advertising

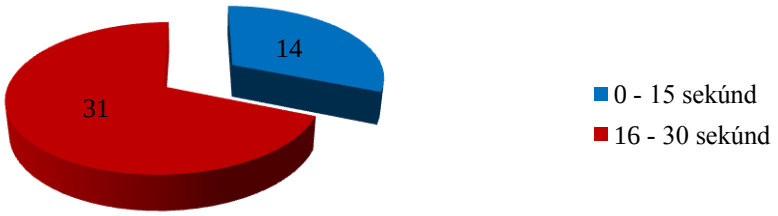

Chart 2. Length of audiovisual advertising

3.3 Product range presented in audiovisual advertising

In this sub-category, we focused on the product range presented in audiovisual advertising. The sub-categories were the types of medicinal products most frequently advertised on our TV. Our research shows that our media most often air the commercials of medicinal products for the respiratory tract (14 television commercials), which is almost 1/3 of the total number of commercials. The second largest group in audiovisual advertising is the pain killers and medicinal products for the locomotor system, with 9 commercials. This was followed by the Others category with 7 advertising spots. This category included the spots by the pharmacies, male potency products, and more. Other predefined categories, i.e. medicinal products for women's diseases and medicinal products to support immunity, were represented by 3 audiovisual commercials. We conclude based on the results that audiovisual advertising by the companies operating in the pharmaceutical industry most frequently promotes medicinal products for the respiratory tract, followed by the pain killers and medicinal products for the locomotor system. The results are presented in the following table and chart.

Product range advertised in the commercial					
Pain killers	Medicinal products for the respiratory tract	Medicinal products for women's diseases	Medicinal products for to support immunity	Medicinal products for the locomotor system	other
9	**14**	**3**	**3**	**9**	**7**
total: 45					

Table 3 Product range of advertised products

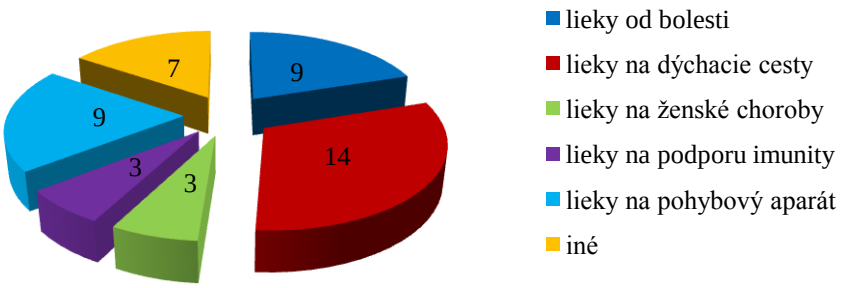

Chart 3 Product range of advertised products

3.4 Gender representation in audiovisual advertising according to the product range; subcategory with multiple options

As regards gender, we have opted for the following procedure in the individual products. We analyzed the gender of the protagonists in the commercial in each of the sub-categories from the previous point. In this sub-category, we used multiple selectable options because it frequently occurred that one commercial related to a single product showed both men and women. The results in this area were as follows: the pain killer commercials portrayed a man in the leading role only in two cases together with a woman, whereas a woman alone appeared five times. With regard to the audiovisual advertising of medicinal products for the respiratory tract, men appeared three times in the leading role, women appeared four times, and men and women together appeared 7 times. Self-evidently, the commercials related to the medicinal products for female problems portrayed women in all three cases. The medicinal products to support immunity used a man and a woman together in all three cases. The subcategory of medicinal products for the locomotor system portrayed men alone twice, women alone six times and men and women together only once. In audiovisual advertising classed as Miscellaneous, a man alone appeared three times, a woman alone appeared twice and a man and a woman together appeared twice. We can conclude that in almost 45% of audiovisual commercials the pharmaceutical companies show women alone in the lead role – in contrast to men who were represented less than 32%. It is interesting that pharmaceutical companies appeal to their potential consumer by using men and women together only in 23% of the audiovisual commercials. We present the results in a visual format.

Product range advertised in the commercial: Gender representation in the individual categories					
Pain killers	Medicinal products for the respiratory tract	Medicinal products for women's diseases	Medicinal products for to support immunity	Medicinal products for the locomotor system	other
M: 3	**M: 10**	**M: 0**	**M: 3**	**M: 3**	**M: 5**
F: 7	**F: 11**	**F: 3**	**F: 3**	**F: 7**	**F: 4**
total: 59					

Table 4 Gender representation in audiovisual advertising

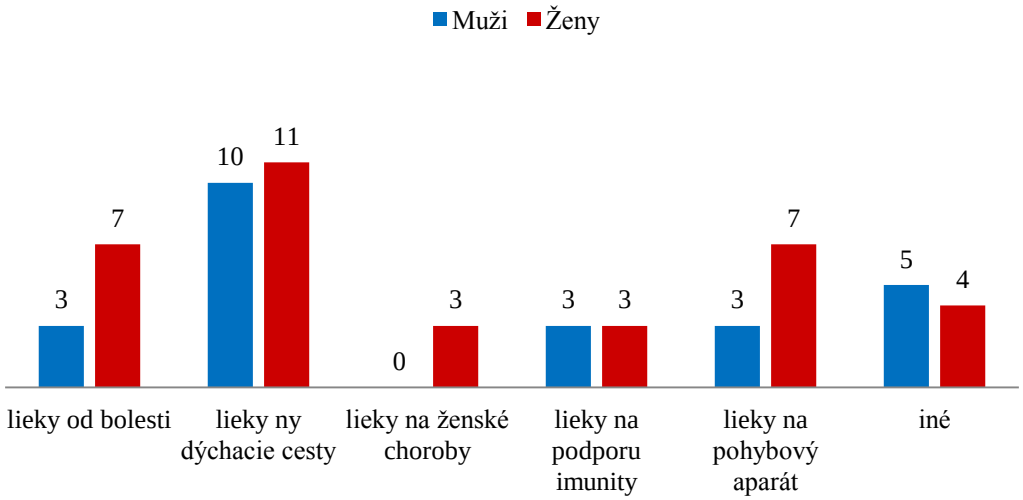

Chart 4 Gender representation in audiovisual advertising

3.5 Themes used in audiovisual advertising; subcategory with multiple options

In this sub-category we made use of the possibility of multiple choices per one audiovisual advertising since the selected themes combined and overlapped in the individual advertisements. We came with the following results in our subcategories. The theme of a disease was used in 17 audiovisual commercials, which makes almost one third of the total number of themes used. The second most often used theme is family and pain, which was used in 13 commercials. Third came the theme of humor and other themes, with 7 television commercials. The motive of fear ranked last, and in only one commercial. According to the available findings, the pharmaceutical companies most frequently use the theme of a disease in audiovisual advertising, which is not surprising since these companies make money on their patients and this finding can be considered to be a feature of the pharmaceutical industry. A similar situation is in the use of the pain theme. These companies try to appeal to their potential customers by using the family theme, which should be protected and kept healthy by using their products. The results are shown in the following table and chart.

Themes used in advertising					
Fear	Humor	Disease	Family	Pain	other
1	**7**	**17**	**13**	**13**	**7**
total: 58					

Table 5. Themes in audiovisual advertising

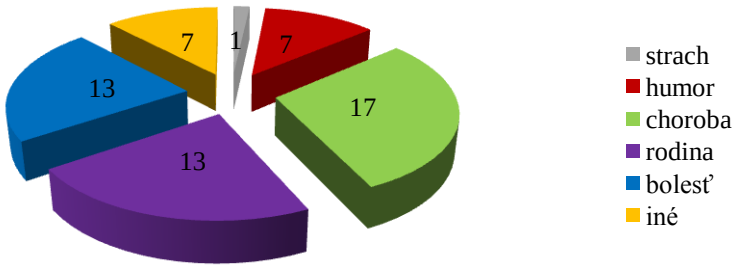

Chart 5. Themes in audiovisual advertising

4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Our research led us to the following summarized findings: audiovisual advertising, which is available on TV screens and ordered by the companies operating in the pharmaceutical industry, is to a large extent of a standard type, with TV spots in the average length of 16 - 30 seconds, but this time is taken to the 30 second boundary to cover as many items and pieces of information as possible. Most of them were aired in prime-time from 19:00 to 22:00, which coincides with the highest television viewership. The product range promoted by these companies is most frequently a product, which is intended for the respiratory system – this result could be affected by the fact that the research was carried out in March. If the most prominent theme is a disease, the companies most frequently use women as the main protagonists of the spot.

For future progress and advancement of the subject, we would appreciate to repeat the research after a longer period of time and with a larger quantity of commercials.

Since we haven't found a similar research in the territory of Slovakia, our conclusions and findings cannot be compared and confronted with others. In any case, we believe that the research results are encouraging and pioneering.

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REKLAMA A PRINTOVÉ MÉDIÁ PRE DETSKÉHO ADRESÁTA

ADVERTISEMENT IN THE PRESS FOR CHILDREN

Danuša Faktorová

Abstrakt

Vo vzťahu printových médií a reklamy je veľmi osobitým adresátom detský adresát. Nasledujúci text sa preto venuje ich vzájomnej koexistencii. V tejto súvislosti sú dôležitými otázkami, aké sú súčasné printové médiá pre deti, aké sú súčasné deti a aký je záujem zadávateľov reklamy o publikovanie reklamy v printových médiách pre detského adresáta. Ťažisko výskumu spočíva v kvantitatívnej i kvalitatívnej obsahovej analýze printových médií pre detského adresáta. Skúmanú vzorku tvorí 89 európskych a niektorých mimoeurópskych časopisov pre deti.

Kľúčové slová: *reklama, tlač pre detského adresáta, masovokomunikačné prostriedky, adresát*

Abstract

The correlation of advertisement and press for children is very specific. The following paper deals with its coexistence. In this respect, the important questions are: how the children´s press look like, what are the specifics of contemporaneous children and what is the interest of the advertisement orderers in the press for children. The focus of the research is based on the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the print media for children. A set of 89, mostly European journals for children has been analysed.

Keywords: *advertisement, press for children, mass media, recipient*

1. ÚVOD

Po zániku monopolného postavenia tlače a vzniku elektronických médií a neskôr internetu a nových médií nastal a ďalej sa rozvíja medzi nimi konkurenčný boj o adresátov, z ekonomického hľadiska aj o zadávateľov reklamy. Elektronické médiá a internet sú oveľa pružnejšie, a preto vychádza do popredia otázka súčasnej pozície printových médií.

Vo vzťahu printových médií a reklamy je veľmi osobitým adresátom detský adresát. Nasledujúci text sa preto venuje ich vzájomnej koexistencii. V tejto súvislosti sú dôležitými otázkami, aké sú súčasné printové médiá pre deti, aké sú súčasné deti a aký je záujem zadávateľov reklamy o publikovanie reklamy v printových médiách pre detského adresáta. Odpoveď možno sčasti hľadať v teoretických prácach, ale ťažisko výskumu spočíva v kvantitatívnej i kvalitatívnej obsahovej analýze printových médií pre detského adresáta. Skúmanú vzorku tvorí 89 európskych a niektorých mimoeurópskych časopisov pre deti.

2. REKLAMA, REKLAMNÝ PROCES A DETSKÝ ADRESÁT

Reklama predstavuje veľmi zložitý spoločenský fenomén, ktorý zahŕňa kognitívnu, emotívnu a konatívnu (behaviorálnu) zložku. Do teórie a praxe reklamy vstupujú výsledky viacerých spoločenských, resp. kognitívnych vied, medzi ktoré patrí psychológia, sociológia, antropológia a poslednom období aj neuroveda. Podľa J. Světlíka reklama „je ovplyvňovaná správaním cieľovej skupiny, na ktoré pôsobá sociálnokultúrne, demografické, ekonomické a iné faktory. Ďalej je jej prevedenie ovplyvnené propagovanou produktovou kategóriou,

fázou životného cyklu produktu, reklamnými cieľmi, skutočnosťou, či ide o B2C alebo B3B marketing, a rad ďalších aspektov.“[1]
V inej publikácii J. Světlík zdôrazňuje, že úspech každého podnikania závisí od schopnosti prilákať a získať trhovou ponukou dostatok zákazníkov, ktorí spĺňajú tri základné podmienky. Majú záujem o produkt, majú peniaze na jeho zakúpenie a majú možnosť si ho kúpiť. Aby podniky týchto zákazníkov získali, musia ich nájsť, pochopiť ich potreby a želania a komunikovať s nimi.[2]
P. Horňák reklamný proces chápe ako „špecifický druh komunikačného procesu, ktorého cieľom je predovšetkým vyvolať zmeny u cieľovej skupiny, či už ide o zmenu nákupného správania sa, postojov k javom sociálnej reality (v prípade sociálnej reklamy) a pod.“[3]
D. Hejlová poukazuje na rozdiel reklamy a public realitons, keď uvádza, že „reklama je druh komunikácie, ktorý jeho podávateľ (ten, ktorý reklamu vysiela alebo publikuje) i jeho príjemca (ten, kto ju vidí alebo počuje) ľahko rozozná a je si vedomý toho, že mu reklama chce niečo predať či nejakým spôsobom ovplyvniť jeho správanie.“[4]
Veľmi špecifickým adresátom z hľadiska pôsobenia reklamného trhu je dieťa.
Z aspektu vývinovej psychológie možno sociálnu skupinu detských adresátov rozdeliť na deti predškolského veku, deti mladšieho školského veku a deti staršieho školského veku. Deti sú mimoriadne citlivou skupinou na emocionálne podnety. Dôvodom u všetkých troch spomenutých skupín je malá skúsenosť nevedomé zamieňanie fikcie a reality (najmä u nižších vekových skupín).
Pre deti predškolského veku je typická súťaživosť, hravosť, vyžadovačnosť. Do obdobia 12 rokov deti prechádzajú štádiom tzv. sociálnej identity, kedy si hľadajú svoje miesto v spoločnosti a medzi rovesníkmi.. Dospievajúca mládež vo veku od 13 do 18 rokov je najviac lojálnou skupinou. Je to obdobie, keď sa vytvárajú spotrebiteľské návyky.
Tézy o dnešných deťoch:

- Sú informovanejšie – lepšie poznajú výrobky, značky, osvojujú si symbolické stereotypy medzi výrobkom, značkou a sociálnym postavením človeka.
- Skôr spotrebne dospievajú – stávajú sa používateľmi niektorých výrobkov skôr, než je vžitá schéma, napr. parfémov, oblečenia.
- Sú samostatnejšie – „deti s kľúčom od domu“ sú po príchode zo školy samy doma, obstarávajú nákupy a niektoré domáce práce.
- Majú väčšie vlastné príjmy – dostávajú väčšie vreckové a privyrábajú si, takže si niektoré produkty (cukrovinky, hračky, CD) kupujú samy.
- Skôr si uvedomujú vzťah medzi cenou a hodnotou – vedia napríklad, že nemôžu od rodičov žiadať neúmerne drahé výroby.
- Skôr odlišujú reklamu od skutočnosti – sú kritické k častému opakovaniu reklamy, majú rady jasnú a zábavnú formu reklamy. Televízii silne konkurujú počítače a internet.
- Nevystupujú pri socializácii rodiny len pasívne – vnášajú stále viac do rodinného života nové hodnoty a prvky správania, ktoré sa od nich naopak učia rodičia.[5]

Dieťa je teda špecifický adresát nielen z hľadiska svojej vekovej, a tým aj fyzicko-duševnej charakteristicky, ale aj ako adresát meniaci sa v čase.

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[1] Světlík J. a kol. *Reklama. Teorie, koncepce, modely.* Rzeszow: WAIZ 2017, s. 23-24. ISBN: 978-83-64286-71-1
[2] Světlík J. *Marketingové komunikace.* Praha: VŠSP 2016, s. 19. ISBN: 978-880-6847-79-5 180
[3] Horňák P. *Reklama ako komunikácia, jej princípy a funkcie*. In: Reklama 10 – Zborník vedeckých štúdií z oblasti histórie, teórie reklamy a public relations. Bratislava: Book&Book, s. 8. ISBN: 978-80-970247-4-1
[4] Hejlová D. *Public relations.* Praha: Grada Publishing, 2015. s. 103. ISBN 978-80-247-5022-4.
[5] Vysekalová J. *Psychologie spotřebitele.* Prvé vydanie. Praha, Grada 2004, s. 237. ISBN 8024703939

3. REKLAMA V PRINTOVÝCH MÉDIÁCH PRE DETSKÉHO ADRESÁTA V EURÓPSKYCH KRAJINÁCH

Detský adresát má pre zadávateľov reklamy osobitý význam a postavenie. Je ovplyvniteľný, má pozitívnu situáciu vo vzťahu k požiadavkám adresovaným rodičom.

Zadávatelia reklamy majú k dispozícii tlač, televíziu, rozhlas, tlač, internet a ich zložky adresované deťom (relácie, webové stránky, rubriky a pod.)

Vyvstáva otázka, či a ako zadávatelia využívajú pre svoju reklamu printové médiá pre detského adresáta. Odpoveď sme hľadali kvantitatívnou obsahovou analýzou 89 časopisov pre deti v európskych a niektorých mimoeurópskych krajinách.

Tabuľka 1 Rozsah reklamy v európskych časopisoch pre deti I.

Názov časopisu	Krajina vydania alebo distribúcie	Číslo ISSN/ISBN	Počet strán	Reklama
Barbapapa	Belgicko	nie je uvedené	36	0,00%
Nickjr.doeboek (Denksport)	Belgicko	8710835815947	52	3,00%
Speelboek (Denksport)	Belgicko	8710835813783	100	1,00%
Arti	Bulharsko	ISBN: 977-131-276-411-9	44	12,50%
Baraban	Bulharsko	nie je uvedené	24	0,00%
Maša i Mečoka	Bulharsko	ISSN: 2367-6604	24	4,17%
Pčelica	Bulharsko	ISSN: 1312-5303	28	3,57%
Xekoykoy	Cyprus	5282967004953	16	6,25%
Čtyřlístek	Česko	ISSN: 1213-0141	28	25,00%
Materídouška	Česko	ISSN: 0025-5440	48	10,42%
Matýsek 1/02	Česko	ISBN: 121-358-100-9	36	0,00%
Pastelka	Česko	ISSN: 1212-646003	50	2,00%
Sluníčko (2016)	Česko	ISSN: 0231-7222	44	22,73%
Ribica (13)	Čierna Hora	ISBN: 977-18-4582-300-0	36	8,33%
Anders and junior	Dánsko	ISSN: 1904-6510	36	11,11%
Kvik kids	Dánsko	ISBN: 570-892-100-230-5	52	3,85%
Winx	Dánsko	ISSN: 1901-2128	68	2,94%
Filly	Fínsko	ISSN: 2242-1963	36	8,33%
Moviestar planet	Fínsko	ISBN: 488-501-908-6	36	2,78%
Pets	Fínsko	ISSN: 1798-6060	36	8,33%
Astrapi	Francúzsko	ISSN: 0220-1186	48	16,67%
P´tit Loup	Francúzsko	ISSN: 0997-3745	76	25,00%
Titi	Francúzsko	ISSN: 1964-9150	36	8,33%
Wapiti	Francúzsko	ISSN: 0984-2314	52	9,62%
Filly	Grécko	ISBN:977-179-286-500-9	36	8,33%
Bobo	Holandsko	ISBN: 871-084-152-003-3	24	4,17%
Plus Penny	Holandsko	ISBN: 871-086-510-103-4	44	3,41%
Sesamstraat	Holandsko	ISBN: 871-084-162-002-3	28	7,14%
Tina	Holandsko	ISBN: 871-084-122-004-9	40	5,00%
Zapp Lente	Holandsko	ISBN: 90-77119-17-5	52	1,92%

Zdroj: *vlastný výskum*

Tabuľka 2 Rozsah reklamy v európskych časopisoch pre deti II.

Názov časopisu	Krajina vydania alebo distribúcie	Číslo ISSN/ISBN	Počet strán	Reklama
Dječji klub	Chorvátsko	ISSN: 1330-1349	52	7,69%
Dječji zabavnik	Chorvátsko	ISBN: 977-184-782-300-8	76	5,26%
Junior Extra	Chorvátsko	ISSN: 1332-3881	68	2,94%
Škrinjica	Chorvátsko	ISSN: 1334-8080	28	5,36%
Zagonetke (44)	Chorvátsko	ISBN: 977-133-470-200-7	20	0,00%
Paw Patrol	Írsko	ISSN: 2396-9555	44	0,00%
Bing	Írsko	ISSN: 2056-3590	36	0,00%
Bitute	Litva	ISSN: 1648-0880	36	2,78%
Dambo	Lotyšsko	ISSN: 1407-0464	36	8,33%
Kipars	Lotyšsko	ISSN: 2029-2945	24	4,17%
Spicite	Lotyšsko	ISSN: 1691-0540	32	3,13%
Dóra	Maďarsko	ISSN: 2062-4433	28	3,57%
Vakáció	Maďarsko	ISSN: 0239-1457	100	3,00%
Basteln mit Kinderen	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-626-530-250-1	48	10,42%
Benjamin Blumchen	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-855-650-230-009	36	16,67%
Bummi (2004)	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-912-700-230-4	40	8,75%
Diddle	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-541-490-250-0	52	11,54%
Lowenzahn	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-511-840-230-6	36	19,44%
Pettersson und Findus	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-585-670-240-9	36	22,22%
Pumucki	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-489-490-260-406	36	20,83%
Rätsels pas	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-613-760-199-2	34	8,82%
Tabaluga	Nemecko	ISBN: 419-484-130-230-3	44	13,64%
Wissens Rätsel	Nemecko	ISBN: 378-861-322-X	36	0,00%
Dora	Nórsko	ISBN: 702-306-021-815-7	36	0,00%
Moshi monsters	Nórsko	ISBN: 978-820-241-659-1	20	0,00%
Naucz mnie mamo	Poľsko	ISBN: 978-837-316-731-5	16	0,00%
Truskawkowe Ciastko	Poľsko	ISSN: 2083-1234	24	12,50%
Zabawy z Tygryskiem	Poľsko	ISSN: 1640-2286	32	9,38%
Trabalhos manuais	Portugalsko	ISBN: 772-710-101-5	36	8,33%
Jocuri creative	Rumunsko	ISBN: 978-837-962-387-7	28	0,00%

Zdroj: *vlastný výskum*

Tabuľka 3 Rozsah reklamy v európskych a niektorých mimoeurópskych časopisoch pre deti III.

Názov časopisu	Krajina vydania alebo distribúcie	Číslo ISSN/ISBN	Počet strán	1. Reklama
Akademiki	Rusko	ISSN: 2313-4666	20	5,00%
PoniMaška	Rusko	ISSN: 1995-8145	28	3,57%
Uchtyška	Rusko	ISSN: 2412-3617	36	0,00%
Maxík	Slovensko	ISSN: 1336-5029	32	6,25%
Zvonček	Slovensko	ISSN: 1336-6963	24	4,17%
Boni	Slovinsko	ISBN: 977-185-401-800-8	48	2,08%

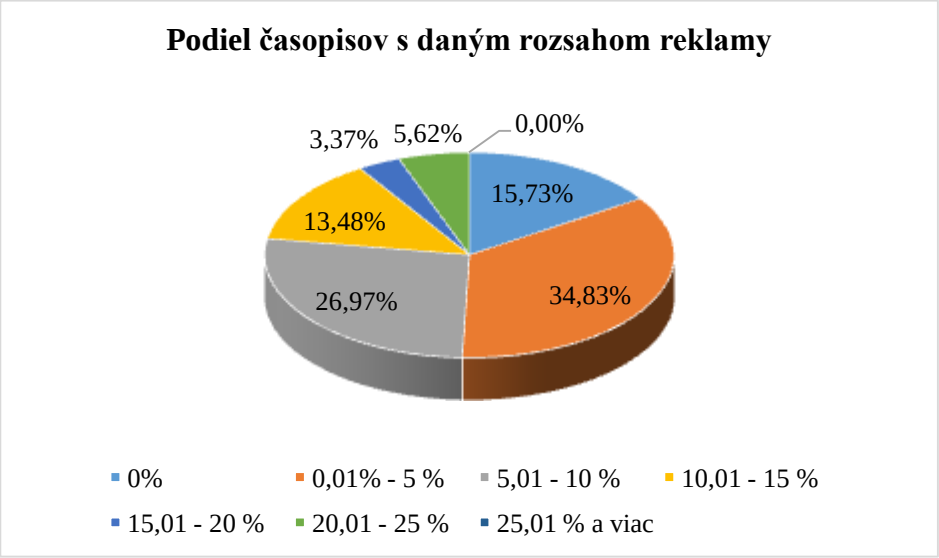
Cicido	Slovinsko	ISSN: 0350-8870	36	2,78%
Duhec	Slovinsko	ISBN: 977-131-891-001-5	52	3,85%
Junior extra	Slovinsko	ISSN: 1332-3881	70	2,86%
Zmajček (1-2014)	Slovinsko	ISSN: 1318-7449	64	3,13%
Boom E Rang	Srbsko	ISSN: 1820-2772	76	10,53%
Igraonica	Srbsko	ISBN: 977-133-473-400-8	28	0,00%
Animais	Španielsko	ISSN: 2014-8976	36	8,33%
Peppa	Španielsko	ISSN: 2254-9358	36	8,33%
Pettson och Findus	Švédsko	ISSN: 1652-6147	24	8,33%
Pyssel & Knap	Švédsko	ISBN: 738-824-740-390-1	68	1,47%
Giocolandia	Taliansko	ISSN: 1972-4020	48	2,08%
Pico	Taliansko	ISSN: 1973-6428	36	8,33%
Caillou	Turecko	ISSN: 1309-7652	28	10,71%
Cocuk	Turecko	ISSN: 1301-2797	52	12,50%
Panini	Turecko	ISSN: 2148-8444	36	8,33%
Kehrypy	Ukraina	ISBN: 482-013-047-016-2	60	5,00%
Girls	USA	ISSN: 1535-3230	68	1,47%
Favourites (79)	Veľká Británia	ISBN: 977-14-6163-000-6	32	6,25%
Fifi	Veľká Británia	ISSN: 1747-437X	24	12,50%
Mizz	Veľká Británia	ISBN: 977-095-501-199-4	84	10,71%
Princess	Veľká Británia	ISSN: 1462-7345	32	6,25%
Arti	Veľká Británia		36	0,00%

Zdroj: *vlastný výskum*

Tabuľka 4 Množstvo časopisov v jednotlivých rozmedziach rozsahov publikovanej reklamy

Rozsah reklamy	Počet časopisov	Podiel
0%	14	15,73%
0,01% - 5 %	31	34,83%
5,01 - 10 %	24	26,97%
10,01 - 15 %	12	13,48%
15,01 - 20 %	3	3,37%
20,01 - 25 %	5	5,62%
25,01 % a viac	0	0,00%

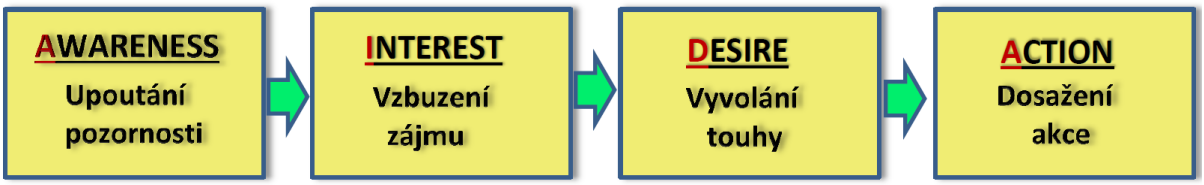
Zdroj: *vlastný výskum*



Graf 1 Množstvá časopisov v jednotlivých rozmedziach rozsahov publikovanej reklamy
Zdroj: *vlastný výskum*

Z analýzy vyplýva, že najviac z analyzovaných časopisov, a to až 34,88 %, uverejňuje reklamu v rozsahu od 0,01 % až do rozsahu 5 % (vrátane). Reklamu neuverejňuje (s podielom od 0,00 do 0,01 %) 15,73% sledovaných časopisov. V 26,97 % časopisov zaberá reklamná plocha od 5,01 do 10 % celkového rozsahu a v 13,48 % časopisov reklama zaberá od 10,01 do 15 % z celkového rozsahu.
Zastúpenie časopisov s rozsahom inzercie nad 15 % výrazne klesá. Z celkovej analyzovanej vzorky uverejňuje reklamu v rozsahu do 15,01 do 20 rozsahu len 3,37 % časopisov a v rozsahu 20,01 až 25 % rozsahu 5,62 % titulov. Viac ako 25 % reklamy neuverejňuje žiadny z analyzovaných periodík pre detského adresáta.
Do analýz nebola zahrnutá autoreklama, teda plocha, na ktorej časopis uverejňuje reklamu seba samého (možnosť predplatného a benefity z neho vyplývajúce a pod), ktorá sa využíva v rámci širších možností propagácie a public relations.[6]
Z kvalitatívnej obsahovej analýzy v uvedených periodikách vyplýva, že najčastejší model reklamy v printových médiách pre detského adresáta sa uplatňuje model AIDA.

Obr. 1 Model AIDA



Zdroj: Světlík J.[7]

Z obsahového hľadiska reklama uverejňovaná v printových médiách pre detského adresáta sa týka hračiek, počítačových hier, spoločenských hier, DVD, CD, cukroviniek, kníh, školských potrieb.

[6] Faktorová D. *Public relations a printové médiá pre detského adresáta.* In: Public relations a súčasná spoločnosť. Bratislava: C. E. E. I. 2017, s. 16 – 25. ISBN SK: 978-80-89581-06-1
[7] Světlík J. a kol. *Reklama. Teorie, koncepce, modely.* Rzeszow: WAIZ 2017, s. 29. ISBN: 978-83-64286-71-1

Z hľadiska periodicity sú printové médiá pre detského adresáta najčastejšie mesačníkmi - vychádzajú 10 – 12 ráz do roka. Menej sa vyskytujú dvojtýždenníky alebo dvojmesačníky či štvrťročníky. Z analyzovaných 89 časopisov až 88 spĺňa atribúty a má vzhľad časopisu. Iba jeden z nich –cyperský – má na prvý pohľad odlišný dizajn – novinový formát, novinový papier, hoci z hľadiska obsahu ani periodicity novinami nie je. „I keď patria časopisy rovnako ako noviny medzi tlačené médiá, majú z pohľadu reklamy odlišné vlastnosti. Výhodou časopisu sú veľké možnosti najmä v geografickom pokrytí, ale i v možnosti zasiahnutia relatívne malých cieľových skupín.“[8]

Adresáti detských časopisov zahŕňajú len niekoľko populačných ročníkov. Veľmi často oslovujú čitateľov v súlade s vývinovou psychológiou, a teda deti predškolského veku (od 4 do 7 rokov), čo predstavuje štyri populačné ročníky, deti mladšieho školského veku s podobným záberom.

K silným stránkach reklamy v časopisoch pre deti patrí:

- Vysoká lojalita čitateľov. Dieťa má kladný, ba až priateľský postoj k svojmu časopisu. Dieťa nepíše do redakcie listy s oslovením „vážená redakcia“, ale milý... – uvedie názov časopisu alebo postavičky, prostredníctvom ktorej časopis komunikuje, čo neraz býva jedno a to isté. Dieťa teda komunikuje s oživenou postavou.
- Vysoká dôveryhodnosť. Dieťa o obsahu svojho časopisu nepochybuje.
- Veľká autorita. Dieťa často na podporu svojho tvrdenia používa ako argument formuláciu typu: „v ... (uvedie názov svojho časopisu) písali, že...“
- Podrobnejšie čítanie. Dieťa číta svoj časopis a rieši z neho úlohy nezriedka od prvej strany po poslednú. V rámci časopisu tak venuje opakovanú pozornosť aj reklamnému textu.
- Dlhá životnosť. Dieťa sa s časopisom zabáva a číta minimálne počas dĺžky jeho periodicity, teda do vyjdenia ďalšieho čísla. Nie je nezvyčajnosťou, že dieťa si starí čísla odkladá a archivuje, niekedy si ich dáva aj zviazať. Reklama v nich žije dlho a dlhú dobu aj pôsobí.
- Čítanosť je vyššia ako predaný náklad časopisu. Časopis číta viac detí v rodine, prípadne viac spolužiakov v triede, v škole, čo zvyšuje reklamný zásah.
- Vysoká kkvalita tlače. S ňou súvisí príťažlivosť časopisu.
- Vysoká možnosť kreativity – využitie hravosti a fantázie detí.
- Účinná forma je spájanie reklamy so súťažou – využitie súťaživosti detí.
- Vhodný prostriedok distribúcie. Časopis je veľmi kvalitným prostriedkom niektorých nástrojov podpory predaja (vzoriek výrobkov, zľavových kupónov a pod.)
- Nižšia cena reklamy. Časopisy pre deti pracujú zväčša s nižšími cenami za reklamnú plochu v porovnaní s inými médiami.
- Lepšia pozícia reklamy. Printové médiá pre detského adresáta zväčša uverejňujú menší celkový rozsah reklamy, a preto tá, ktorá v nich je publikovaná, má výraznejšie miesto v časopise a ľahšie upúta pozornosť.

Uvedené vlastnosti printových médií pre detského adresáta robia z nich efektívny nástroj reklamy, ktorý je umocnený špecifikami a vlastnosťami i ich čitateľov.

K nevýhodám detských časopisov – v porovnaní s elektronickými médiami a internetom -- z dôvodu periodicity je menšia pružnosť. Menej vhodné sú pre reklamu založenú na frekvencii. V niektorých prípadoch pozíciu zadávateľa môže zhoršovať skutočnosť, keď niektoré časopisy pre deti sú dotované z verejných zdrojov, a teda nemusia sa natoľko usilovať o získanie reklamy.

[8] Světlík J. *Marketingové komunikace.* Praha: VŠSP 2016, s. 91 .ISBN: 978-880-6847-79-5

Výhody časopisov pre detského adresáta spôsobujú, že i napriek rozsiahlym možnostiam reklamy v elektronických médiách a na internete, zadávatelia reklamy stále venujú pozornosť i tlačenej podobe v časopisoch pre deti.

4. ZÁVER

Z kvalitatívnej obsahovej analýzy 89 európskych a niektorých mimoeurópskych printových médií pre detského adresáta vyplýva, že reklama je súčasťou obsahu tohto subsystému tlače. Ako ukazujú tabuľky 1 až 4 a graf, najčastejší podiel reklamy časopisoch pre deti sa pohybuje od 0,01 do 5 % rozsahu časopisov. Takýto podiel publikuje až 34,83 %% časopisov z analyzovanej vzorky. Minimum časopisov venuje reklame od 15,01 do 25 % rozsahu. Printové médiá pre detského adresáta neuverejňujú viac ako reklamy ako 25 % svojho rozsahu. Do analýz nebola zahrnutá autoreklama, teda plocha, na ktorej časopis uverejňuje reklamu seba samého (možnosť predplatného a benefity z neho vyplývajúce a pod), ktorá sa využíva v rámci širších možností public relations. Analyzovaná vzorka 89 časopisov pre deti však poskytuje relatívne dostačujúci obraz o realizácii reklamy v tomto subsystéme tlače.

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INTERNET MARKETING AS A TOOL TO BUILD IMAGE OF BEING FIT. BRAND MANAGEMENT

Paulina Żmijowska

Abstract

The aim of the article is to present the current state of image activity, especially in the area of social media. It is interesting not only to design communication media using appropriate marketing / promotion tools, but also personal ones, expressing each user, using this space. The presented work, its results and research is a comprehensive review of the problem, which has been described in more details in my master's thesis in Poland. I conducted scientific research in cooperation with the Institute of Polish Research Internet in Warsaw.

Keywords: *communication, management, fit industry, recipient, research, e-marketing*

1. FIT INDUSTRY AND MARKETING

Fitness industry is gaining in value. According to the service NewConnect market saturation fitness in Poland it oscillates limit of 2%, while the average European rate is 7.9% Assuming close to that level, traders operating in the industry can count on the high growth potential of this market. Eurobarometer European Commission shows that in Poland, sport facilities and sport clubs are grown only 14% society, compared with 50% the activity of the Swedish population is a small percentage. Indicators Poles' interest in sport and adopted a social trend of being fit betray the perspective of the development of the industry.

The cult of the body and the interest in its development involve many scientific disciplines. The fast pace of life, more and more restrictive concepts of beauty and constant technological developments cause increasing problems of physicality in society.

Philosophical concepts of the body can be seen especially in terms of Freud, who in the development of psychoanalysis postulated that it is a source of energy impulsive, the object of the investment drive, and even the basis for the development of self-identity. He not explained while its needs in the context of the human psyche, which in turn took a psychosomatic medicine and health psychology. "The findings of local researchers strongly undermined the separation of the functioning of the body and the psyche, showing the importance of the second of these factors in the etiology of diseases previously considered typical somatic". At this point it is worth noting that, over time, in the field of sociology, appeared in a number of different concepts which surrendered the body of direct analysis. The pioneering work of Michael Foucault show that around issues of physicality and understanding it, you can build a lot of concepts and meanings surrounding. "In addition, the creation of a separate branch of study that stand sociology of the body and physicality, shows an extensive reflection on the body and its meaning. The contractual date of the "establishment" as the year 1984 when he published a work of Brian S. Turner, Body and Society". Cited here Foucault claimed that "the identity of each man, his inner", is the result of the power produced in the body. Ways of perceiving and understanding the body can in turn lead to the formation of certain forms of defining their own identity". It is worth noting that the discourse about the body still remains open, and even expanding, including more and more new scientific disciplines. For example, gradually increasing interest in the problems of the body in sociology explains the social changes of the twentieth century, as the development of the consumer society, demographic processes, the development of technology (virtual reality), the progress of medicine (surgery and aesthetic - improve the appearance) and changes traditional closely associated with sexuality and the concept of gender identity. The researchers note that stability, which had previously been characterized by the body, now becomes a space that shows the new

opportunities but also raises fear and apprehension. In a word, it began to seek new sensations and became the subject consumed by society. It ceased to be obvious. Following Foucault, since the identity of the man is the result of the power produced in the body, it is worth asking the question of what today is this power? In the world of visualization and interactions govern the new technology law, which change often causes social change. Similarly, with the image of being fit, which is based on the image: the recipient sees the image / video / infographic and begins to analyze and interpret the message, paying attention to your own body. This raises the belief that being fit (fitting) and desire an active lifestyle are no longer fashionable, but the lifestyle of society.

1.1 Communication

Internet, which is a medium of instant results, that today's communication set new trails in communication. The transmission of messages via e-mail, discussion on blogs, share their insights and experiences, post pictures, marking places, commenting, sharing are just a few ways to fast transfer of information. It is worth remembering that the first Internet users were scientists and programmers who have developed a specific culture of behavior in that medium. Its core values are primarily: unlimited sharing of information and knowledge, interaction combined with the wider integration and democracy. Today it can be seen that most of these features is even more evident. Why? Because, thanks to the development of technology, average users took over the planning, creation and distribution of any materials appearing just on the Internet.

“Communication in social media characterized mainly by:

- Transparency of information.
- Conversation.
- Listening.
- Building a relationship.
- Being oneself.
- Involvement (interaction).
- Viral (distribution).
- Authenticity (credibility).

Participants appreciate the Internet communication peer dialogue, the opportunity to share valuable information and to obtain advice or assistance from the sender's message. Being oneself plays for audiences an important contact in communicating: why unofficial profile brand in social media will be more attractive than the impersonal corporate website, which is a fixed template.

Another issue remains social media in a business context. Shortly after the emergence of social media noted that they can have a positive impact on working life (hence began to form platforms such as eg. LinkedIn). Blogging ceased to be the domain of the younger generation. Today you can meet most of all thematic blogs (including those that promote being fit) conducted by people who are interested in a particular field of social life. "He also noted the potential business developers social media variety of tools, thus allowing communication not only to individuals, but primarily representatives of brands, building a certain image and looking for customers. Market communication networks began to professionalise firmly - established and continues to arise services companies in terms of traffic analytics of social media and the wider Internet communications. Areas of professional life started to spread also through a strong development startups, which is the youngest entrepreneurs in the online media and introducing into practice their ideas for the brand” .

Communication on the Internet gives you the opportunity to receive not only high-speed communications, but also specialized content for which they go research or expert opinions, from which users derive knowledge. The recipient, who communicates in the media and meet

with a similar message, is able to interpret the information given and to formulate appropriate for themselves the application, eg. the introduction of physical activity into their daily routine. Also important is the social communication culture, which is an integral part of the development of the media. Its very essence in the context of the Network mentions Maciej Mrozowski, claiming that "the computer is an interactive device that requires the user to enter a two-way contact based on direct feedback. As a result, human-computer interaction is transformed into a kind of interaction, in many ways similar to interpersonal communication". The role of culture in the process of building communication affects several areas: firstly, the brand's internal consistency with the message being communicated, external interaction with the environment, and the inclusion of global (multicultural) communication not only within the company but also in its surroundings.

Social media users are constantly communicating. Using web and mobile technologies that transform information into interactive dialogue is already a standard. Sent messages are fast, violent and characterized by an overwhelming variety of emotions. They are a moment. That is why only properly personalized messages can lead to establishing and maintaining dialogue and effective sales. A brand that puts on content can generate a very large increase in revenue by appropriately profiled communication with selected, specific groups of customers (insights).

2. OWN RESEARCH FIT INDUSTRY

The research was to show first of all the current status of Poles' sport activity, their sporty lifestyle and their movement in the social media space. The results of the study can certainly help any entrepreneur to build his or her own image in social media by understanding the expectations and needs of potential customers. The co-founder, head of the research and the entire project is Ph.D Anna Miotk.

With the advent of new content, reception culture is gaining new "digital" relevance. The very definition of being fit can mean the presentation of the specific attitude of a particular social group through the "fetishization" of objects, appliances and food products. In the age of evolution, this attitude is not a result of fashion, but a way of life.

The subject of the study is primarily a change in the way of thinking about the body that occurs with the change of consciousness of being in the space of the Network. The current cult of the body fueled by the media and consumer culture in a large part also depends on the online sales market and its location in the appropriate communication channel.

2.1 Methodology

1. The study was done in cooperation with PBI at the Ariadna National Research Panel in the form of a web survey.
2. The study involved 1045 persons over the age of 15 (number of full interviews).
3. Interviews were held from April 30.2016 to May 13.2016.
4. The trial tested is representative for Internet users in terms of socio-demographic characteristics. The trial was matched by gender, age and size based on Net Track SMG / KRC data.
5. Because the study was conducted on a sample of Internet users, the inference should be limited to that group. The results of the survey do not belong to the general public of Poland.

Description of the Institute and Panel

Polish Internet Research (http://pbi.org.pl) is an organization that maintains reliable standards of research on the Polish Internet. PBI has been on the market since 2000, and its shareholders are the largest Internet publishers in Poland such as Agora SA, Onet Group, Ringier Axel Springer, WP.pl, GG Network, ZPR Media Group, Interia.pl, Polska Press Group, Redefine .

The PBI organization is guided by the guidelines of the ESOMAR Code of Conduct for Market Research and Opinion, which specifies the standards for conducting research projects.
Ariadna is a nationwide research panel, which gathers opinions of Poles on various topics related to everyday life (http://panelariadna.pl). The Ariadne Panel works with centers in the social sciences. The respondent who signs up in Ariadna's panel will receive an e-mail invitation to fill in the online questionnaire given to him. In return, he receives a bonus point that can be exchanged for attractive prize items in the Ariadne panel store.
The study is conducted by CAWI (Computer-Assisted Web Interview). This method consists in gathering information in quantitative market research and public opinion, where the respondent is asked to complete the survey in electronic form.
The advantages of CAWI:

- the ability to post not only text questions, but also graphics and multimedia elements,
- savings (no interviewers needed);
- fast access to the data obtained,
- Ability to edit in the event of an error.

There are also disadvantages:

- Use of the method makes sense only if respondents have access to the Internet,
- There is no way to verify who actually completed the survey.

2.2 Results (survey questions are bold)

The results of the survey can be referenced to a group of people who have been placed in the Internet and are not to be interpreted by the general public.
In a survey of 1045 people, 40% (420) completed the survey. The qualifying question allowed to distinguish only the part of the group that actually interested in physical activity. It is worth noting that physical activity has been divided into: exercise, sports and cycling. Respondents had the opportunity to “broaden” their view of the field of physical activity and subjective opinion.
Of all the people who took part in the study, 232 were women and 188 were men. The difference is not great, but it shows the superiority of women in terms of physical activity or broadly understood sport. Thus, the theory, put forward in the introduction to the work of women, which is the main recipient of fit messages, is confirmed.
In turn, the age that the respondents declared is also significant: 48% of men aged 15-24 and 52% of women aged 25-34 have confirmed their activity. This may suggest that older women are more consciously practicing sport in terms of shaping and modeling their own (good image) than young boys and men.
Does the place of life of the people matter? Most respondents confirmed that they live on the village. Probably increased physical activity in these areas is related to opportunities that are either not in the city or are limited, such as bicycle paths, forests, mountain routes, pedestrian paths (especially for Nordic walking). Sporting is often a cost that is incurred regularly in the city, for example in the case of a gym pass. Increasingly, therefore, not only easy to access, but above all, free solutions that also provide physical activity.
The main part of the survey
Further questions focused on the detailed insights into the lives of respondents, their choices or their motives.
In question „How often are you physically active (do you exercise)“ both women and men have confirmed that they exercise regularly. It should be taken into account that these are individual and subjective responses, and in the age of creating an image of being fit, often dictated by the desire to “looking”. Further answers do not raise doubts. Both women and men (in question„Which of the following physical activities do you take“) are planning on cycling and walking. This confirms the declared place of residence: a village where it is precisely

these sports activities are not difficult. It is also worth noting the classification in the replies of other activities. The most common types of sports are listed. Women choose household appliances, such as orbiteres and bicycles, while men declare outdoor activities (tennis, running, horseback riding). This may be related to the lack of time or practicality of women who, by leading a home, prefer to have everything "in place". There was also a lack of sex, which was more often given to women.

The next part of the questionnaire was about the choices faced by people practicing the sport. The question **„Which of the listed sports related items / accessories do you own"** clearly shows that most respondents have traditional equipment and sports accessories such as a bottle or a bicycle. However, specialized clothing or matching footwear, which occupied the second place with 37%, are not without significance. This is primarily due to the ever-expanding image of fit by the described personal branding and content marketing, which in their coverage show examples of brands, promote sporting events, or describe the latest trends in the field of physical activity. Interestingly, despite the wide distribution of materials and technological progress, the vast majority of respondents do not use sports applications **(„Do you use or do not use sports apps on your smartphone/tablet")** - as much as 53%. This may be due to the fact that the target group was mostly women, so there is less need to share information about kilometers traveled (for fear of criticism). Question **„How do you think, why people are doing physical activity"** is, in turn, a confirmation of the intergenerational difference. Most people in the 15-24 age range suggest that the desire to have a nice figure is a motivation for doing sport. This is primarily due to access to information, social media and media that create a particular model figure - fit figures. By contrast, people in the 55-plus-year range admit that physical activity is primarily related to physical fitness. However, in question **„And why do you practice sports"** it can be seen that both men and women are doing sports because they want to feel healthy and well-being. It does not quite reflect the fact that most of them share information in the media (if they do something for themselves, publishing seems superfluous) with other recipients. It does not fit to the end of the test group, which on the background of the metric is quite "young" (women and men). At this age, the motivation for physical activity is rarely healthy.

Next, most of the respondents (58%) are looking for additional information related to exercised and practiced sport on the Internet **(„Are you looking for additional information related to the exercise / sport you are doing on the internet")**. This is confirmed by the fact that the Network is an unlimited source of content and space to create a given image. Most people use sports sites and healthy lifestyle **(„Which online sources of information on exercise / sport are you using")**. Community platforms are also important - 37% of respondents. These sources provide opportunities not only for promotion but also for sales, as shown in the next question **(„What types of social platforms do you use to learn more about the exercises / sports you are doing")**. Social networking sites and video services are additional places where the recipient is looking for content about physical activity. At this point it is worth recalling that this is the image (video, graphics, infographics) is one of the most effective sources of information on the Internet.

The previous answers confirm the previous - as many as 89% of respondents have one or more profiles on social platforms **(„Do you own or have at least one profile on the social platform")**. This part of the survey broadly shows the aspect of functioning in social media and the related reception possibilities. The vast majority of respondents are on Facebook, with the least people on the Pinterest **(„On which social platforms do you have a profile")**. As many as 17% confirm their effectiveness on YouTube - this is another sign of the power of the image in the contemporary media world. It is interesting, however, to state the status on social networking sites - both women and men admit that they update descriptions once a month or less **(„How often do you put status on your profile (social profiles) on your**

profile“). Compared to how many people have social profiles, it seems unbelievable. However, it must be taken into consideration that the data that the respondents write can’t be completely verified. Suggested frequency can also be the result of the current fashion – “everyone wants to be present on the portals but do not want to admit it”.

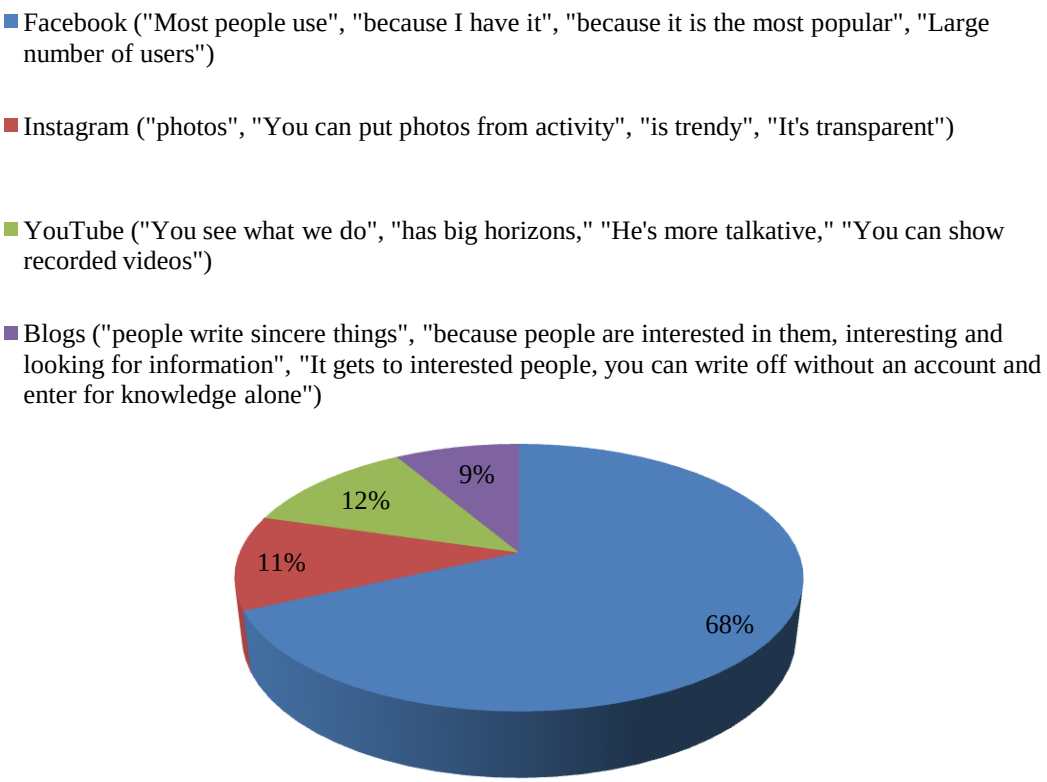
Watching friends who share the same physical activity interests is the domain of social media in both women's and men's fitness **(„How do you use social networking sites, in your physical activity“)**. Few people declare, in turn, to run specialized services or profiles devoted to this subject. Perhaps this is due to the fact that it is more likely to draw on knowledge than to share it or fear criticism from "wiser" experts. Another question **(„Write what person/organization do you follow on social networking sites“)** is, in turn, the person or organization in question that is being watched in social media. The possibility of an open response is an opportunity to verify the views, tastes and even needs of the audience. For example, women most often put on the advertising of authority, ie Ewa Chodakowska or Anna Lewandowska. Health portals are also of great interest, where you can meet the credible content of professionals or experts. Men in turn chose specific brands, such as Adidas, 4F, CCC Sport and more. They also like to use the content provided by the person, also less popular as. Krystian Romanowski or Jan Szymański.

Asking about the reason for using social media in connection with sports activities **(„Why do you use social media in connection with your physical activity“)** can illustrate what the current or potential athlete is headed for. Of all the respondents, up to 29% indicated encouraging others to take physical activity. The recipient not only looks for examples, but wants to be an example and a model for future users.

Question **„How satisfied are you with your current look“** may be another example of a general “fashion”. Audiences read, watch and enjoy content about healthy eating, exercise, physical activity, but 43% are rather satisfied with their current profile. Or maybe they are not critical? Even before yourself. Women (**„What are you most satisfied with**) are definitely satisfied with their appearance and appearance, ie their hair, nails, smile (“I have long nice hair and nails”). The men decided on the results - better performance in running, fitness and movement. So it is clear that gender has different expectations and needs for sport and activity. Confirmation of this theory is also another question (**„What are you most unhappy“**), which refers to delicate issues - dissatisfaction with its appearance. In this case most women have a problem with weight and too much curves (“Fucked piggy: P good, exaggerate”). In men this is in turn more specific - respondents often typed the problem of fat but also with small muscle mass. It is clear that women care more about slim figure and men on well-built muscles. This is illustrated in the infographic by TNS, which clearly shows that 94% of men prefer exercising on their own in the gym, having more time and focus on individual exercise sets, and 67% of women participate in group activities that mainly model the body.

In the last but one question **(„How do you think, why people put social status on their physical activity“)**, men and women pointed out that building positive image and sharing information with friends is the main reason why users place social media statuses on their own physical activity. Why is this happening exactly the next question **„With social networking services you can build an image of a physically active person. Which of the social networking sites, according to you, are the best?“**, where most respondents have confirmed that Facebook is the best place to build and create an image of a physical person. The ability to indicate only one answer in this question shows the scale of the phenomenon and concludes the survey at the same time. **Arguments such as “most people use”, “large number of users” are a good confirmation of the popularity of the site and its possibilities not only image or promotion, but also sales (marketing)**.

Which service?



Source: own

SEX: FEMALE/ MALE
AGE:
15-24
25-34
35-44
45-54
55 and more
PLACE OF RESIDENCE:
village
City up to 50 thousand residents
City 50-100 thousand residents
City 100-200 thousand residents

4. REFLECTION

The phenomenon of creating an image of being fit covers many issues, both offline and online. However, much more often, louder and more intensely, it appears on the Internet, in social media, where the user is looking in the eyes of others, often seeking acceptance of their actions, behaviors or choices. Setting up masks has become a standard without which it is difficult to log in to your profile today. This also shows the results of the survey - consumers are aware that social media is primarily a channel where they communicate and / or show information to their friends. At the same time, what may seem paradoxical, they want to be their models to follow (distributing content so that their friends can know something). Both message senders and recipients daily review material from font color, layout, text, language, headings, to the choice of web based messaging platforms. There are also tools available,

without which many applications will lose their own "charm" (Instagram - applying filters to pictures, Snapchat - creating an image of already taken pictures, Bitstrips - planning, describing and presenting various everyday situations of your avatar).
The fit industry is today one of the best growing markets. Its potential is very much used by entrepreneurs to show their own image on the Web. Overview of various web portals, examples of social networking profiles, posts, photos, videos or motivational content are just a part of what the customer actually gets. The research shows that the final decision is made by the customer who makes his own selection of good content, paying attention to his own needs and expectations. A good sales is the one who will show (mostly on the Network) what his load he really needs. A good sales knows it faster than a customer.
Such actions may result in the violent selectivity of one's own personality, whose natural and spontaneous reactions are substitute by a virtualized mirror.

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NEW PARADIGMS FOR EDUCATION AND MARKETING - VIRTUAL AND MIXED REALITY

Erik Kučera, Oto Haffner, Roman Leskovský, Peter Drahoš

Abstract

The main objective of the project was to improve quality of teaching for graduates and specialists in technical study programs (Applied and Automotive Mechatronics) and related areas of automation using latest information and communication technologies (ICT), virtual reality and interactive learning in simulation, modelling and control. Visualization of the modelling and control processes of complex mechatronic systems, components and devices (e.g. electric vehicles, cars, mechatronics systems in consumer electronics, medical care, etc.) in virtual and mixed realities will give students better insight and better understanding of the studied stuff compared with conventional learning methods. Interactive applications developed in 3D engine are also popular in marketing – for example for car showrooms, furniture e-shops, etc.

Keywords: *Unity engine, virtual reality, mixed reality, elearning, Microsoft HoloLens, mechatronics, marketing*

1 INTRODUCTION

Modern forms of visualisation are now based on the development of new information and communication technologies (e.g. interactive applications made in 3D game engine [1], virtual reality or mixed/augmented reality). Visualisation of process modelling, identification and control of complex mechatronic systems, elements and devices using virtual and mixed/augmented reality allows students to get a much faster and better understanding of the studied subject compared to conservative education methods.

1.1 3D applications for education and presentation

Nowadays, there is a trend of using 3D interactive applications and virtual/mixed/augmented reality in virtual tours for cars, apartments, houses and other products. Also, many modern 3D interactive applications for education are being developed [2] [3].

Car company Toyota offers modern 3D virtual showroom for their customers [4]. This 3D showroom was developed using Unreal Engine.

Fig. 1 Microsoft HoloLens - mixed reality application (Volvo)

There are also more 3D interactive applications from Animech Technologies. They offer many education modules like Virtual Car, Virtual Truck or Virtual Gearbox [5]. Using these 3D applications students can understand the functionality of these devices and they can investigate their interior and detach their individual mechanisms in detail.

Virtual clinic is very interesting project [6]. This clinic is created by the University of Miami or Charles R. Drew University of Medicine and Science in Los Angeles, United States. This interactive 3D application offers a perception into the functioning of a bigger clinic. Students can also try to diagnose patients. So, they are trained through a real experience with the medical system, but this complex system is modelled and simulated in virtual reality.

A novelty is Microsoft HoloLens [7], the arrival of which led to the emergence of totally new segment of mixed reality. Mixed reality has undisputable advantages over virtual reality, as the user observes a real world and a virtual world in the same time. The use of this feature is in practice unquestionable and it is as-sumed that mixed reality is going to become a new standard in many areas such as marketing, education. modelling of complex systems, etc.

For Microsoft HoloLens, there are many virtual tour and education applications.

Application HoloTour [9] provides 360-degree spatial video of historical places like Peru or Rome. The application contains 3D models of important landmarks that have not been retained or supplementary holographic information about elements in the scene.

1.2 Differences between virtual, augmented and mixed reality

Virtual reality (VR) replicates an environment that simulates a physical presence in places in the real world or an imagined world, allowing the user to interact in that world. Devices for virtual reality are Google Cardboard, Samsung Gear VR, HTC Vive, Oculus Rift, etc.

Augmented reality (AR) is a live, direct or indirect view of a physical, real-world environment whose elements are augmented (or supplemented) by computer-generated (CG) sensory input such as sound, video, graphics or GPS data. Augmented reality is an overlay of content on the real world, but that content is not anchored to or part of it. The real-world content and the CG content are not able to respond to each other (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3).

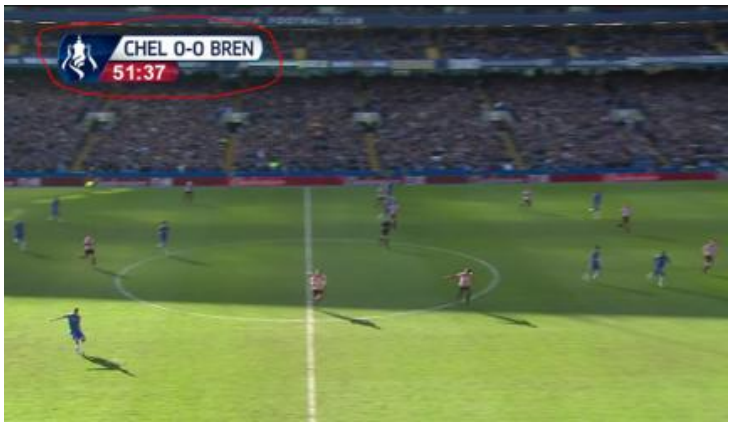

Fig. 2 Example of augmented reality

Fig. 3 Example of augmented reality

Mixed reality (MR) is the merging of real and virtual worlds to produce new environments and visualisations where physical and digital objects co-exist and interact in real time. MR is an overlay of synthetic content on the real world that is anchored to and interacts with the real world. The key characteristic of MR is that the synthetic content and the real-world content can react to each other in real time. Technologies for mixed reality are Microsoft HoloLens (Windows Mixed Reality platform), Android ARCore and Apple ARKit.

Fig. 4 Example of mixed reality – Microsoft HoloLens

Fig. 5 Example of mixed reality – Android ARCore and Apple ARKit

These three realities are sometimes called as eXtended realities (XR).

2 PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The main objective of the proposed project was to improve quality of teaching for graduates and specialists in technical study programs (Automotive Mechatronics and Applied Mechatronics) and related areas using latest ICT technologies, virtual reality and interactive learning in simulation, modelling and control. Visualization of the modelling and control processes of complex mechatronic systems, mechanisms and devices (e.g. electric vehicles, cars, mechatronic systems in consumer electronics, health care, etc.) in virtual and mixed realities will give students more insight and better understanding of the studied stuff compared with conventional education methods.

The project focused on launching of modern learning forms in the bachelor and master study programs in the broadspectrum field of mechatronics (Bc.- Automotive Mechatronics, MSc. - Applied Mechatronics and Electromobility) using multimedia-aided learning systems, with emphasis on latest knowledge from applied informatics, information / communication systems and technologies, automation and other related disciplines. One of the key objectives of the project was to modernize and complete the multimedia laboratory for teaching bachelor and master program courses in mechatronics using innovative learning forms and developed (in this project) interactive applications and teaching materials in virtual and mixed realities. The prepared learning materials and education methods will be applicable in both presence and distance forms of high-school and university education.

This project is a follow-up to the successful KEGA project Multimedial Education in Mechatronics. Within it, quality education and promotional videos from the subject field were created. They are available on the modern e-learning website http://elearning.mecha tronika.cool, which was one of the outcomes of the project. Since its launch, the website gained an extraordinary popularity in students. The created videos were awarded at various film competitions, e.g. CINEAMA.

The basic idea of the proposed project was to build on the hitherto results and use the acquired methodological experience to create learning applications for completely innovative learning forms in virtual and mixed realities. The developed applications were placed on the above-mentioned e-learning website. The project outcomes will further be used in distance learning for practitioners within lifelong learning as well as in promoting mechatronics and automation among the general public and secondary schools students (dual forms of mechatronics education) - potential students of technical universities.

3 PROJECT RESULTS

The main goal of the project was the creation of modern interactive educational applications and applications in virtual and mixed reality for mechatronics. The project outputs will be further usable for the purposes of training of practitioners in lifelong learning, and for popularization of mechatronics and automation for the public and high schools pupils (dual forms of mechatronics education) - potential students of technical universities, as these materials will be publicly available. The benefit of the project was also the acquisition of methodical experience for the creation of interesting and attractive didactic materials for mechatronics.

Results are usually described on the modern e-learning web site https://elearning.mecha tronika.cool developed during the solution of the project.

Fig. 6 Electric kart showroom + game

1) **Solar System - interactive application for PC**

Interactive educational application for web browser where you can see planets of our solar system.

Link: https://elearning.mechatronika.cool/blog/slnecna-sustava/

2) **Electric kart showroom + game – application for virtual reality Samsung Gear VR and PC**

Interactive application for computer and virtual reality application for headset Samsung Gear VR. This application presents the first electric kart developed in Slovakia. Applications also contains a simple game where the player can race with our kart - Fig. 6.

Link: https://elearning.mechatronika.cool/blog/elektromotokara-hra-a-showroom-pc-gear-vr/

Fig. 7 Hangar with electric vehicles – interactive application for computer

Fig. 8 Electric vehicles showroom – electric kart

3) **Hangar with electric vehicles of the Institute of Automotive Mechatronics FEI STU – interactive application for computer**

Application that contains hangar (showroom) with electric kart, rescue vehicle (6x6) and a promotional video with e-mobility projects of Institute of Automotive Mechatronics FEI STU – Fig. 7. User uses a mouse for control of this application like in 3D editors

Link: https://elearning.mechatronika.cool/blog/hangar-s-elektrickymi-vozidlami-uamt-fei-stu-pc/

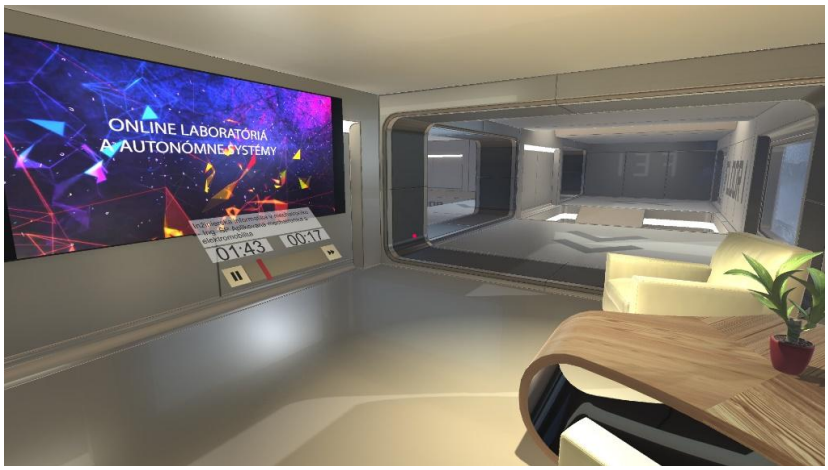

Fig. 9 Electric vehicles showroom – room with videos

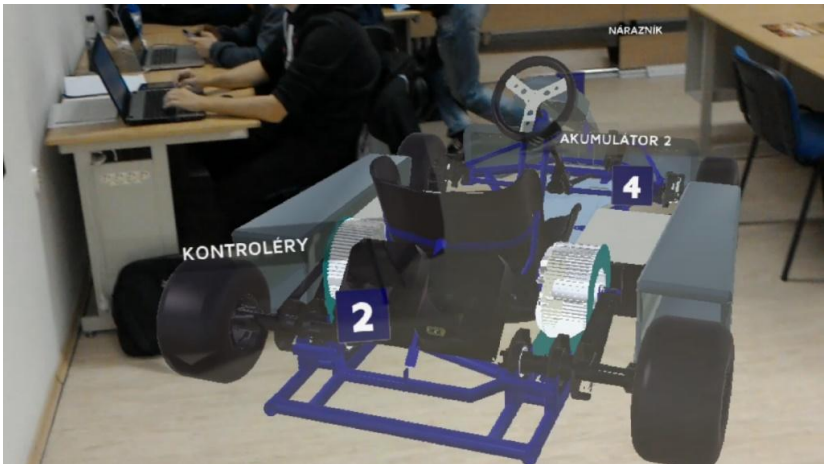

Fig. 10 Microsoft HoloLens - mixed reality application

4) **Electric vehicles showroom – application for computer and Oculus Rift**

It is an interactive application for computer and virtual reality application for Oculus Rift headset. Application contains a showroom with electric kart (Fig. 8) and 6x6 rescue vehicle. Application also contains a room with educational and promotional videos (Fig. 9).

Link: https://elearning.mechatronika.cool/blog/showroom-s-elektrickymi-vozidlami-uamt-fei-stu-z-pohladu-prvej-osoby-pc-oculus-rift/

5) **FEI STU Electric Kart – mixed reality application for Microsoft HoloLens**

It is a mixed reality application for Microsoft HoloLens headset that is controlled by voice instructions. User can see the model of electric kart with description of its parts (Fig. 10 and Fig 11). You can see also a graphical interface with information about other vehicles from our institute and promotional video of e-mobility. This application is available on the Microsoft Store.

Link: https://www.microsoft.com/sk-sk/store/p/elektromotok%C3%A1ra-fei-stu/9p1nsd4prnsv

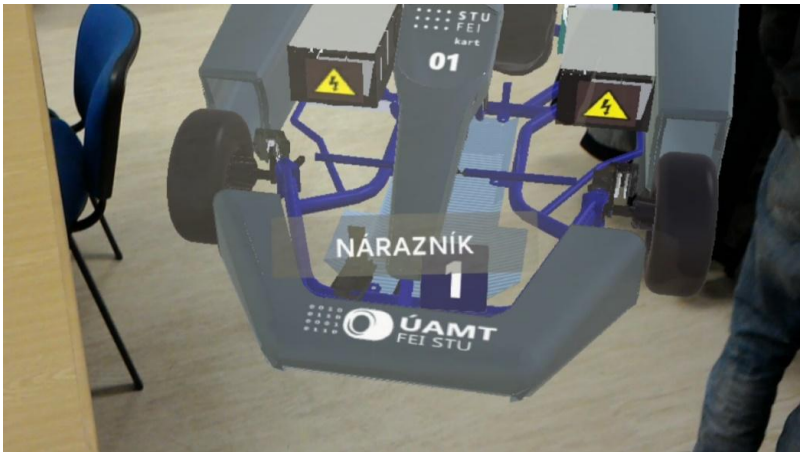

Fig. 11 Microsoft HoloLens - mixed reality application

4 NEW LABORATORY FOR EDUCATION AND MARKETING OF MECHATRONICS DEVICES

Because the VR/MR applications sometimes need to interact with smaller or bigger surrounding environment, developing of VR/MR applications needs a specialized place where the applications can be developed and tested. The teaching of VR/MR also needs the same environment and conditions. Due to these facts, there is a prepared project for the large multifunctional laboratory. The dispositions of laboratory will be proposed in that way, that enables to use it not just for developing and education of VR/MR but also as a seminar, lecture or projection hall (Fig. 12). The disposition of the laboratory enables to present in VR/MR big objects as cars or kart in life size and smaller objects or parts of the bigger system on the tables (Fig. 13 and Fig. 14). All these functionalities are real thanks to the MR devices like Microsoft HoloLens or mobile devices with support of Android ARCore or Apple ARKit. Using MR, the room can be virtually transformed to an environment with unlimited possibilities. All mentioned facts and possibilities represent novel and modern form of education and it represents also the newest trends in marketing area.

Fig. 12 Visualisation of multipurpose laboratory – seminar / projection hall

Fig. 13 Visualisation of multipurpose laboratory – mixed reality

Fig. 14 Visualisation of multipurpose laboratory – mixed reality

5 CONCLUSION

Nowadays, there is a trend of using interactive applications and virtual or mixed reality applications in virtual tours for cars, houses, vehicles, furniture and other products. This article describes the results of the project that dealed with development of interactive 3D applications, virtual or mixed reality applications for education of mechatronics. The project focused on launching of modern learning forms in the bachelor and master study programs in the broad-spectrum field of mechatronics (Automotive Mechatronics, Applied Mechatronics and Electromobility) using multimedia-aided education systems, with emphasis on latest knowledge from applied informatics, information and communication systems and technologies, automation and other related disciplines.

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TECHNIKA ZAVÁDĚNÍ A ROZVOJE PROCESNÍHO ŘÍZENÍ

THE TECHNIQUE OF ESTABLISHING AND DEVELOPING PROCESS MANAGEMENT

Róbert Zajda

Abstrakt

Při zavádění a rozvíjení procesního řízení se projevuje řada praktických problémů. Celistvost a komplexnost metodologie procesního řízení, vyžaduje systematické strukturování do určitých fází, vyvinutých specificky pro účely vytváření inovací procesů a trvalou transformaci organizace. Článek reviduje technické fáze procesního řízení.

Klíčová slova: *Proces, Procesní řízení, Benchmarking, Best practices, Mapa procesů*

Abstract

There are a number of practical problems in implementing and developing process management. The integrity and complexity of process management methodology requires systematic structuring to specific phases developed specifically for the purpose of creating process innovations and the ongoing transformation of an organization. The article reviews the technical stages of process management.

Key words: *Process, Process Management, Benchmarking, Best Practices, Process Map*

1. PROCES - PROCESNÍ ŘÍZENÍ

Zavedení a rozvoj procesního řízení v podniku, se řídí ověřenými postupy tvorby procesního řízení. Tyto postupy tvoří základní rámec implementace, který se dále rozvíjí na konkrétních, specifických podmínkách každé firmy (know - how). Důležitá je jasná definice procesu a procesního řízení, která nám charakterizuje obsah podmínek při plnění implementace.

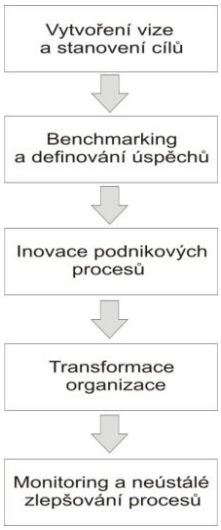
Proces - je organizovaná skupina vzájemně souvisejících činností nebo subprocesů, které procházejí jedním nebo více organizačními útvary či spolupracujícími organizacemi. Tyto činnosti spotřebovávají materiální, lidské, finanční a informační vstupy, jejichž výstupem je produkt, který má hodnotu pro externího nebo interního zákazníka.

Procesní řízení - představuje systémy, postupy, metody a nástroje pro trvalého zajištění maximální výkonnosti, neustálého zlepšování podnikových a mezipodnikových procesů, které vycházejí z jasně definované vize a strategických cílů organizace.

2. FÁZE IMPLEMENTACE PROCESNÍHO ŘÍZENÍ

Technická stránka zavádění a rozvoje procesního řízení má celkem pět fází (viz obrázek 1). Jedná se o následné aktivity:

- Tvorba vize a stanovení cílů, kterých má být dosaženo
- Provedení benchmarkingu a definování úspěchů
- Inovace podnikových procesů
- Transformace organizace
- Monitoring a neustálé zlepšování nových procesů



Obr. 1: Schéma - 5 fází implementace procesního řízení

3. VIZE PROCESNĚ ŘÍZENÉ FIRMY A STANOVENÍ CÍLŮ

Pro odhodlání rázně skoncovat s minulostí a začít podnikat způsobem, který vyžaduje ekonomika řízená zákazníkem, je především nutné:

1. Zásadní obnova podniku podle principů procesního řízení
2. Sestavení silné koalice nejvyššího vedení pro podporu a tvorbu podmínek změny

První fází je sestavení vize (vize změny) procesně řízené firmy a stanovení cílů. Je to zásadní krok pro kvantifikování cílů, kterých má být dosaženo. Obsah první fáze implementace musí obsahovat:

- Tvorba vize změny a stanovení cílů
- Identifikace příležitostí (popis a analýza procesu)
- Vytvoření a vzdělávání procesního týmu
  (nutnost týmu absolvovat vzdělávací program)
- Komunikace transformační vize, získání lidí pro spolupráci
  (nutnost plné podpory nejvyššího vedení firmy)
- Vybudování infrastruktury
  (tvorba a implementace postupů, standardů, toku zpráv a začlenění metod)

4. PROVEDENÍ BENCHMARKINGU A DEFINOVÁNÍ ÚSPĚCHŮ

Náplň druhé fáze (viz obrázek 2), zahrnuje především získávání informací o postupech prováděných uvnitř a vně organizace. Informace se vyhodnotí a určí se, které postupy si firma převezme, přizpůsobí nebo vylepší. Tým musí vždy usilovat minimálně o 50% zlepšení a směřovat cíle tak, aby byly lepší než minulý rok.

Provedení benchmarkingu podnikatelských praktik

Náplní benchmarkingu je měření a porovnání procesů, činností, produktů a služeb, v rámci svého podniku, nejlepší firmy v odvětví nebo kdekoli na světě. Existují tedy tři typy benchmarkingu: vnitřní, vnější a funkční. Nejdůležitějším úkolem v této fázi, je určení kvalitativních a kvantitativních charakteristik, významu a hodnoty konkrétního procesu.

Obr. 2: Druhá fáze - provedení benchmarkingu a definování úspěchů

4.1 Identifikace a využití nejlepších praktik pro zlepšení

Best practices (nejlepší praktiky) představují systémy, procesy, metody a postupy, které vedou k dosažení špičkové světové výkonnosti. Užití best practices musí splňovat tři základní předpoklady vyplývající pro naši organizaci.

1. Okamžitá konkurenční výhoda
2. Dojde k optimalizaci přínosů, nákladů a úsilí
3. Je pro nás použitelná

4.2 Určení požadavků na informační technologie

V tomto kroku se provádí vyhodnocení stavu, schopnosti a efektivity využívání firemní informační technologie (IT). Prioritou bude orientace IT na plánovanou budoucnost, využívání IT v každodenních procesech, možnosti a finanční dostupnost nových softwarových aplikací, získávání a použití dat, včetně vztahu a postojů zaměstnanců firmy k IT.

4.3 Stanovení cílů výkonnosti

Aktivita, při stanovení odhadu výše cílů, má velký význam pro určení možné dosažitelné výkonnosti podniku. Plánování výkonnosti nám pomáhá definovat, zpřesňovat a strukturovat cíle zásadní obnovy naší firmy. Nejdůležitější podmínkou pro stanovení výkonnosti, je pohled na stanovené cíle očima zákazníka, tzn. tam, kde je možné zákazníka přizvat, vyvodit závěry a všechny zúčastněné o tom informovat.

5. INOVACE PODNIKOVÝCH PROCESŮ

Třetí fáze je nejkreativnější etapou z komplexní implementace procesního řízení a zároveň je podstatou zásadní obnovy organizace, prostřednictvím procesního řízení. Tato fáze je však i nejnáročnější etapou, a to z důvodu zavedení konkrétních změn manažerských postupů, organizačních struktur a informační technologie. Na obrázku 3 je schéma postupu třetí fáze implementace procesního řízení.

Obr. 3: Třetí fáze - postup implementace procesního řízení

5.1 Vytvoření konceptu nového procesu

Generování nápadů
Tvůrčím úkolem vytvořeného týmu je generování nápadů (Zdroje: použití best practices, forma pokus – omyl, import procesu, tvorba synergického partnerství s jinými články v rámci hodnotového řetězce, zcela nový vynález atd.). Nezbytnou podmínkou těchto nápadů je realizace životaschopného a co nejefektivnějšího konceptu.
Nové procesy musí mít, napříč celou firmou, stejnou podobu (průběh) a musí být variantní pro uspokojování různých segmentů zákazníků.

- Dokumentace (popis) nového procesu

Tým musí vytvořit popis, jakým způsobem bude proces organizován a vykonáván v konkrétním reálném prostředí. Jasná definice popisu procesu musí obsahovat:

- kdo je vlastníkem a kdo je členem procesu
- poslání procesu
- jaké produkty proces vytváří
- sekvence činnosti
- kdo je externím a interním zákazníkem
- začátek a konec procesu
- navazování jiných procesů na daný proces a jejich propojování
- tok procesu
- popis subprocesů v procesu včetně složení subprocesů
- potřebné vstupy pro proces včetně IT
- odpovědné osoby subprocesů a procesů

5.2 Mapování procesů

Desing procesů, organizace práce, zapojení personálu a technologie, to vše nám ukazuje mapa procesů. Mapa procesů se dá přirovnat ke stavebnímu projektu, který je komplexní a zahrnuje mnoho prvků. Z důvodu přehlednosti a odbourání specializačních informací, se vytváří několik procesních modelů, které se vypracovávají na různých úrovních podrobnosti. Různým skupinám se tímto předkládají procesní mapy, podle konkrétní potřeby úrovně znalostí procesu. Obvykle se zpracovávají čtyři úrovně procesních map:

1. Úroveň 1: Enterprise Activities (EAs). Stručný model, který tvoří základní obraz podnikatelských aktivit. Převládá zde velké množství organizačních oblastí.
2. Úroveň 2: Essential Core Activities (ECAs). Tento model nám ukazuje základní klíčové aktivity, které musí být vykonány v organizačních oblastech (EAs). Zde převládají operativní činnosti, organizační úrovně a manažerské postupy. (bonita firmy, plánování výroby atd.)
3. Úroveň 3: Primary Core Activities (PCAs). Zde se popisují primární klíčové aktivity, které jsou podmínkou realizace ECAs.
4. Úroveň 4: Elemental Process Activities (EPAs). Jedná se o nejvyšší úroveň detailů v procesní mapě. Jde o popis konečných činností a pracovních kroků nutných pro podporu PCAs (tzn. přesné informace o množství a typu výrobku včetně odesílání zákazníkovi).

Vytvořené čtyřúrovňové procesní mapy, nám poskytnou ucelenou a jasnou představu, o zavedených procesech a jejich realizaci.

5.3 Testování prototypu nového procesu

Testování prototypu procesu je založeno a vychází z procesních map. Samotná simulace výkonu se tvoří ze souboru předpokladů v reálném prostředí daného procesu. Nezbytnost testování na prototypech nám dokládají získané výhody:

- Místo výkonu procesu, jasná představa o procesu a realizaci nutných změn při spuštění procesu, životaschopnost a platnost procesu, odhad důsledků a porovnání s původními cíli, plány a měřítky, včetně jejich upřesnění atd.

Chyby při výkonu modelování procesu, ke kterým dochází a je potřeba je eliminovat:

- Přílišná podrobnost modelace procesu (tzn. určit úroveň a nutnost dodržení řiditelnosti a opakovatelnosti), nepřesnost modelace (tzn. bez vazeb a smyček), model procesu není reálný proces (tzn. test je jen zjednodušenou možnou realitou s jednoznačným a přehledným cílem) atd.

5.4 Vypilování prototypu procesu

Tento bod postupu implementace procesního řízení obnáší konečné dotažení (vypilování) prototypu procesu. Vycházíme z výsledků testování prototypu nového procesu, zahrnutí všech činností procesu, ladění designu procesu, mapy procesů, vzdělávání a trénink zaměstnanců, přizpůsobení manažerských postupů atd.

Na závěr je důležitá kontrola všech změn, zda jsou připravené k implementaci ve vzájemném souladu. V případě identifikace disproporcí, je nutné odstranit příčiny jejich vzniku, dříve než přistoupíme k dalšímu kroku, kterým je zásadní změna informační technologie.

5.5 Zásadní změna informační technologie

Většina firem musí v tomto bodě implementace procesního řízení zásadně změnit strukturu, systémy a způsob užití informační technologie (IT). V procesním řízení, je IT alfou a omegou k dosažení cílů komplexní změny v řízení podniku, a proto je žádoucí maximálního využití potenciálu IT. K zásadnímu zproduktivnění IT při realizaci podnikových procesů, dojde jen v případě přímé integrace IT do tvůrčí realizace podnikových aktivit. Hlavní úkol změny IT je vytvoření technologické architektury na podporu procesního řízení, která musí splňovat podmínky přímé integrace, přenositelnosti a odstupňování.

Postup při procesu budování IS&IT je doporučen v šesti krocích:

1. Navržení vize budoucí podoby a funkčnosti IS&IT

Jasné vymezení aktuálního stavu a očekávaného stavu, včetně definováni podoby IS&IT.

2. Určení hnacích sil změny IS&IT

Nejčastější faktory realizace a nutností změn, jsou požadavky zákazníků, iniciativy a praktiky konkurence, vnitřní potřeby a požadavky provozu podniku, nařízení vlastníků, technologický pokrok atd.

3. Provedení komparativní analýzy budoucích potřeb a současných možností IS&IT

Závěry analýzy aktuálního stavu IS&IT v podniku, společně s požadavky jednotlivých hnacích sil změny, nám stanoví priority potřeb a vlivů budoucí architektury IS&IT.

4. Formulace strategie a ověření (potvrzení) platnosti vize pro IS&IT

Zvolená strategie pro IS&IT, je testována na zjištění souladu a podpory vize podniku, systémových přístupů, efektivity vedení atd.

5. Identifikace, definování a stanovení priorit zprovoznění potřebných aplikačních systémů

Nalezení ideálních aplikačních systémů, které slučují funkčně specializované útvary do procesů a vytvářejí konkurenční výhody, je složitý úkol, který většinou nelze naplnit s užitím stávající IT. Neflexibilita stávajícího systému, obtížnost změny a vysoká cena předělávek, jsou důvody, které nás nakonec přesvědčí o nákupu a vyvinutí nového IS a IT. Architektura nového IS je realizována možnostmi tří vln potřeb:

- Vysoce výkonné počítače pro velké množství stejnorodých činností
- Středně složité alternativy pro méně četné zpracování transakcí
- Pracovní stanice pro specializované potřeby

Všechny tři vrstvy musí být propojeny v síti a hladce integrovány, pro umožnění běžného přístupu k datům a programům. Ke komunikaci lze použít elektronickou poštu a integrované hlasové a obrazové komunikační prostředky.

6. Transformování IS&IT

Samotný přechod starého IS na nový IS, vyžaduje pečlivé naplánování a načasování (harmonogram postupu prací). Navržený tým určuje výši finančních prostředků, objem interních a externích zdrojů, řeší vzniklé problémy v přechodovém období.

6. TRANSFORMOVÁNÍ ORGANIZACE

Náplní čtvrté fáze implementace je:

- Transformování operací
- Transformace organizačních struktur
- Implementace změněných procesů

6.1 Transformování operací

Jedná se o prověřování všech změn (inovací) metod, postupů, procedur včetně radikální inovace IS&IT. Cílem prověřování je doladění vhodnosti, adekvátnosti a kompatibility všech operací na požadovanou výkonnost.

6.2 Transformace organizačních struktur

Transformace organizačních struktur zahrnuje zplnomocnění zaměstnanců a vytvoření štíhlejší a flexibilnější firmy. Proces transformování se skládá ze tří kroků:

1. Návrh podoby nové organizační struktury

- V rámci nového modelu podnikání tým navrhne model propojení zaměstnanců, kde jeho obsahem bude rozpětí řízení, počty zaměstnanců, charakteristiky chování, podpora a potřeby vzdělávání v rámci IS&IT atd.

2. Provedení srovnávací (komparativní) analýzy možností existujícího a nového modelu podnikání

- Obsahem komparativní analýzy, je identifikování rozdílů současných schopností organizačních struktur s požadavky procesů. Zjištěné rozdíly se ohodnotí, stanoví se nejlepší metody k odstranění disproporcí aktuálního a požadovaného cílového stavu.

3. Tvorba plánu řízení změn, směřující k transformaci organizačních struktur

- Na základě komparativní analýzy se sestaví plán řízení změn, který je detailním plánem akcí, vedoucí k transformaci organizačních struktur. Obsahem plánu akcí je: navržení rozvrhu plánu změn (harmonogram), oznámení transformace zákazníkům a spolupracujícím (stakeholders), sdílení informací o transformaci se zaměstnanci, vytvoření vzdělávacích programů na míru dle požadavku změn, specifikace nové organizační struktury a souvisejících požadavků – nové systémy, nové přiřazení zaměstnanců k práci, nový systém měření a odměňování atd.

6.3 Implementace procesů, které prošly změnou

Pro trvalé zachování procesů, které projdou změnou, musí být splněna podmínka tyto změny institucionalizovat - nutnost zavést standardizaci procesů, postupů a metod řízení změn pro případ pružné reakce (adaptace) na soustavné změny podnikatelského prostředí a trhu. Tímto krokem bude vytvořena větší pravděpodobnost udržení si konkurenční výhody.

7. MONITORING A NEUSTÁLÉ ZLEPŠOVÁNÍ PROCESŮ

Samozřejmou součástí procesu budování konkurenceschopnosti je monitoring implementovaných procesů. Monitoring významně přispívá k pravidelnému hodnocení efektivnosti daných procesů, a je nástrojem kontroly k dodržování stanovených cílů a vize firmy.

7.1 Monitoring pro účely neustálého zlepšování

V podnikatelském prostředí, které se neustále vyvíjí, a změny mají stále kratší časový interval, přestávají platit naše předpoklady vývoje (premisy), se kterými počítáme. Proto je nutné, abychom v rámci konkurenceschopnosti, neustále přehodnocovali své procesy a postupy, měnili je, a neustále se zlepšovali. Chceme-li přežít, musíme tuto skutečnost akceptovat, v opačném případě budeme pro zákazníka neatraktivní a hrozí nám zánik.

7.2 Přenos získaných znalostí a zkušeností

Potřeba dělit se o své zkušenosti a znalosti, a tím přispívat k vzájemnému růstu, musí být pevně zakotvena v podnikové kultuře prostřednictví formálních pravidel (firemní nařízení, směrnice, příkazy atd.) a neformálních pravidel (zaměstnanecké vztahy, hodnoty, názory atd.). V rámci přenosu znalostí, je potřeba identifikovat a modifikovat procesy tak, aby v celé firmě, byly procesy standardizovány a jejich průběh byl variantní (např. proces standardizace prodeje potravin ve variantách pro velkoobchod, maloobchod a fyzických osob)

8. ZÁVĚR

Článek v pěti kapitolách reviduje a popisuje obecně platná pravidla technické stránky zavedení procesního řízení. Znalost a pochopení posloupnosti popsané technické implementace, je nezbytná pro další rozvoj procesních změn v organizaci.

V článku se neřeší lidské aspekty implementace a rozvoje procesního řízení. Ty tvoří strukturu proměnných veličin, které vyplývají z charakteru složitosti lidské osobnosti, s kterou se musí jednat citlivě a pro realizaci změn si je získat.

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MODEL OF OUTSOURCING DEVELOPMENT FACTORS AND ITS IMPACT ON SERVICE COMPANIES NETWORKS

Ugne Dude

Abstract

Outsourcing is increasingly gaining ground in the context of organization management, and services sector as well as its importance is growing dynamically. However, analyses of outsourcing in the context of service companies are fragmented. Therefore, this article presents theoretical basis for outsourcing levels and expression in companies' networking, as well as the analysis of empirical studies of outsourcing development factors in individual service companies. Finally, highlighting the main aspects of theoretical and empirical analysis, model of outsourcing development factors in service companies networks is provided, as well as descriptions of its constructs.

Keywords: *outsourcing, model, network, service companies*

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays the economy can be described as innovative economy, which is based on new scientific knowledge, advanced technology and specialization. In today's dynamic and competitive world companies, in order to survive and compete successfully, are constantly looking for ways to save money, improve the quality of products / services as well as to increase operational efficiency as well as competitiveness, and as a result, outsourcing becomes essential. Outsourcing is a process during which companies, instead of using in-house resources, purchase services from an external company, which usually has specialized skills and specific knowledge, which allows it to offer the client better services at a lower price (Borodako, Berbeka, Rudnicki, 2015). Outsourcing structure is very complex, it covers a wide range of activities and functions, posing administrative and management dilemmas. Yi, Chen, Guo (2016).

Today outsourcing is increasingly used for business services (ex. call centres, electronic publishing), computer and information services (ex. data processing, web content management), professional services (ex. accounting, architectural services), training and education, financial services, health-related services (ex. consultations, diagnosis), audiovisual and cultural services, customer service, human resources services, research and development (UNCTAD, 2004, Huws et al., 2004). As companies are purchasing, selling, creating outsourcing services, as well as interacting and collaborating in different forms, various service networks are emerging.

Significance of services is growing dynamically. According to the review conducted by UNCTAD multi-annual meeting of trade, service and development experts, which took place in Geneva in 2017, in 1980-2015 the share of services in GDP grew in all income levels' countries' groups: 61-76% in developed economies and 42-55% in developing economies. Although significance and growth of outsourcing and network business structures is evident, lack of information and research related to outsourcing can be observed in the services sector (Amiti, Wei, 2005, Rajan, Srivastava, 2006, Gerbl M. et. al. 2009, Tateel al. 2009). Factors contributing to outsourcing in the services companies and how these factors affect the formation of business networks is not analysed as well.

Aim of this article – on the basis of scientific literature analysis, to create a model, highlighting factors contributing to outsourcing development and their impact on networks forming in service companies.
The methods of the research include systematic and comparative analysis of the scientific literature.
The paper proceeds as follows. Firstly, a brief overview of theoretical background concerning outsourcing and its levels is presented. The next section of the article provides networking aspects related to outsourcing. Then, an in-depth analysis of factor affecting the spread of outsourcing practice among service companies is provided. Finally, a model of outsourcing development factors in service companies networks is constructed and described.

2. LEVELS OF OUTSOURCING

Researchers notice that the phenomenon of outsourcing has changed over time. Discussions in the scientific literature emphasize that as outsourcing has been evolving, partnership relations between the provider of external services and companies that purchase its services has been changing. Highlighting methods of cooperation as well as expectations related to outsourcing, researchers Lankford, Parsa (1999), Brown, Wilson (2005), Kedia, Lahiri (2007), Ghodeswar, Vaidyanath (2008) divide outsourcing into three levels: tactical, strategic and transformational. These levels differ according to provider's participation and created value as well as for which activities to transfer outsourcing is used, what role it is playing in the company's strategy and what goals it is used to achieve.

- *Tactical outsourcing.* Organization usually already has certain issues that needs to be dealt with. Such issues arise due to lack of funding or specialists, incompetent management or need for staff reduction. In such case, outsourcing becomes one of the solutions: management, human resources management and similar services are purchased (Brown, Wilson 2005). Kedia, Lahiri (2007) state that tactical outsourcing does not stimulate any strategic partnership with outsourcing providers, basically it is short-termed and focused on tasks. It is essentially launched in order to save money.
- *Strategic outsourcing*. The goal is to create long-term added value (Ghodeswar, Vaidyanath, 2008). Long-term contracts are concluded with reliable service providers. In such way organization contracts secondary activities to a company providing such services, and use its own resources to carry out the main activity of the company (Brown, Wilson 2005). As stated by Kedia, Lahiri (2007), strategic outsourcing is impacted by organizations' desire to stay active on the local market, as well as globally integrated organization, and increasing need to focus on the core activities of the company. As a result of globalisation, organizations are experiencing increasing competitive pressure to survive and thrive in the environment where business models are changing, business networks are emerging. This led to the need for focusing on the main activities of organization, giving competitive advantage, which requires strategic outsourcing. In strategic outsourcing, long-term value creation is important, through a long-term relationship between the organization which is outsourcing its activities and outsourcing providers.
- *Transformational outsourcing*. It is implemented by transforming company. Brown, Wilson (2005) states that it is necessary to transform company, in order to achieve a leading position in the market. Transformation of a company, based on outsourcing, allows companies to use the experience of the specialists, providing outsourcing services and to have only the best specialists in each sphere, who specialize in specific activities. Kedia, Lahiri (2007) emphasizes that such outsourcing includes the need to share the increasing risk and gain flexibility as well as transform the business. The aim of transforming business processes is to review old business

operations, disappearing areas of business or to accelerate business innovation. Transformations result in radical business models, aimed towards the achievement of a competitive advantage through growth.

3. NETWORKING ASPECTS RELATED TO OUTSOURCING

Different forms of cooperation may be observed throughout the levels of outsourcing (tactical, strategic, transformational), from short-term or one-time contracts to strategic partnership or even transformation of an organization. Over the last century traditional business models has been transforming a lot. Technological developments contributed to globally connected economy, and a growing tendency of privatization and deregulation leads to new network organizational models. In case of these models, there is a tendency to fragment business process, which forms the value chain. Hierarchical organizational structure is split up, its fragments may benefit the organization on its own, because it is transferred to outsourcing service providers.

Over the past few decades business network research became relevant not only in information technology or economics, but also in other areas, such as political science, sociology, public administration, psychology, business studies (Mujs et al., 2010, Prowan, Milward, 2001). From the organization's perspective, two groups of network are mostly found in literature (according to the positions of organizations in the network) – horizontal and vertical (Boschma, 2007). *Horizontal network* is focused on the competitive advantage and emerges in order to gain power in the market. In this case organizations operating in the same area (even competing ones), merge into network, in order to strengthen the influence and make use of network participants' resources (Moller, Rajala, 2006). As stated by Achrol (1997), *vertical networks* forms as supply and distribution relations, focusing on the main organization. Vertical networks maximize productivity for serial dependency functions, creating partnership between skilled and specializing companies (in this case it can be argued that defining vertical network, we can talk about implementing outsourcing). Although horizontal and vertical networking are distinguished as separate phenomena, however, as stated by Moller, Rajal (2006), when forming complex organizational networks, vertical and horizontal networking are closely related.

Migration from confrontation to cooperation at various interorganizational levels has become the norm. This tendency in the increasing use reflects such network business structures as strategic alliances, merged companies and other interorganizational cooperation partnerships (Kedia, Mukherjee, 2009). Contactor et al. (2010) argues that outsourcing, in a broader sense, is creation of a global network, with strategic objectives to enter international market and focus on effectiveness and sustainability of the international network.

4. FACTORS AFFECTING OUTSOURCING DEVELOPMENT AMONG SERVICE COMPANIES

Borodako et al. (2015) argues that outsourcing is a dynamic tendency, which covers a number of factors motivating organizations to use it. Researchers (Musteen, 2016**,** Bagnieska et al., 2016, Jensen, Larsen, Pedersen, 2013,Lahiri, Kedia, 2011, Bunyaratavej et al., 2011, Ferruzi et al., 2011, Bakanauskienė, Brasaitė, 2011, Rahim, Baldry, 2010, Bahrami, 2009, Kedia, Mukherjee, 2009, Bartkus ir kt., 2009, Gomez et al., 2009, Kremic et al., 2006, Koszewska, 2004, Zhu et al., 2001, Blumberg, 1998, et al.) divide factors affecting outsourcing development into two categories: external and internal. Research shows that analysis of the factors affecting outsourcing development in the services sector is extremely problematic. There is not a lot of research related to factors affecting outsourcing development in the services sector. There is not a single study which would analyze factors affecting outsourcing development in the entire services sector. Only individual, generic studies may be found

regarding the individual services (IT services, hotels, health care etc.) sectors. A set of factors affecting outsourcing use, and at the same time development among service companies is created in research papers on the basis of studies on production and services sector, and more often just on the basis of studies on companies in the manufacturing sector.
External factors affecting outsourcing development were analyzed by Lahiri, Kedia (2011), Kedia, Mukherjee (2009), Bahrami (2009), Zhu et al. (2001), UNCTAD (2004) et al. The researchers argued that external factors, affecting outsourcing development, are the factors, which work from the outside: globalization, technological advancement, economic reforms, trade liberalization, deregulation, information and communication technological advancement, competitive dynamics, lack of specialists due to public policy.
Meanwhile there is an abundance of various factors depending on organization – internal factors affecting outsourcing development in scientific literature. Studies on outsourcing development factors in service sector are based not on the same factors, there is a variety of them. Researchers deal with them in two ways: one part of service sector researchers (Borodako et al., 2015, Baytok et al., 2013, Lamminaki, 2011, Jain, Natarjan, 2011, Wan, Yen-Lun Su, 2010, Smuts et al., 2010, Lam, Han, 2005), after conducting an analysis of scientific literature, usually refer to factors affecting outsourcing development found in scientific sources; other service sector researchers (Espino-Rodriguez, Ramirez-Fierro, 2017, Ikediashi, Okwuashi, 2015, Assaf et al., 2011, Gewald, Dibbern, 2009) instead of trying to distinguish factors affecting outsourcing development most frequently mentioned in scientific literature, referto all detected factors, trying to systematise and group them accordingly.
Assaf et al. (2011) analysing the use of outsourcing in universities, after carrying out an analysis of scientific literature, identified 38 factors affecting outsourcing use and grouped them into 6 groups: economic, strategic, technological, quality, management and function characteristics factors. Strategic factors enable organization to achieve a lot of benefits, related to long-term goals of a company. Management factors are all factors affecting results of service activities and management and are related to the stages of product development, control and realization. Economic factors are related to the pursuit of profit. Outsourcing enables organizations to create services cheaper than competitors'. Technological factors are related to the acquisition of skills, technology, processes and methods. The purpose of quality factors is to meet the needs of the customers and to improve product quality. Function characteristics factors cover the idea that it is basically better to carry out some functions outside of the company. Even more service researchers referred to these factor groups in later studies - Gbadegesin, Babatunde (2015) (research was carried out in universities), Suweero, Moungnoi, Charoenngam (2017) (commercial sector, building maintenance services). Suweero, Moungnoi, Charoenngam (2017) relied on six groups of factors affecting outsourcing development, generalised by Assaf et al. (2011). However, they included additional factors relevant namely to building maintenance services, drawing up a list of 56 factors. Assaf et al. (2011) refer to the formed groups in this research as well.
However, namely among the companies in the service sector, the most significant factors affecting outsourcing use and development, become apparent during empirical studies. After analysing results of the studies (Espino-Rodriguez, Ramirez-Fierro (2017) – hotels, Borodako et al,. (2015) - organizers of business meetings, Ikediashi, Okwuashi (2015) – hospitals, Yildiz, Damire (2014) – hotels, Sani et al. (2013) – hotels, Baytok et al. (2013) – hotels, Lamminaki (2011) - hotels, Assaf et al. (2011) - educational services, Jain, Natarjan (2011) - banks, Smuts et al. (2010) - communication services, Gewald, Dibbern (2009) – banks, Lam, Han (2005) - hotels) carried out in individual service companies, it was found that the top five of the most significant outsourcing development factors among service companies is dominated by strategic and economic factors.

Arias-Aranda et al. (2010) argue that service companies should see outsourcing not as a tool for cost minimization, but as an instrument providing flexibility, evident benefit of which arises in the long term, meanwhile cost minimization benefits are felt only in the short term. Sani et al. (2013) analysing outsourcing models in the hotel sector (services sector), contribute to this view stating that outsourcing allows to improve the quality of the transferred activities, because they are carried out by the companies which specialize in those activities. At the same time hotels themselves may focus on their main activities, thus improving their quality.

5. MODEL OF OUTSOURCING DEVELOPMENT FACTORS IN SERVICE COMPANIES NETWORKS

From logic of science and methodology point of view, every model may be defined as a system that helps to understand another system, if essential features are analogous (Martišius, 2014). Modelling method is useful when for certain reasons it is not possible to analyze research object directly or it is pointless to do so (Tidikis, 2003). Modelling method is a disclosure of certain objects, object systems or process relations as well as behaviour, creating and analysing models. Depending on research tasks, models of cognitive processes may be used both at the empirical level, and at the theoretical knowledge level. At the empirical level, model's information usually perform the following functions: function of measurements (characteristics measurements) and descriptive function, at the logical level – explanatory function (revealing the nature of research objects) (Tidikis, 2003). Model shows in an abstract way social phenomenon's relations between the elements of the system. They not necessarily have to reflect the real world, but may become a tool for simplifying and trying to understand mechanisms of social reality. In social sciences, model is defined as a generic sketch, where the main features of a social phenomenon are specified. They are especially valued due to the possibility to use them for comparative and forecasting analysis (Guogis, 2002).

On the basis of the results and findings of the analysis of scientific literature, a model, which highlights factors affecting outsourcing development and their impact on the development of networks in service companies, was created (see Fig. 1).

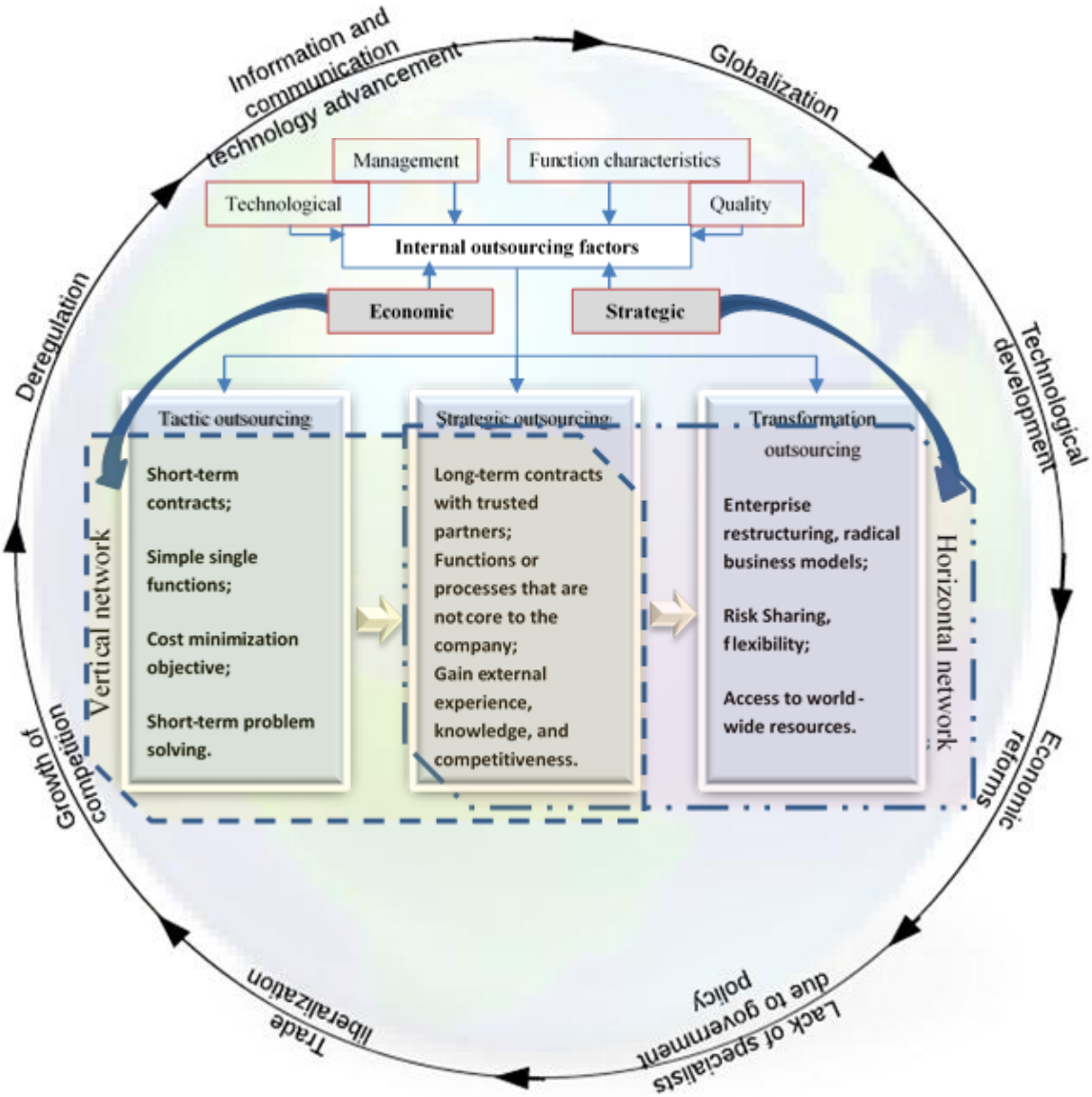

Fig. 1 Model of outsourcing development factors in service companies networks

As it can be seen in the presented model (see Fig. 1), the model consists of four main constructs.

- First construct is external factors, affecting outsourcing development among service companies, i.e. technological advancement, economic reforms, lack of specialists due to public policy, trade liberalization, competitive dynamics, deregulation, information and communication technological advancement as well as globalization. Organization cannot neither affect, nor control any of these factors. They are changing, affecting each other, at the same time, inevitably, affecting organizations, encouraging them, in order to find ways to adapt, to use outsourcing in the business.
- Second construct is internal factors (factors depending on organization) affecting outsourcing development. Due to the absence of an exhaustive list of internal factors affecting outsourcing development as well as variety in the services, the model only includes groups of outsourcing factors, which were formed by Assaf et al. (2011): strategic factors, economic factors, technological factors, quality factors, management factors and function characteristics factors.

- Third construct is levels of outsourcing: tactical, strategic, and transformational. Levels depending on which factors contributed to the use of outsourcing and what is the expected type of partnership with outsourcing services provider. The main features, characteristic to each level are presented in the model. Tactical outsourcing is used for short-term problem solving or for cost reduction, when simple, individual functions are transferred to outsourcing services providers, short-term or one-time contracts are concluded. Strategic outsourcing is used in order to achieve strategic goals, for instance, external knowledge and experience, service provider's specialization in a specific area, long-term contracts with reliable partners are concluded. Transformational outsourcing is related to transformation of an organization, when organizational structure changes, in order to share the risk, achieve flexibility, world resources.
- Fourth construct is the forms of networking, where outsourcing manifests itself – vertical network and horizontal network. Vertical network may be characterized by tactical and strategic outsourcing, horizontal network may be characterized by strategic and transformational outsourcing. Horizontal and vertical networks overlap, because mixed form of network may exist as well.

6. CONCLUSION

Proposed model covers main aspects of expression of outsourcing in service companies. Because of evolution of outsourcing this phenomenon, can be expressed in three levels (based on company's needs): tactic, strategic, transformational. The level of outsourcing, has effect on the cooperation network form – vertical or horizontal – in which company will be involved to after deciding to use outsourcing in its strategy. Moreover, model propose main groups of factors, which have affect to development of use of outsourcing among service companies. There is highlighted, that main two groups of factors are strategic and economic factors. Economic factors have impact on vertical network formation, strategic factors – horizontal network formation.

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JAZYKOVÉ TRENDY V MARKETINGU A REKLAMĚ

LANGUAGE TRENDS IN MARKETING AND ADVERTISING

Oldřich Johannes Petr

Abstrakt

Zachytit pozornost, vyvolat emoce a iniciovat k nákupu, to jsou v současné době asi jedny z nejvyšších cílů marketingové komunikace. Nové stylotvorné postupy reklamní komunikace dostaly do popředí nejen samotný výrobek, ale vyzdvihly jeho kvality a vzbudily u zákazníků nové potřeby. Vyvolání asociací je při tvorbě reklamního komunikátu jedním z nejdůležitějších aspektů jeho zpracování. Výzkumy trhu ukázaly, že se mění a vyvíjí rychleji, než si lze vůbec představit. Jazyk nám nabízí nespočetně mnoho možností jak se vyjádřit, jak zdůraznit tu či onu vlastnost výrobku. K dispozici máme například jazykovou hru, rytmus, metafory, personifikaci, frazeologická vyjádření a další. Alternativ v jazyce je nespočet, proto se budeme dále zabývat jen jednou z možností a to používáním frazeologismů - idiomů. Pro jakýkoli reklamní komunikát je velmi důležité, že si frazeologismus ponechá svůj původní ustálený význam, ale přidáním názvu výrobku nebo značky dotvoří reklamní text tak, aby na základně původního známého textu mohl vzniknout nový reklamní komunikát.

Klíčová slova: *Marketingová komunikace, idiomy, reklamní text, emoce, cílová skupina, filozofie reklamy, etická norma, potřeba, propagace, persvaze*

Abstract

Catching attention, raising emotions and promt to buy are at present some of the highest goals of marketing communication. The new style-creating methods of advertising have brought to the forefront not only by the product itself, but also have highlighted its qualities and have induced new needs in customers. Involvement of associations is one of the most important aspects of the processing of advertising. Market research has shown that it is changing and evolving faster than can ever be imagined. Language gives us countless possibilities to express how to highlight one or the other product's attribute. We have, for example, language play, rhythm, metaphors, personification, phraseological expressions and more. There are many ways of expressing in language, so we will only deal with one of the options by using phraseology - idioms. For any advertisement it is very important that the idiom retains its original meaning, but by adding a product or brand name it creates a new advertising message on the basis of the original familiar text.

Key words: *Marketing communication, idioms, advertising text, emotion, target group, advertisement philosophy, ethical norm, need, promotion, persuation*

1. JAZYK MARKETINGOVÉ KOMUNIKACE A REKLAMY

Zachytit pozornost, vyvolat emoce a iniciovat k nákupu, to jsou v současné době asi jedny z nejvyšších cílů marketingové komunikace. Schopnost efektivně spojit co největší geografické území se stává nejvýznamnější podmínkou dalšího ekonomického rozvoje společnosti, (součástí je i tzv. homogenizace trhu), která je tím důležitější, čím větší území je nutné sjednotit a čím rozsáhlejší jsou mezi nimi sociálně-ekonomické, demografické, a především jazykové rozdíly. Distribuční homogenizace trhu nemohla zůstat oddělená od

změn v hledání a vytváření nových prostředků informační sítě o výrobcích, proto i media, jejichž hlavním úkolem je být nosičem reklamy a podílet se na rozvoji informovanosti, hledala nové formy jazyka, které by byly adekvátní pro tento způsob komunikace. Ty zase významným způsobem ovlivnily potenciální komunikaci mezi výrobci a odběrateli.
Nové stylotvorné postupy reklamní komunikace dostaly do popředí nejen samotný výrobek, ale vyzdvihly jeho kvality a vzbudily u zákazníků nové potřeby. Zvyšování počtu značek srovnatelné kvality na trhu a počtu reklamních komunikátů znamenalo mimo jiné i silnou konkurenci a současné snížení pravděpodobnosti, že daný komunikát zaujme a postoupí za práh neúmyslného zájmu. Komunikát, který obsahuje jen text, už nestačí, kombinace text – obraz má mnohem lepší efekt především v zapamatovatelnosti. Mezi vizuálem a samotným textem vzniká komunikační nit, která je tím pevnější, čím nevšednější je reklamní poselství. Tato reklamní komunikace s velkou variabilitou a diferenciací umožňuje fakticky nekonečné tematické varianty v kombinaci se zobrazovacími technikami a tím se stává jedním z nejvýznamnějších prostředků oslovení širokého segmentu trhu. Je třeba dodat, že tento styl významným způsobem ovlivnil také filozofii tvorby reklamních komunikátů a je považován za velmi významný prostředek marketingové komunikace a podpory prodeje.
Vyvolání asociací je při tvorbě reklamního komunikátu jedním z nejdůležitějších aspektů jeho zpracování. Schopnost empatie je pro tvůrce reklamy velmi důležitý faktor. Výzkumy trhu ukázaly, že se mění a vyvíjí rychleji než si lze vůbec představit. Publikum, které sleduje námi vytvořenou reklamní komunikaci, se velmi rychle diferencuje. Dynamika velkých sociálních a ekonomických proměn, způsobená především mobilitou mezi Evropou a Amerikou, vytvořila požadavky hlubšího poznání, k jakým proměnám vlastně dochází. Už David Ogilvy (1911-1999) vycházel z předpokladu, že je spotřebitel inteligentní a chce informace, aby se mohl správně rozhodnout. Domníval se také, že zadavatel reklamního sloganu musí být sám přesvědčený o tom, že prodává výrobek, který je lepší než ten konkurenční. Jen tak lze dosáhnout úspěchu v reklamní komunikaci, v propagaci a prodeji samotném.
Jazyk nám nabízí nespočetně mnoho možností, jak se vyjádřit, jak zdůraznit tu či onu vlastnost výrobku, vyzdvihnout některou z výhod služeb, které jsou nám nabízeny. K dispozici máme jazykovou hru, slovní kalambúry, rytmus, aliteraci, metafory, personifikaci, frazeologická vyjádření a další.
S dynamickým rozvojem společnosti se stále častěji formulují otázky metodologického přístupu k tématům, která potřebují stanovit určitá kritéria pro způsoby zpracování a ozvláštnění jazyka marketingové komunikace. Ta se stala nedílnou součástí našeho života, a především pak součástí verbálního projevu. Marketingová komunikace má neuvěřitelnou moc, vytváří impulzy k destrukci lidských hodnot, a naopak objevuje podněty i v jiných než mediálních kontextech. Jednotlivé prvky této komunikace mají v sobě zakomponované i stimulační funkce, které jsou součástí jazykové prezentace jednotlivce, jeho hodnotové orientace, praktické verbální komunikace a rétoriky celkově. Z tohoto hlediska je nutné považovat marketingovou komunikaci za nový styl odborné komunikace a všímat si toho, jakým způsobem dokáže využívat jazyk, kterým jedinec komunikuje s vnějším prostředím. Marketingovou komunikaci nelze vidět jen z pohledu komerce, ale je nutné ji pozdvihnout na úroveň kultivované a kulturní prezentace služeb nebo výrobků.
Jak bylo ale uvedeno výše, alternativ v jazyce je nespočet, proto se budeme dále zabývat jen jednou z možností, a to používáním frazeologismů (idiomů) a neofrazeologismů. Frazeologie je osobitá lingvistická disciplína, která si hledá uplatnění nejen ve verbální komunikaci ale i v reklamě. V posledních dvou desetiletích je signifikantní její nástup z důvodů hledání nových řešení, odlišení kvalitativní složky reklamního komunikátu a především pak reklamních klišé.

2. FRAZEOLOGICKÁ VYJÁDŘENÍ V REKLAMNÍ KOMUNIKACI

Hned na začátku musíme zdůraznit, že s výjimkou některých skutečně kreativních řešení při opisech a rozborech současných reklamních sloganů se setkáváme spíše s nepřítomností funkčních tvořivých řešení, jako je prezentace celé škály frazémů, využívající jejich vlastnosti, podstatné znaky a jazykové principy. Kromě principů jazykové úspornosti se uplatňují také principy motivace a synkretismu, funkční separace a analogie. V uvedených koncepcích se na jedné straně výrazně projevuje platnost konkrétního příznaku, ale v každém z těchto přístupů se současně počítá i s dalšími znaky frazémů.

Frazeologismy jsou ustálená slovní spojení, která i přesto, že jsou tvořena z více významově známých spojení slov, tvoří nový a jedinečný významový celek – frazeologický celek. Patří sem mimo jiné pořekadla, přísloví, úsloví ale i frazeologické zvraty, kde slova neztratila svůj původní význam, ale vyskytují se jen v určitých, omezených spojeních. Jak popsuje Čmejrková (2000), frazeologismy se skládají z několika slov, které není možné oddělit, chápeme je jako významový celek, jehož elementy ztratily svůj původní doslovný význam ve prospěch nového přeneseného významu. V běžné komunikaci frazeologismy fixují určité pravdy, ponaučení, lidová moudra a jsou spjaty s pozitivními emocemi. Jejich zvláštním prvkem není jen jejich lexika, ale mimo jiné jejich rytmická kvalita, intelektuální a bohatý obsahový potenciál. Jejich varianty jsou mnohostranné, otevírají široké spektrum možností, evokují nové obrazy, a ty jsou pak základem pro tvořivá východiska reklamních kreativců, např. *obujeme se do toho, šlápneme na plyn, je dobré mít pod čepicí* apod. Téměř vždy se jedná o víceslovná nevětná spojení, která jsou příznačná už tím, že ačkoliv jsou sémanticky uzavřená a ucelená, formálně jsou složená a členěná, přičemž jejich sémantické komponenty jsou takové jazykové jednotky, které jinde fungují jako samostatná slova. Frazeologismy se používají také z důvodů potřebné jazykové úspory v marketingové komunikaci. Frazeologická lexika jsou vždy stylisticky příznaková, frazeologismus lze použít doslovně, pokud jím propagovaná služba či výrobek přímo souvisí s jeho významem. Například *Obujte se do toho..* pokud jde o propagaci obuvi. V opačném případě se frazeologická jednotka z přenesené roviny do textu přetransformuje. Je to například u propagace výrobků z kůže. Frazeologická jednotka „nejsem ve své kůži“ může být využita při propagaci nákupu kožených výrobků: *Zakupte si náš výrobek a budete ve své kůži…*

Frazeologismy svou stavbou a zaměřením obsahují silné emotivní akcenty a jednoznačné postoje, pozitivní i negativní, čímž vznikají emocionální reakce, které v reklamní komunikaci znamenají větší tvořivou otevřenost a interpretační volnost. Pro jakýkoli reklamní komunikát je velmi důležité, že si frazeologismus ponechá svůj původní ustálený význam, ale přidáním názvu výrobku nebo značky dotvoří reklamní text tak, aby na základně původního známého textu mohl vzniknout nový reklamní komunikát. Recipient tak identifikuje původní význam a na základě známého textu se dostane přímo k vloženému poselství v reklamním textu. Reklamní kreativci proto velmi často využívají slovní spojení, která jim pomáhají tvořit osobitý styl textové reklamní tvorby, máme-li na mysli reklamní slogan. Stejně tak se využívají i známé výroky a názvy filmových a literárních děl, například: *S Tetou mě baví svět, Někdo to rád hořké* a jiné.

Již jsme se setkali i s názorem, že využívání frazeologismů je de facto využívání hodnot minulosti. Z těchto hodnot můžeme jmenovat například jejich výrazovost, pevnou vazbu mezi jednotlivými slovními jednotkami, bohatou lexikální základnu, rytmus, úsporu, přímost, srozumitelnost a mnohé další. Existuje mnoho způsobů, jak ustálená slovní spojení – frazeologismy - zakomponovat do reklamního textu nebo jiného marketingového sdělení. Substitučním způsobem lze nahradit určitý frazém za jiné klíčové slovo potřebné v reklamním komunikátu, čímž dochází k významovému obohacení nového vznikajícího výrazu, například: *Ve zdravém těle zdravý vzduch*. V jiném případě můžeme celý frazeologismus dosadit v jeho původní podobě, frazém neprochází změnou struktury, například: *Tohle si někdo vypije!*

Citačním způsobem lze doslovně nebo mírně upraveně citovat původní frazém, který doplníme nebo změníme podle potřeby, přičemž využijeme značku výrobku nebo služby. Vycházíme z toho, že je tento frazém historicky znám nebo je převzat ze známé literární tvorby, například: *S Tetou mě baví svět.* Dalším způsobem může být fragmentační způsob, kdy použijeme jen část frazému, ke kterému se přiřadí značka výrobku nebo jiný verbální prvek. Efekt spočívá v tom, že aktivujeme recipienta sdělením a motivujeme ho, aby zpozorněl, například: *Všude dobře, v COMBI nejlépe.* Parafrázování je další způsob, jak využít frazémů v reklamním komunikátu. Při tomto způsobu dochází často ke změnám, modifikacím nebo úpravám původních frazeologismů. Frazeologický základ ale zůstává zachován, například: *Máme pod Buřinkou, Co kabel spojil, člověk nerozděluj* a jiné.
Protože je ale reklamní komunikace velmi specifická, hlavně v tom smyslu, že je velmi tendenční a podléhá rychle novým trendům, je možné využít a v nemalé míře se tak děje, neofrazeologismů. Jejich použití se v reklamě ale i v marketingové komunikaci celkově rozšířilo zejména z důvodů efektivního oslovení určitých cílových skupin. Platí zde i opačný postup než u klasických frazeologismů. Vlivem použití určitého výrazu v reklamní komunikaci se stává mladý člověk komunikačně přitažlivým partnerem (vše je ízy, kůl, apod.) Neofrazeologismy jsou kreativní a jejich využití v reklamě je pro konstrukci reklamního sloganu produktivní. Vždy je ale nutné mít na mysli, komu je daný komunikát adresován a co jím chceme říci, protože jinak se jejich zacílení mine účinkem. Pokud si nejsme jistí, zda recipient disponuje potenciálem rozumět těmto novým výrazům, volíme raději takové frazeologické celky, ve kterých jsou jednotlivé složky propojeny volněji a které neztrácejí svůj původní, srozumitelný lexikální význam, například: *hrát všemi barvami, nalít si čistého vína, mít sladké řeči,* apod.
Pokud při tvorbě reklamního či jiného marketingového komunikátu s použitím frazeologizmu uplatňujeme zároveň i kritérium sémantické, návrat k původnímu významu je pro nás prostředkem vrstvení významů, ne všechna ale mohou být pro recipienta dešifrovatelná, takže v konečném důsledku nám tento způsob nemusí přinést produktivní řešení.
Jinak je to v případě, kdy máme před sebou cílovou skupinu, pro kterou je významový pohyb, způsobený pulsováním akcentů mezi doslovností a obrazností, zdrojem osobitého recepčního tlaku a pochopitelně i posunem ke kreativním řešením. V tom případě lze použít i morfologické a syntaktické prvky, aniž by se oslabila jejich vazba na původní ustálený význam.
Podobným způsobem vedle frazeologismů samotných fungují v reklamě i frazeologická spojení, jsou to například sousloví, ve kterých se jeden frazém nachází na pozici původního lexikálního a druhý člen na pozici frazeologicky vázaného, jako například *jablko sváru, bublina splaskla, máslo na hlavě,* apod. Ustálenost, tvarová konzistentnost a jednoduchost jsou jedny z velkých výhod těchto spojení. Nevýhodou je problém výběru z hlediska určení konkrétní cílové skupiny.
Tyto pevně spojené páry slov, slovní dvojice, charakteristické svým jednoduchým duplicitním propojením, v textu vystupují jako samostatné jednotky. Nesčetněkrát si jsou i zvukově blízké, jako například *svatosvatě slíbit, zčista jasna, skrz naskrz* a další. Někdy se ale setkáváme s názorem, že jsou tato spojení archaická a mladá generace lidí je vůbec nepoužívá. Reklamní textová tvorba je však dynamická a dokáže si i s tímto fenoménem poradit. Archaičnost lze rozbít i tím, že se ze sousloví použije jen jeden frazém a druhý se nahradí slovem vystihující název výrobku, značky apod. Jako příklad poslouží *Co na srdci, to na hrnečku, Kdo šetří má na úvěr, Hrajeme s ověřenými informacemi* a další.
Omezujícím momentem použití frazeologismů v reklamní komunikaci je jejich určitá vazba na znalost různých kontextů a v neposlední řadě jejich lexikální osobitost, což způsobuje komunikační těžkosti při přenosu do jiného kulturního prostředí dokonce i v rámci regionu (v

jednotlivých regionech se vyskytují velmi výrazné odlišnosti měnící smysl a význam toho či onoho slovního spojení).
Frazeologismy můžeme uplatnit i na základě jejich funkce, respektive podle různé funkčnosti uplatnění. Máme na mysli třeba frazeologismy cizího původu. Většinou jsou ze skupiny textů starověké řecké a římské literatury, ale i z jiných zdrojů. Jejich transformační možnosti spočívají v pevném kulturním zakotvení, všeobecném povědomí a v jejich snadné identifikovatelnosti. Mimo jiné jsou velmi dobře použitelné i citáty historických osobností, protože jsou všeobecně známé a používané. Na rozdíl od klasických frazeologismů jsou variabilně použitelné a zpracovatelné, například: *Kostky jsou vrženy* (Koskenkorva). Svět literatury, umění, filozofie a kultury poskytuje široké možnosti pro přenos do reklamního komunikátu. Jsou to texty, které v sobě nesou prvky humoru, nadsázky a někdy až absurdity, například: *Mít či nemít – vlastní auto na splátky, Ostře sledované noviny*….a jiné. Právě jinakost kultury může přispět k zajímavému pojetí komunikátu. Ta do reklamy vstupuje v mírně modifikované formě a tvoří tak pro reklamu ojedinělé pozadí. Jejich význam spočívá ale i v tom, že si v průběhu času udržují svou kreativní, intelektuální a emocionální působivost, postihují jevy v jejich hloubce, a to vše s vtipem, nadhledem, a přitom se vyznačují úsporností výrazu. Toto všechno jsou atributy, které jsou pro reklamní komunikaci absolutně využitelné. Jsou upravené, všeobecně přístupné, nejsou chráněné autorskými právy – jsou jednoduše připravené pro reklamní či jiné marketingové využití. Používání tohoto kulturního bohatství naší nebo i cizí kultury má ale ještě další pozitivum, které nesmíme opomíjet. Je jím i zpětný přenos z reklamní komunikace do hovorové vrstvy jazyka, kterou využívá většina populace k běžnému dorozumívání. Některé z nich dosahují v určité době mimořádnou popularitu a fungují jako jazykové ikony, například značka Botas využila frazeologismu *Obujte se do toho!*
Z jazykového hlediska se také může využívat sentence (gnóm, tj. stručný výraz), jedná se většinou o přísloví, pořekadla a pranostiky. Je to druh výpovědi, který je osobitou skupinou frazeologismů obsahujících určitou životní pravdu, moudrost, která je vyjádřená pomocí metafory obrazně. S nadsázkou můžeme říci, že se jedná o lexikální arzenál lidové zkušenosti, která se tradovala ústním podáním a má též rozměr imperativu. Je apelem na „selský rozum“, upozorněním na možné důsledky při nedodržování určitých etických norem. Je to útvar živý a expresivní. Příznačné pro něj je používání originálních lexikálních celků a osobité obraznosti. Vzdálený svět abstrakcí se zde přetváří na svět blízký a intimní. Jejich hluboký etický rozměr z nich vytváří komunikačně účinný prostředek. Svou syntaktickou strukturou, rytmem, všeobecnou srozumitelností, přesným pojmenováním jevu, a přitom často vtipným odlehčením představuje rétorickou figuru, která má všechny základní charakteristiky reklamního sloganu. Proto je marketingová komunikace využívá a přetváří do živých reklamních komunikátů. Obvykle se klíčové slovo v první nebo druhé části sentence nahrazuje názvem výrobku nebo slovem, které je fixované jako identický znak značky nebo jména výrobce, například *Všude dobře, doma BOSCH, Komu se nelení, tomu se červení – Nescafé*, aj.. Síla této výpovědi spočívá v přičlenění hodnoty, která tvoří její významové jádro a vypoví o značce nebo výrobku. Žádaný efekt se dostaví v případě, když se značka nebo výrobek samotný dostane do povědomí. Současně ale musí mít značka nebo výrobek určitou souvislost, významovou vazbu s pointou přísloví, pořekadla či jiné pranostiky, protože například u přísloví jejich pestrá a neměnná forma a významovost automaticky navozují určité představy. Neměnná forma, kterou jsme zmínili, má ale své výhody i nevýhody. Výhodou je to, že výměna klíčového slova za značku nebo výrobek je lehko identifikovatelná. Nevýhodou může být jistá strnulost, která může působit v určitém kontextu násilně. U pořekadel je výhodou jejich variabilita a tím i možnost přizpůsobit ustálený výraz reklamnímu sloganu, záměnou čísla, rodu, slovesa aj..

Kromě jednoduchého včleňování bez významné transformace a úprav základního tvaru máme i jiné postupy. Liší se mírou nahrazení původní struktury a jsou často tak přepracovaná, že pouze naráží na původní kontext a dají se identifikovat jen analýzou jejich rytmických a intonačních kvalit, například: *Kde se žije, tam je Mattoni.* Sentence se zde použije bez jakékoli jazykové mutace a transformační efekt se dostaví ve vizuálním kontextu. Dochází k sémantickému posunu. Z významu doslovného se stává význam přenesený.
Jak jsme již uvedli, dochází k přejímání komunikátů i z cizích jazyků, k jejich překládání či parafrázování. Otázkou je, jak lze zachovat frazeologická vyjádření, která překladem ztrácí svou významovou hodnotu. Většinou je nutné hledat významově podobnou nebo stejnou frazeologickou jednotku v mateřském jazyce. K tomu nám slouží různé způsoby, jak s frazeologismy v komunikátu pracovat. Můžeme například ponechat frazém tak, jak je, např. *To si někdo vypije*… pro propagaci nápojů. Použít lze také určitý fragment frazému, např. *Máte to na dosah ruky*… čerpací stanice, nebo parafráze *Léto k nakousnutí*… pro propagaci programové televizní nabídky.
Právě novost a neotřelost používání frazeologismů přináší do komunikace atypické vnímání hodnot komunikátu zaměřeného například na marketing. Důležité je si uvědomit, že odlišnost komunikátu je důležitým prvkem pro zapamatovatelnost a potřebnou persvazi této komunikace.

3. ZÁVĚREM

Závěrem můžeme říci, že kreativita při tvorbě ať už marketingového sdělení nebo jakéhokoli reklamního komunikátu nemá jasně dané hranice. Odlišení se od konkurence, být něčím nový a zajímavý, oddálení se od norem, to všechno dělá komunikát jedinečným a v daném čase a prostředí výjimečným. Reklamní text nebo slogan je komunikačním prostředkem ve vztahu k veřejnosti, a tak k němu musíme také přistupovat. Velmi často reklama spouští komunikační proces, asociace, schopnosti řetězení vjemů, rozkrývání významů a další. Pokud se tedy zamyslíme nad tím, jakou roli hraje komunikace v marketingové strategii, protože úkolem reklamy je prodat výrobek nebo službu, je jasné, že její role je nepostradatelná a v dnešní době je součástí našich životů. Reklamní kreativec netvoří proto, že má vnitřní potřebu se k něčemu vyjádřit, tvoří na objednávku, ale využívá pro svou práci všechny dostupné styly a jazykové možnosti. Musí mít určitý cit pro nabízený výrobek, jinak bude nabízet domácí spotřebiče a jinak kosmetiku.
Inovace v reklamních komunikátech si vyžadují také nové technologie a dynamické změny ve společnosti. Tlak na inovace v rámci jednoho výrobku nebo jedné služby vyplývá také z potřeby hledat novou identitu a image značky. Intenzita reklamy, její všudypřítomnost v médiích zvyšuje i potřebu její obměny. Díky tomuto trendu je nutné reklamní komunikaci stále vylepšovat a upravovat. I to, co je právě nové, bude patřit zanedlouho minulosti.

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ANALYSIS OF SLOVAK ARAB BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

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Abstract

Nowadays Islamic Arab states are becoming more and more popular for European tourists, so we can see more travel agencies offering trips to Arab countries. During our research, we were curious about, how travel agencies handle the negotiation process with Arab travel agencies, whether there are any special preparations for negotiating before the negotiation process itself. As it turned out from our research the Arab negotiating partner is a higgler but has a friendly character and also religion oriented. In parallel, we also surveyed the marketing activities of individual offices, which are highly price-oriented. Among the elements of 4Ps, the price category is the one, that is relevant to the sale of individual trips to Arab countries.

Key words: *Islam, Religion, Marketing, Negotiation, Travel*

Introduction

In Islam, there is a very close relationship between morality and faith, as well as faith and business or marketing. In Islam the basis of all is the faith and religion. During our study we were curious about how the Arab negotiation partners and travel agencies demonstrate, how different or similar the negotiation process is compared to the non-Islamic negotiating partners. Above all, in order to understand the behavioral norms of the Islamic negotiator, we have to start from the religion. According to one view, the religion is composed of three basic elements. The first is Aqidah, what means belief in Allah and includes the understanding of all forms of loyalty. The second is the Shari'a, which Muslims have to practice in their lives. The third component, Akhlaq is related to rearing, behaviour and work ethics. Habits and actions are divided into two parts to Ibadat and Muamalat.

Ibadat deals with Goddad practice in the relationship between man and God. While Muamalat is related to everyday activities with people interacting with each other. We assign everyday activities, social actions and economic activities to people's actions (Hassan, Lewis 2007). From this, we can see that religion and belief play a great part in the lives of Islamic consumers, as well as in the lives of Islamic businessmen and negotiating partners. That should be treated as a basic pillar in negotiation. Another major issue of our study is the examination of marketing 4P elements for travel agencies. Selling and pricing have paramount importance in the operation and success of travel agencies. During the survey, ten Slovak travel agents were asked about they relation to the Arab negotiating partners and were asked about their marketing activities, too.

1. TRAVEL AGENCIES AND TURISM

With globalization tourism is also being globalized, people are free to travel anywhere in the world. The tourism is the fastest growing industry in the world, sooner or later it will have preceeded oil revenues. The average tourism grows faster than other sectors of the economy (Az utazás, online).

1.1 Motivation of tourism

1. Destination-related
    a. change
    b. relaxation
    c. local special motivational factors (bazaar, beach, Arab culture, pyramids)

2. Not related to destination
   a. profession or business tourism
   b. education
   c. spa tourism
   d. religious tourism
   e. visiting relatives

3. Other
   a. knowing other cultures
   b. a kind of natural attraction
   c. motivational people (what are the people like in other countries?)
   d. dating

There are people who do not belong to any of the above mentioned categories, only the price is important for them (Az utazás, online).

1.2 The types of travel businesses

There are two types of travel businesses: a tour operator and a reseller. The tour operator, product builder / developer finds out the products. Usually does not sell but promotes it (sales promotion). The reseller can be: a travel bureau and a travel agent - the technical literature makes a distinction between them but this is not so typical. They sell the products that the tour operator assembled.

Their main activity is the sale of travel packages, but they can also offer guides, maps, backpacks and other accessories related to tourism (Az utazás, online).

The main aim of this study is to search for resellers' negotiation and marketing methods. During our research, we visited 10 travel agencies in Slovakia with whom we made interviews.

First of all, we were curious about how the European travel agencies handle the Islamic negotiating partners, how the negotiations are taking place, and whether in the preparatory stage they are focusing on the factors of Islamic culture and religion.

2. THE PROCESS OF NEGOTIATION

Any communication between two or more participants is called a negotiation aimed at persuading, influencing, arguing a claim or refuting a partner's affirmation, defending one's own opinion, creating an agreement on a particular subject. During the negotiation, one party usually generates suggestions and wishes, which usually the other party will evaluate, consider and then respond, counteract or make concessions. Within the successful negotiation between the parties an agreement will be made reasonable for each party.

As the main aim of negotiation is to persuade someone, to validate our own viewpoint, therefore it is important what kind of techniques or methods we use to reach our goal.

Negotiation can be considered as a complex task that requires a whole range of capabilities. These skills can be developed by most people with the ability to practice and attentiveness (A tárgyalás folyamata, online).

During our research, we started out from the four-dimensional model of Geert Hofstede, which is characterized by the basic pillars of Arabic culture, and which principles should be followed by the negotiating partner in the process of negotiation.

The international models of the dimensions of national culture started from the basic premise, that a country's national culture has an impact on business and individuals in this country and thus helps to explain their way of thinking (Najm 2015).

One of the best-known international models is the Hofstede model. The Hofstede model differentiates cultures according to four dimensions: power distance, individualism or collectivism, masculinity or femininity and avoidance of insecurity.

1. Small and large power distance
2. Individualism and collectivism
3. Masculinity and femininity
4. Weak and strong avoidance of uncertainty (Hofstede, 1980)

2.1 High power distance

The Arab society is characterized by large power distance. Here people feel well in just a well-defined hierarchy. Children are taught obedience, the teacher is the spiritual leader in school. In the workplace, the subordinate acts on the boss's instructions only, the leader generally does not ask the opinion of subordinates, alone or with the help of other leaders takes a decision (Hofstede, online).

Despite the fact, that the leader independently makes decisions without the influence of others, they never say yes or no, the decision is delayed for a long time, contracts are not respected, they are always late (Jammal 2005).

This statement is supported by the travel agencies surveyed also, but negotiations with the Arabs were characterized by lengthy and tedious, negotiating partners are considered to be prepared, tough but bargaining, who make decisions very slowly. From negotiation until agreement, it may take up to years, as the Arab negotiation partner building trust is the most important role.

2.2 Collectivism

In the case of Arab countries, we are talking about a culture with collectivist traits, but the point of individualism is quite high. The majority of people live in a culture that holds the group's interests ahead of individual interests. This is called collectivism. In general, collectivist culture is characterized by the large family, where several generations live together. Children therefore learn very soon what is called "us" thinking. In this cultural environment, the maintenance of harmony and the avoidance of open debates are highly characteristic. It is still typical for Arab businesses, that informal structures (institutions) - family and tribal organizations, fulfill the role of modern economic and political institutions. This means that a given business is family-oriented, children learn over time and then take over the place of their parents in the given businesses (Jammal 2005). This homely welcome is typical for the negotiation processes as well. Interviewed travel agencies fully confirmed that the negotation takes place on the second day after the arrival. Warm welcome and acceptance of trust is the primary goal of all Arab negotiators. The aforementioned facts generally apply to Arab negotiators, while in Saudi Arabia hierarchical family and kin relations are still decisive, in Lebanon and Dubai are more widespread in modern Western business, although the traditional clan spirit is still. (Alhassan 2005). Family and tribe are the basic of social structure. The people in Saudi Arabia take their responsibilities for the family seriously. They have a big family. This can also be said in general terms for Dubai partners, however, they do not enter the business world with such a degree of kinship fibers, and the social stratification is not so strict in Dubai as in Saudi Arabia, because Dubai has a strong Western orientation, for example women get a greater role in business, while in Saudi Arabia they are completely excluded from negotiations, because men are in the negotiation room. (Szaúd-Arábia, online).

2.3 Masculinity

The emphasis is on material prosperity which the men has to produce in the traditional cast. Consequently the men should be definite and hard, they cannot even show their emotions. In this culture they accept the following view for work: we live for work". The Society supports the strong (Hofstede, online). Women do not have rights as men in Saudi Arabia. If we focus on business, women do not play any role in this, because men have to pay attention for material goods, so women do not play a particular role. They can work, but this is usually done in women's environments such as schools, universities or certain government departments. The Saudi women do not work predominantly. Men have more rights than women. For example, women are not allowed to drive. They depend on the decisions of male family members (Szaúd-Arábia, online). Our research did not cover the role of women in the negotiations.

2.4 Strong insecurity society

Unavoidable insecurity in life is seen as a permanent threat. Consequently, the familiar risks are better accepted, but they are afraid of the unknown. It is the principle, that what is different is dangerous, so the development and acceptance of new ideas is a rather slow process. There are very clear laws, what is right or what is wrong. It is necessary to set up rules, even if they can not be applied in any situation (Hofstede, online).

The Arab negotiating partners are quite unrecognizable, they avoid the clear and definite resolution, the effects of family traditions and businessmen's behavior are mixed in them. The influence of religious institutions is often stronger than the modern corporations, which further reduces trust in the negotiating partner. As we have already mentioned, religion in the Arab countries is the most important thing. Everything is controlled by faith.

The Arab business world is also based on this, so the companies are welcoming their guests friendly, but their primary relationship is to build a trust so a negotiation is a long process. The travel agencies organize 'so-called' information trips to the respective Arab countries, where they are trying out the services offered by the Arab travel agencies, after that will only be place for a negotiation which can take up to several days, while they agree on the terms of price. The final word has always the Arab travel office, because it offers the services, so when it comes to compromise it decides whether it entries into this business or not. The primary offer is made by the Arab office, the representatives of domestic offices are coming prepared to the country, they respect the local cultural norms. During the negotiation process, they are patiently waiting for the decision of the Arab partner, the cooperation is generally positive, although it is extremely lengthy. The Arab negotiators are very hard and bargaining, however according to all travel agencies, they are extremly friendly, building on trust, if they got to know the particular travel agency, certain friendship, trust is evolved towards them, then the long-term cooperation is typical, although this is true for both sides.

3. ISLAMIC MARKETING MIX

One of the most important peculiarities of Islamic marketing is its relation to its Muslim consumers: we can state, that the ambitious Islamic marketing is an ideology, according to which the professionalism cannot be judged by the products and services only. *„the Islam claims, that individuals both in their professional life and private life must practice, what they preach.“* (Wilson, 2014).

This powerful religious effect on marketing as well as on the commercial lives of Muslim markets and companies is approachable in more points. For example, regarding the grocery products it is important to know whether they categorize it according to *halal*, i.e. to

availability for the religious orders, therefore the merchants, services wishing to approach the Muslim consumers must add special remarkability to reach a qualification (Salam, 2017).

3.1 Differences and similarities between the Islamic and traditional marketing mix

Up to now the existence of Islamic marketing is an issue that is being discussed by researchers, experts and other scholars, especially in non-Muslim countries. Many of them use the argument that Islamic marketing is important in contemporary commercial activities, but the conception of 7P in marketing should be built up with the Islamic principles (Hashim & Hamzah, 2013).

According to the latter suggestion, hereunder the Islamic marketing and the traditional marketing are compared on the basis of 4P aspects:

1. Pragmatism and product

The aim of the products is providing the clients essential benefits and services with high values (Lovelock, 2011). This conception of product and pragmatism mean coordination with the Islam teachings, therefore there is no significant difference here.

2. Pertinence and promotion

The logic of integrating the availability and promotion is that the conception stresses the spread of suitable information for the clients. At the same time the clients are being taught about the practical benefit of a purchase of the products or services and their advantages. This conception is simultanuos with the teaching of Islam, according to which the products must communicate within the ethical limits, as the Islam forbids the practice of exaggerating promises in order to avoid the clients´ disappointment (Trim, 2008; Arham, 2010).

3. Palliation and price

In case of the third P the relationship between the palliation and the price may be reasonable, as palliation presents the minimalization of difficulties between marketing managers and clients (Wilson, 2012). Palliation is a form of this case: to assure discounts badget reduction arrangements to the clients in order to release the load of purchase when it is being effected by economy and inflation of expenses. Therefore, the integration of these phrases is also in coordination with the teachings of Islam, accordig to which prophet Mohamed sells his products, on the basis of selling volume and determining a price which can be acceptable by the market (Trim, 2008).

4. Patience and place

Last but not least, the fourth P, which involves patience and the conception of unity, assures, that the marketing managers must express an honest and ethic behaviour at spreading their products and services (Hashim & Hamzah, 2013). For a company to achieve an advantage in competition in a certain industrial branch, they must understand the needs and demands of clients. Marketing may support the company in its work, respectively in surviving in this complex, changing and stormy environment. Essentially, the main aim of marketing is to maintain the satisfaction of clients, and together with it to make a profit for the company.

Regarding the Muslim consumers, it is essential to mention, that they prefer the purchase of Islamic products and services. Therefore, the companies aiming at Muslim consumers must be able to differenciate their marketing strategies, which include products originated from traditional marketing as well. The differenciation must be described in a clear way. (Shamsudin & Rahman, 2014).

3.2 Traditional marketing mix

The marketing mix is the summary of tools, which are being used by an organization to reach marketing goals on a defined market. Hereunder the structure of the 7P marketing mix and the introduction of each aspect´s function are presented. (Marketing mix, online).

1. Product and Product Policy („*product*")

To make a definiton from a marketing view the product means everything that satisfies the demands and needs of the consumers. It may be divided to two essential types: there are touchable objects and abstract objects (for example services or information). (Marketing, online).

In the case of the ***introduction of a new service***, the travel agencies decide as follows:
Usually due to unsatisfied demand, they will decide to offer a new destination, which had not included their services so far. Of course they also strive for higher profits and greater market share. *Their target is* to gain greater advantage over the competitors, with sufficient resources.

2. Pricing and pricing policy („price")

Under price – not surprisingly – we understand the amount, that a consumer must pay for the product. It also has psychological relations, - thinking of the fact, the price of how many products end with number 9, indicating a lower price – respectively, the price is an important feature of a certain brand and prestige of the product. (Marketing, online).
It is important to note that Arab travel agencies are largely ***price-leaders****.*

Price dictators are enterprises, which form and determine the prices against all external influences. Their size and barganing position make possible for them to determine the prices for their competitors. (Józsa 2014).
By determining prices, the enterprises want to influence their own income level, for basic purpose in order to achieve profits.

Pricing of new service:

In this case, they apply the feed price. The price at the moment of starting is very low in the interest of, so that the product can be used to try, but after the product's liking the price rises. Its use is common in all cases where the consumer can get used to the product, and will stick to the product later on, too. For example, drugs. (Veres, Szilágyi).
So the new pricing strategy of trips is shaped like this: They advertised the trips with relatively low prices. They constantly monitor how consumers react to. They are testing and begin the intensive advertising. If the feedback is positive, consumers like these services, the next year they will raise prices. So, these destinations will be sold at much higher prices.

Pricing of an existing product / service:

Typically, they prefer to keep the pricing level. They apply the skimming price strategy, only in case if there is no competitor on the market. So, they are trying to exploit the current supply shortage, the services are sold at the highest possible price (Veres, Szilágyi).
The determination of prices is to always provide better prices than the competitors, taking fluctuations in demand into account.

3. Sale and Place of the Product ("place")

It is the part of marketing mix that deals with the access to products and services. Practically, it considers in what way the companies are able to satisfy the consumers´ demands comfortably and practically (Marketing, online)**.**

Sales channel policy means all of the marketing decisions and efforts made which support the delivery of products to consumers or users, so to provide customers with the convenience of obtaining the product and provide the company with the maximum profit. The ultimate goal of the sales channel is to generate earnings and sell products (Szilágyi, Veres).
Travel agencies are classified as direct sales channels by intermediaries - the producer sells the goods directly to the consumer. This means that hotels sell their rooms to travel agencies, and travel agencies sell them further to the consumer.

4. Advertising and Promotion Policy ("promotion")
It is a sphere responsible for marketing communication. It involves advertising, PR activity, direct marketing and valorizing promotions as well. (Marketing, online)**.**
The purpose of marketing communication is to introduce a product, brand or company, raising the consumer's attention, and maintaining the interest through communication (Szilágyi, Veres).
The travel agencies usually use TV and billboard advertising tools. Facebook is the most popular community channel. These media tools are used intensively before and during the season. After the season they advertise on their websites.

4. CONCLUSION
In conclusion, the negotiation with Arab partners is based on the proper knowledge of faith and culture. Most of the travel agencies place great emphasis, when negotiating with Arab countries, come prepared to negotiate, moreover they respect the negotiating partner's culture and ideas as well. It is clear that the basis for Arab negotiations is the establishment of the right confidence. The negotiating partner must gain the confidence of the business partner to succeed in doing business. To do this, the Arab negotiator provides appropriate conditions as he relies confidently and cordially, leaving a satisfying time for the cognitive process. Basically, their behaviour is friendly, which can be traced back to their collectivist, family-oriented attitude.
In addition to this, all interviewed travel agencies, thought, that although the Arab business partners are proved to be hard negotiators, have a bargaining character and ability to compromise. Although in all cases the final word belongs to them. With a European eye, the negotiation process is long, but it can not be said to be ineffective. According to the marketing strategy of travel agencies, their product policy is certainly consumer-oriented, which means that if the consumer is interested in a new product, in this case country or travelling, the office brings new products to market to meet the customer needs, which offers a lower price for the first time and increases the sales rate of the product. Among the 4P elements the price category is the one that is decisive for all travel agencies, because in case of travel agencies there is a high level of competitors on the market, which they can influence mostly by price manipulation. The promotion and distribution channel does not play a particular role, the place of advertising fields and selling occurs in a usual way, thus, on social media sites, web sites or print media. Of course, the offices are paying close attention to this, since non-verbal communication with consumers is of particular importance for selling and selling new products. To summarize, the negotiation strategies of the travel agencies have supported the previous research, the Arab partners are being payed particular attention, with the focus on other nations and religions, acceptance and understanding of cultures for successful cooperation.

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MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS APPLICATION TO THE COMPANY MANAGEMENT

Anna Jacková

Abstract

Management of the company in a market economy environment that is characterized by difficult predictable and surprising changes in the environment is extremely challenging. Company competitiveness is dependent on the quality of management that tells if management is able to form effective development strategies to ensure the long-term prosperity of the company. Its role is also to prove effective use of the decisive factors of the company's development. The quality of management is firstly and foremost understood the professional performance of managerial functions.

Key words: *sequential managerial functions, continuous managerial functions.*

1. INTRODUCTION

"The process of management is a complex process of resources obtaining, managing their transformation, managing internal processes, managing relationships with the external environment, creating conditions for organizational development, influencing and coordinating people's activities to achieve organizational goals, it is simply the process of implementing managerial functions. In the quest for a certain systematization, the most frequently used notions in literature are the sequential and continuous functions" [6].

2. SEQUENTIAL MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS

Sequential managerial functions are based on traditional views of management process and represent typical tasks that managers handle in their managerial activity. Their basis is a prerequisite that the achievement of the company objectives can best be ensured by the mutual compliance of the following managerial functions:

- planning,
- decision making,
- organizing,
- staffing,
- leading of people,
- control.

2.1 Planning

Planning is one of the most important managerial functions. It is considered the synonymous with excellent management. It sets out what goals need to be achieved and, in particular, through which resources and ways (strategies) it will be most beneficial. The planning function reduces chaos, uncertainty, improves relationships, and optimizes resource use in the company.

Planning consists of the following three activities:

- objectives setting,
- establishing the means to achieve them,
- identification of ways to achieve them.

"It is important to formulate objectives to do the excellent planning in the management. Formulation of objectives must meet the necessary basic conditions - according to SMART model objectives should be:

- specific,

- measurable,
- agreed,
- realistic,
- trackable.

The specificity of objective definition means that the objectives must have a precisely defined content, i.e. a particular orientation towards an activity or cause must be clear. Objective measurability means that they must be quantifiable so that they can be evaluated using some appropriate methods. If the objectives of a company were only general, non-measurable and non-quantifiable, it would be difficult to control and evaluate their performance or the degree of their fulfillment or non-fulfillment. Acceptable objectives are respected, acceptable and workable with. Realistic goals also mean conditions that can actually be achieved. Term objectives are time bounded, i.e. they have a clearly defined time point to which the objective is to be achieved. From this point of view, these can be objectives of three known basic horizons (long, medium and short term), but also different periods "(Hittmár, 2006, p. 82).

2.2 Decision making

Decision-making can be defined as the sequence of activities by which the manager identifies and analyzes the problem as a subject of the solution, determines the possible way of solving it, and chooses the best way to solve the problem.

"Basic features of decision making:

- exists a choice, which means that the one who decides has the obligation to create several solutions
- the choice of solution is conscious, i.e. is based on the thought process; instinctive act or unintentional, impulsive action cannot be considered as a decision,
- the choice is purposeful, i.e. aims to meet one or more objectives,
- the choice of solution is based on certain criteria, which also means the choice of resources and procedures to achieve the objective,
- after the decision is made follows implementation, i.e. the decision raises a chain of follow-up activities aimed at achieving the chosen solution and leads to the desired results " (Hittmár, 2006, p. 215).

2.3 Organizing

Organizing, as one of the functions of management, is to ensure the conversion of plans to an activity that is aimed at determining how employees have to perform the work and creating a relatively stable organizational structure. It represents the implementation of relationships that make it possible to carry out planned tasks in the sense of the set objectives.

Organizing in management creates:

- organization,
- hierarchical relations,
- stability,
- synergistic effects.

Organizing creates an organization, replaces chaos (disorder) by order, disunity with purpose, and uncertainty with certainty. The organizing creates hierarchical relationships, distinguishing superior and subordinate levels of management. It also creates a stabilizing effect and stabilizes the company. It brings an element of equilibrium, strength and inertia to the company, both in positive and negative terms. In addition, the organizing creates the conditions for synergistic effects resulting from the assumption that the whole is more than the sum of the individual parts.

„The content focus and basic logic of the organizational process express the OSCAR system. Specifies the requirements that organizational process needs to ensure:

- objective,
- specialization,
- coordination,
- authority,
- responsibility.

OSCAR requirements are also organizational categories with the following meaning:

- organizing in management is a objective-oriented activity for fulfilling certain intentions and tasks - it is therefore necessary to know and orient all the activities of the organization in order to achieve the stated objectives,
- the basic and most important element of organizing is a person - he / she is specialized in many different ways and therefore the organizational role is to find his / her optimal activity in the given object,
- this specialization requires a greater degree of co-ordination; - when organizing it is exercised by delegating this activity to the persons who provide it with the issuing of orders for retrofitting of individual partial activities to the whole,
- the right to make decisions and to give orders for the execution of these decisions without the need to obtain the consent is an expression of the authority division - often called competence or, scope,
- the power to organize must always be in accordance with the responsibility for the decisions thus executed - there is a strictly defined relationship between the competence granted and the respective responsibility“ (Hittmár, 2006, p. 106).

Through organizing, resources are defined, set and provided for activities and people's relationships in meeting certain objectives, tasks and goals. Instead of organizing, the term organization is also used many times:

- in a meaningful sense - organization as an object,
- in the meaning of attribute - organization as attribute of object,
- in the meaning of structure - organization as a form,
- in active meaning - organization as an activity.

Organization in the meaning of structure is the basic starting point for company management, where the organizational structure forms the basis - a framework for the management process, and therefore must be understood as a constantly changing value that is constantly moving. The following factors are important for identifying the organizational structure of a company:

- the nature of the company's macro-environment,
- type of company strategy,
- the technology used by the company,
- the characteristics of human resources in the company.

2.4 Staffing

Personnel provisioning for management and managed processes is very closely linked to organizational structures and ensures the fulfillment of defined tasks of people in the envisaged structures. The manager acts as a leader and selects his staff. He also decides on their appointment, motivates them, organizes them and evaluates their results.

Staffing issues consist of activities that include:

- personnel planning,
- work analysis and specification requirements on worker,
- search (recruitment),
- selection of workers, their hiring and adaptation.

Extending these activities is the issue of staff development, which creates the conditions for workers to acquire new knowledge, skills and abilities, because only in this way a new quality of human potential can be acquired in the company.

2.5 Leading of people

Leading of people primarily concerns the relationship of superiors and subordinates and cooperation of employees in achieving the objectives of the company. It is recommended that the leader be energetic, willing to take the initiative, honest and truehearted, have self-confidence and verbal and numerical abilities, and be able to lead and influence others.
Leading of people can be done through approaches such as:

- a personal example (his / her characteristics, his / her performance, his / her conduct),
- indirect action (motivation, favorable company climate, stimulation
- direct guidance (regulations, directives, orders, tasks).

2.6 Control

Control includes a variety of activities that help managers find out if the results are consistent with the expected results.
"The basic control tasks in the management include:

- to determine the real state of the development of the controlled object
- to compare the actual state with the development that the plan has set,
- to identify any deviations from the plan as well as the causes of the deviations,
- propose measures to eliminate deviations and their causes,
- draw conclusions for further decision making and thus influence the whole management“ (Hittmár, 2006, p. 162).

With the progressive development of science and technology, the position of the owners and the function of managers is also separated. Company management is entrusted to professional managers. The capabilities of creative and strategic thinking, effective communication, collaboration, and ability to take responsibility for their decisions are considered to be the most important skills and qualification requirements for managers.

3. CONTINOUS MANGERIAL FUNCTIONS

Continuous managerial functions express the continuity and dynamism of management. According to this approach it is a permanent continuous process of analytical activity (monitoring and evaluation of internal and external conditions, assessment of impacts on the effective fulfillment of tasks or problem solving), decision making (the process of designing and choosing the solution of the problem) and implementation activities (gradual implementation, implementation of the approved decision into the activities of the individual components of the organization, its practical implementation).
Critics of these approaches emphasize that the work of managers can not be broken down into successive functions, and that managers' work better reflects the content of their roles. These approaches represent management as a process of implementing clearly defined roles or tasks. Basic management roles are considered:

- the decision making role,
- information role,
- interpersonal role.

3.1 The decision-making role

The decision making role is that the manager decides on:

- objectives,
- the roles and procedures for achieving them,

- resources and their reallocation,
- continuance of the transformation process.

The manager also solves the problems, prepares measures to limit risk factors and eliminate crises, and is a negotiator according to the nature of the problem.

The decision-making group is one of the most important activities of each manager. This group includes the following roles:

- manager as an entrepreneur,
- manager as dispute solver,
- manager as resource allocator,
- manager as negotiator.

The role of the manager as an entrepreneur lies mainly in deciding on the acquisition and use of business opportunities. It is associated with making the changes that are necessary in every company for the sake of its long-term functioning in a changing external environment. This means that each manager should work to respond to changes and, in the case of their complexity and difficulty, a new project is needed to design.

The role of the manager as a dispute solver is to solve the problems that normally arise in the company. The manager usually has no direct responsibility for their origin and method of solution. The basis may be the resolution of problems arising in connection with the new law, strike, bankruptcy, etc.

Part of the job of a manager as a resource allocator is to decide on how resources are distributed to the company. The lack and importance of individual resources, whether financial, human, technological, etc., underlines the importance of this decision-making role of the manager. Therefore, this activity deals with all managerial functions. Resource allocation issues vary according to company level. At the top level of management, where strategic business issues are addressed, resource allocation depends on its long-term orientation. At the middle management level, problems with a shorter time span are solved, it can be a problem of construction or reconstruction of a production facility, and so on. Allocation of resources is also important at the operational level of management, in solving technical problems of production.

There is a whole range of conflicts in each company and their causes are very diverse. The role of the manager as a negotiator is to resolve these conflicts, as otherwise the conflict will deepen and compromise the achievement of the company's objectives. The manager should act on behalf of the company and negotiate with other companies or can perform this role inside the company as a representative of a department and negotiate with other departments. In an effort to resolve conflicts, the manager meets, discusses and negotiates with all the parties in order to reach a mutual agreement. Therefore, negotiation is an integral part of the work of each manager [7].

3.2 Information role

Information role is fulfilled by manager by receiving and collecting information, determining their direction, providing them where they are needed and appropriate, towards the individual elements of the company as well as outside of the company. He is the speaker of the relevant part of the company, where he is responsible for the execution of the tasks.

Effective managerial work requires quality information to make decisions. Therefore, it is necessary to ensure the flow of information in the company. The manager's information role group expresses the information aspect of the managerial work. These roles include:

- manager as observer,
- manager as informant,
- manager as speaker.

As an observer, the manager searches, collects and stores information. He must constantly monitor the internal as well as the external environment of the company in order to identify changes, to reveal the problems and opportunities. He uses both oral, written and visual sources of information. This information must be evaluated and decided on which information, when and how it can best be used in decision-making.
The manager as an informant acts as an information disseminator. His role is to provide subordinates with information that they are unable to obtain otherwise. It is an integral part of managerial work that involves the exchange of information between the manager and his / her subordinates, superiors, as well as other managers at the same level of management. The manager provides information even if they do not have a quick and easy contact with each other.
The speaker manager focuses on the exchange of information between the company and the external environment, and as an official representative of a company, provides information and standpoints for the mass media, customers, superiors, etc. [7].

3.3 Interpersonal role

The manager's interpersonal role follows directly from the formal competence delegated to him. The manager is the immediate leader of his associates, who he leads and guides, is a coordinator and a link in the cooperation with the internal (superiors, subordinates) of the organization as well as representatives of external entities (customers, suppliers, representatives of cooperating companies, state bodies, etc.) . The nature of interpersonal roles varies according to the mission that the manager performs. The group of interpersonal roles therefore includes those that represent work with people. They are:

- manager as representative,
- manager as leader,
- manager as coordinator.

The manager as a representative is the official representative of the company in two areas. The first are the activities that require his participation for legislative and legal reasons. An example might be signing an official contract with another company. The second area of activity does not require the manager's participation for the preceding reason, but is conditioned, for example, by a social protocol.
The manager as a leader is responsible for guiding and coordinating the activities of the subordinate workers in order to achieve the company objectives. This managerial role includes many areas of staffing, such as staff selection, deployment, and remuneration. Role of leadership lies in communicating and motivating workers. It is a very important role.
The role of the manager as a coordinator includes the manager's activities in relation to the external environment, which is to customers, suppliers, government institutions, etc. These are contacts outside of the vertical chain of commands to their subordinates. Concisely, the manager as a coordinator is to establish a network of contacts with external institutions that can directly or indirectly influence the successful operation of the company [7].

4. CONCLUSION

Current trends in management theory are marked by a reassessment of the importance of previous approaches to management functions and tasks. To individual classical features is given new, less rigorous content, are understand more dynamically, more flexible than the various aspects of a complexly understood management process. Besides the sequential (traditional) managerial functions, more functions and activities are increasingly emphasized, the importance of which reflects changes in the economic and social environment, eg:

- motivation and inspiration of employees, coordination of their efforts,
- application of effective leadership style, delegation of competencies,

- promoting, creating an atmosphere of trust,
- Effective conflict resolution, negotiation with internal and external partners,
- effective internal communication and the creation of a positive communication atmosphere (for employees to meet the expectations and objectives of their managers and company, they must be aware of these expectations and objectives, they must know them, they need to understand them),
- permanent improvement of individuals, work teams and the whole company [6].

Differently achieved company results are mainly the result of their management and the work of their managers. The management system of each company is to provide a number of activities performed to achieve the stated objective. This whole system must be properly organized, arranged and controlled and therefore requires managerial activities, also called managerial functions.

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POSITION OF THE INDUSTRY 4.0 CONCEPT IN SELECTED COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

Patrik Richnák, Klaudia Porubanová

Abstract

Currently, the Fourth Industrial Revolution and Industry 4.0 are very discussed topics. The phenomenon of Industry 4.0 is the Fourth Industrial Revolution that brings industry evolution. Industry 4.0 allows the use of modern technologies, such as autonomous robots, additive production, cloud and so on which creates new models and opportunities but also pressure on the flexibility of modern industrial production. The main aim of the article is to describe Industry 4.0 and then analyze its application in selected countries in the world. From the countries where we chose the Netherlands, France and China. We take the view that Industry 4.0 will be a trend for the next period in every industry in all countries of the world.

Keywords: *Industry 4.0, The Fourth Industrial Revolution, digitization*

1 INTRODUCTION

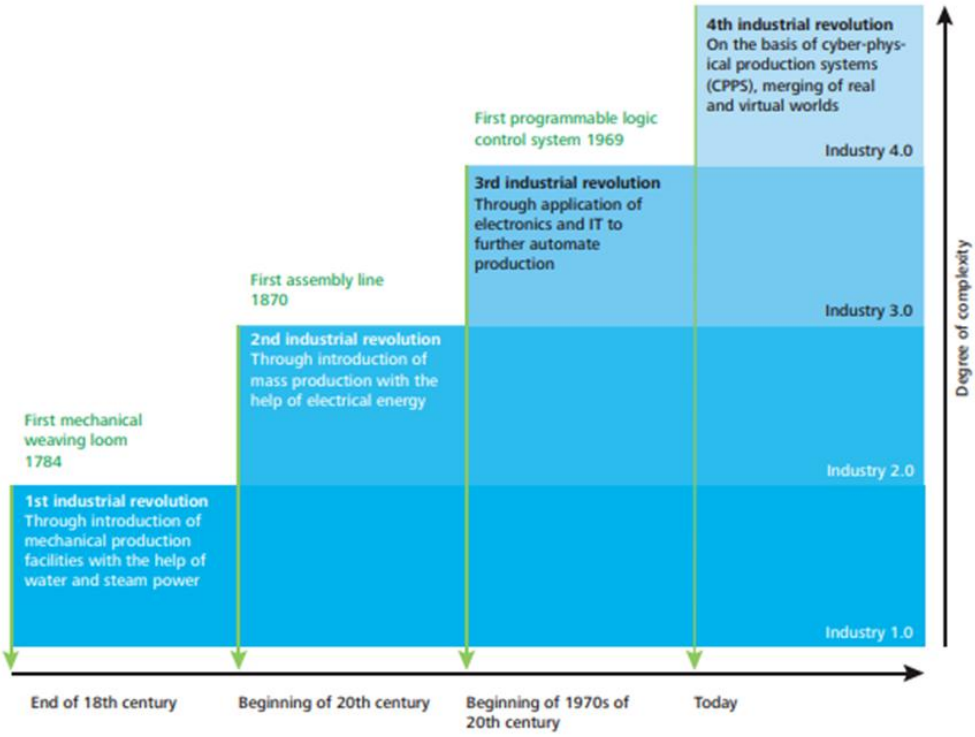
We live in a period of technical progress, the development of modern technologies and the digital transformation of the industry. The Industry 4.0 phenomenon is the Fourth Industrial Revolution, preceded by three industrial revolutions. Among the most key factors that Industry 4.0 includes is support for the industrial and economic development of the country. Industry 4.0 includes plans and recommendations for the responsible and sustainable development of industry and the whole economy of the country. The development of industry and economy is achievable by innovation and the use of the latest technological trends. For this reason, companies need to be more aware of the prevailing changes, with a rigorous competitive environment. The aim of the article is to describe the Fourth Industrial Revolution, which is characterized by automation, digitization and standardization.

2 THE DEVELOPMENT AND DEFINITION OF INDUSTRY 4.0

Since the beginning of this century we have seen digital transformation - changes associated with innovations in digital technology in all aspects of society and the economy. Experts say that what we have seen so far is one tenth of what is ahead of us. This trend also influences the way the goods are produced and the way the services are offered (Berger, 2017).

The development of smart technology has brought with it increased demand for industrial production. At present, we are witnessing the Fourth Industrial Revolution, based on cyber-physical production systems, merging of real and virtual worlds. The Third Industrial Revolution is characteristic through application of electronics and IT to further automate production. The Second Industrial Revolution began in the early 20th century. The characteristic feature of the industrial revolution is through introduction of mass production with the help of electrical energy. The First Industrial Revolution began at the end of the 18th century. The characteristic feature of the industrial revolution is through introduction of mechanical production facilities with the help of water and steam power. The development of industrial revolutions is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The development of industrial revolutions



Source: Deloitte: Industry 4.0 Challenges and solutions for the digital transformation and use of exponential technologies. 2015. [online]. [accessed 05. 06. 2018]. Available at the URL: <https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/ch/Documents/manufacturing/ch-en-manufacturing-industry-4-0-24102014.pdf>.

McDougall (2014) says Industry 4.0 refers to the Fourth Industrial Revolution. The final vision was created in the final report of the development team as a tool to secure the future of the German industry.
Jurová (2016) says Industry 4.0 is based on cyber-physical systems being promoted to all areas of life. Industry 4.0's Fourth Industrial Revolution is different from the automation of manufacturing systems, with Industry 4.0 being the Internet of Things.
Industry 4.0 according to Schröder (2016), technological changes in industrial production and, at the same time, prepares the priorities of a coherent policy framework with a view to ensuring the international competitiveness of industry.
The PricewaterhouseCoopers (2016), consulting company defines Industry 4.0 as follows: Industry 4.0 focuses on the end-to-end digitization of all physical assets and integration into digital ecosystems with value chain partners. Generating, analyzing and communicating data seamlessly underpins the gains promised by Industry 4.0, which networks a wide range of modern technologies to create value.
According to Kagermann & Anderl & Gausemeier & Schuh (2016) Industry 4.0 represents the Fourth Industrial Revolution, a new level of organization and management of the entire value chain across the product life cycle. This cycle focuses on increasing individualized customer wishes and includes everything from initial idea, order acceptance through development and production, delivery of product to end-customer, recycling of product and all related services. The basis is the availability of all relevant information in real time, due to the interconnection of all instances involved in value creation, and the ability to derive the optimal flow of added value creation based on these data.

The new concept of Industry 4.0 allows industrial manufacturers to build flexible manufacturing operations in the future, which will be eligible to produce even small batches of products that are configured to customer requirements, that is, in a variety of modifications in a very short production and delivery time (Egger, 2015).
The main characteristics of the Industry 4.0 include (Deloitte, 2015):

- Vertical networking of smart production systems – this vertical networking uses cyber-physical production systems to enable plants to react rapidly to changes in demand or stock level and to faults. Smart factories organise themselves and enable production that is customer-specific and individualised. This requires data to be extensively integrated.
- Horizontal integration via a new generation of global value chain networks – these new value-creation networks are real-time optimised networks that enable integrated transparency, offer a important level of flexibility to respond more rapidly to problems and faults and facilitate better global optimisation.
- Through-engineering across the entire value chain – data and information are also available at all stages of a product´s life cycle, enabling new, more flexible processes to be defined from data via modelling to prototypes and the product stage.
- Acceleration through exponential technologies – artificial intelligence, advanced robotics and sensor technology have the potential to increase autonomy further still and to speed up individualisation and flexibilization.

Roland Berger (2014), a consulting company, has evaluated the manufacturing industry in the European Union and has developed a country plan for Industry 4.0. European countries divided into four main groups:

- The Frontrunners are characterized by a large industrial base and very modern business conditions and technologies. There are countries like Sweden, Austria, Germany and Switzerland. Ireland is a specific case because large pharmaceutical companies generate high GDP compared to other businesses. Ireland also has a large IT service sector.
- The Traditionalists are mainly in Eastern Europe. They are still pushing to grow on their stable industrial base, but few have so far put forward an initiative to turn the industry into a new era. We include the countries of the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovenia and Lithuania.
- The Hesitators are the countries of southern and eastern Europe where there is a lack of a reliable industrial base. Many face serious fiscal problems. These include Italy, Spain, Poland, Portugal, Estonia, Croatia and Latvia.
- The Potentialists are an interesting grouping. Their industrial base has been weakened in recent years, but they have the know-how and the thinking that allows them to quickly implement Industry 4.0. This includes Norway, Great Britain, France, Denmark, Netherlands, Belgium.

3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The main aim of the article is to describe Industry 4.0 and then analyze its application in selected countries in the world. The aim of the article is to describe the fourth industrial revolution, which is characterized by automation, digitization and standardization. The sub-objectives of the article include:

- studying the industrial revolutions,
- studying the concept of Industry 4.0,
- studying the concept of Smart Industry,
- studying the concept of Industrie du Futur,
- studying the concept of Made in China 2025.

We used classical methods of analysis, synthesis, comparisons, induction and deduction to process information and knowledge in article of Industry 4.0 concepts in selected countries of the world.

4 THE INDUSTRY 4.0 CONCEPT IN THE WORLD

Industry 4.0 concepts are being developed around the world. Other countries are beginning to be interested in Industry 4.0 and are building concepts in that country. On the territory of Europe, it has been in recent years established several initiatives that address the Fourth Industrial Revolution. In March 2017, the European Platform for National Initiatives was launched, to bring together national initiatives, to support and to some extent to coordinate these initiatives at European level to play a key role in the digitization of industry. In addition to European countries, other economic powers such as USA, China or Japan have their own initiatives. In the article, we describe Industry 4.0 concepts in selected countries in the Netherlands, France and China.

4.1 Netherlands - Smart Industry

At the end of 2013, a team of experts in the Netherlands created a new action plan - Smart Industry. Smart Industry is based on a strong Dutch Industry that grows and creates ever more new jobs with better conditions. Industry digitization offers the Dutch business environment great opportunities to remain competitive in the global environment.
The team of experts proposed the following three principles, which must be kept new action plan - Smart Industry (Smart Industry, 2018):

- Capitalising on existing knowledge - there is a lot of potential that is not being used with respect to existing and emerging technologies. A large group of companies are aware of the opportunities that appear on the global market but lack the tools for effective work. Even a large group still has no overview of the digital revolution that surrounds them.
- Accelerating in Field Labs - the central ambition of the agenda is to create interconnected networks of ecosystems of companies and scientific institutions around the basic principles. They must zero defect manufacturing, equally important it is the development of flexible production chain collaboration and the development of key technologies such as 3D printing and robotics. Scientific developments in the Netherlands developed a large pace. Companies and scientific institutions to develop, test and implement targeted solutions for Smart Industry.
- Strengthening the foundation - to sustain the development towards smart industry is required under the new action plan - Smart Industry to strengthen the foundations in three areas: knowledge, skills and parameters (ICT).
    - Knowledge - There is a need to constantly improve knowledge in various areas, such as robotics. Great progress to be made in relatively new areas, such as processing substantial amounts of data, complex systems and interactions between machine and man.
    - Skills - companies are forced to deal with market developments and introduce modern elements into their organization. If they want to differentiate themselves from competition on the global market, they cannot stay in the knowledge that has proven themselves in the past. For this reason, it is important to focus and invest in staff at all levels and provide them with the opportunity of adequate digitization training. It is also important to link the cooperation between the business and the education sector

- Parameters (ICT) - for intelligent industry, it is important to create the right conditions for information and communication technologies. It is therefore crucial to connect machines and businesses, particularly via the Internet, through data exchange and quality cybernetics.

4.2 France - Industrie du Futur

Using Industry 4.0, sector is entering its the Fourth Industrial Revolution, characterized by interconnection of the internet and factory, connection and communication of resources and data analysis. For every connection in the production and supply chain, tools and workstations are constantly communicating via the Internet and virtual networks. Machines, systems and products exchange information with the outside world. By optimizing the production tool, manufacturers hope to produce faster, cheaper and more environmentally friendly.

To meet the challenges of Industrie du Futur and to develop activities with high added value, a company must adapt its organization and focus on creativity, quality and responsiveness.

Industrie du Futur is based on five pillars (Industrie du Futur, 2015):

- Developing a technology offer for Industrie du Futur - will support structured business projects in markets where France can gain European and even global leadership in the next 3 to 5 years: production of additives such as 3D printers, related objects, expanded reality.
- Accompanying companies towards Industrie du Futur - personalized support: Diagnostics will be provided by small and medium-sized companies and industrial ETI regions with Alliance for Industrie du Futur. Financial support: The Prime Minister has announced two exceptional measures to support companies that will invest in modernizing their production capacities:
    - € 2.5 billion of tax breaks for companies investing in their productive tool over the next twelve months and € 2.1 billion of additional development loans distributed by Bpifrance to small and medium-sized companies and medium-capitalization companies over the next two years.
- Employee training - enhancing the skills of industrial employees and training future generations on new professions is the first condition for the success of the industry of the future. It is associated with the increased presence of robotics in the factory, which is essential for the competitiveness of factories in many industries and ultimately for job creation in France.
- Strengthening European and International co-operation - the aim of Industrie du Futur is to create strategic partnerships at European and International level, especially with Germany. Project scope and management of Industrie de Futur was designed to co-operate naturally with the German Industry 4.0 platform. This cooperation will be included in joint projects, pilot projects or technological development that will be presented as part of the European Investment Plan.
- Promoting of Industrie du Futur - to mobilize all industry players and get acquainted with French know-how, several promotional events are committed:
    - launching at least 15 showcase projects of Industrie du Futur, with national or even European visibility, by the end of 2016;
    - creation with the support of Business France of a common banner of Industry of the Future to gather all the industrial companies behind this ambition.

4.3 China – Made in China 2025

Made in China 2025 is an initiative to comprehensively upgrade Chinese industry. The initiative draws direct inspiration from Germany's Industry 4.0 plan, which was first discussed in 2011 and later adopted in 2013. The heart of the Industry 4.0 idea is intelligent manufacturing, applying the tools of information technology to production. In the German context, this primarily means using the Internet of Things to connect small and medium-sized companies more efficiently in global production and innovation networks so that they could not only more efficiently engage in mass production but just as easily and efficiently customize products.

The Made in China 2025 Strategic Plan was developed by the Chinese Ministry of Industry and Information Technology (MIIT) in cooperation with several government authorities. Made in China 2025 has clear principles, goals, tools and industry focus (Kennedy, 2015). Its guiding principles are to have manufacturing be innovation-driven, emphasize quality over quantity, achieve green development, optimize the structure of Chinese industry, and nurture human talent. The goal is to comprehensively upgrade Chinese industry, making it more efficient and integrated so that it can occupy the highest parts of global production chains. The plan identifies the goal of raising domestic content of core components and materials to 40 % by 2020 and 70 % by 2025. Although there is a significant role for the state in providing an overall framework, utilizing financial and fiscal tools, and supporting the creation of manufacturing innovation centers (15 by 2020 and 40 by 2025), the plan also calls for relying on market institutions, strengthening intellectual property rights protection for small and medium-sized companies and the more effective use of intellectual property (IP) in business strategy, and allowing firms to self-declare their own technology standards and help them better participate in international standards setting.

Similar plans for the development of the industry and other sectors of the economy have existed already in the past but Made in China 2025 is the most ambitious and most comprehensive plan with the highest amount of resources yet. Investments in the highly upgraded industry bring a high added value that China plans to implement in the following ten priority sectors: new modern information technologies, automated machine tools and robotics, aerospace equipment, sea equipment and shipping of top technology, modern rail transport equipment, economical vehicles, electrical equipment, agricultural machinery, mining and production of new materials and biopharma and advanced medicines.

5 CONCLUSION

Companies from Industry 4.0 have been staying skeptical not only in our country, but globally around the world. The first innovators and nowadays the largest leaders in this area are Germany and Japan. In the short term, other companies understood the importance and especially the need to adopt and implement this concept as it is important for the development of industry.

In the article, we have created a comprehensive view of the Industry 4.0 concept based on literary research and have brought it closer to selected countries in the world. From the countries where we chose the Netherlands, France and China. We take the view that Industry 4.0 will be a trend for the next period in every industry in all countries of the world. Very positive Industry 4.0 are not only ecological solutions. Production will focus on reducing emissions, using renewable resources and minimizing the impact of businesses on the environment. This is done using modern technologies that are part of Industry 4.0. Industry 4.0 has the negation that the human labor force will be replaced by robots. We think that man will not be completely removed from the production process but will be shifted to a new type of work that will require work in a smart business associated with digital technology control and robotics. Whether Industry 4.0 will bring more benefits than the drawbacks is a matter of

time, that is, the advantages overcome the threats that result from the implementation of Industry 4.0.

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SELF-PRESENTATION OF GENERATION Z THROUGH PHOTOS ON SOCIAL NETWORKS

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Abstract

This paper deals with the self-presentation of Generation Z as a demographic segment through the photos posted on social networks. It presents partial findings from a wider research, which is focused on the examination of virtual attractiveness in digital environment. We used an on-line questionnaire as a research method. The research sample consisted of the respondents from the "Generation Z" demographic segment in Slovakia. The research results show us which social networks are used most frequently by the Generation Z respondents and how the respondents present themselves through the photos posted on social networks.

Keywords: *self-presentation, Generation Z, photos, social networks, Facebook*

1. Self-presentation on social networks

Self-presentation plays a very important role in human life. Self-presentation is the behavior through which we are trying to provide information about, or image of, ourselves to other people. These motives behind self-presentation entail the partly stable dispositions of individuals, but they also depend on situational factors that trigger them. The specific motives behind self-presentation are contingent upon the evaluations of other people. Self-presentation includes the behavior thanks to which we create the necessary impression on other people, i.e. our viewership (Baumeister - Hutton, 1987). Self-presentation is part of a wider set of behaviors, which is termed "impression management control" (Cunningham, 2013). Many theories of self-presentation emerged before the advent of the Internet or its use in the extent it is used today. Nevertheless, these theories are very effective because people present themselves constantly, however, using new tools (Zarghooni, 2007). There are many reasons for the people to present themselves in an online environment. Some claim that the online environment gives them more freedom for self-presentation than the off-line environment, but others say that the freedom of self-presentation is not considered to be appropriate in all types of online interaction. For example, in the case of online dating, it is not appropriate to use manipulative self-presentation with the aim to present ourselves in a better light because it can backfire in the offline interaction with the respective person (Attril, 2015).

1.2 Self-presentation in the user profiles on social networks

Social networks are broadly understood as pages or applications with the possibility to create user profiles, which are made available to other people to see, for example, friends or colleagues. User profiles contain various personal information, photos, videos and other files (Kaplan - Haenlein, 2010, Fita, 2012). A social network is an Internet service that allows its users to create a public, private or corporate profile, presentation or forum, and provides space to share photos, videos and content and do other activities (Kožíšek - Písecký, 2016, Huňady). Millions of people around the world use social networks such as Facebook or Friendster to communicate, browse the shop profiles, other people's profiles and, last but not least, present themselves. Multiple authors (Polakevičová, 2015, Světlík, 2016, Halachová, Rovenská, 2017) claim that social networks are mainly intended for interaction. Thanks to them, the users further develop the friendships with their friends or build relations with new people (Siibak, 2009). Facebook is the biggest social network at the moment, however, according to the survey by *eMarketer*, an American analytical company, it is no longer as attractive as

before especially for young people. Its user base primarily comprises older people. Social networks, such as Instagram or Snapchat (Sulleyman, 2018), are more attractive for the young generation. Social networks allow the users to create their own profile, which is often closely linked with the off-line identity of the user. This link may be made explicit, i.e. unambiguous, by setting up a profile under the real name, posting own photos and other data, by which the user can be identified, but it can also be indirect, i.e. on the basis of specific information relating to the interests, hobbies, or visible circle of friends. The user profile on the social network is built on the activity performed through the profile. The user himself/herself decides about its form and has control over it to a large extent (Ševčíková et al., 2014). The the social network profile provides space for controlled self-presentation. It is a process by which an individual seeks to control the impression he/she makes on others (Siibak, 2009). Despite the fact that self-presentation on social networks is fairly realistic, the users tend to slightly "improve their image". The users mostly share positive information about themselves because their aim is to give the viewers the best possible impression of themselves. Social networks are increasingly integrated into our social, professional and personal life and self-presentation through them is often regarded as entertaining (Lincényi – Tamene, 2013, Nagyová et al. 2014, Zelinský, 2014, Koprda, Košková, 2015). The difference between our real and online identity not only affects the way we are perceived by our surroundings, but also our perception of ourselves. Often, there is a pressure on us to somehow turn into the idealized digital versions of ourselves or our friends. Self-presentation on social networks also has an impact on how we see ourselves, which mainly applies to younger users who have grown up using the social networks, connect with their peers and create their own identity on pages such as Instagram, Twitter or Facebook. These pages are visited by the highest percentage of users aged 30 and younger (Northwestern, CTD, 2016).

1.3 Profile photos on social networks

The so-called "profile photos" published in the social network profiles are a specific type of photos. These photos present us to other users of the social network. We could make a claim that one of its functions is to identify the person. However, it should be noted that some users of social networks, seeking partial anonymity or originality, use an avatar, i.e. a graphic symbol representing a photo. From the psychological point of view, there is a presumption that the formal and content characteristics of the individual profile photos reflect the different personality characteristics of its respective users. The photos published on social networks are often targeted self-presentation, with the individual expecting some sort of reflection or feedback from other people (Jurásová - Špajdel, 2015). Adolescents (and also celebrities) are strongly focusing on self-expression and how they are perceived by others (Bulanda et al., 2017) – taking and publishing selfies has become a social phenomenon for this very reason. A selfie is a photo taken by the person himself/herself using a smartphone, and is frequently, but not always, shared on social networks. A selfie is the newest form of a self-portrait or a photo that needs to be defined separately from classical photographic portraits. The first difference is that the classical self-portrait emerged as art, which is to be exhibited in a gallery and read and interpreted through standard research means. By contrast, a selfie is a picture created only as a supplement, or part, of a conversation, presentation, social interaction, and it is most often used only in an electronic form, and published on social networks. A selfie often reflects the current state of the social network user and his/her social status. After appropriate processing or conceptual interpretation, a selfie could of course become an exhibit in the category of modern art with all the attributes of works of art (Stephan, 2015). Selfies have become a very frequent and standard way of self-expression on social networks. Selfies reflect the social shift in the way people socialize through modern technology. The reasons why people take selfies are many: they want to know what they look like, they want to receive

appraisal from others and, last but not least, they want to be seen (Eler, 2017). Thus, we come to the question of why selfies “work”. There are many studies that confirm the fact that we pay much more attention to faces than anything else. For example, when browsing somebody's profile on the social network, the profile photo is the first photo we see (Seiter, 2017).

2. Research methodology

The primary aim of our research was to find out how Generation Z presents itself through the photos on social networks. Based on this aim, we have formulated the following research questions (hereinafter RQ):

RQ 1: What social networks are used by the Generation Z research sample?
RQ 2: Which of the social networks is used most by the Generation Z research sample?
RQ 3: What identification data are used by the Generation Z research sample in their social network profiles?
RQ 4: What information is viewed first by the Generation Z research sample when browsing other people’s profiles on social networks?
RQ 5: What photos are published by the Generation Z research sample most frequently in their social network profiles?
RQ 6: What photos would never be published by the Generation Z research sample on social networks?
RQ 7: Do the social networks provide enough space for self-presentation to the Generation Z research sample?

When collecting the data, we used the questioning method and distributed an on-line questionnaire. The on-line questionnaire method was selected because our research sample consisted of young people who spend a lot of time on the Internet. The advantage of using an on-line questionnaire is fast data collection from the respondents within a relatively short period of time. The on-line questionnaire was anonymous, and therefore we expected more honest answers to the individual questions. We have chosen descriptive statistics to process the data from the on-line questionnaire. The research sample consisted of the respondents from the Generation Z demographic segment. Despite the fact that this generation has no exact age limits, we sided with the definition by Madden (2017), which states that Generation Z includes the people born in 1995 to 2009. The members of this demographic segment are technologically savvy, they grew up with modern digital technology and can hardly imagine living without it. Therefore, they are often labeled as the "digital natives". We focused on late adolescence, which is again not exactly defined, but we used Macek's (2003) definition, which defines late adolescence within the range of 17 to 22 years of age (and more in certain cases). A total of 145 respondents participated in our research, of which 48 were men (33.1%) and 97 were women (66.9%), and they all came from the territory of Slovakia.

2.1 Research results

The first area of concern was to find out which social networks are used by Generation Z. The questionnaire offered the respondents a number of social networks to choose from. We have found that 97.9% (N=142) of the total number of respondents created their profiles on Facebook, 71% (N=103) on Instagram, and 49.7% (N= 72) on YouTube. A smaller number of respondents also had their profiles on Google+: 34.5 % (N=50), Pinterest: 21.4% (N=31), Snapchat: 17.9% (N=26) and Twitter: 9.7% (N=14). As can be seen in the below chart (Figure 1), the lowest ranks were held by the following social networks: Pokec, Vine, Reddit, LinkedIn and Tumbr.

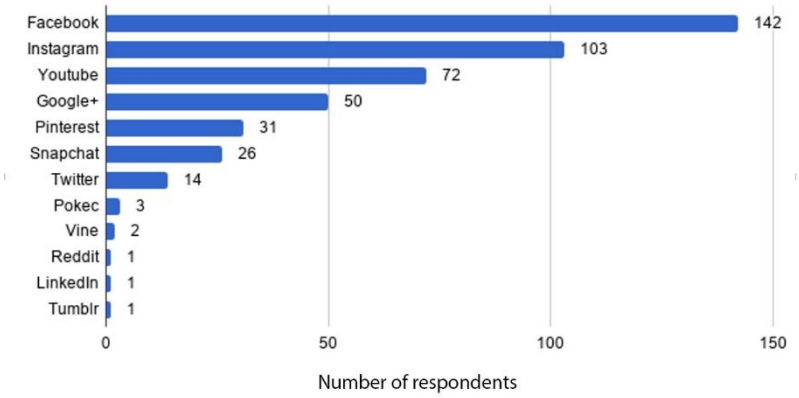

Chart 1: *Respondents' profiles on social networks*

The most often used social network is Facebook, as stated by 65.5% (N= 95) of the respondents, followed by Instagram with 19.3% (N=28) and YouTube with 10.3% (N=15). Chart 2 shows that social networks such as Snapchat, Google+, Pinterest, Twitter and Tumblr are only used by a negligible number of respondents, and Vine and MySpace are not used at all. These findings make us conclude that despite the fact that the young Slovak representatives of Generation Z make profiles on more social networks, they most frequently use Facebook, Instagram and Youtube.

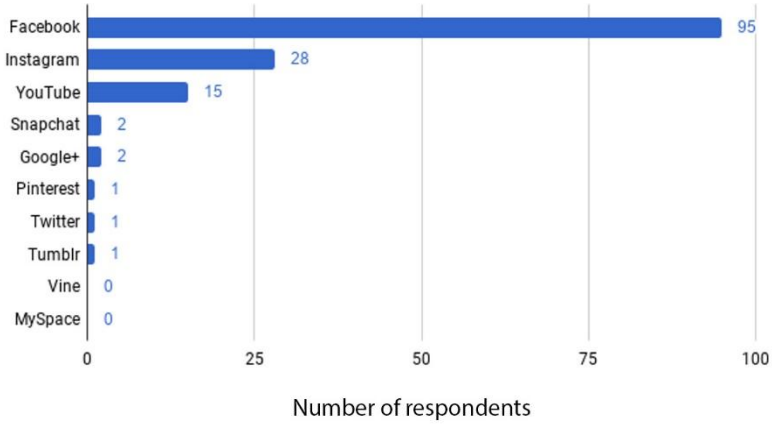

Chart 2: *Most frequently used social networks*

The next question dealt with the identification data used by the respondents in their social network profiles. 95.2% (N=138) of the respondents have their own name, or a modified version of their name, posted in the profile, 86.2% (N=125) of the respondents use a profile photo, 67.6% (N=98) stated their date of birth, 66.9 % (N=97) posted their city, 60.7% (N=88) published information about their education and 53.8% (N=78) disclosed their age. A smaller percentage of the respondents also included other data in their profiles, such as e-mail address, family relationships, nickname and employment. Only a few respondents published their phone number and address of residence (see Chart 3).

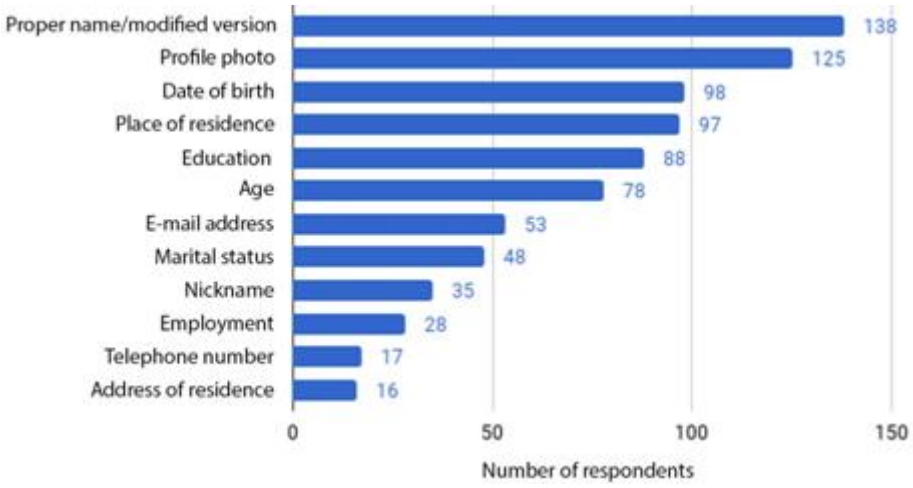

Chart 3: *Identification data in the social network profile*

With the identification data used by the users on the social networks, we wanted to identify which information the respondents notice first when browsing other people's profiles. The results indicate that the respondents first look at the profile photo, as stated by 63.4% (N=92) of the respondents, 27.6% (N=40) of the respondents noted that they first look at the first name, and 2.8% (N=4) of the respondents said that they look at the inner circle of friends and followers and age. The identification data such as the city the person comes from were only mentioned by 2.1% (N=3) of the respondents and information on relationships and marital status by 0.7% (N=1) of the respondents. Similarly, only 0.7% (N=1) of the respondents used the "Other" option to provide their own answer: *"I do not browse other people's profiles unintentionally."* (See Chart 4).

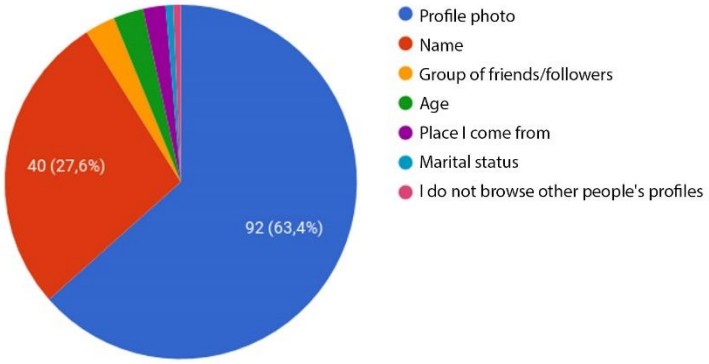

Chart 4: *Use of identification data when browsing the profiles*

We asked the Generation Z research sample what kind of photos they publish on social networks most. The respondents could use a maximum of 3 options from the preset answers. We have found that the most frequently published photos were those with family and friends, with 54.5% (N=79) of the respondents. The second most frequent option were the places visited with 43.3% (N=63) of the answers. 37.2% (N=54) published selfies, 17.9% (N=26) published pets and 13.8% (N=20) published their current activity. The "food photos" option was selected only by 4.1% (N=6) of the respondents. Despite the fact that a large number of young people from Generation Z do publish photos on social networks, we also noted the answer: *"I do not publish photos from my private life"*. This response was selected by 11.7% (N=17) of the respondents (see Chart 5).

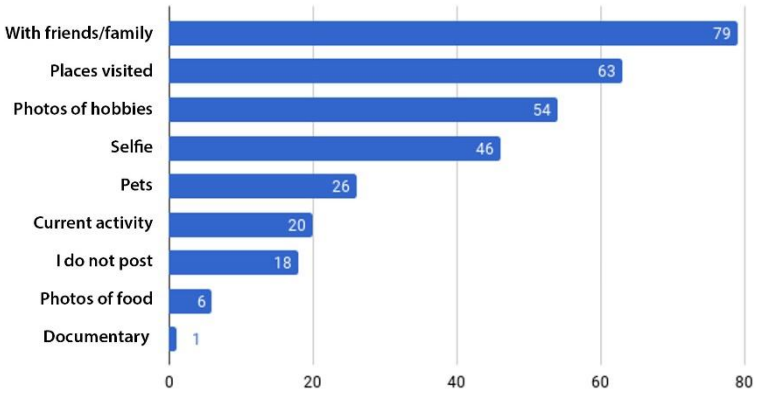

Chart 5: *Most common type of photos published on social networks*

The next question inquired about what photos the people from our research sample would never publish on the social network. This question was an open question and the respondents had the opportunity to express their opinion. To provide clearer answers, we divided the answers into the individual categories according to content (see Chart 6). The respondents most frequently stated that they would never publish photos showing them naked, photos of sexual or pornographic nature, and photos showing their privates. The respondents also indicated that they would never publish a photo overly disclosing their private lives, a self-defamatory or derogatory photo, a photo denigrating another person, or a photo in a swimsuit or underwear. Some respondents indicated that they would never post a photo showing their children.

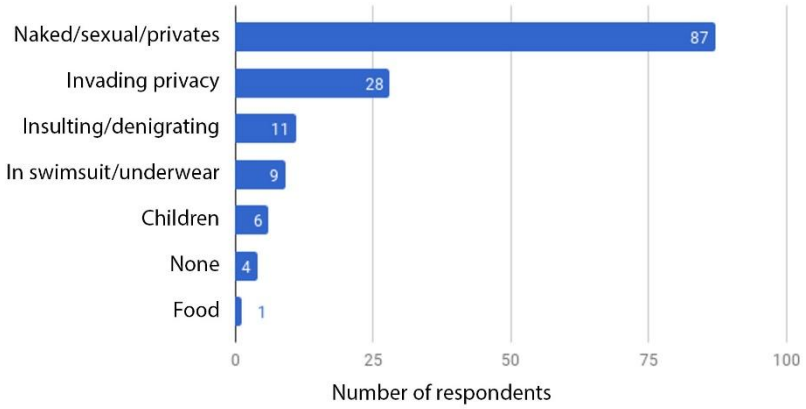

Chart 6: *Photos the respondents would never publish in their social network profiles*

Chart 7 presents the findings on the extent to which the respondents agree or disagree with the given statement, indicating an answer on the five-item linear scale. We wanted to know whether the social networks offer the respondents enough space for self-presentation. It results that 35.9% (N=52) of the respondents *do not hold a dedicated view of the matter*, 28.3% (N=41) of the respondents *rather agree*, 15.2% (N=22) of the respondents *fully agree*, 14.5% (N=21) of the respondents *rather disagree* and only 6.1 % (N=9) of the respondents said that they *entirely disagree* with the statement (Chart 7).

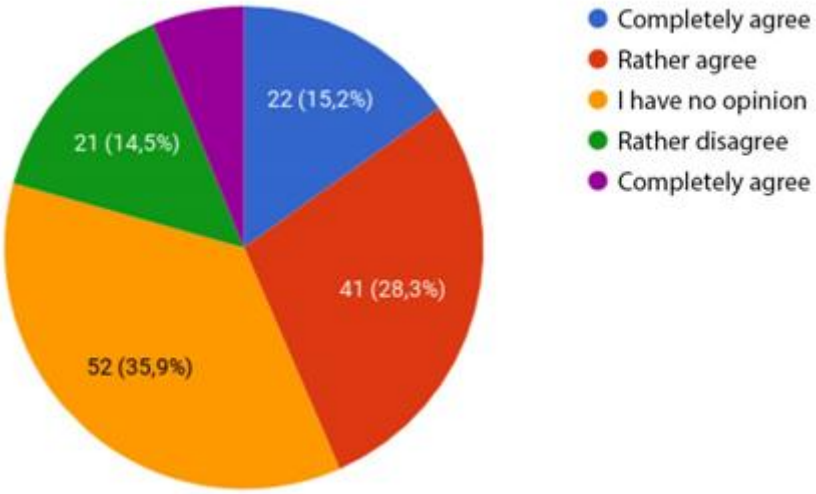

Chart 7: *Social networks and self-presentation*

3. Conclusion

The Internet and digital technology has substantially changed the way our society develops. Today's young people were born into a world in which the Internet and digital technologies are an integral part of their lives. The virtual world has become a natural environment especially for the young generation to communicate, publish and share different content, emotions, ideas and experiences with other people, build their identity, receive information, and last but not least, spend more and more time in. It is mainly the social networks that are considered to be the phenomenon responsible for a significant shift in the way people communicate and socialize. In the recent years, social networks have become subject to numerous analyses, including the area of marketing communication. They have integrated into the everyday lives of individuals and their growing popularity has boosted research interest from various areas around the world.

Our research met the main objective of the established empirical research, which was to find out what self-presentation of Generation Z through photos on the social networks is like these days. We can conclude that the research results provided an answer to all the questions we raised in the questionnaire. In view of the above, the research findings contribute to mapping the behavior of Generation Z in Slovakia on social networks. They may be used in subsequent research covering the relevant issues, and thereby contribute to understanding the young generation of today.

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BEZPEČNOSŤ PACIENTA V OŠETROVATEĽSKEJ PRAXI

THE SAFETY OF THE PATIENT IN NURSING PRACTICE

Lívia Hadašová, Jana Cuperová, Dagmar Magurová, Eleonóra Klímová, Jana Cínová, Silvia Cibríková

Abstrakt

Bezpečnosť pacienta predstavuje právo pacienta neutrpieť ujmu alebo potencionálnu ujmu spojenú s poskytovaním zdravotnej starostlivosti počas obdobia poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti s cieľom minimalizovať poškodenie pacienta a dosiahnuť bezpečnú zdravotnú starostlivosť. Proces bezpečnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti podporuje jednotná identifikácia pacientov, kontrola identity pacienta pred diagnostickými a terapeutickými výkonmi, dodržiavanie ošetrovateľských štandardov, používanie hodnotiacich škál a check listov, vykonávanie odborných činností v rámci kompetencií stanovených legislatívnymi normami, materiálno technické vybavenie zdravotnických zariadení, dostatočný počet zdravotnických pracovníkov, efektívna komunikácia a procesy elektronického zdravotníctva.

Kľúčová slová: *bezpečnosť pacienta, nežiaduca udalosť, štandardizácia, chcek list, elektronizácia zdravotnictva, prieskum*

Abstract

The safety of the patient involves the right of the patient not to suffer harm or potential harm in connection with the provision of healthcare as well as avoiding undesirable incidents during the period of healthcare provision in order to minimize harm to the patient and to achieve safe health care. The process of safe nursing care promotes uniform identification of patients, checking the patient's identity before diagnostic and therapeutic procedures, adherence to nursing standards, using assessment scales and checklists, carrying out professional activities within the competencies set by legislative standards, the material technical equipment of medical facilities, having a sufficient number of healthcare workers, effective communication and e-health processes.

Key words: *patient safety, adverse incident, standardization, check list, digitization of healthcare, research*

1 BEZPEČNOSŤ PACIENTA

Bezpečnosť pacienta sa definuje ako právo pacienta neutrpieť ujmu alebo potencionálnu ujmu spojenú s poskytovaním zdravotnej starostlivosti i ako predchádzanie nežiaducich udalosti počas obdobia poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti s cieľom minimalizovať poškodenie pacienta a dosiahnuť bezpečnú zdravotnú starostlivosť (Bendová, Vaverková 2012). Bezpečnosť pacienta identifikuje, analyzuje a manažuje riziká a udalosti súvisiace s poskytovaním ústavnej zdravotnej starostlivosti, v dôsledku ktorých môže dôjsť k zhoršeniu zdravotného stavu pacienta alebo k nezlepšeniu zdravotného stavu pacienta, čím sa mení kvalitatívne a kvantitatívne poskytovaná zdravotná starostlivosť (Eliašová a kol.,2017).

1.1 Bezpečnostné ciele v ošetrovateľstve

Spojená komisia pre akreditáciu zdravotnických zariadení, ďalej JCAHO sa vo svojich programoch zameriava na zvyšovanie bezpečnosti a kvality poskytovanej starostlivosti na medzinárodnej úrovni. JCAHO vytýčila medzinárodné ohruhy cieľov bezpečnosti pacientov, ktoré sú záväzné pre zdravotnícke zariadenia. Konkrétne sa jedná o tieto uvedené oblasti:

a) Jednoznačná a bezpečná identifikácia pacienta
b) Bezpečnost pri zaobchádzaní s rizikovými liečivami a liekmi
c) Minimalizácia rizika zámeny pacienta, výkonu alebo miesta výkonu
d) Prevencia pádu pacienta
e) Bezpečná komunikácia
f) Bezpečné odovzdávanie pacienta
g) Prevencia vzniku dekubitov u hospitalizovaných pacientov

1.2 Možnosti zabezpečovania a zvyšovania bezpečnosti pacienta

Ošetrovateľstvo sa zameriava predovšetkým na udržiavanie, podporu a obnovu zdravia, rozvoj sebestačnosti, zmierňovanie utrpenia nevyliečiteľne chorého človeka a zabezpečenie pokojného umierania a smrti. Jedným z prioritních atribútov súčasného ošetrovateľstva je poskytovanie vysoko kvalitnej, dostupnej, spravodlivej, finančne efektívnej a účinnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti, ktorá zabezpečí kontinuitu starostlivosti a bude zodpovedať právam ľudí a meniacim sa potrebám (Ondriová a kol., 2014). K zabezpečeniu bezpečnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti patrí: jednotná identifikácia pacientov, kontrola identity pacienta pred diagnostickými a terapeutickými výkonmi, dodržiavanie ošetrovateľských štandardov, vykonávanie odborných činností v rámci kompetencií stanovených legislatívnymi normami. Medzi možnosti ako zvyšovať bezpečnosť pacienta patria procesy elektronického zdravotníctva, štandardizácia, používnie hodnotiacich škál a check listov v procese starostlivosti.

Štandardizácia - Ošetrovateľské štandardy priamo ohraničujú stupeň starostlivosti, ktorá je poskytovaná a tým zvyšujú kvalitu poskytovanej zdravotnej starostlivosti. Pri nedodržaní ošetrovateľského štandardu je pacientov zdravotný stav ohrozený. Na základe štandardov v ošetrovateľstve pacient nebude poškodený nesprávne realizovaným výkonom a sestry budú s určitosťou vykonávať svoju prácu *lege artis*. Pri identifikovaní problémov u pacienta, zásahov na ich vyriešenie a hodnotení výsledkov pomôže sestre vytvorený štandard plánu ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti, ktorý zefektívni postup ošetrovateľského procesu. Ideálne vytvorený štandard má spĺňať možnosti a potreby zdravotníckeho zariadenia a má byť zrozumiteľné a jasne formulovaný. Ošetrovateľské štandardy znižujú riziká pre zdravotnícky personál a pacienta, zlepšujú spravovanie zdravotníckeho materiálu, spájajú špecifické a náročné postupy, medzi sestrami zjednodušujú komunikáciu, podporujú samostatnosť v rozhodovaní sestry (Hulková, 2016). Pacientom dávajú ošetrovateľské štandardy pocit bezpečia a istoty pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti, pretože sú oboznámení na akú starostlivosť majú morálne a zákonné právo a nebudú poškodení nesprávnou alebo nedostatočnou ošetrovateľskou starostlivosťou (Eliašová a kol., 2017). Rýchly vývoj technológii musí odrážať aktualizáciu zažitých ošetrovateľských postupov pri poskytovaní komplexnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Vzdelávanie na tieto zmeny musí pružne reagovať a sestry pre výkon povolania z hľadiska zamestnávateľov dostatočne pripraviť jednak v rovine teoretickej ale aj praktickej (Fertaľová a kol., 2017).

Check listy v zdravotníctve. Check list alebo kontrolný záznam predstavuje v ošetrovateľstve veľmi účinný nástroj na zvýšenie bezpečnosti pacienta, ktorý tvorí základ sofistikovaných metód v oblasti kvality, bezpečnosti. Je to jednoduchá kontrolná technika, ktorá využíva zoznam krokov, položiek a úloh, pomocou ktorých sa overuje a kontroluje správnosť alebo úplnosť daného postupu. Check listy sa používajú sa na zistenie súladu so štandardmi alebo sa môže využívať ako metóda spätného zisťovania príčiny nejakého problému. Check listy

znižujú chyby spôsobené nedostatkom informácií, zvyšujú bezpečnosť postupov, chránia zdravotnícky personál pred pochybnením a dokonca zlepšujú komunikáciu medzi tímom lekárov a sestrami (Grochová a kol., 2012).
Elektronické zdravotnictvo - Cieľom elektronického zdravotníctva je prostredníctvom informačných a komunikačných technológii podporiť poslanie zdravotnictva, prispieť k zlepšovaniu kvality zdravotnej starostlivosti, znižovať chyby a duplicity, administrativné zaťaženie zdravotníctva a pacientov, umožniť vznik nových foriem poskytovaných zdravotníckych služieb, poskytnúť zúčastneným stranám relevantné informácie pre rozhodovacie a monitorovacie činnosti. Zdravotnícki pracovníci vďaka ezdraviu poskytujú pacientom efektívnu, kvalitnú a bezpečnú zdravotnú starostlivosť na základe aktuálnych, podrobných a dôveryhodných informácií, ktoré sú potrebné pre anamnézu, diagnostiku a liečbu. Lekár má k dispozícií podstatné údaje o zdraví pacienta a znižuje riziko zabudnutia informácií od pacienta. (eZdravie, 2017). Bezpečnosť pacienta, ezdravie podporuje na základe svojich komponentov ku ktorým patrí: Národný zdravotný portál, Národný zdravotný informačný systém a Národné zdravotné registre. Prínosom k bezpečnosti pacienta je Národný zdravotný informačný systém, ktorý je hlavný projekt elektronického zdravotníctva. K jeho hlavným úlohám patrí zjednotenie poskytovateľov zdravotnej starostlivosti do Národného zdravotného informačného systému, rozšírenie funkčnosti a rozsahu Národného portálu zdravia, elektronického preukazu poistenca, elektronickej zdravotnej knižky, eMedikácie, eAlokácie a ich využitie v prospech občanov a zdravotníkov.

1.3 Nežiaduce udalosti

Nežiaducou udalosťou môže byť akákoľvek udalosť, pri ktorej došlo k pochybeniu počas prebiehajúcej terapie, procedúry alebo výkonu. K nežiaducim udalostiam patria lekárske, prípadne aj ošetrovateľské intervencie, ktoré neprebehli podľa štandardov poskytovanej starostlivosti, plánu alebo platných smerníc (Škrla, Škrlová 2008). Nežiaduca udalosť je označovaná aj ako mimoriadna udalosť, pri ktorej by mohlo dôjsť alebo došlo k usmrteniu, ohrozeniu života alebo zdravia u pacientov, pacientových príbuzných, personálu alebo môže ísť o takú situáciu ktorá vedie k narušeniu prevádzky zdravotníckeho zariadenia. Za nežiaducu udalosť sa považuje aj situácia kedy dôjde k poškodeniu alebo strate majetku pacientov, pacientových príbuzných alebo personálu (Podstatová, 2007).
Za vznik niektorých nežiaducich udalosti sú zodpovedne systémové faktory, ktorým sa dá predísť. Medzi systémové faktory môžeme zaradiť nejednotnosť postupov v procese poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti, nedostatočnú spoluprácu zdravotníckych pracovníkov, zlú organizáciu práce, stres, nadmerné množstvo práce alebo aj zlyhanie prístrojovej techniky (Eliašová a kol. 2017). Minimálne polovici nežiaducich udalosti sa dá predchádzať, vyžaduje si to okrem iného aj kontrolu zo strany pacienta (Podstatová, 2007).
Podstatová (2007) uvádza, že k nežiaducim udalostiam s ktorými sa môžeme stretnúť v zdravotníckom zariadení patrí:

- závažný prípad, ktorý spôsobil úmrtie alebo trvalé poškodenie,
- pád pacienta alebo zranenie pacienta,
- napadnutie pacienta či personálu
- chyby pri podaní medikamentu,
- nežiadúce účinky medikamentov,
- poškodenie pacienta pri výkone,
- neželané príhody v aplikovaní transfúznych prípravkov,
- omylne poškodenie pacienta bez trvalých následkov,
- problémy s identifikáciou pacienta
- zlyhanie prístrojovej techniky pri poskytovaní zdravotnej starostlivosti,
- samovražda pacienta.

V procese poskytovanej zdravotnej starostlivosti je potrebné každú nežiaducu udalosť oznámiť, zaevidovať, analyzovať a navrhnúť alternatívy prevencie, aby sa predišlo v budúcnosti identickej situácii. Poskytovatelia nemocničnej zdravotnej starostlivosti si zavádzajú systémy hlásení chýb a nežiaducich udalostí ako prvok stratégie bezpečnosti pacienta v priebehu zaisťovania systému kvality. Nevyhnutným prvkom poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti je zabezpečenie bezpečnosti pacienta (Eliašová a kol., 2017). Systém hlásenia chýb a nežiaducich udalosti pri poskytovaní zdravotnej starostlivosti je hlavne prínosom pre poskytovateľa zdravotnej starostlivosti aby sa jeho pracovníci vzdelávali - učili z vlastných chýb, zistiť bezpečnostnú kultúru zdravotníckeho zariadenia. (UDZS, 2014). Predchádzanie nežiaducim udalostiam v zdravotnických zariadeniach spočíva nie len v kvalitnej zdravotnej starostlivosti ale v analýze možných príčin a odhalení slabých stránok ktoré vedú k nežiaducim udalostiam.

2 VÝSLEDKY PRIESKUMU

Jednou z dimenzií kvalitnej zdravotnej starostlivosti je bezpečnosť pacienta. V prieskume sme zisťovali, aká je úroveň zabezpečovania bezpečnosti bezpečnosti pacienta pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti v ústavnom zdravotníckom zariadení štátneho a privátného typu.

2.1 Ciele a metodológia prieskumu

Hlavným cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť úroveň zabezpečovania bezpečnosti pacienta, úroveň vedomosti sestier v problematike bezpečnosti pacientov, využívanie možností zabezpečujúcich a zvyšujúcich bezpečnosť pacienta, materiálno - technické vybavenie zdravotníckych zariadení podporujúce bezpečnosť pacienta. Stanovili sme čiastkové ciele:

1. Zistiť úroveň vedomosti sestier o problematike bezpečnosti pacienta.
2. Identifikovať možnosti zabezpečujúce bezpečnosť pacienta pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti.
3. Identifikovať možnosti zvyšujúce bezpečnosť pacienta pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti.
4. Analyzovať materiálno-technické vybavenie zdravotníckeho zariadenia na zabezpečenie bezpečnosti pacienta.
5. Na základe výsledkov prieskumu navrhnúť odporúčania pre prax.

Za hlavnú techniku prieskumu bol zvolený neštandardizovaný dotazník. Prieskumnú vzorku tvorilo 86 respondentov - sestier s rôznou dĺžkou odbornej praxe a rôznym stupňom dosiahnutého vzdelania. Spolu bolo distribuovaných 110 dotazníkov, návratnosť dotazníkov bola 78,18 %. Dotazník vyplnilo 90 respondentov, pre neúplne vyplnenie dotazníka sme museli 4 dotazníky vyradiť. Prieskum sme realizovali v dvoch ústavných zdravotníckych zariadeniach v Prešovskom kraji v mesiacoch február a marec 2018.

2.2 Výsledky a analýza výsledkov prieskumu

V prvom cieli sme zisťovali aká je úroveň vedomosti sestier o problematike bezpečnosti pacienta a ich záujem o vzdelávanie sa v problematike bezpečnosti pacienta. Sestier sme sa pýtali, čo rozumejú pod pojmom bezpečnosť pacienta, 73% respondentov daných nemocníc uviedlo, definíciu bezpečnosti pacienta, ktorá je uvedená v metodickom pokyne UDZS 3/2014 a definuje bezpečnosť pacienta ako: „predchádzanie nežiadúcich udalostí počas poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti s cieľom minimalizovať poškodenie pacienta.“ U sestier sme ďalej zisťovali, či vedia čo je to nežiaduca udalosť a ako ju dokumentujú v prípade ak k nej dôjde na ich pracovisku. 79% sestier uviedlo, že nežiaducou udalosťou je udalosť, ktorá spôsobila neúmyselné poškodenie pacienta postupom zdravotníckeho a nezdravotníckeho personálu. U sestier sme zisťovali či boli preškolené o obsahu metodického pokynu UDZS 3/2014 – o zavádzaní systémov hlásení chýb, omylov a nežiaducich udalostí v ústavnej zdravotnej starostlivosti. Z celkového počtu respondentov,

25 % uviedlo, že nebolo preškolených na pracovisku o uvedenej problematike, 37 % respondentov nevedia alebo si nepamätajú, či boli preškolení o uvedenom metodickom pokyne. Najčastejšou odpoveďou bolo, že respondenti boli preškolení o danej problematike na ich pracovisku a väčšina respondentov absolvovala aj vzdelávacie aktivity k téme bezpečnosť pacienta a nežiaduce udalosti. Aj napriek účasti sestier na preškoleniach a iných vzdelávacích aktivít, väčšina sestier sa vyjadrila, že má záujem v rámci sústavného vzdelávania dozvedieť sa viac o problematike bezpečnosti pacienta. Zistili sme, že sestry ovládajú teoretické vedomosti o problematike bezpečnosti pacienta a stále majú záujem nadobúdať nové poznatky o danej problematike a témach s ňou súvisiacich. Vzdelávanie a získavanie nových poznatkov v oblasti bezpečnosti má veľký význam nielen pre zdravotnícky personál ale hlavne pre pacienta pri poskytovaní bezpečnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti (Szekelyová, Dimunová, 2014).

Prostredníctvom druhého cieľa sme zisťovali možnosti zabezpečujúce bezpečnosť pacienta pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Zisťovali sme či sestry používajú správne bezpečnostné postupy pri identifikácií pacienta, podávaní liekov, vykonávaním dezinfekcie rúk, dodržiavanie ošetrovateľských štandardov a vykonávanie práce v rámci svojich kompetencií. Sestry sa čo raz častejšie dostávajú do situácií, keď musia prekročiť svoje kompetencie a to hlavne výkonmi, ktoré spadajú do kompetencie lekára (Lazorová, 2017). Naším prieskumom sme zistili, že sestry vykonávajú prácu mimo svojich kompetencií a to 37,8% sestier zo štátneho zdravotnického zariadenia a 34,1% sestier z neštátneho zdravotníckého zariadenia. Najčastejšie vykonávajú tieto činnosti: podávanie intravenóznej liečby bez písomného lekárskeho poverenia, vyberanie stehov z operačných rán či konca podávanie transfúzie. Zaujímalo nás, ako jednotlivé pracoviská zabezpečujú prevenciu pádov a dekubitov.Problematika pádov pacienta je jednou z najdiskutovanejších tém v oblasti bezpečnej starostlivosti. Pády predstavujú často sa vyskytujúcu nežiaducu udalosť. Pre vytvorenie bezpečnej starostlivosti je nutné týmto pádom predchádzať a to využívaním skríningových vyšetrení. K skríningových vyšetreniam môžeme zaradiť aj používanie škál k hodnoteniu rizika pádu, ktoré využívajú aj sestry v nemocniciach v ktorých sme realizovali prieskum. V neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 82,9% sestier označilo práve pád pacienta ako nežiaducu udalosť s ktorou sa stretávajú na ich pracovisku. Na rozdiel od iných štátov EÚ, na Slovenskú stále chýba komplexný program na prevenciu a pozorovania pádov a intervencií pre zdravotnícky personál (Bóriková, Tomagová 2016). V našom prieskume sme zisťovali u sestier, akú kontrolu vykonávajú pred podaním lieku. Podanie nesprávneho lieku, jeho množstva alebo nesprávnemu pacientovi môže vyústiť do nežiaducej liekovej udalosti. Keďže takmer všetci respondenti uviedli, že najčastejším spôsobom ktorým sa vykonáva ordinácia liečby, lekárom je písomne sestra má možnosť overiť si a skontrolovať danú ordináciu. Najčastejšou odpoveďou sestier je, že pred podaním lieku vykonávajú kontrolu ordinácie lekára, túto možnosť označilo 77,8% sestier zo štátneho zdravotnického zariadenia a 100% sestier z neštátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia

Prostredníctvom tretieho cieľa sme zisťovali možnosti zvyšujúce bezpečnosť pacienta pri poskytovaní ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Nesprávna alebo nedostatočná identifikácia pacienta patrí k najzávažnejším chybám, kú ktorým môže dôjsť v priebehu pobytu pacienta v zdravotníckom zariadení. Nemusí dôjsť len k zámene pacienta ale aj k zámene lieku, miesta výkonu či biologického materiálu, ktoré môžu mať fatálny dôsledok pre pacienta. Preventívnym riešením ako tejto chybe predísť a vytvoriť tak pre pacienta bezpečné prostredie je zavedenie identifikačných náramkov, ktoré nám poskytnú jednoznačnú identifikáciu pacienta a to v situáciách keď pacient nie je schopný komunikácie a zisťovanie identity pacienta pred každým diagnostickým a terapeutickým výkonom ako to vykonáva väčšina sestier, ktorá sa zúčastnila nášho prieskumu. Prieskumom sme zistili, že v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení sú identifikačné náramky používané ako najčastejší nástroj

k identifikácií pacienta. Za žiadnych okolnosti by sa nemalo k identifikácií pacienta používať jeho umiestnenie v izbe alebo číslo izby, preto je alarmujúce že 75,6% sestier z neštátneho zdravotnického zariadenia používa práve tento nástroj k identifikácií pacienta.
Ošetrovateľské štandardy definujú konkrétny postup, akým by sestra mala postupovať pri realizácií jednotlivých výkonov. Ich nedodržanie môže zbytočne ublížiť pacientovi (Hulková, 2016). Prostredníctvom prieskumu sme zistili, že v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 75,5% sestier a v neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 90,3% sestier dodržiava postupy ošetrovateľských štandardov. Ku jednoduchej kontrole vykonaných položiek, krokov a overeniu správnosti a úplnosti nám slúži Check list – kontrolný bezpečnostný protokol. Zistili sme, že sestry z oboch zdravotníckych zariadení vo väčšine odpovedí uviedli, že Check listy nepoužívajú alebo ich používajú len o tom nevedia, lebo je absurdné že len 4,4% sestier zo štátneho zdravotnického zariadenia používa Check list a o niečo viac, teda 19,5% sestier zo súkromného zdravotnického zariadenia. Práve check listy zvyšujú bezpečnosť pacienta a chránia sestry pred pochybením.
Dodržiavaním hygienicko-epidemiologického režimu ku ktorému radíme aj hygienu a dezinfekciu rúk, môžeme predchádzať vzniku nozokomiálnej nákazy ako nežiaducej udalosti. Dezinfekcia rúk by sa mala realizovať vždy pred a po kontakte s pacientom potvrdzujú to aj výsledky z nášho prieskumu kde 73,3% sestier zo štátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia a 87,8% z neštátneho zdravotnického zariadenia uviedlo túto odpoveď ako najčastejšiu. Okrem iného dezinfekcia rúk by sa mala vykonávať aj pred prácou s invazívnymi pomôckami a taktiež aj po kontakte s biologickým materiálom pacienta.
Prostredníctvom štvrtého ciela sme zisťovali materiálno-technické vybavenie zdravotníckeho zariadenia na zabezpečenie bezpečnosti pacienta. Respondentov sme sa pýtali, ako by ohodnotili úroveň priestorového a technicko-materiálneho vybavenia. 51,1% respondentov zo štátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia uviedlo, že spĺňajú legislatívne požiadavky na minimálne priestorové a technicko-materiálne vybavenie pracoviska, v neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení uviedlo 53,7% respondentov, že úroveň priestorovo a technicko-materiálového vybavenia ich pracoviská je priemerná. Aj napriek týmto pozitívnym odpovediam sestier, našlo sa aj 8,9% sestier v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení a 2,4 % respondentov v neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení, ktorí uviedli že vybavenosť ich pracoviska je nedostačujúca.

2.3 Návrhy a odporúčania pre prax

- V rámci sústavného zvyšovania kvality v zdravotnických zariadeniach, ktorého súčasťou je aj stratégia bezpečnosti pacienta pravidelne aktualizovať a vyhodnocovať bezpečnostné ciele.
- Pri realizácii ošetrovateľských výkonov postupovať podľa platných oštrovateľských štandardov.
- Z pozície manažérov pre ošetrovateľstvo, organizovať prácu na oddelení tak, aby sestry nevykonávali činnosti, ktoré nepatria do ich kompetencie.
- Implementovať v zdravotníckych zariadeniach jednotnú identifikáciu pacientov prostredníctvom náramkov s čiarovými kódmi.
- Implementovať do procesu poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti Check listy na realizáciu kontroly diagnostických a terapeutických výkonov.
- V zdravotníckych zariadeniach rešpektovať mininimálne personálne normatívy.
- Zdravotnícke zariadenia dovybaviť pomôckami na prevenciu dekubitov a pádov.
- Posudzovať rizika vzniku dekubitov a pádov, nielen pri príjme pacienta ale aj počas hospitalizácie a pri zmene zdravotného stavu.
- Evidovať všetky vzniknuté nežiaduce udalosti v nemocničnom informačnom systéme alebo v predpísanom formulári.

- Realizovať v zdravotníckych zariadeniach audity hygienicko-epidemiologického režimu so zameraním na identifikáciu nedostatkov, ktoré významne korelujú s rizikom vzniku nozokomiálnych nákaz.
- Na základe reálne hlásených prípadov nežiaducich udalostí na konkrétnom pracovisku definovať nápravné a preventívne opatrenia, záväzné pre všetky pracoviská zdravotníckeho zariadenia.
- Organizovať vzdelávacie aktivity, zamerané na témy bezpečnosť pacienta, kultúra bezpečnosti, nežiaduce udalosti, hlásenie nežiaducich udalostí, nápravné a preventívne opatrenia a podob. Vzdelávanie v uvedených oblastiach významne podporí zvýšenie bezpečnosti pacienta v procese poskytovania ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti.

3 ZÁVER

Bezpečnosť pacienta patrí k jedným z hlavných priorít poskytovania kvalitnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Na základe prieskumných zistení môžeme konštatovať, že úroveň zabezpečovania bezpečnosti pacienta v zdravotníckych zariadeniach v ktorých sme realizovali prieskum je priemerná, a je potrebné prijať opatrenia na podporu sústavného zlepšovania kvality poskytovaných služieb. Realizovaním nápravných a preventívnych opatrení, ktoré podporia Stratégiu bezpečnosti pacienta a znížia výskyt nežiaducich udalostí. Nežiaduce udalosti je nutné evidovať, analyzovať príčiny vzniku a na základe analýz vyvodiť preventívne opatrenia a opatrenia k zmierneniu možných následkov udalosti. Neodmysliteľnou súčasťou uvedeného procesu je vzdelávanie zdravotníckych pracovníkov v uvedenej problematike a ich zodpovedný a profesionálny prístup. Povinnosťou manažmentu každého zdravotníckeho zariadenia je zabezpečiť vzdelávacie aktivity, materiálovo- technické vybavenie pracovísk, dostatočný počet zdravotníckych pracovníkov v jednotlivých kategóriách, tak aby sa v čo najväčšej možnej miere predchádzalo nežiaducim udalostiam a ohrozeniu bezpečnosti pacienta.

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JOBSEEKERS IN THE SLOVAK LABOR MARKET

Lukáš Smerek

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to compare the requirements of Slovak enterprises with the current situation on the labor market when selecting employees. The target group was enterprises located on the labor market of the Slovak Republic. A questionnaire was used to obtain the data. By analyzing the answers, we have found that there is a shortage of qualified candidates on our labor market. According to employers, the largest gaps are in the linguistic readiness of jobseekers and, largely, in their computer skills. In addition, enterprises would welcome more reliability, responsibility, independence and flexibility. In some sectors, the lack of qualification is also a problem. The market is dominated by many candidates graduated in the fields that have no application.

Key words: *selection of employees, jobseeker, Slovakia, labor market*

1 INTRODUCTION

Selection of employees is often considered by enterprises as a key personal activity. Enterprises are aware that choosing a suitable candidate can bring them new ideas, new motivations and new impetus for overall development. However, they can just as easily bring a person who is not able to perform his/her duties, to identify with the philosophy of the company, its culture and proven procedures. Each selection is preceded by setting the specific criteria. Enterprises carry out selection processes with the belief of getting enough people to meet these criteria. Nevertheless, reality in the labor market shows that they are not always successful. The aim of the paper is to compare the requirements of Slovak enterprises with the current situation on the labor market when selecting employees. The target group is enterprises located on the labor market of the Slovak Republic. We use the questionnaire to obtain the data. In analysis, we focus on the necessary education, the acquired experience, the basic skills and the overall readiness of jobseekers. We are also interested in the main areas where employers see gaps between their demands and supply of jobseekers. The purpose is to recognize real possibilities that are available for the enterprises on the Slovak labor market and holding up a mirror for jobseekers in the conditions of Slovakia.

2 JOBSEEKERS

None of the enterprises can avoid the selection of employees. For many enterprises, selection of employees is one of the most important HRM activities. Selection of employees is defined as an assessment of candidates' ability to perform the work which the employee will be assigned with. The aim is to find out which jobseeker suits the job requirements the most. The selection is always a two-sided process, because not only the company chooses an employee but also the candidate himself chooses the enterprise (Antalová et al., 2013). The candidate should correspond to a certain model of required assumptions necessary for any job position, to improve the functioning and structure of the enterprise (Bajzíková, 2009). When selecting, the employer can influence the composition of the particular work teams, their quality, and the internal structure of the enterprise, including the existing corporate culture in the enterprise. The selection of an effective team of employees is crucial to a proper management of the company (Skrzypek, Dąbrowski, 2015). Different enterprises have different

experiences with candidates in the labor market. Enterprise recruitment behavior and individual job seeking behavior are influenced not only by the macro-institutions that regulate the labor market, but also by the exchange relationships between the labor market parties on the micro-level and the resulting expectations of one's own behavior and that of the other party (Bellmann, Brussig, 2007). Flexibility among unemployed jobseekers, i.e., the extent to which jobseekers look for jobs that deviate from their studies and earlier work experience (Van den Broeck et al, 2010; Venn, 2012), is seen as an important searching behavior on today's labor market. On the other hand, Vansteenkiste et al. (2016) argue that employers may prefer applicants who search for jobs that are in line with their previous employment experience. They may fear that hiring a highly flexible person in terms of skills or commuting time could jeopardize the person-environment fit and increase the risk of turnover. Either way, enterprises try to access their workforce as efficiently as they are aware of the importance of a human factor in meeting corporate goals. In addition, effective using of human resources is a base for successful development of economy both on enterprise and regional/national levels. So called "Sustainable employment" is a result. Its goal is twofold: those who are outside the labor force to become part of it, and those who are part of it to be capable and motivated, i.e. improving the quality of work in a way that does not compromise the ability to work in the future (Terziev, Arabska, 2015). Despite significant progress in economics, Slovakia still faces high unemployment, which has not been significantly reduced either when Slovakia joined the EU (Fiľa, Juranová, 2015). If the jobseeker is registered in the Labor office longer than 12 consecutive months, he/she is considered to be long-term unemployed. This is considered to be his/her disadvantage in finding a job. In Slovakia there are a quite big number of long term unemployed jobseekers and the inability to locate these people in the labor market is a big economic problem (Švábová, Ďurica, 2015). An important factor influencing the economic development of the Slovak economy has become the resources of the Structural Funds and Cohesion Funds, which originate in the common budget of the European Union. The basic objectives pursued by cohesion policy are convergence, European territorial cooperation, regional competitiveness and employment. The basic pillar is also employment support, either in the form of investment in human capital or in the form of indirect job creation. Drawing funds from the Cohesion and Structural Funds was also reflected in additional GDP growth. Its implementation also affected the employment in the Slovak economy. The EU funds contributed to the creation of additional jobs in the national economy (Tiruneh, Štefánik et al., 2014). However, the quality of jobseekers in the labor market has been the subject of discussions between academics, economic practitioners and legislators at national and regional level in the long term.

3 JOBSEEKERS IN SLOVAKIA

Each country has its own specificities, which are derived from its culture, history, economic strength, or geographical location. These specifics can be seen across all the areas of life in the country. The labor market is not an exception. Like all the other areas, the labor market in Slovakia is different from labor markets in other countries despite the phenomenon of the last decades called globalization. Even though the world has been metaphorically shrunk and there have been attempts to wipe out differences between countries, there have always been and will be some specifics. It is important to understand these specifics and try to make advantage of them, especially for enterprises that have to fight every day in the field of hard competition.

3.1 Aim and methods

The aim of the paper is to compare the requirements of Slovak enterprises with the current situation on the labor market when selecting employees. The target group was enterprises located on the labor market of the Slovak Republic. We used a questionnaire to obtain the data. Using the Etrend weekly database (Etrend, 2018) which records enterprises operating on the Slovak labor market, including their contact details, 689 enterprises were addressed. We addressed 25 other small enterprises on the basis of personal recognition. Thus, the selection sample consisted of 714 enterprises. In enterprises, we have addressed HR managers or HR department officials. We got responses from 113 enterprises, representing a return of 15.83%. The research sample consists of enterprises from all sectors of the economy and from all regions of Slovakia. Enterprises of all sizes except micro-enterprises are represented. Nevertheless, the research sample is not representative. The questionnaire survey consisted of 15 questions. We were trying to find out if employers are satisfied with the quality and quantity of job seekers. We used descriptive statistics to evaluate the acquired results. The results are complemented by charts for greater clarity of presented results.

3.2 Results of the research

In the first question, we asked enterprises if they recruited new employees in the last 5 years. As we consider this question to be a key to completing the questionnaire, we assumed that each enterprise hired new employees at a given time. That assumption has been confirmed. All the surveyed enterprises have hired at least one new employee in the last 5 years. Such a result is not surprising and follows our previous research (Vetráková et al., 2018a, Vetráková et al., 2018b) and the fact that one of the most frequent HRM problems is high fluctuation.

The second question was to find out what vacant positions were offered to the jobseekers. Of course, enterprises could have selected more employees in multiple positions. Most of the enterprises (71.68%) fill the position of an administrative worker or a referent. Assistant position was occupied in 32.74% of the surveyed enterprises, secretary in 23.89%, IT consultant in 21.24%, trader in 15.93%, and warehouseman in 11.50%. More than half of the enterprises (58.41%) said that they were able to hire the needed number of employees on those positions. Newly graduates of secondary or higher education institutions were among jobseekers in 84.96% of the enterprises.

Furthermore, we were interested in how employers assess the overall readiness of jobseekers. The results are shown in chart 1.

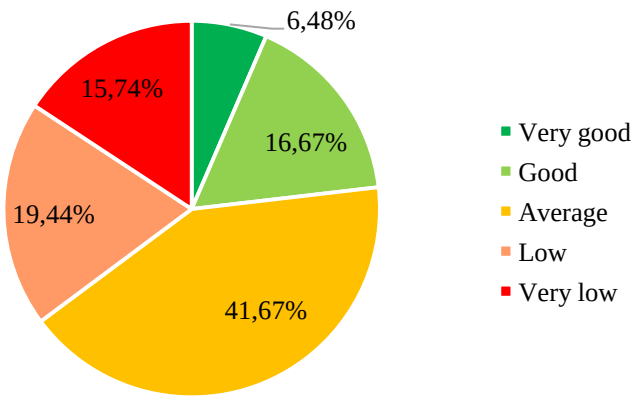

Chart 1: Overall readiness of jobseekers
Source: Own processing

As can be seen from the assessment of the overall readiness of jobseekers, most of them were prepared on average. More than one third of the candidates were poorly or very poorly prepared and only less than a quarter were prepared well or very well. Another interesting finding is the fact that fresh graduates of high schools or universities were not sufficiently prepared for certain jobs. However, on the other hand, there were opinions that some graduates were better prepared than older employees. They were even rated to be above average or at least at the required level of the job, due to their lack of work experience. We can conclude from the results that the graduates lack basic knowledge about the position they are applying for, the basic information about the enterprise, or fail to adequately respond to the usual questions asked by their employers.

By the next question, we identified the basic requirements and abilities demanded by employers from jobseekers during the selection process. Since each of the enterprises has a different subject of activity, the required skills are different. HR officers could have chosen any requirements or add their own. In most enterprises (70.80%), it is important that the jobseeker is trained in the field and has the necessary education to do the job. Another important precondition is language skill. Up to 63.72% of enterprises is looking for it when evaluating jobseekers. Similarly, 60.18% of enterprises requires candidates to have the leadership skills. Administrative positions, such as secretary, require administrative skills (56.64%). Driving licenses are required in 52.21% of cases and the basics of accounting in 30.09% of cases. The biggest gaps were experienced by enterprises in the area of language skills of applicants when fewer than half of them speak some foreign language at the required level. Of course, we only took into account the responses of those enterprises that required knowledge of one of the foreign languages during the selection process. Their level is shown in chart 2.

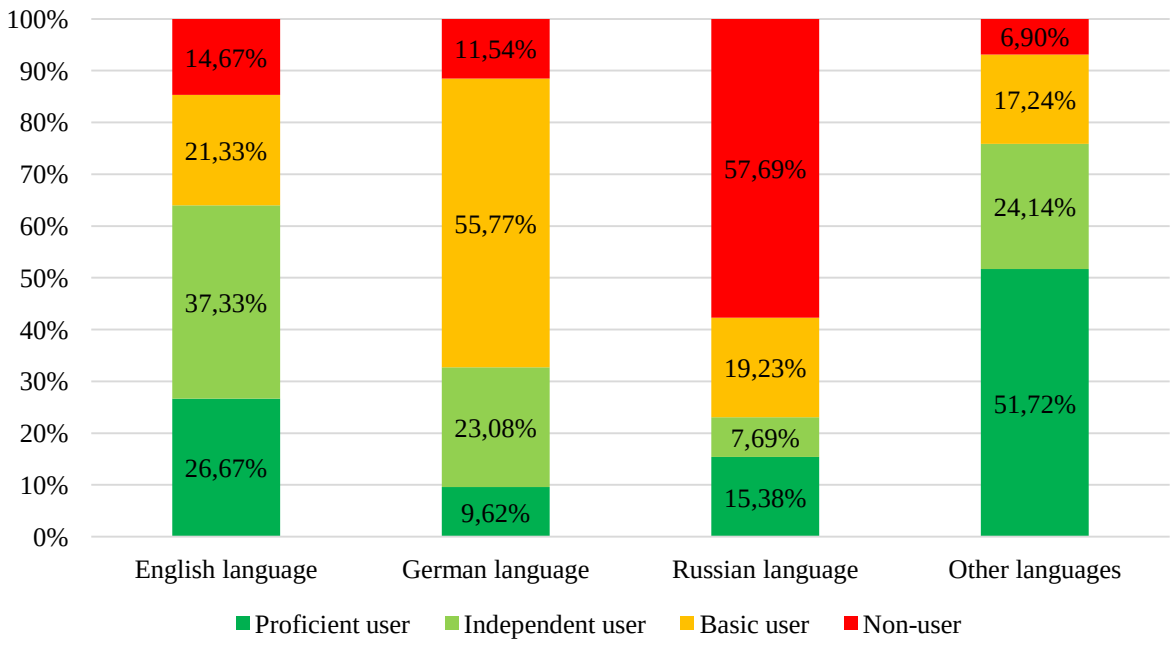

Chart 2: Foreign languages skills of jobseekers
Source: Own processing

As we can see in chart 2, the English language level is just above 60%. Much worse is the use of German and Russian languages. The best use is observed in the use of other languages

(French, Hungarian, Chinese, Norwegian and others). However, the number of enterprises that require knowledge of these languages is much smaller and the positions interest much smaller number of people. Eventually, their mastering is the first filtering criterion in employee pre-selection.

Further, we were interested in what practical experience were required from jobseekers by enterprises. The results are shown in chart 3.

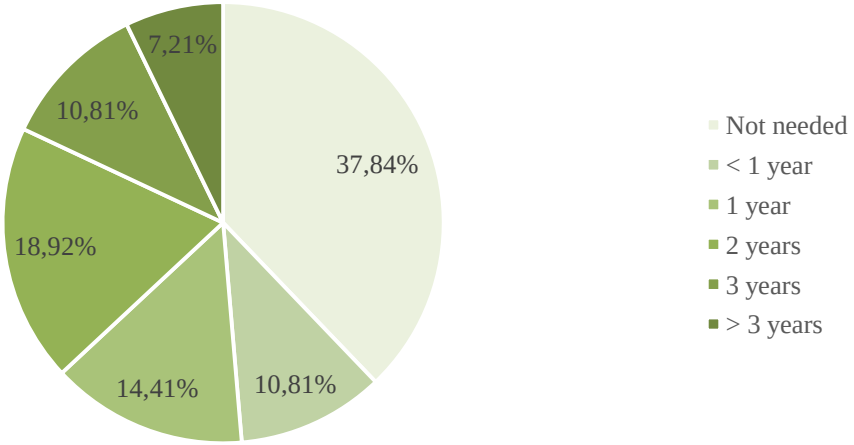

Chart 3: Required experience from jobseekers
Source: Own processing

Chart 3 shows that 37.84% applicants did not need practical experience. If practice was required, most often it was a minimum of two years of experience in a similar job (18.92%). On the opposite, a minimum of three-year experience was required only in 7.21% of cases. This question was followed by another question by which to find out whether the employers got the employees with the necessary experience required for the position. We conclude from the results that the overwhelming majority of enterprises are quite satisfied with the length of job seekers' experience. As far as work experience is concerned, 45.13% of the applicants have not yet carried out the work activities required by this job but have already had the experience of carrying out similar work. On the other hand, 33.63% had experience with the offered job. They have already done this job, so they have the required skills, and they just want to change the working environment but want to stay in the same job. In 21.24% of cases, candidates who have never worked in a similar job, or have no experience of doing work, have appeared.

The quality of the labor supply is also related to educational attainment of candidates. More than half (51.33%) of enterprises requested applicants to have completed a university degree, followed by secondary education (31.86%). No education was required in 11.50% of cases, and 5.31% of cases required first university degree. Interestingly, none of the enterprises looked for a PhD. graduate.

Another area of research we have decided to analyze are the IT skills. We asked respondents what software were the jobseekers familiar with. The most used software is MS Word (81.42% of applicants) and MS Excel (75.22% of applicants). Another program used in this package is MS Outlook (70.80%). A significantly lower number of applicants knew how to use programs related to database systems, eg. SQL System (16.81%) and accounting software (15.04%). Another software used in more than 10% cases was MS Access (10.62%).

In total, 61.06% of enterprises have found employees who met all the requirements for the job, i. e. candidates who, through their education, experience, technical skills, personal qualities and practice, were suitable candidates for a vacant or newly created position in an enterprise. When asked whether respondents, based on their experience, felt that the labor market covered their requirements concerning the number and quality of employees, most of the respondents (68.14%) answered negatively. This means that the labor market does not meet their requirements in terms of number and quality. On the other hand, 31.86% of enterprises have a positive experience, so the labor market, according to them, covers the demands of enterprises. By analyzing the answers, we have found that there is a shortage of qualified candidates on our labor market. There were also answers from enterprises that concerned graduates. There are not enough skilled graduates on the labor market, respectively, schools do not provide educated graduates in the electrotechnical field, there is also a shortage of technically educated people on the labor market. In addition, there are no graduates in the food merchant study programs, programmers, energy engineers, software engineers, manufacturing operators, machine operators, and administrative staff. The problem are also the low IT skills of the jobseekers. Many candidates graduated in study programs that have no application. From an analysis of the answers, we can see that the labor market does not cover the demands of enterprises, neither in numbers nor in quality, because many highly qualified people leave to work abroad. That is why the needs of enterprises in terms of both the number and qualifications of applicants are not satisfied. As we have already mentioned, there are also enterprises that think the labor market meets their demands, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Somewhat contradictory to previous claims they include IT, construction, automotive, and the chemical enterprises. Enterprises in these sectors are satisfied with the demands of the labor market. They have found the required number of candidates with the required quality.

The last question was to find out what job seekers should improve. Respondents had several choices to choose from, but they could also add their own requirements. The results are shown in chart 4.

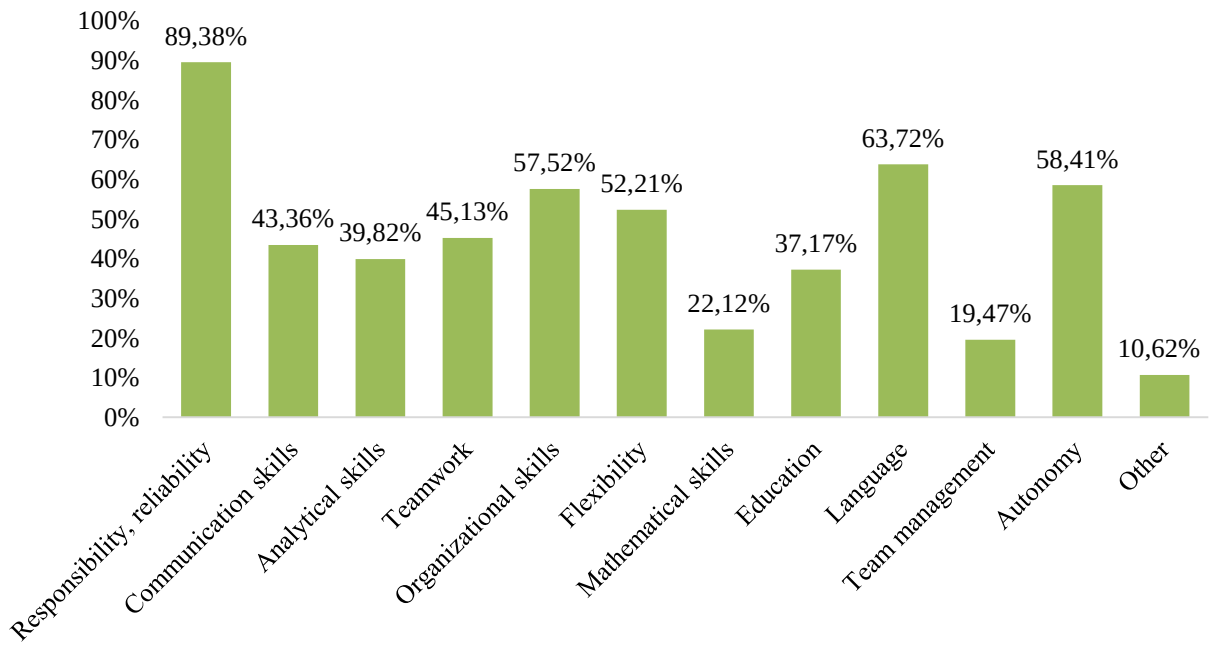

Chart 4 Required areas for improving job seekers
Source: Own processing

The biggest weakness that enterprises perceive in applicants is their responsibility and reliability (89.38%). When employers make such an opinion about candidates during the selection process, it is almost impossible to rely on them after they are recruited and doing their everyday job tasks. The second most preferred requirement is a better use of foreign languages (63.72%). A majority of enterprises would also welcome greater autonomy (58.41%), better organizational skills (57.52%) and greater flexibility (52.21%). Thus, we can say that for enterprises the best candidate should be reliable, responsible, independent, flexible and capable of communicating at least in one foreign language. These are the basic features that every candidate should have.

4 CONCLUSION

The aim of the paper was to compare, on the basis of an analysis of employers' opinions, the requirements of Slovak enterprises with the current situation in the labor market in the selection of employees. The target group was enterprises located on the labor market of the Slovak Republic. We used a questionnaire to obtain the data. By analyzing the answers, we have found that there is a shortage of qualified candidates on our labor market. The biggest problems identified by the addressed enterprises concerned the linguistic readiness of job seekers and, largely, their IT skills. In addition, enterprises would welcome more responsibility, reliability, independence and flexibility. A rather surprising finding is that employers do not perceive practical experience as a major problem. Jobseekers are enough experienced, or there is no experience needed from new employees. This, of course, depends on the particular job position the candidate is applying for. However, in some sectors the lack of qualifications is a problem with. In particular, there are no graduates in the field of food merchant, programmers, energy engineers, software engineers, production operators, machine operators, and administrative staff. The market is dominated by a lot of candidates graduated in the fields that have no application.

We realize that our findings and their validity have certain limitations. First of all, we failed to ensure the representativeness of the research sample. The results can therefore be hardly generalized to all enterprises in the Slovak Republic. Another limitation is the narrow focus of our research. Employee selection itself is just one of the HR activities connected with staffing. It is preceded by job analysis and recruitment. The neglect of these two activities can significantly affect the number and quality of job seekers. Another important aspect is employer branding, which we have not taken into account in our survey, but also significantly affects job seekers.

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HODNOCENÍ SPOLEČENSKÉ ODPOVĚDNOSTI VYBRANÉHO DOPRAVNÍHO PODNIKU

EVALUATION OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SELECTED TRANSPORT COMPANY

Simona Činčalová

Abstrakt

Společenská odpovědnost je v současné době aktuálním a stále probíraným tématem. Koncept se neustále vyvíjí a přizpůsobuje daným podmínkám. Ani definice nemá ustálenou podobu a každý si pojem CSR vykládá různě. Všichni se však shodují na tom, že společenská odpovědnost přináší podniku přínosy v podobě finančních, či nefinančních benefitů. Cílem práce je teoreticky vymezit pojem CSR a získat praktické příklady fungování společenské odpovědnosti ve vybraném dopravním podniku. Na základě analyzovaných aktivit společnosti jsou doporučena zlepšení.

Klíčová slova: *CSR, doprava, rozhovory*

Abstract

Social responsibility is currently an up-to-date topic. The concept is constantly evolving and adapting to the conditions. Even the definition is not steady, and everyone interprets the concept of CSR differently. However, everyone agrees that social responsibility brings benefits to the enterprise in the form of financial or non-financial benefits. The aim of the thesis is to define the concept of CSR theoretically and to get practical examples of the functioning of social responsibility in selected transport company. Improvements are recommended based on the company's activities.

Key words: *CSR, transport, interviews*

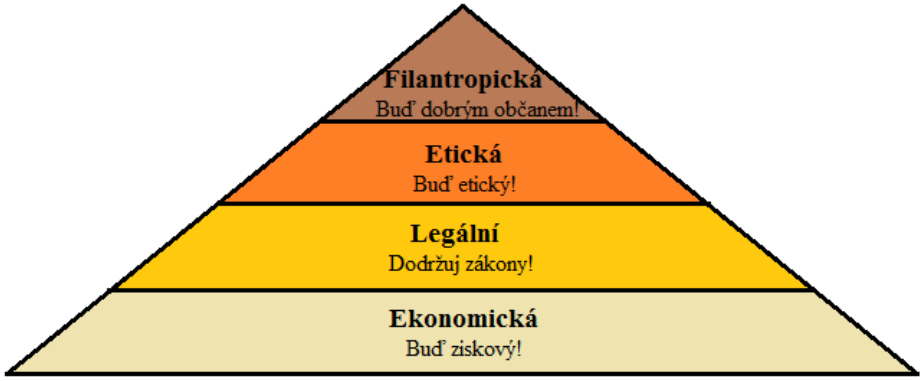
1 SPOLEČENSKÁ ODPOVĚDNOST

Společenská odpovědnost byla předmětem celé řady studií několik posledních desetiletí (např. Carroll, 2015; Servaes a Tamayo, 2013; Turban a Greening, 1998). Vyvinula se z filantropických aktivit vedoucích pracovníků a postupně se stala cennou složkou řízení všech zúčastněných stran (Kolodinsky a kol., 2010). Zapojení do společensky odpovědných aktivit prostupuje různými typy podniků v různých odvětvích i zemích.

Podle Petříkové (2008) zahrnuje CSR všechny aktivity, které jsou vysoko nad rámec maximálně legitimních požadavků, stejně jako aktivity, skrze které organizace usiluje o pochopení a uspokojení všech zainteresovaných stran ve společnosti. Trnková (2004) dodává, že se tímto konceptem podniky otevřeně přiznávají ke své spoluodpovědnosti za stav a chod společnosti.

Autorka se přiklání ke názoru, že se společenská odpovědnost skládá ze čtyř oblastí. Teorii čtyř pilířů nastavil Carroll (1991). Ve své studii uvádí čtyři typy společenských odpovědností: ekonomická, právní, etická a filantropická, které zobrazuje pomocí pyramidy (viz Obrázek 1). Všechny tyto druhy odpovědností jsou významné, ale v posledních letech se pozornost upírá především na etickou a filantropickou odpovědnost.

Obrázek 1: Čtyři oblasti CSR v pyramidě



Zdroj: upraveno dle Carroll (1991)

Carrollova pyramida dává do souvislosti ekonomický a společenský zájem podniku (Weber a Wasieleski, 2018). Pod ekonomický zájem lze zařadit legislativní odpovědnost, protože chování, které se neslučuje s platnou legislativou je trestné. Společenský zájem představuje etickou a filantropickou neboli dobrovolnou odpovědnost. Důležitost filantropického pilíře zdůrazňují ve své práci Mayer a Silva (2017). Dle Carrolla (1991) by se měl podnik zajímat jak o zisky, tak o širší společnost.

Úspěšné propojení společenské odpovědi do podnikové praxe může podnikům přinášet synergické efekty a následně konkurenční výhody. Přínosy CSR lze rozdělit na finanční a nefinanční.

Mnoho autorů měřilo ve svých studiích příjmy z CSR aktivit pomocí finančních ukazatelů. Studie Lee a kol. (2012), Bučiunienė a Kazlauskaitė (2010), Vilanové a kol. (2008) dokládají, že dobře zavedené CSR má pozitivní vliv na zvyšování tržeb podniků. Turban a Greening (1996) zkoumali sociální hodnocení CSR aktivit (KLD social rating) pro velké americké podniky a zjistili, že společenská odpovědnost má pozitivní vliv na ukazatel rentabilita aktiv (ROA).

Podniky zahrnují společenskou odpovědnost do svých strategií také z nefinančních důvodů. Hlavním z nich je získání konkurenční výhody (Torugsa a O´Donohue, 2012). Přestože se ukazuje, že benefity, které odpovědné firmy získávají, mají často nefinanční podobu a jejich účinek není zpravidla bezprostřední, neznamená to, že nejsou důležité. Výzkum Transparency International – Česká republika (Čaník a Čaníková, 2006) uvádí, že oslovení zástupci podnikatelského sektoru v ČR spatřují výhody společensky odpovědného chování především v jeho dlouhodobém pozitivním efektu (např. konkurenční výhoda, dobré jméno firmy, snazší spolupráce s obchodními partnery i zaměstnanci, ale také vyšší zisk a společenský přínos).

Tyto výhody nefinančního rázu jsou důležité pro kvalitní a dlouhodobě udržitelné fungování každého podniku. Navíc lze tvrdit, že nefinanční přínosy se v dlouhodobém horizontu přemění na benefity finanční např. v podobě zvýšení tržeb, zisku, tržního podílu.

Mezi nejdůležitější přínosy, které mohou společensky odpovědné firmy získat, řadíme (Hlaváček a Hlaváček, 2007; Čaník a Čaníková, 2006; Stejnerová, 2008, Flammer a Luo, 2017, Asrar-Ul-Haq a kol., 2017):

- zlepšení image (reputace) a vytvoření pozitivního obrazu v očích široké veřejnosti,

- větší přitažlivost pro investory a obchodní partnery a zpřístupnění dalšího kapitálu,
- možnost stát se vyhledávaným zaměstnavatelem, získat a udržet kvalitní zaměstnance,
- zvýšení produktivity a loajality zaměstnanců,
- posílení firemní kultury,
- rostoucí prodej a loajalita zákazníků,
- zvýšení efektivity provozu a snížení nákladů na risk-management,
- zvýšení kvality produktů a služeb,
- větší transparentnost a posílení důvěryhodnosti firmy,
- budování reputace, a tím i silné pozice na trhu,
- snížení rizika bojkotů a stávek, zmenšení nákladů na risk management,
- vytváření potřebného zázemí k úspěšnému fungování a dlouhodobé udržitelnosti,
- poznání potřeb stakeholderů a možnost rozvíjet kvalitnější spolupráci s nimi,
- udržení kroku s konkurenty a s požadavky trhu,
- příležitost pro inovace, učení se a kontinuální zlepšování podniku,
- odlišení od konkurence, zviditelnění značky pro koncové zákazníky,
- zlepšení vztahů s okolím.

Čeští podnikatelé občas chápou CSR spíše jako nepříjemnou povinnost, která skončí u sponzorského daru nebo jednorázové akce. Z výzkumu společnosti Aflac (2015) ale vyplývá, že 4 z 5 respondentů raději utratí své peníze u společnosti, která se dobrovolnické činnosti věnuje dlouhodobě. Také více než 77 % dotázaných potvrdilo, že vedle výše platu a flexibilní pracovní doby si pro svoje zaměstnání raději vyberou firmu, která má transparentní etický kodex. Kohout (1999) a Svoboda (2009) uvádí, že podnik je vnímám lépe, pokud má dokonalou kvalitu produktu či služby, rozumnou cenu, trvalý inovační proces a pracuje ve prospěch stakeholderů (hlavní podstata CSR).

Na druhé straně existují i kritici konceptu CSR. Jedním z nich je i nositel Nobelovy ceny Milton Friedman, který prosazuje jediný cíl firmy, a to maximalizaci zisku a jeho následné rozdělení mezi akcionáře. Jakékoli jiné chování podle něj působí proti její prosperitě (Kunz, 2012). Důkazy negativního nebo neutrální vlivu CSR na podnik (vyšší náklady, nedostatečná přehlednost, neefektivnost) uvádí například studie Moskowitze (1972), Griffina a Mahona (1997), McWilliamse a Siegela (2000). Jedním ze současných kritiků CSR je profesor Robert Reich z Kalifornské univerzity, který mluví o CSR jako o „nebezpečném rozptýlení“, které podkopává demokracii (Reich, 2017). Grewatsch a Kleindienst (2015) spatřují nedostatky CSR v tom, že chybí zakotvení v zákonech, investice do teoretické základny a nástroje pro měření.

2 PŘÍPADOVÁ STUDIE

V prosinci 2017 a lednu 2018 proběhly ve vybrané společnosti řízené rozhovory s technickohospodářskými pracovníky a s managementem. Společnost podniká v odvětví Doprava a skladování a zaměstnává přibližně 450 pracovníků, čímž spadá pod střední podniky. Rozhovory byly polo-strukturované, neboli částečně řízené s předem připravenými otázkami, které se mohou v průběhu rozhovoru měnit nebo doplňovat. Polo-strukturované interview je metodou kvalitativního sociologického výzkumu (Armstrong, 2007). Podkladem pro ně byly otázky, v rámci nichž byla zjišťována spokojenost zaměstnanců, problémy, se kterými se setkávají při své práci, komunikace s ostatními zaměstnanci a povědomost o akcích a charitativních činnostech společnosti:

1. Víte, že se ve společnosti MDl zavádí CSR? Co si pod tím představíte?

2. Víte o tom, že již proběhlo dotazníkové šetření mezi řidiči, skladníky a THP? Účastnil/a jste se? Ano/ne, proč?
3. Odpovídá Vaše pracovní náplň tomu, co skutečně děláte? Dostáváte úkoly navíc od svého vedoucího, které nesouvisí s náplní Vaší práce? Jak se k tomu stavíte? Do jaké míry Vás to zatěžuje? Vysvětlí Vám nadřízený co a do kdy po Vás chce? Jste odměňováni za práci „navíc“?
4. Jste spokojen/a s výší svého platu vzhledem k práci, kterou zde vykonáváte a Vaší odpovědnosti? Došlo u Vás někdy ke krácení mzdy? Znáte důvod? Jak Vám to bylo oznámeno?
5. Využíváte nabízené firemní benefity? Proč ne? Co byste uvítal/a za jiný firemní benefit?
6. Účastnil/a jste se nějakého školení? Jaké považujete za nejpřínosnější? Jak hodnotíte školení, na kterých jste byl/a? Jaké školení byste uvítal/a?
7. Myslíte si, že Vás vedoucí dostatečně informuje o změnách či chodu společnosti? Jaký je podle Vás přístup Vašeho vedoucího? Máte s Vaším vedoucím pravidelné porady a feedback např. 1x měsíčně? (novinky, chod společnosti, informace + zpětná vazba od vedoucího) Uvítal/a byste porady, feedback? Proč ne? Zaznamenal/a jste nový zpravodaj? Líbí se Vám? Čerpáte z něj informace? Co byste uvítal/a za témata? Podílel jste se, budete se podílet nebo byste se někdy chtěl podílet na tématech daných do Zpravodaje?
8. Jak hodnotíte obecně vztahy ve firmě? např. při spolupráci s jinými odděleními, komunikace napříč firmou. Jak hodnotíte vztahy na Vašem oddělení? Cítíte se tam dobře? Pomluvy, diskriminace, neděláte práci za někoho jiného? Řešil/a jste někdy nějaký problém? Vyřešil to Váš vedoucí? Pokud ne, věděl/a byste na koho se obrátit?
9. Existuje nějaká překážka, která Vám brání kvalitně vykonávat svou práci? Neochota, pracovní prostředky, rozpočet...
10. Jste spokojen/a se zázemím svého pracoviště? Jídelna, toalety, kuchyňka?
11. Byl/a jste někdy svědkem ničení budov, majetku MDl? Jaká byla Vaše reakce, řešil jste to s někým? Pokud ne, víte s kým to řešit?
12. Souhlasíte s tím, že MDl přispívá na charitativní činnost? Těší Vás to? Uvítal/a byste možnost spolurozhodovat o projektu, na který přispěje?

Prvním důležitým krokem bylo zajistit reprezentativnost. Podle Shiraeva (2007) závisí reprezentativnost výzkumného souboru nejen na velikosti zkoumané populace, ale také na její homogenitě – čím je populace více heterogenní (více různorodá), tím více odlišných podskupin obsahuje a tím více osob je nutné do výběrového souboru zařadit, aby byla každá podskupina dostatečně zastoupena. Urbánek a kol. (2011) uvádí, že požadavek reprezentativnosti je v praxi naplňován pomocí různých metod výběru výzkumného souboru. Autorka zvolila kvótní výběr, což je metoda záměrného výběru, který se neřídí náhodou. Účastníci výzkumu jsou vybíráni tak, že je předem stanoveno, nakolik má být ve výběrovém souboru zastoupena určitá charakteristika. V případě vybrané společnosti byly stanoveny následující požadavky:

- pohlaví: min. 5 žen, 5 mužů,
- věk respondentů: vždy min. 10 % pracovníků v každé věkové kategorii (20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 50 a výše let),

- počet let ve společnosti: vždy min. 10 % pracovníků v každé kategorii (0-2, 3-5, 6-10, 11 a více let),
- typ oddělení: vždy min. 1 pracovník z daného oddělení (dopravy, skladů, ekonomického, obchodního, personálního, kvality, logistiky, technického, IT).

Řízených rozhovorů se zúčastnilo celkem 16 pracovníků. Jeden rozhovor trval 20-40 minut. Bylo dotazováno 9 mužů a 7 žen, kteří ve společnosti pracují od 1 roku až po 22 let. Zároveň byl zajištěn požadavek min. 1 pracovník z jednotlivých oddělení.

Pouhá polovina dotazovaných ví o tom, že se ve společnosti zavádí koncept CSR a někteří z nich ani nevědí proč. Představují si pod tím to, jak podnik působí navenek, ale i to, jak se podnik chová ke svým zaměstnancům. Dle jednoho respondenta je CSR v České republice zbytečné a nepraktické, protože certifikace přináší pouze dodatečné finanční náklady. Nedůležitost konceptu ve společnosti dokládají i další odpovědi. Zaměstnanci již v minulosti vyplňovali dotazníky z oblasti CSR a navrhovali změny ke zlepšení situace, ale nezměnilo se podle nich vůbec nic.

Všichni THP pracovníci a management ovlivňují svou prací hospodářský výsledek společnosti a její fungování a jsou si toho vědomi. Bohužel si však myslí, že jejich aktivita ze strany vedení není dostatečně podporována a ohodnocena, nedochází k valorizaci mzdy. Situace byla navíc značně ovlivněna tím, že dotazování probíhalo po krácení mzdy (podnik nevykazoval uspokojivé výsledky, a tak byly zaměstnancům odebrány prémie po dobu 2 měsíců) a o tomto krácení se dozvěděli až z výplatní pásky. Společnost nabízí svým zaměstnancům následující firemní benefity:

- příspěvek na závodní stravování, které zajišťuje Jídelna Karlovina přímo v podniku,
- volné vstupenky do zoologické zahrady Dvůr Králové nad Labem,
- volné vstupenky do bazénu v Litomyšli,
- permanentky do sportovního a wellness H-centra v Pardubicích,
- vstupenky na hokej do Tipsport areny v Pardubicích,
- zvýhodněné tarify u mobilního operátora Vodafone,
- zvýhodněné produkty u Unicredit Bank,
- zvýhodněné pojištění u OK klient,
- zvýhodněné služby u KALT pneu,
- anglické kurzy v rámci pracovní doby.

Pracovníci nejsou z benefitů nadšeni, chybí jim stravenky, příspěvky na životní pojištění a penzijní připojištění, 5 týdnů dovolené, nebo sick days. Ze současných benefitů někteří oceňují závodní stravování a anglické kurzy. Ostatní výhody využívají zřídkakdy kvůli vzdálenosti od místa bydliště a vlastním poskytovatelům služeb (banka, pojišťovna, pneuservis, mobilní operátor), nebo kvůli nedostupnosti benefitů (málo vstupenek na hokej, nejasná pravidla pro půjčování permanentek). Aktuálně je zjišťován zájem o nový benefit – výhodnější kurzy ve směnárně v Pardubicích. Dle odpovědí zaměstnanci nemají zájem, protože na dovolenou jezdí maximálně jednou za rok a mají své oblíbené směnárny.

Jako další benefit lze považovat školení. Zaměstnanci si mohou školení vybírat sami, poté dochází ke schvalování vedením. V minulosti se nevyskytl žádný problém, vedení všem vychází vstříc. Dotazovaní by ocenili pravidelná školení nebo kurzy přímo na pracovišti, např. PC kurzy, školení o nové legislativě, nebo praktické kurzy se simulací reality (kurz asertivity, vedení lidí atd.).

Další otázkou se potvrdilo, proč pracovníci nevědí o zavádění CSR ve společnosti. Většina z nich uvádí, že vedení je nedostatečně informuje o změnách a chodu společnosti. Přístup jejich vedoucího je pasivní, nemají s ním pravidelné porady a nedostávají feedback. Vše se řeší pouze operativně. Podnik se snaží informovat své zaměstnance formou Zpravodaje (občasník), který je přikládán k výplatní pásce, ale respondenti se shodují, že ho spíše nečtou.

Co se týče vztahů v podniku, zde se názory liší. Přibližně polovina zaměstnanců je spokojená se spoluprací na svém oddělení, s jinými odděleními i komunikací napříč firmou. Druhá polovina si stěžuje na řídící pracovníky, kteří ke změnám přistupují pasivně a jsou neochotní komunikovat, na špatné podklady od jiných oddělení a váznoucí komunikaci, na nepřátelskou atmosféru, na neochotu si pomáhat a na nejasně stanovenou náplň práce. Konkrétní negativní ohlasy jsou na oddělení dopravy, které je ze strany vedení údajně protěžováno, a na mzdovou účetní, která ovlivňuje vztahy ve firmě vynášením informací o odměnách.

Jako největší překážka, která pracovníkům brání kvalitně vykonávat svou práci, se jeví neochota a přístup některých (především řídících) pracovníků. Zaměstnanci pak nemají všechny podklady a informace k výkonu své práce, necítí se jako součást týmu. Naopak si chválí zázemí svého pracoviště. Jsou spokojeni s jídelnou, kuchyňkou i sociálním zařízením.

Poslední otázka se týkala přispívání na charitativní činnost. Pracovníci ví, že společnost přispívá a těší je to. Rádi by však spolurozhodovali o projektech, na které se přispěje, například formou hlasování. V současné době se přispívá na Základní školu a Praktickou školu Svítání v Pardubicích. Zaměstnanci uvádí, že pokud by se přispívalo na více projektů, které by byly transparentní, rádi by se také zapojili.

Z těchto řízených rozhovorů vyplynuly následující doporučení:

- pořádat pravidelné porady a meetingy ředitele s vedoucími pracovníky a vedoucích pracovníků s podřízenými, zajistit férové jednání v případě špatné finanční situace podniku a poskytovat pravidelné feedbacky,
- komunikovat CSR mezi všechny zaměstnance formou porad, e-mailů, zpravodaje,
- rozšířit nabídku benefitů o návrhy ze strany zaměstnanců,
- motivovat zaměstnance formou odměn za přínosný nápad (úspora, zlepšení atd.),
- pořádat teambuildingy v místě pracoviště,
- organizovat exkurze pro studenty jako budoucí zaměstnance,
- zapojit zaměstnance do přispívání na charitativní činnost, na podporu místní komunity.

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CONSUMER ASSESSMENT OF SELECTED FOOD COMMODITIES BY SLOVAK WOMEN FROM GENERATION Y

Ivana Bulanda, Milan Džupina, Veronika Franková

Abstract

For the correct targeting of the marketing strategy, it is necessary to penetrate into the customer's thinking and understand the formation of his/her attitude, understanding of the product and the image that the consumer has of it. Therefore, a business needs to know its precisely articulated customer segments and their opinions on the products and services, and attune their products and services to this opinion as much as possible. This is all the more evident in Generation Y, which is characterized by a special and individualistic lifestyle. The main objective of this paper is to present the research findings, which reflect the evaluation of selected food commodities (fruit, vegetables, bread) in Slovak women from Generation Y. A questionnaire was the primary method of data collection, followed by the secondary semantic differential method. The research file consisted of 398 respondents aged 20 to 40. The results present an assessment of food commodities and their evaluation differences due to the different consumer status (active-passive customers) in women from Generation Y.

Key words: *Generation Y, consumer, women, food*

1. Introduction

Consumers help create and shape the brands, products and communications on the market and they expect that these are adapted to their way of life (Přikrylová, Jahodová, 2010, Džupina, Hodinková, Kiková, 2016). Each individual decides differently as a customer depending on the particular offer and situation (Foret, 2006). Several authors (Polakevičová, 2015a, Viteková, 2016, Světlík, 2016) understand the decision-making process during a purchase as a process, which takes the consumer all the way from understanding his/her needs through the purchase decision to its actual execution. The companies should build a stronger position on the individual target markets and conduct an analysis of the behavior, needs, preferences and wishes of their customers, which must be identified, quickly responded to and satisfied (Kotler, 2005, Koprda, 2015, Nagyová et al., 2014), and presupposes the application of an appropriate communications mix and marketing strategies in the form of advertising communication and information customized to the individual behaviors and purchase decisions of the customers (Foret, 2006, Košičiarová et al., 2017). The consumer's response to various marketing incentives can differ for each individual (Polakevičová, 2015b). Its knowledge guarantees the business success and a competitive advantage. These marketing initiatives include the product, price, distribution, and marketing communication, which together with the external stimuli (economic, cultural, technological, political and legal) trigger specific customer's reactions resulting in the selection of the product, brand, quantity, price and time, in which the purchase is made (Kita, et al., 2010, Kádeková et al., 2017). Some indicators of customer behavior can be easily recognizable (e.g. economic factors), others are more difficult to identify (sociological and psychological factors). An important role is played by getting to know the personality of the customer and his/her characteristic behavior patterns (Vysekalová, et al., 2014).

1.1 Sources of product value

Several experts (Levitt, Jedlička, Kotler) argue about what determines a good product and what helps us attract and retain new customers. Theodore Levitt, one of the most important

thinkers on marketing, considers the marketing activities focusing only on tangible product features to be insufficient within the wider conception of the product because they are easily and quickly replicable by the competitors. On the contrary, companies need to focus on those product characteristics that the consumer considers to be most important, on the benefit that product brings to the consumer, and on other intangible sources of value that would be perceived by the customer as sources extending the product components. For example, it is most appropriate to focus on the performance characteristics of products and the level of service provided to the customer based on the ever-increasing customer demands (Bartáková, et al., 2007). This assertion is disputed by Jedlička's theory (2007), according to which most customers are driven by irrational factors such as design, fashion and spur of the moment, instead of the serious substantive aspects of the product in the decision-making process. According to M. Jedlička (2007), the most effective tools in marketing are design, packaging and brand. Kotler (2005) is of an opinion that quality, value and services have become the most significant factors for the customer and also in battling the competition. The perception of the required quality and value is often influenced by emotions (Vysekalová, et al., 2014). On the contrary, speed, adaptation to the requirements of the customer and design (Kotler, 2005) are deemed to be less essential. The study conducted by Tesco had a very similar focus, and it found that the most important factors influencing the buying behavior and decision making include the freshness and quality of the goods (up to 88% of responses). Here, however, we are already entering the territory of retail food market with increasing consumer demand for branded and premium foods. Other important aspects, as asserts Klára Slavíková, Manager of Business Department at Tesco, are the price and product range (Kopecká, 2010). However, an overly wide product range can discourage the customer. It causes uncertainty and the customer has a feeling that he/she is lost in the wide offer. The price should not be changed often because it can create an impression of lower product quality, it progressively destroys customer satisfaction, brand loyalty and a good relationship with the customers (Reddy, 1997, Světlík, 2016, Kubicová, Kádeková, 2017). Since the promotional strategy of each company should also include a market research analysis, we have decided to cooperate with Tesco in our research and help them better understand the customer attitudes towards some perceived product attributes, which should lead to a better understanding of customer satisfaction, and, where appropriate, to the implementation of a suitable sales strategy, which is most appropriate for the relevant products and customers types. We focused on the products of everyday use and consumption, such as fruit, vegetables and bread, in which impersonal forms of sales and self-service are primarily used.

2. Research methodology

The main research objective was to assess fruit, vegetables and pastries by the female representatives of Generation Y in Slovakia – and Tesco customers at the same time. We have formulated two research questions:

- How does Generation Y assess fruit, vegetables and pastries sold in Tesco Stores in terms of their positive and negative attributes?
- How is the quality, price and availability of fruit, vegetables and bread in Tesco Stores perceived in women from Generation Y?
- What are the differences in evaluating fruit, vegetables and pastries sold in Tesco by active and passive female customers from Generation Y?

We chose Tesco on the basis of a survey of shopping preferences, which was carried out by Income Research in 2007 together with Gfk (Incoma, 2007), which indicates that many customers consider Tesco to be their main shopping option for fast turnaround goods, and it belongs to one of the most popular supermarket chains in Slovakia with lots of stores in almost every town, which is a guarantee of a relatively good availability for the customers. To

reach out to this audience, Tesco helped us with their internal files and databases. We filtered out women from Generation Y as the target age group and we selected our subjects evenly from the “loyal” and “regular” customer group.
When collecting the data, we used the questioning method. Due to its limitations in the answers and inability to detect the direction and intensity of assessment (Tahal, 2017), we supplemented the questionnaire by the semantic differential method. The chosen bipolar adjectives were divided into three categories: power, activity and ratings. The evaluation of fruit, vegetables and pastries was conducted by the research file on a seven-point scale. The research file consisted of Slovak women from Generation Y, which are (active/passive) Tesco customers, aged 20 to 40, with an average age of 34. The significance level was set to 95% and the permissible error rate in measurement to 5%. Of the total of 418 questionnaires, 5% (20 replies) checked out as invalid. The answers provided in 398 valid questionnaires were subjected to analysis. According to several authors (Reddy, 1997 Kopecká, 2016), women represent the strongest segment in food, especially for the home and family, but also for their own consumption. From the marketing point of view, Generation Y has a high purchasing potential. This is currently the strongest and most active customer segment. It represents a dominant part of the population since it is active in the labor market and employed. It is therefore essential for the companies to focus on this generation in their marketing programs (Polakevičová, Szabová, Kamenská, 2014, Bulanda, Lincényi, Kamenská, 2017).

3. Results

The findings have shown that fruit, vegetables and pastry were rated “good” to “very good”, which means that these items appeared in the range of 1 to 4 on the scale. The main determinant was that the higher the score an item reached, the worse assessment or negative image it received – and conversely, the lower the value, the more positive the assessment because higher values in our questionnaire indicated negative product attributes. Table 1 reflects the average standard deviation of the dispersion of responses and it quantifies the average values for fruit, vegetables and pastries.

Table 1: Average values for fruit, vegetables and pastries in Tesco Stores in women from Generation Y

	AVERAGE RATING	STANDARD DEVIATION
FRUIT	3.31	1.31
VEGETABLES	3.30	1.28
PASTRIES	3.08	1.34

All kinds of food were evaluated with a score of 3 (Table 1) on average, and thus rated as "rather good". The highest variance in ratings was recorded in pastries (1.34).

The most significant attributes of fruit, vegetables and bakery products sold in Tesco were that they are known, clearly marked, tasty and healthy (Table 2). The attributes “current” and “comparable to other retail chains” were rated relatively positively or on the intermediate level. Due to this characteristic, we understand that the research file might have not perceived a significant difference nor a reason to buy these foods exclusively in Tesco (it is more likely they use the discounts and promotions or buy them alongside other products).

Table 2: Fruit, vegetables and pastries in Tesco Stores and their assessment by women from Generation Y

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
FRUIT	Well-known (2.52)	Common (4.10)
	Clearly marked (2.87)	Comparable with other retail

	Delicious (2.97)	chains (4.29)
	Healthy (2.86)	
VEGETABLES	Healthy (2.99)	Common (3.95)
	Clearly marked (2.88)	Comparable with other retail chains (4.33)
	Known (2.77)	
PASTRIES	Quality (2.99)	Common (3.74)
	Traditional (2.96)	
	Available (2.97)	
	Fine (2.94)	
	Fresh (2.76)	
	Nice smell (2.58)	
	Crispy (2.64)	
	Available (2.99)	
	Delicious (2.69)	Comparable with other retail chains (3.96)
	Nice (2.73)	
	Tempting (2.72)	
	Home-made (2.91)	
	Adjusted to the wishes of the customer (2.88)	
	Well-known (2.58)	
	Satisfying the needs (2.70)	
	Good (2.78)	

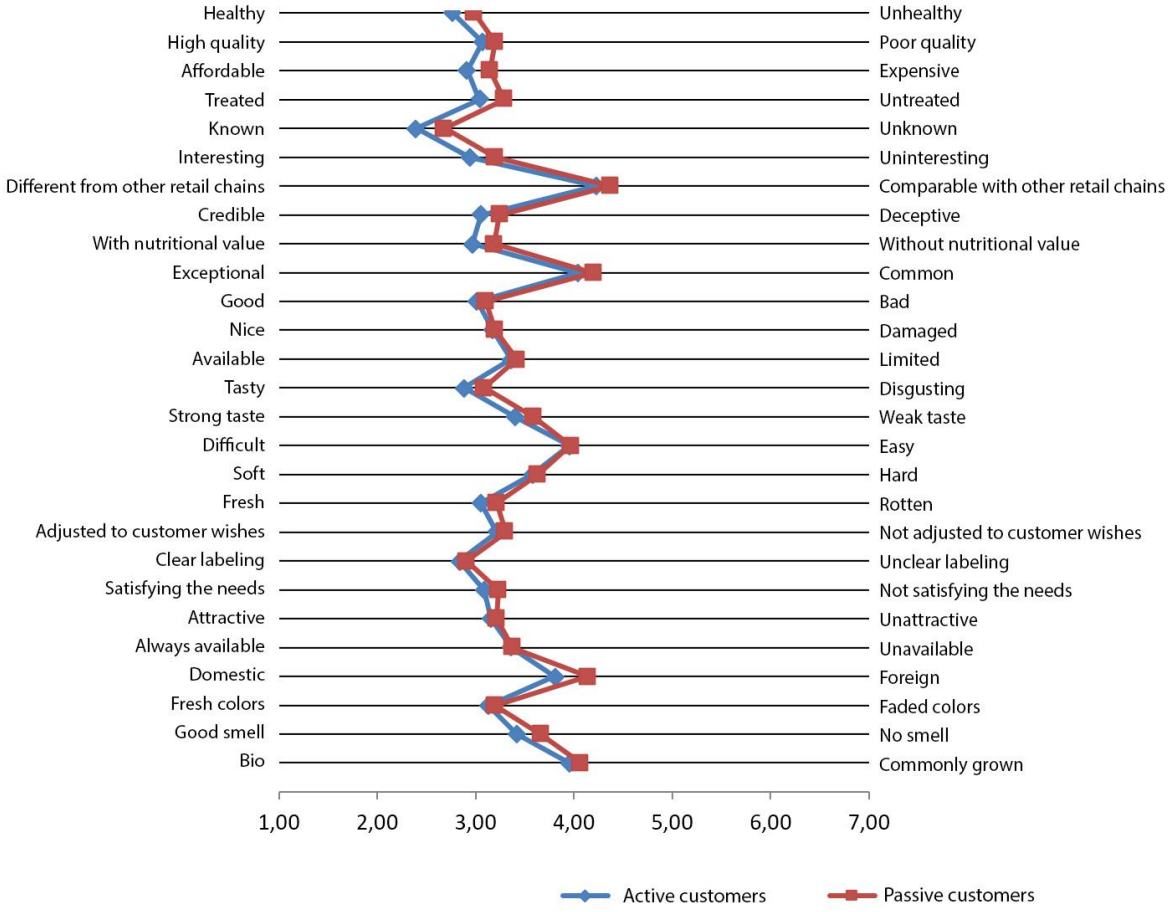
The results also indicate that fruit, vegetables and pastries are comparably rated in terms of price, quality and distribution. As shown in Table 3, the most frequent value is 3, which means “rather good” on the seven-degree scale.

Table 3: Average value of customer perception of quality, prices and availability of fruit, vegetables and pastries in Tesco Stores in women from Generation Y

	QUALITY	PRICE	DISTRIBUTION
FRUIT	3.13	3.01	3.37
VEGETABLES	3.19	3.10	3.31
PASTRIES	2.98	3.14	2.99

We only noted minimum deviations in assessment in the comparative analysis of active and passive Tesco shoppers from Generation Y (Chart 1, Chart 2, Chart 3).

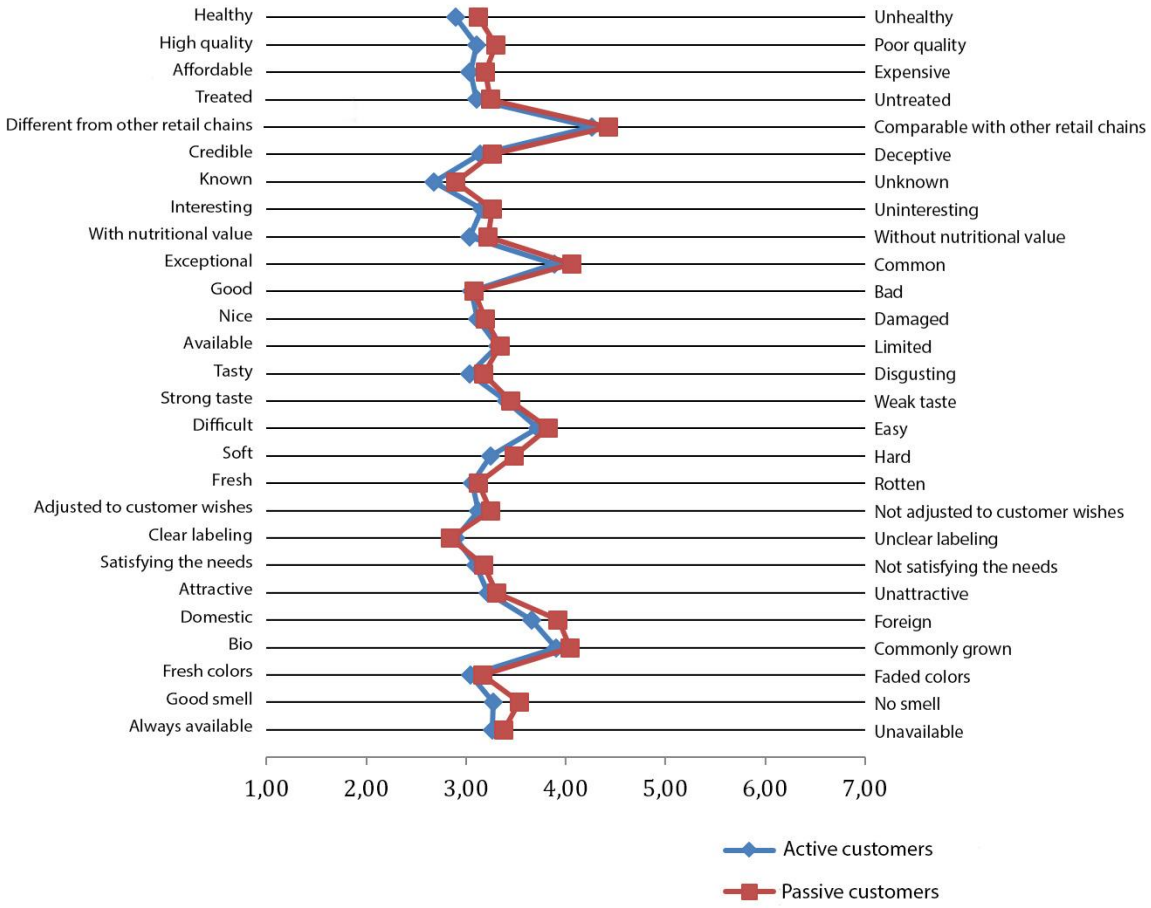
Chart 1: Comparison of ratings of fruit attributes by active and passive customers



Source: own processing of the questionnaire

By comparing the curves representing the assessment of active and passive clients, we can conclude that some items, such as good smell, taste, satisfaction of needs, local produce, taste, nutritional value, health etc., were rated more positively by active customers (Chart 1).

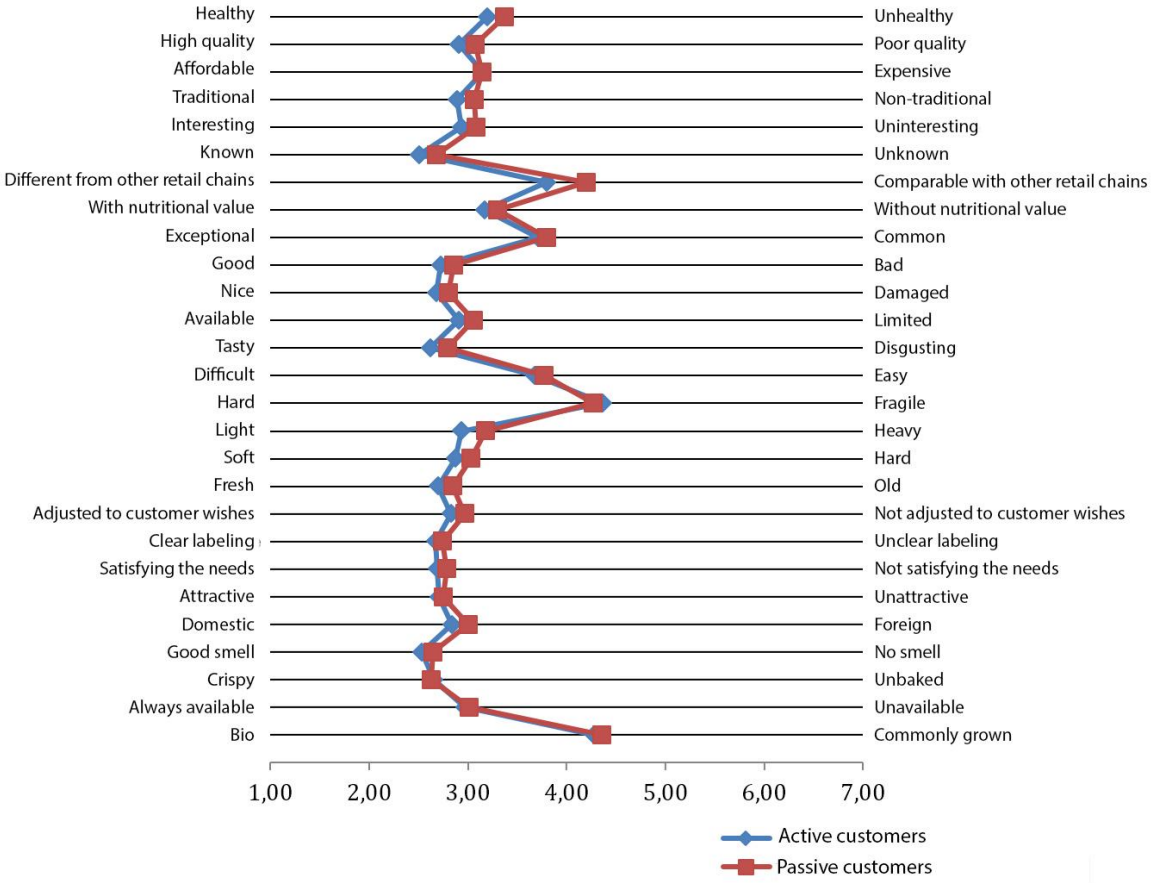
Chart 2: Comparison of ratings of vegetables by active and passive customers



Source: own processing of the questionnaire

Similar to the evaluation of fruit, the evaluation of vegetables sided toward "healthy, high-quality, affordable, treated" with active customers. In the medium items, such as taste, availability, appearance and ease of use, the evaluations were identical. At the bottom, we can again observe minimum deviations, in particular for the items such as smell, local production and fineness (Chart 2).

Chart 3: Comparison of ratings of pastries by active and passive customers



Source: own processing of the questionnaire

In pastries, the curves differentiate mainly on the upper and middle level, but they run in parallel in complexity, fragility, availability and bio-production (Chart 3).

In general it can be stated that the evaluation of fruit, vegetables and pastries by active and passive customers was almost identical although salient differences can be noted in the assessment of pastries both into the positive and negative regions of the scale. In fruit and vegetables, only slight variations were recorded. Collectively, fruit, vegetables and pastries were rated by both groups of customers (active and passive) as relatively healthy, well-known and affordable. The customers were aware of the fact that Tesco Stores sells foreign and domestic fruit and vegetables, and they consider them as routine and comparable with other competing retail chains. The assessment moved from the mean values to the positive ones. It can therefore be concluded that fruit, vegetables and pastries are viewed positively by both client groups (active and passive customers) with a different consumer status. To confirm these findings, we used a f-test to determine the conformity of variances between these two groups of clients. The result with a small significance (f) = 0.84 meant a mismatch of variances and it confirmed the use of the t-test for two independent samples, which is conducted if the f-test significance is greater than 0.05. We calculated the differences in the assessment of clients at a level of significance of 5% (0.05). The result of the t-test was t = 0.118. Given the fact that the value of t is greater than the statistical significance 0.05, we conclude that the difference in the evaluation of fruit, vegetables and pastries in passive and active customers is not statistically significant. It has also been confirmed with the t-test results that the differences in the group averages are not statistically significant.

4. Conclusion

This paper focused on the subjective evaluations of selected commodities, i.e. fruit, vegetables and pastries, by Slovak women from the Generation Y segment. The research file consisted of 398 respondents aged 20 to 40. A questionnaire was the primary method of data collection, followed by the secondary semantic differential method. In relation to the stated research questions, the findings indicate that the Generation Y research file holds a generally positive attitude to fruit, vegetables and pastries sold in Tesco Slovakia. Overall, it was rated mostly positively and without major deviations. Pastries were rated as top, and vegetables were rated more negatively. The most valued properties of fruit, vegetables and pastries are their commonality and accuracy of labeling. Pastries received even more positive assessment for their flavor, freshness, sufficient baking, good smell, wide choice, availability and the fact that they meet the needs and wishes of the customers. Generally, these foods are perceived as common and comparable to other retail chains. Regarding the perceived price, quality and availability of the food commodities surveyed, these products do not register notable differences. Quality, price and distribution were rated with a minimum deviation. There were no statistically significant differences in the evaluation of fruit, vegetables and pastries sold in Tesco Stores between active and passive customers. In practical terms, the research findings may help in analyzing the behavior of women from Generation Y in Slovakia in terms of purchasing, product perception, assessment of product attributes at the point of sale and after-sales assessment. They may also help increase the value of perception of this group of consumers using the appropriate marketing strategies by Tesco. The results reflect the data on the perception of products of daily consumption and can be used to change the promotion of products tailored to the requirements of women from Generation Y.

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FEBRILITY U DETÍ Z POHĽADU RODIČOV

SURVEY OF PARENTS PARENTAL LEVELS ON COPING WITH FEVER IN CHILDREN

Iveta Ondriová, Anna Eliašová, Lívia Hadašová, Gabriela Kuriplachová, Jana Cuperová, Andrea Lengyelová

Abstrakt

Horúčka je jedným z najčastejších príznakov choroby, ktorý sprevádza deti najmä v prvých piatich rokoch života. Horúčka u detí predstavuje problém, ktorý si vyžaduje adekvátny prístup nielen zdravotníckych pracovníkov ale rovnako aj rodičov, ktorí by sa o dieťa s horúčkou mali vedieť správne postarať v domácom prostredí. Autorky v príspevku popisujú problematiku horúčky v detskom veku so zameraním na možnosti jej znižovania, akútnu komplikáciu – febrilné kŕče a následne sú sprístupnené výsledky prieskumu týkajúce sa vedomostí rodičov o danej problematike.

Kľúčové slová*: horúčka, liečba horúčky, febrilné kŕče, podporná liečba*

Abstract

Fever is one of the most common symptoms of a disease that accompanies children, especially during the first five years of life. Children´s fever is a problem that requires adequate access not only healthcare workers but also to parents who should be able to care for child with fever in a home places. Authors describe childhood fever issues, focusing on the possibilities of reducing it, acute complications – febrile cramps and the results of a parental knowledge survey on the issue.

Key words*: fever, treatment of fever, febrile seizure, supporting treatment.*

1. ÚVOD

Horúčka je sprievodným príznakom mnohých ochorení v detskom veku. Najčastejšou príčinou horúčky sú infekčné ochorenia (viac ako 90% akútnej horúčky), pričom najpravdepodobnejšie infekčné agens závisí od veku dieťaťa, epidemiologickej situácie a postihnutého systému. Menej častou príčinou sú neinfekčné zápaly (zápalové ochorenia čreva, choroby spojiva), malígne ochorenia, neurologické ochorenia, požitie liekov (Buchanec,1998). Cieľom liečby horúčky je zlepšenie celkového stavu dieťaťa, nie dosiahnutie normotermie. Ku klinickým prejavom horúčky patrí pocit zimy a chladu, zrýchlený tep a dýchanie, tras, bledá studená pokožka, potenie, vzostup telesnej teploty, neskôr na dotyk teplá koža, červená, zrýchlený tep a dýchanie, ospalosť, nepokoj, kŕče, strata chuti do jedla, nevoľnosť, slabosť, bolesť svalov pri nedostatočnom príjme tekutín rôzne stupne dehydratácie. Horúčka mobilizuje systém na niekoľkých úrovniach a je súčasne cenným ukazovateľom klinického priebehu choroby a úspešnosti liečby. Rozhodnutie o jej liečbe má byť prísne individuálne. U dojčiat a batoliat podľa odporúčania WHO by sa liečba horúčky mala začať pri axilárnej teplote nad 38,5°C, čo zodpovedá rektálnej teplote 39°C. Výnimkou je bolesť alebo dyskomfort dieťaťa, šokový stav, anamnéza febrilných kŕčov a závažná komorbidita.(Klíma,2016)

2. TERAPIA HORÚČKY

V terapii horúčky u detí sa uplatňuje kombinácia podpornej liečby, fyzikálnych a medikamentóznych opatrení.

Podporná liečba zahŕňa prevenciu centralizácie obehu uložením dieťaťa do horizontálnej polohy, elimináciou fyzickej a psychickej námahy. Katabolizmu a dehydratácii bránime zvýšením energetického príjmu, najmä použitím ľahko stráviteľnej stravy s vyšším podielom sacharidov (+12% energie na každý 1°C) a tekutín (+20% tekutín na každý 1°C). U dojčiat vzhľadom na osobitosti hospodárenia s tekutinami môže dôjsť k dehydratácií už o niekoľko hodín (). Najdôležitejšími režimovými opatreniami sú odstránenie prebytočného oblečenia, pokoj na lôžku a nahradenie tekutinového a energetického deficitu spojeného s horúčkou. Energetická spotreba dieťaťa stúpa pri zvýšení telesnej teploty o 1 °C o 10 % a potreba tekutín až o 20 %. Pri intolerancii per os je nutná hospitalizácia a parenterálna rehydratácia dieťaťa.

Z fyzikálnych metód je v súčasnosti najviac odporúčaná tepid sponging– trenie vlažnou špongiou(Novotný, 2014).Fyzikálnou metódou odporúčanou v súčasnosti EBM v liečbe horúčky u detí je trenie vlažnou špongiou (tepid sponging). Na pokožke sa opakovane vytvára jemný film vlažnej tekutiny (29–33 °C), ktorý odoberá prebytočné teplo a následne sa odparuje. Trením navodená vazodilatácia kožných kapilár ďalej zvyšuje odvod tepla do okolia sálaním. Najväčšie tepelné straty kvôli veľkému telesnému povrchu sa pozorujú u dojčiat a batoliat. Trenie dieťaťa sa začína pri rektálnej teplote nad 39 °C. Na kožu celého tela (s výnimkou kapilícia - vlasy, ochlpenie) sa nanesie film vlažnej vody, pričom po jeho doparení sa postup znovu opakuje. Najvyššia účinnosť je dokázaná v priebehu prvých 30 minút a podporuje ju súčasné podanie paracetamolu. Neskôr účinnosť fyzikálnych metód klesá a zníženie telesnej teploty je len dôsledkom podania antipyretickej liečby (paracetamolu). Sponging sa zvlášť odporúča v prípadoch hypersenzitivity na antipyretiká, u detí do 3 mesiacov. Kontraindikáciou spongingu a iných fyzikálnych metód je hyperpyrexia nad 41 °C, chladná a mramorovaná periféria pri vzostupe telesnej teploty a centralizácii obehu a exantémové a niektoré kožné choroby. Ďalšou fyzikálnou metódou sú **zábaly.** Výhrady voči zábalom spočívajú v argumentácii zlej akceptovanosti chorým dieťaťom a malej efektívnosti odvodu tepla najmä pri zlom prekrvení kože a následnej kontrakcii kožných kapilár, čo môže paradoxne znížiť odvod tepla (Cinová a kol.,2017).Pri znižovaní telesnej teploty sa používa aj sprcha vlažnou vodou (20-25°C), prípadne kombinácia sprchy s prúdom teplého vzduchu, ktorá je efektívna a deti ju veľmi dobre tolerujú (Šašinka, Furková, 2011). Dieťaťu v šoku je vhodné znižovať telesnú teplotu prikladaním vakov s ľadom na kožu v priebehu veľkých tepien (napr. a. femoralis) a u hospitalizovaných detí tiež podávaním chladenej vnútrožilovej infúzie (Buchanec,1998). Tekutina používaná pri metódach fyzikálneho ochladzovania má byť len o niekoľko stupňov nižšia ako teplota dieťaťa, čím predchádzame vazokonstrikcii ciev a centralizácii obehu (Šagátová,2014). Všeobecnou kontraindikáciou používania fyzikálnych metód je hyperpyrexia (41°C a viac), prejavy centralizácie obehu a exantémové kožné choroby (Sedlářová, 2008).

Medikamentózna terapia - Z farmakologických postupov sa v liečbe horúčky u detí najčastejšie využíva perorálne podávanie Paracetamolu alebo Ibuprofénu. antipyretiká sa aplikujú spravidla až pri rektálnej horúčke 39°C. Predpokladom úspešnosti farmakoterapie je dostatočný cirkulačný objem a schopnosť organizmu zvýšiť perfúziu kože a akrálnych častí organizmu. Dávkovanie je podľa ordinácie lekára.(Mráz,2005)Medzi kontraindikované antipyretiká radíme kyselinu acetylosalicylovú, indometacín, nabumetón, diklofenak a pyroxín. Kyselina acetylosalicylová je vhodným antipyretikom u dospelých, ale u detí do veku 15 rokov by mala byť zásadne kontraindikovaná kvôli možnému výskytu nebezpečnej encefalopatie s tukovou degeneráciou pečene, ktorá je známa ako *Reyov syndróm* (Kovács,2014).

Komplikácie horúčky - Najvážnejšou akútnou komplikáciou horúčky v detskom veku sú febrilné kŕče. Vznikajú najčastejšie medzi 6.mesiacom až 5. rokom života. Záchvat kŕčov vzniká hlavne pri prudkom zvýšení teploty priemerne nad 38°C. Kŕče sa vyskytujú v 2-5% európskej populácie (Stožický, Sýkora a kol.2015). Febrilné kŕče môžu recidivovať- najčastejšie v priebehu prvých 24 hodín. Ich prekonanie zvyšuje riziko vzniku febrilných kŕčov v neskoršom veku. Diagnostické postupy sa zameriavajú na vylúčenie epilepsie, zápalových ochorení CNS a iných organických poškodení nervového systému (Martínková, 2007). Urgentná liečba kŕčov zahŕňa: oxygenoterapiu maskou, diazepam v roztoku pre rektálnu aplikáciu (Diazepam Desitin, Stesolid Dumax). V nemocnici prichádza do úvahy aplikácia Diazepamu i.v., parenterálnych tekutín. Súčasne je nevyhnutné znižovať horúčku, chrániť dieťa pred úrazom, monitorovať nástup a priebeh kŕčov. Opakovaniu febrilných kŕčov je nevyhnutné predchádzať. Prevencia je realizovaná formou intermitentnej profylaxie (ďalšie horúčkové ochorenie si vyžaduje aj aplikáciu diazepamu) alebo kontinuálnej Profylaxie (aplikácia antikonvulzív pri opakovaných, komplikovaných febrilných kŕčoch ako prevencia rozvoja epilepsie) (Vargová,2006).

3. PRIESKUMNÁ ČASŤ

Hlavný prieskumný problém: Aká je úroveň informovanosti rodičov o zvládaní horúčky u detí?

Hlavný cieľ prieskumu: Hlavným cieľom prieskumu bolo zhodnotenie a analýza informovanosti rodičov v oblasti zvládania horúčky u detí

Parciálne ciele prieskumu:

1. 1.Zistiť úroveň vedomostí rodičov detí dojčiat a batoliat o farmakologických a nefarmakologických postupoch zvládania horúčky u detí
2. Monitorovať, ako dokážu rodičia posúdiť stav horúčky u detí
3. Posúdiť , aké informácie majú rodičia o komplikáciách horúčky u detí

Charakteristika prieskumného súboru

Prieskumný súbor bol tvorený 105 matkami. Respondenti boli vo vekovom rozmedzí 22 –42 rokov. Medzi respondentami dominovalo stredoškolské vzdelanie s maturitou a vysokoškolské vzdelanie.

Analýza a interpretácia výsledkov prieskumu

Ku klinickým prejavom horúčky patrí pocit zimy a chladu, zrýchlený tep a dýchanie, tras, bledá studená pokožka, potenie, vzostup telesnej teploty, neskôr na dotyk teplá koža, červená, zrýchlený tep a dýchanie, ospalosť, nepokoj, kŕče, strata chuti do jedla, nevoľnosť, slabosť, bolesť svalov pri nedostatočnom príjme tekutín rôzne stupne dehydratácie. Z najčastejšie uvádzaných príznakov prevládali u 78% respondentov červená prehriata pokožka, slabosť, nechutenstvo. Predpokladom úspešnej terapie horúčky , je v prvom rade správne posúdenie jej hodnôt. Je nevyhnutné odlíšiť fyziologickú telesnú teplotu od patologickej. 82% respondentiek považuje správne za horúčku telesnú teplotu 38,1°C a viac. U 18% respondentiek došlo k zámene ponímania zvýšenej telesnej teploty, fyziologickej teploty za horúčku. Z toho môžeme usudzovať, že tieto respondentky budú zbytočne znižovať teplotu skôr, ako je to vhodné. V ďalšom nás zaujímalo, aké sú vedomosti matiek o farmakologických postupoch využívaných pri znižovaní TT u detí. Respondentky mali uviesť vhodné antipyretiká pre detský vek. Celkovo udali 8 liečív, medzi ktoré zaradili vhodné ale aj nevhodné antipyretiká. Medzi vhodnými antipyretikami dominoval Paralen, Panadol a Nurofen – zastúpené boli teda antipyretiká paracetamolového aj ibuprofénového radu. Na druhej strane treba konštatovať, že matky uviedli aj antipyretiká nevhodné pre detský vek obsahujúce kyselinu acetylosalicylovú (Acylpirín, Anopyrín). Možno konštatovať, že rodičia tak vystavujú svoje dieťa riziku výskytu Reyovho syndrómu, ktorý má negatívne následky na zdravie ich detí. Najčastejšie využívaný nefarmakologický spôsob znižovania

horúčky sú rodičmi využívané chladivé zábaly, 55 % rodičov označilo túto odpoveď ale potieranie vlhkou špongiou získalo len 8 % odpovedí, čo je veľmi nízke percento. Táto metóda sa považuje za najvhodnejší nefarmakologický spôsob liečby horúčky. Ako uvádza Mráz (2005, s. 238) „*potieraním vlhkou špongiou sa na pokožke vytvára jemný film a tak odoberá z tela nadbytočné teplo. Účinok sa dostaví v priebehu 30 minút. Najviac sa odporúča táto metóda u detí do 3 mesiacov alebo u detí pri zvýšenej citlivosti na antipyretiká*." Popri nefarmakologickej liečbe horúčky je dôležitá aj dostatočná hydratácia dieťaťa. 78 % respondentov sa zhodlo na tom, že teplé tekutiny napr. nesladený čaj sú najvhodnejším výberom na hydratáciu dieťaťa. Autorky Mrosková, Požonská, Holubová (2006) konštatujú, že: „*najideálnejším spôsobom náhrady tekutín je kombinácia sladeného čaju (resp. džúsu) a neperlivých minerálnych vôd.*" Následne sme sa prostredníctvom nášho prieskumu zamerali na možné komplikácie vznikajúce v súvislosti s horúčkou. Až 65 % rodičov označilo febrilné kŕče za najčastejšiu komplikáciu súvisiacu s horúčkou, čo pri neliečení môže vyvolať epilepsiu. Často pri výskyte febrilných kŕčov môžu byť rodičia zaskočení a konať neadekvátne. Mrosková, Požonská, Holubová (2009) tvrdia, že: *„adekvátne zvládnutá prvá pomoc pri febrilných kŕčoch je dôležitou súčasťou prevencie vzniku ich možných komplikácií."*

4. ZÁVER

Analýzou výsledkov prieskumu sme zistili, že rodičia majú informácie o zvládaní horúčky u detí výrazne individuálne odlišné. V mnohom táto skutočnosť závisí od vzdelanostnej úrovne rodičov. Výsledky prieskumu poukazujú na nevyhnutnosť posilnenia teoretickej a praktickej zložky primárnej starostlivosti s dôrazom na systematickú realizáciu edukačných postupov zameraných na problematiku zvládania horúčky u detí. Edukácia realizovaná profesionálmi vysokú efektivitu a podčiarkuje dôležitosť preventívnej funkcie súčasnej medicíny a novodobého ošetrovateľstva.

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RODOVÉ ROZDIELY VNÍMANIA FAKTOROV VPLÝVAJÚCICH NA EFEKTIVITU OSOBNÉHO PREDAJA

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTION OF FACTORS INFLUENCING EFFICIENCY OF PERSONAL SALES

Jana Kovaľová, Ivana Ondrijová

Abstrakt

Predkladaný príspevok má za cieľ priblížiť problematiku rozdielneho vnímania zákazníkov v nákupnom správaní, konkrétne pri osobnom predaji. V súvislosti s rodovými rozdielmi je cieľom tohto príspevku analýza rodových rozdielov vnímania faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu z pohľadu zákazníkov. Výskum bol realizovaný dotazníkovou metódou s použitím matematicko-štatistických metód a súbor tvorilo celkovo 243 respondentov. Výskum popisuje prítomnosť štatisticky významných rozdielov medzi mužmi a ženami vo vnímaní faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja.

Kľúčová slova: *rodové rozdiely, efektivita, osobný predaj*

Abstract

The aim of the article is to elucidate the issue of different perceptions of customers in the purchasing process, exactly in the case of personal sales. In relation with gender differences, the purpose of this article is to analyze gender differences in the perception of factors influencing the efficiency of personal sales by the seller from the costumers viewpoint. The research was conducted using a questionnaire with using mathematical-statistical methods and the total number of 243 respondents. Research has shown the presence of statistically significant differences between men and women in the perception of factors influencing the efficiency of personal sales.

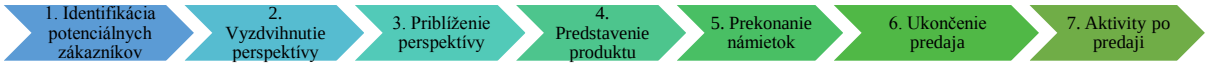
Key words: *gender differences, efficiency, personal seles*

1 OSOBNÝ PREDAJ

Osobný predaj je súčasťou komunikačného mixu. Je nástrojom osobnej komunikácie so zákazníkmi. Tým, že predajca individuálne a bez časového rozlíšenia vníma reakcie zákazníka, má možnosť interaktívne meniť a formulovať predajný rozhovor. Pelsmacker (2003) charakterizuje osobný predaj ako proces dvojstrannej komunikácie, „face to face“, ktorej cieľom je podanie informácií, prezentácia, udržovanie či budovanie dlhodobých vzťahov, alebo presvedčovanie určitých osôb – príslušníkov špecifickej časti verejnosti. Osobný predaj je založený na ponuke a následnom predaji zákazníkom. Podľa Kotlera (2007) je osobným predajom proces podpory a ústnej prezentácie produktov s cieľom predaja a presviedčania potenciálnych zákazníkov. Je veľmi účinným nástrojom marketingovej komunikácie, ale taktiež finančne najnáročnejším spôsobom propagácie.

Kita a kol. (2005) definujú osobný predaj taktiež ako proces podpory a presviedčania perspektívnych zákazníkov prostredníctvom ústnej prezentácie s cieľom predaja. Osobnému predaju sa niekedy hovorí „posledný meter“ marketingového snaženia, pretože jeden meter je zhruba vzdialenosť medzi predajcom a zákazníkom (Clow a Baack 2008). Poliačiková (2007) charakterizuje osobný predaj ako rokovanie „z tváre do tváre“ s jedným alebo viacerými

potenciálnymi zákazníkmi za účelom prezentácie produktu, zodpovedaniu otázok a získania objednávky.
Správna a efektívna komunikácia so zákazníkmi speje v konečnom dôsledku k ich spokojnosti, čo pre firmy na súčasných trhoch predstavuje základ úspechu a udržania sa na trhu. K naplneniu týchto cieľov je nutné, aby každé oddelenie firmy bolo zamerané na plnenie konkrétnych prianí zákazníkov. Ako uvádza Lucina (2014) každého zákazníka je potrebné brať ako jedinečnú osobnosť a prispôsobiť aj spôsob komunikácie s ním na základe rodu, generácie či veku. Prístup predajcov má byť nenátlakový, nemanipulatívny, vnímavý a citlivý. Zákazník je jedinečný zdroj hodnoty pre firmu a bez neho nie je možná produkcia zdrojov na ďalší rast a rozvoj. Je jasné, že bez zákazníkov sa podnikať nedá a trhový podiel ma vysokú cenu.
Marketingová komunikácia formou osobného predaja je finančne náročnou, ale tiež pri určitých formách podnikania neopomenuteľnou formou komunikácie so zákazníkom. Tým, že je špecifická, vyplýva z nej mnoho výhod, ale aj nevýhod. Na jej efektivitu vplýva aj proces predaja a tiež jeho následnosť krokov.
Viacúrovňový osobný predaj sa nazýva aj "marketing" alebo "multilevel marketing", čo je model obchodnej prevádzky vybraný väčšinou firiem s osobným predajom (Medveď a Kováčová 2003).
Predajný proces v osobnom predaji podľa Dublinského (1980) obsahuje 7 krokov:



Obrázok 1: Predajný proces
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa Dublinský 1980

Egan (2015) uvádza, že osobný predaj je často využívaný v podnikaní, v oblasti maloobchodu, pri predaji výrobkov alebo služieb priamemu spotrebiteľovi.
Predajné prostredie vyžaduje od predajcov individuálne zručnosti (Colletti a Fiss 2006). Zákazník a predávajúci by mali byť rovnakými účastníkmi komunikačného procesu, alebo prinajmenšom úloha predajcu je dnes menej dominantná v rámci predajného procesu, než to bolo kedysi. Preto sa pravdepodobne moc posunula na druhú stranu procesu – na stranu zákazníkov. Shannahan a kol. (2013) sa vyjadrili, že v rámci predaja môžu zákazníci byť aktívne zapojení do komunikačného partnerstva a informácie o výrobku slúžia nielen na účely prezentácie, ale aj na účely zníženia neistoty. V rámci osobného predaja vykonáva predajca úlohu zhromažďovania a šírenia informácií s cieľom vytvoriť priateľský vzťah.

2 RODOVÉ ROZDIELY

Ako v každej oblasti, aj v obchode a v nákupnom správaní sa spotrebiteľov boli zaznamenané rodové rozdiely a rôzne tendencie v ich správaní, práve počas nakupovania. Crawford a Unger (2003, in Birknerová a Frankovský 2014) vymedzujú rod z hľadiska jeho významových úrovní, ktoré ho konštruujú:

1. Sociálno-štrukturálna úroveň – rod je vo význame klasifikačného systému, podľa ktorého možno charakterizovať vzťahy medzi ženami a mužmi v oblasti od ich mocenského postavenia až po ich sociálne roly.
2. Interpersonálna úroveň – rod vymedzuje bližšie rodové roly, ktoré smerujú v každodenných medziľudských interakciách k odlišnému správaniu signalizujúcemu a posilňujúcemu rodové stereotypy.

3. Individuálna úroveň – rod je na tejto úrovni významný z hľadiska internalizácie rodovej identity daného jedinca. Individuálne sa tak každý stáva rodovo typickým, teda postupne si prisudzuje charakteristiky, roly a správanie, žiaduce pre ženy a mužov vo vlastnej kultúre.

Birknerová a Frankovský (2014) vo svojom výskume rodových rozdielov v manažérskej práci zaznamenali štatisticky významné rozdiely medzi rodom a aspektmi emocionálnej inteligencie. Aspekty, v ktorých vyššie skórovali muži boli: kontrola emócií, sebamotivácia, zvládanie stresu, nízka impulzívnosť, asertivita, prispôsobenie, vzťahy. Naopak ženy skórovali vyššie v aspektoch: empatia, vyjadrenie emócií a emocionálne ocenenie. Vo faktoroch emocionálnej inteligencie muži vyššie skórovali v sebakontrole a sociabilite, majú zdravú mieru kontroly nad svojimi túžbami, dobre regulujú vonkajšie tlaky a stres, zameriavajú sa na sociálne vzťahy a sociálny vplyv. Ženy dokážu vnímať a vyjadrovať emócie a využiť tieto schopnosti, aby si vytvorili a udržali blízke vzťahy s druhými (Birknerová a Frankovský 2014).

V oblasti obchodu a nákupného správania sa spotrebiteľov boli zaznamenané rodové rozdiely a rôzne tendencie v ich správaní počas nakupovania. V štúdii rodových rozdielov autorov Benka a Pelstera (2013) sa uvádza, že aj skúsení obchodníci potvrdzujú, že pri predaji produktov pozorujú rozdielne správanie sa žien a mužov. Autori uvádzajú, v čom spočívajú najfrekventovanejšie odlišnosti a ich možnosti využitia pri obchodovaní. V prvom rade, je potrebné si uvedomiť, že hovoríme o tendenciách k určitému typu správania sa, nie o zaručených a stereotypných prejavoch. Každý jedinec sa pri nakupovaní správa jedinečne a čím viac informácii má predávajúci o zákazníkovi, tým menší význam majú všeobecné a generalizované tvrdenia o určitej skupine. Niekedy je informácia o rode jediná, ktorú má predávajúci obchodník k dispozícii, práve preto je vhodné poznať tendencie správania, ktoré sa s ním spájajú.

Tabuľka 1: Ženy a muži v nákupnom správaní

Ženy	**Muži**
Majú tendenciu zbierať dôležité informácie až počas nákupného procesu. Do obchodu, alebo na obchodné stretnutie idú s určitou predstavou, ale na druhej strane sú otvorené prieskumu všetkých možností, ktoré sa naskytnú počas samotného stretnutia.	Zameriavajú svoju pozornosť skôr na konkrétnu úlohu. Počas nákupného procesu nemenia svoje plány a aktivity.
V obchodovaní sa zameriavajú na hľadanie optimálneho riešenia.	Zapájajú do rozhodovacieho procesu aj iných ľudí z pracovníkov tímu. Viac veria vlastnému úsudku a rozhodujú sa rýchlejšie ako ženy.
Cenové ponuky používajú ako zdroj informácií a pomôcku v zorientovaní sa v problematike. Požadujú aj varianty, ktoré nie sú v ponuke uvedené. Skúmajú oblasť nákupu a všetky jej možnosti u viacerých predajcov.	Majú sklon k obmedzovaniu svojho rozhodovania na základe ponúk a katalógov. Neradi skúmajú ďalšie alternatívy, resp. varianty, ako sú uvedené v katalógu a ponuke. Chcú sa rýchlo a jednoducho rozhodnúť.

Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa Benka a Peltser 2013

Palmer a Bejou (1995, in Jones et. Al. 1998) skúmali úlohu rodu v utváraní vzťahu medzi predávajúcim a kupujúcim. Zistili, že vnímanie kvality tohto vzťahu závisí od rodu predávajúceho a kupujúceho, pričom vzťah je vnímaný ako silnejší, ak sú predávajúci a kupujúci rovnakého rodu. Homburg a Stock (2005) vo svojej štúdii preukazujú, že vzťah predávajúceho a kupujúceho je pozitivne moderovaný predajcovou empatiou, odbornosťou a spoľahlivosťou. Z výskumu Mitchella a Walsha (2006) vyplýva, že čo sa týka

spotrebitelského správania, ženy sú viac perfekcionistické ako muži, muži sú menej citliví na novinky a módu a ženy sú náchylnejšie nechať sa zmiasť.

Cieľ a hypotéza výskumu

Cieľom výskumu bola analýza rodových rozdielov vnímania faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu z pohľadu zákazníka. Na základe uvedeného cieľa sme stanovili hypotézu: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely vo vnímaní faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu medzi mužmi a ženami."

Výskum

V nadväznosti na teoretické rozpracovanie problematiky rodových rozdielov v nákupnom správaní zákazníkov je v tomto príspevku pozornosť sústredená na analýzu rodových rozdielov vnímania faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu z pohľadu zákazníka prostredníctvom pôvodného dotazníka skúmajúceho vplyvy faktorov na zákazníka zo strany predajcu pri osobnom predaji. Následne sú identifikované a špecifikované štatisticky významné rodové rozdiely z pohľadu zákazníkov.

Metodika a metódy výskumu

Dotazníkovou metódou sme získali informácie od zákazníkov, ktoré sme následne spracovali a analyzovali v programe SPSS 20. Na skúmanie správania zákazníkov sme použili pôvodný dotazník faktorov osobného predaja, ktorý skúma vplyvy faktorov na zákazníka zo strany predajcu. Pozostáva z 20 výrokov, v ktorých sú obsiahnuté 4 faktory vplývajúce na osobný predaj zo strany predajcu. Výroky 1 – 4 analyzujú vplyv image predajcu na zákazníka, výroky 5 - 10 skúmajú vplyv ochoty a empatie predajcu na zákazníka, položky 11 – 15 analyzujú vplyv vyjednávacích zručností predajcu na zákazníka, položky 16 – 20 analyzujú vplyv informovanosti predajcu na zákazníka.

Respondenti vyjadrujú svoje hodnotenie prostredníctvom Likertovej škály: 1-rozhodne nie, 2-nie, 3-skôr nie ako áno, 4-skôr áno ako nie, 5-áno, 6-rozhodne áno.

Príklady položiek dotazníka:

- Image predajcu: „Ak je predajca netradične oblečený, nedokážem sa dobre koncentrovať",
- Ochota a empatia predajcu: „Cítim sa istejšie keď pociťujem, pochopenie zo strany predajcu",
- Vyjednávacie a komunikačné zručnosti predajcu: „Keď pociťujem nátlak, určite nekúpim ponúkaný produkt",
- Informovanosť predajcu: „Zapôsobí na mňa, keď sa vie predajca správnymi argumentmi brániť neoprávnenej kritike".

Výskumná vzorka

Výskumnú vzorku tvorilo spolu 243 respondentov, z toho 46% mužov a 54% žien, pričom vek respondentov sa pohybuje v rozmedzí od 19 do 64 rokov s priemerným vekom 39 roka. Z nami oslovených respondentov malo najväčšie zastúpenie stredoškolské vzdelanie 55% respondentov, 20% respondentov vysokoškolského vzdelania 1. stupňa, 19% respondentov uviedlo vysokoškolské vzdelanie 2. stupňa, a 6% respondentov uviedlo vyššie stredné vzdelanie. Respondenti, ktorí žijú v meste, tvoria 40% a z vidieka je 60% respondentov. Pri položke výšky čistého mesačného príjmu respondenti zaznačovali ich príjem do nami zostavenej škály. Položku bez príjmu označilo 19% respondentov, príjem do 400 € uviedlo 38% respondentov, príjem v rozmedzí od 401 € do 700 € označilo 21 % respondentov, od 701

€ do 1000 € uviedlo 15 % respondentov, najmenšie zastúpenie mali respondenti s najvyšším príjmom nad 1 000 € a to len 7%.

Výsledky výskumu

V realizovanom výskume sme pozornosť sústredili na zisťovanie rodových rozdielov a ich vplyv na posudzovanie image predajcu, ochotu a empatiu predajcu, komunikačné zručnosti, vyjednávacie zručnosti a informovanosť. Rozdiely sme zisťovali prostredníctvom Studentovho T-testu pre dva nezávislé výbery v štatistickom programe SPSS 20. Štatisticky významné rozdiely boli zaznamenané v položkách jednotlivých faktorov, ktoré uvádzame v tabuľke 2.

Tabuľka 2 Rodové rozdiely vnímania faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja

Položky dotazníka	Rod	Priemer	Smerodajná odchýlka	Testové kritérium	Významnosť Sig (2-tailed)
Rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní image predajcu					
Výrok č. 1	Muži	4,05	1,111	-2,884	**0,004**
	Ženy	**4,43**	,903		
Výrok č. 3	Muži	2,56	1,105	-3,433	**0,001**
	Ženy	**3,05**	1,118		
Výrok č. 4	**Muži**	**3,13**	1,236	1,903	**0,050**
	Ženy	2,85	1,085		
Rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní ochoty a empatie predajcu					
Výrok č. 5	Muži	4,51	1,022	-2,103	**0,034**
	Ženy	**4,76**	,840		
Výrok č. 7	Muži	4,58	,983	-2,500	**0,013**
	Ženy	**4,85**	,725		
Rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní komunikačných zručností predajcu					
Výrok č. 11	Muži	4,28	1,149	-2,969	**0,004**
	Ženy	**4,56**	0,882		

Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Výrok č. 1: Ľahšie sa rozhodnem pre kúpu, keď mám z predajcu dobrý dojem.
Výrok č. 3: Ak je predajca netradične oblečený, nedokážem sa dobre koncentrovať.
Výrok č. 4: Usmievavý predajca na mňa pôsobí strojene.
Výrok č. 5: Cítim sa istejšie keď pociťujem, pochopenie zo strany predajcu.
Výrok č. 7: Mám dobrý pocit, keď predajca akceptuje môj názor.
Výrok č. 11: Ak sa predajca zaujíma o môj názor, získa si moje sympatie.

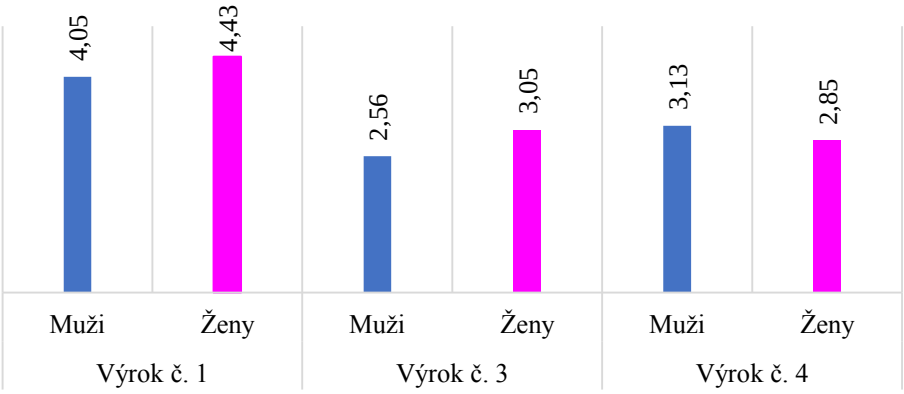
Rodové diferencie medzi mužmi a ženami boli zaznamenané v položkách 1, 3, 4 (Faktor - Image predajcu, graf 1) 5 a 7 (Faktor - Ochota a empatia predajcu, graf 2) a 11 (Faktor - Komunikačné zručnosti predajcu, graf 3). V položke 1: „Ľahšie sa rozhodnem pre kúpu, keď mám z predajcu dobrý dojem.“ sa odpovede mužov a žien mierne líšili. Pri odpovediach vyššie skórovali ženy (4,43), ktoré sa prikláňali skôr k odpovedi áno, na rozdiel od mužov (4,05) , ktorí preferovali menej exaktnú odpoveď na škále „skôr áno ako nie.“ U žien sa teda prejavuje potreba dobrého dojmu na rozdiel od mužov, ktorí tento aspekt nevnímajú až tak výrazne.

Podobne aj v položke 3: „Ak je predajca netradične oblečený, nedokážem sa dobre koncentrovať“ sme zaznamenali diferencie medzi mužmi a ženami, kde vyššie skórovali opäť ženy (3,05). Muži (2,56) odpovedali na rozhraní „skôr nie ako áno“ a „nie“, u žien to bola

odpoveď „skôr nie ako áno“. Na rozdiel od predchádzajúceho tvrdenia sa líšia u mužov a žien aj stredné hodnoty, a hodnota modus u žien bola 3 a u mužov 2. Medián u žien nadobudol hodnotu 3 a u mužov 2. Ženy sa jednoznačnejšie prikláňali k odpovedi „skôr áno ako nie“. Existujú významné rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní netradične oblečeného predajcu a jeho vplyvu na koncentráciu zákazníka. Ženy sú viac ovplyvniteľné outfitom predajcu, na rozdiel od mužov.

V položke číslo 4: „Usmievavý predajca na mňa pôsobí strojene“ dosiahli namerané priemerné hodnoty u žien 2,85 a u mužov 3,13, čo v oboch prípadoch predstavuje odpoveď „skôr nie ako áno“, avšak muži v tomto prípade prvýkrát skórovali o čosi vyššie. Modus odpovedí mužov bola odpoveď „nie“ a u žien to bola odpoveď „skôr nie ako áno“. Môžeme konštatovať, že pozitívny prístup a úsmev u predajcov pôsobí na mužov viac strojene a umelo ako na ženy.

Graf 1: Rodové rozdiely vo faktore: Image predajcu

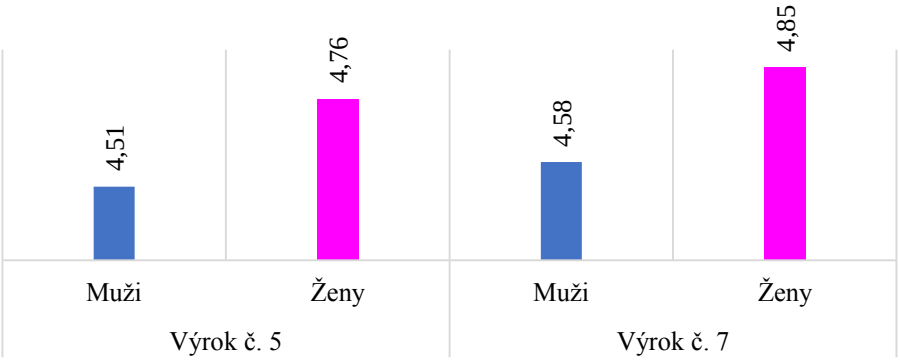


Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Položka 5: „Cítim sa istejšie keď pociťujem, pochopenie zo strany predajcu“ tiež potvrdzuje výskyt štatisticky významných rozdielov. Priemerná odpoveď mužov (4,51) sa pohybovala na rozhraní „skôr áno ako nie“ a „áno“, zatiaľ čo ženy (4,76) odpovedali jednoznačnejšie a prikláňali sa k odpovedi „áno“. Môžeme tiež konštatovať, že ženy si vyžadujú viac pochopenia a istoty pri nakupovaní ako muži.

V 7. položke dotazníka: „Mám dobrý pocit, keď predajca akceptuje môj názor.“ boli odpovede mužov a žien taktiež rozdielne, pričom ženy opäť skórovali vyššie (4,85) ako muži (4,58). Ženy sa prikláňali k jednoznačnejšej odpovedi „áno“ a u mužov sa odpovede pohybovali najmä v rozmedzí odpovedí „skôr áno ako nie“ a „áno“. Možno tvrdiť, že existuje štatisticky významný rozdiel v rodovom vnímaní vplyvu na dobrý pocit zákazníka, keď predajca akceptuje jeho názor.

Graf 2: Rodové rozdiely vo faktore: Ochota a empatia predajcu



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Poslednou položkou, v ktorej boli zaznamenané štatisticky významné rodové diferencie, je položka č. 11: „Ak sa predajca zaujíma o môj názor, získa si moje sympatie.“. Aj v tomto výroku vyššie skórovali ženy (4,56), pričom odpovedali na rozhraní „skôr áno ako nie“ a „áno“. Muži (4,28) sa prikláňali len k odpovedi „skôr áno ako nie“. Toto tvrdenie poukazuje na fakt, že ak sú predajcovia zainteresovaní pri predaji a zaujíma ich názor zákazníkov, je možné, že si získajú sympatie najmä u žien.

Graf 3 Rodové rozdiely vo faktore: Komunikačné zručností predajcu

Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Na základe analýz popísaných v tabuľke 2 a grafoch 1-3, ktoré komparujú názory mužov a žien na prístup predajcov pri osobnom predaji môžeme konštatovať, že hypotéza: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely vo vnímaní faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu medzi mužmi a ženami“, sa potvrdila.

3 DISKUSIA A ZÁVER

Prezentovaný príspevok mal za cieľ priblížiť problematiku rozdielneho vnímania faktorov vplývajúcich v nákupnom správaní na mužov a ženy, konkrétne pri osobnom predaji. V súvislosti s rodovými rozdielmi bolo cieľom analyzovať rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní faktorov vplývajúcich na efektivitu osobného predaja zo strany predajcu z pohľadu zákazníkov. Výskum bol realizovaný dotazníkovou metódou s použitím matematicko-štatistických metód a súbor tvorilo celkovo 243 respondentov. Štatisticky významné rozdiely boli zaznamenané v 6-tich položkách dotazníka (1,3,4,5,7 a 11), ktoré zastavajú faktory: Image predajcu, Ochota a empatia predajcu a komunikačné zručnosti predajcu. V poslednom faktore „Informovanosť predajcu“ neboli zaznamenané žiadne štatisticky významné rozdiely z hľadiska rodu.

Na základe vykonaného výskumu a jeho následného spracovania prostredníctvom štatistických výpočtov sme zistili, že existujú oblasti, v ktorých sa vnímanie predajcu zákazníkom pri osobnom predaji medzi mužmi a ženami líši.

Muži aj ženy sa prirodzene ľahšie rozhodujú pre kúpu, ak im je predajca sympatický a majú z neho dobrý dojem. Avšak na základe nami realizovaného výskumu, sa môžeme domnievať, že existuje istý rozdiel v rodovom vnímaní, pri rozhodovaní o kúpe, ak majú zákazníci z predajcu dobrý dojem. Ženám dobrý dojem z predajcu uľahčuje aj rozhodnutie o kúpe, a to výraznejšie ako u mužov. Zdvorilý a priateľský predajca je oceňovaný u oboch pohlaví. Zaujímavým zistením je, že u žien sa prejavuje výraznejšia diskoncentrácia, ak je predajca netradične oblečený. Muži tento aspekt vnímajú menej citlivo ako ženy. Tu sa môžeme domnievať, že ak mužov obsluhuje žena, je toto spojenie pozitívne hodnotené z pohľadu mužov. Na druhej strane, ženy možno viac ocenia pozornosť mužov-predajcov pri osobnom predaji. Usmievavý predajca na mužov a tiež na ženy nejednoznačne nepôsobí strojene.

Avšak muži v tomto prípade s malým rozdielom môžu vnímať takýto prístup predajcov umelo a strojene.
Na základe realizovaného výskumu môžeme konštatovať, že existujú rodové rozdiely vo vnímaní pochopenia zo strany predajcu a jeho vplyvu na pocit istoty zákazníka. Ženy priznávajú, že pociťujú istotu, ak je predajca vnímavý a prejavuje pre nich pochopenie. Muži, na rozdiel od žien, predajcom natoľko nedôverujú. V oboch prípadoch, bez výrazného rozdielu, záujem o kúpu klesá, ak im predajca nevenuje dostatočnú pozornosť. Nakoľko bola odpoveď na toto tvrdenie „skôr áno ako nie“ môžeme predpokladať, že tento fakt súvisí aj s druhom nákupu a prirodzene sila tohto faktora môže byť pri rôznych nákupoch tiež odlišná. Muži aj ženy majú dobrý pocit, ak predajcovia vedia akceptovať ich akýkoľvek názor, pričom tento fakt o niečo výraznejšie oceňujú ženy. Ak predajca okamžite rozpozná požiadavky svojich zákazníkov, je väčšia pravdepodobnosť, že u neho zákazníci aj zákazníčky nakúpia opakovane.
Viacero výskumov venujúcich sa empatii potvrdzuje, že ženy sú v tejto schopnosti lepšie. Ženy sú vo všeobecnosti viac zamerané na vzťah a udržanie konverzácie a pri interakcii sú otvorenejšie a prejavujú väčšiu empatiu než muži. Ako uvádza Schieman (2000), rozdiely v empatii medzi mužmi a ženami sa vekom znižujú, čo je spôsobené rozdielnou výchovou a socializačným procesom. Rozdiely v empatii medzi pohlaviami sú vysvetľované na základe hypotézy o sexuálnej role, ktorá hovorí, že ženy prijímajú rolu, v ktorej je empatia hodnotená pozitívne, a naopak, v prípade mužov by boli prejavy empatického správania hodnotené skôr negatívne. V druhej hypotéze sa predpokladá, že počas života sa rozdiely vytvorené v detstve postupne stierajú.
Predmetom nášho výskumu bolo aj skúmanie rodových diferencií vo vnímaní komunikačných zručností predajcu. Primeraná gestikulácia vie taktiež ovplyvniť pozornosť zákazníkov a rovnako vplýva na obe pohlavia. Na mužov a rovnako aj na ženy zapôsobí, ak sa predajca vie správnymi argumentmi brániť neoprávnenej kritike. Ak sa predajca zaujíma o názory žien, je možné konštatovať výraznejšie sympatie ako u mužov. Pri mužoch nie je úplne jednoznačné, že je im sympatické, ak sa predajca zaujíma o ich názor. Poskytnutie kontaktu predajcu pre prípad dodatočných informácií vyhovuje tak mužom, ako aj ženám.
Rodová problematika je stále aktuálnou a dôležitou témou v rôznych oblastiach spoločnosti. Vedecké skúmanie zamerané na rodové rozdiely v psychológii obchodu prináša poznanie pre stranu predajcov aj spotrebiteľov. Predajcom ponúka nové možnosti na zlepšenie a cielenie svojich predajných zručností, na druhej strane spotrebiteľom prináša pochopenie rozdielov v prežívaní a správaní opačného pohlavia pri nakupovaní. Náš výskum potvrdil, že vnímanie mužov a žien je v prípade image predajcu, jeho komunikačních zručností a informovanosti rozdielne.

Tento príspevok bol vypracovaný v rámci projektu KEGA 003PU-4/2017 Zvládanie náročných situácií - inovácia predmetu a príprava vysokoškolskej učebnice.

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REPUTATION IN FIELD OF SPORT

Diana Zraková, Patrik Ferenc, Milan Kubina

Abstract

There is no doubt about the importance of reputation in business, but reputation is now very important and applied in areas such as education or sports. Reputation for sports organizations depends largely on the athletes themselves and their sporting performances, but is also influenced by the activities of the entire organization. The reputation of a sports organization is influenced, for example, by its marketing activities and, in particular, communicating with fans and sponsors. The strength of the reputation of sports clubs has a particular impact on fans who ultimately have the reputation of a sports organization helping to create through community creation or fanpage and social networking groups. This article highlights the importance of the reputation of the sports organization itself, its activities, but also of the athletes themselves, which influence the motivation of potential fans to become fans of a specific organization. In the article, Critical Success Factor analysis was conducted on top 10 of the most valuable teams across all sports (of year 2017) and then suggestions were suggested through which the sports club can influence its current reputation.

Key words: *Reputation, Online reputation, Sport club, Sport organization, Critical success factor*

1 INTRODUCTION

Reputation is currently an important and recognized part of creating a positive image of organization in different sectors and areas, not just business, but also in the field of sport. The concept of creating a positive image of an organization brings, in addition to gaining positive feedback and reputation, a certain amount of prestige for the organization. Speaking about the field of sport, reputation is still a topical issue in this area. For a sports club and its reputation, the losing match or some doping case of a player is often a disaster. Not only business customers perceive companies that have an impact on reputation, but also fans who see positives and negatives. These factors, of course, also affect the overall value of the sports club, in the form of a growth or decline in the overall brand value. In the case of negative events, the fan, investor, or other interested party is totally frustrated with the sports club or organization. Often, as a result of disappointment, a fan can also influence his "fan club" environment, which can greatly hurt the reputation of the club or organization. And how do you make that disappointment? It is enough for a sports club or organization to do a disguise in the form of disrespect for fans or members of the organization (organizing committee, sportsmen, investors, sponsors, etc.), lying, doping affairs, sold matches, and so on. It follows from the above that neither sports organizations nor clubs should forget their reputation and deal with it like marketing communication.

2 REPUTATION, TRUST AND SPORT CLUBS

Reputation represents a concept by which a sports organization or club creates a picture of itself. The organization or club is trying to create a positive image. Reputation of multiple authors is defined as an intangible asset. They also agree with the claim that if the organization does not care enough and neglects it, it can easily come to it, so it can come up with a positive reputation that can turn into a negative reputation (Helm, Liehr-Gobbers, Storck, 2011; Chung et al., 2003). Roberts (2009) also confirms the importance of caring for

reputation, claiming that good reputation is also an internal metaphor and can be seen as a result of cumulative activity. In 2012, Barnet and Pollock (2012) have also come to define the reputation term, which is as follows: Reputation is a prediction of future behaviors that is base on an assessment of how past behaviors meet the role expectations that follow occupying a particular social status.

If we talk about reputation, it is also necessary to define the concept of trust. Trust is part of reputation. Based on trust, fans create a relationship with the sports organization and the club. Trust is an important pillar not only of business activities, but also of sporting activities (Daignault et al., 2002). Trust also represents faith in fulfilling the promises, which in this case gives the sports organization and its members to their fans. In addition to trusting confidence, to some extent, the assurance provided by the sports organization and its presentation (Bruhn, 2001; Chang et al., 2006). According to Shore (2005), trust means relying on someone. It follows from the above that trust is a prerequisite for building reputation.

The reputation of a sports organization is what the organization perceives as a fan, but also other stakeholders. It is the fans and other stakeholders who represent the most important part of reputation, because they create the reputation on the one hand and perceive their activities on the other (Alsop, 2004). As mentioned above, reputation needs to be taken care of, and do not leave this area to chance, because if a sport organization neglects reputation, it can come to it in a very short time (Marsden, 2013). Very prominent and instructive is the proverb, which Buckingham (2013) states in his book: „It takes a long time to build a good name, but only a moment to destroy".

As has been said, through reputation, the organization gains a certain amount of prestige and positive feedback. The foundation for the prestige is to know what the audience needs - what fans like, what they can do, what makes them wonder, what they have the greatest benefit or the satisfaction of their demands. In order for the organization to recognize the demands and aspirations of its fans, it should be constantly conducting and analyzing the analyzes and surveys in this area. Based on the results of the surveys, the sports organization can create content to share and present to its supporters in creating reputation programs. On the basis of shared information and content about the sporting organization, supporters create opinion and judgment (in this case, positive), which ultimately builds the reputation of the organization. With the creation of value judgment, the authors also associate the authors of Farmer and Glass (2010), who claim that reputation is the information that is used to create value judgment about a person or object, that is, a sports organization and its members. It can be argued that reputation represents the sum of the attitudes and judgments of the fans, but also their expectations, which they place on the sports organization. These attitudes and judgments are important for all stakeholders and affect the activity of the sports organization (Klučka, 2006).

Reputation is therefore closely linked to building trust and content that is in line with the demands of fans and other stakeholders of the sports organization. Reproduction is also important for creating impressions. It is the first impression that determines the future behavior of fans or, for example, sponsors. If the first impression is positive, the time may be tightened on the basis of the positive activities of the sporting organization and passed on in confidence. On the basis of the strong confidence of the fans, a positive and strong reputation is also emerging, which will resist even the smaller laps that the fans of the organization will be dishonest (Vaculčiaková, 2003; Burke, Martin, Cooper, 2016; Knipp, 2009).

3 METHODOLOGY

Several techniques for collecting and evaluating acquired data were used in the survey. The data were obtained from the content analysis of the websites, profiles on social networks of individual sport clubs and individual news from newspapers as Forbes. Criteria by which the individual accommodation facilities were rated are based on theoretical background of this paper. The Critical Success Factors Method was used for the evaluation, which was subsequently interpreted by histograms, a radar chart and a pyramid chart.

Major research limitations can include by focusing only on the top 10 evalueted sport club or also focusing on communication between sport clubs and stakeholders via web sites. For a more comprehensive assessment of this issue, it is necessary to analyze more sport entities with a focus on several online ways of communicating accommodation facilities with stakeholders. Based on these research limitations, it can be said that this research activity can also be carried out on a continuous basis (in order to detect changes in behavior over time), subject to the exclusion of individual research limitations to ensure more complex results.

4 SURVEY

In the survey, we focused on top 10 of the most valuable teams across all sports. Values are based on Forbes valuations done over the past year (2017) for NFL (american football), NHL, NBA, MLB, F1, soccer (european football) and Nascar. Three of top 10 of the most valuable teams are from Europe, next seven of top 10 of the most valuable teams are from America. These sport teams were rated based on seven criterias. The list of criterias can be seen in the following table 1.

Table 1: Criteria for the evaluation of sport clubs

1	Evalute of web page
2	Facebook likes
3	Facebook followers
4	Ratio between number of followers and number of likes
5	Twitter followers
6	Instafollowers
7	Online fanclub

Based on the assessment, it is possible to compare the selected sport clubs in the individual parameters. This comparison can be seen in the following chart 1.

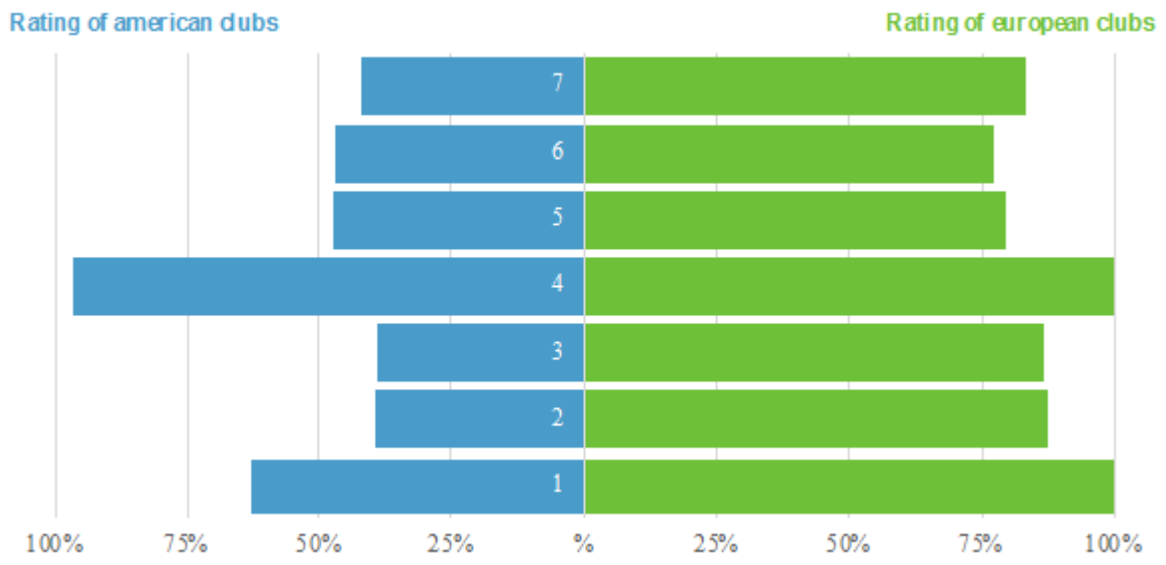

Chart 1: Comparison sport clubs

As can be seen in the individual evaluations, there are differences. These significant differences can also be seen in the following radar chart.

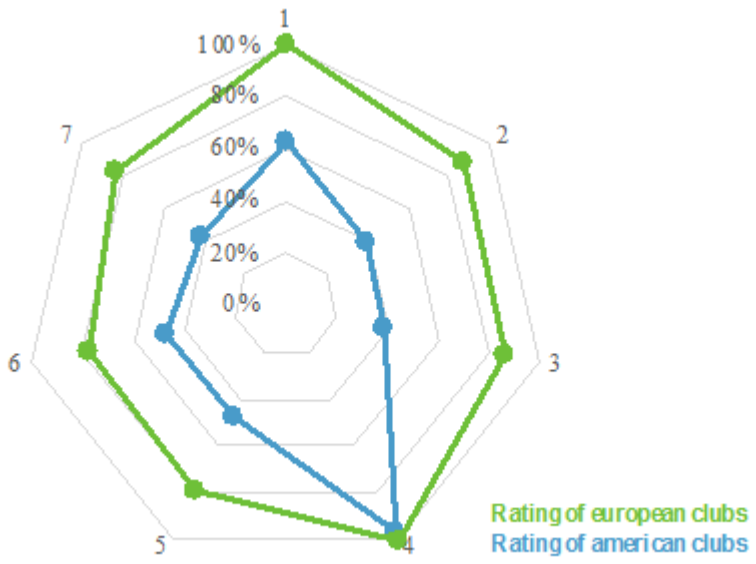

Chart 2: Average rating sport clubs - radar chart

From this graph we can see that there are parameters in which the assessment of sport clubs is almost identical to parameter 4, but it is also possible to observe the large differences already identified in the previous chart. In 6 cases, the rating of sport clubs varies by more than 30%. This is illustrated by the following chart 3.

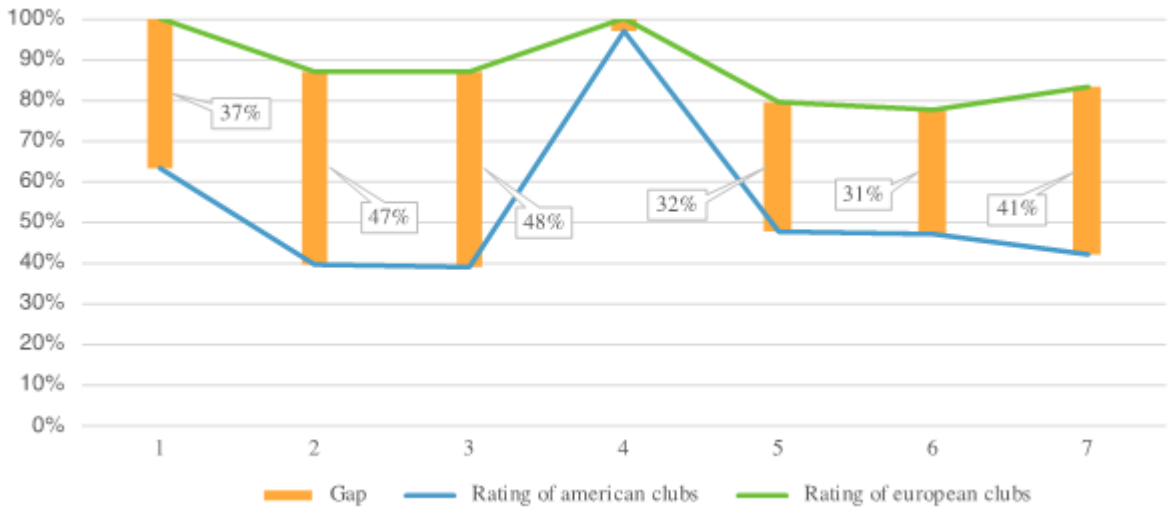

Chart 3: Highlighting the greatest differences in ratings

It can be said that in all cases the rating of the european sport clubs exceeds the rating of the american sport clubs. The biggest difference is in parameter 3 where the rating of the american sport clubs rating is 48% lower than the european sport clubs rating. Other significant differences are in parameters 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7. The overall average rating of accommodation facilities can be seen in the following chart 4.

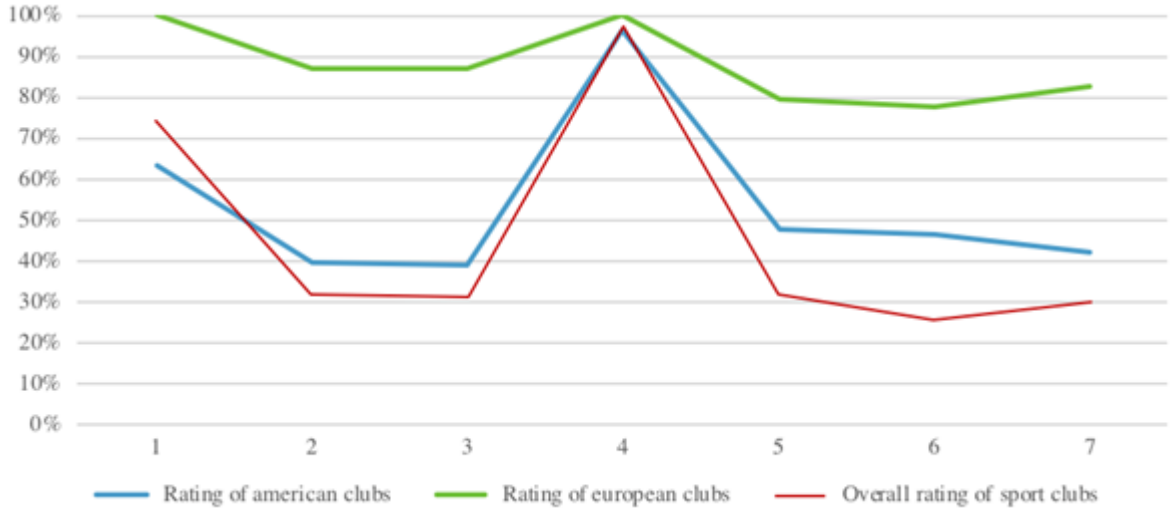

Chart 4: Compare american and european sport clubs with the overall average rating of sport clubs

Overall, after summarizing the results, it was found that american sport clubs meet overal requirements of support reputation building at online environment at 9% and european sport clubs at 35%. It is therefore possible to say that there is a large gap for these sport clubs, which we can call the improvement potential (as shown in the next chart 5).

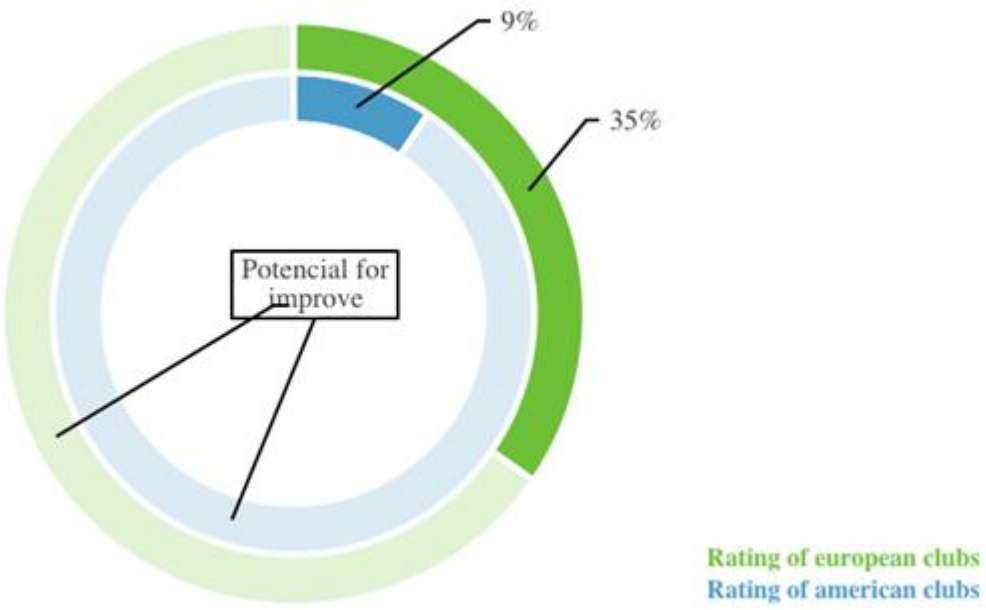

Chart 5: Overall summary of the evaluation

The areas where these organizations are lagging behind are activities on social networks, building online community and also website raiting.

5 CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATIONS

As pointed out in the article, the reputation of sport organizations is highly influenced by community or theirs activities on social networks. These organizations must ensure proper communication between them and their key stakeholders. Nowadays, much of the communication is conducted over the Internet. Therefore, it is important, that organizations also communicate correctly in this environment. They must share theirs activies with theirs community by social networks. In order for sport clubs to achieve the goals in the field of online reputation building, we recommend them to edit their web site for mobile devices and add links to their profiles on social networks. They must share all activities for their community by social network. In the light of this, it can be stated that selected sport clubs underestimate the importance of this tool within the Internet environment. The content analysis has highlighted the high deficiencies in several factors. The main areas include building od community, building content of their profile on social networks, or website. The biggest drawbacks have been observed with american sport clubs, which are unlikely to have enough experience with building content of social network and website. They need not only to be inspired by the modern trends in communication with customers by social networks, but also to think about the functionality of individual elements of their web pages. Sport clubs need to focus on and identify issues identified as quickly as possible, improving their access to communication with their stakeholders.

Acknowledgements

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TOOLS TO STIMULATE WORKERS IN A HEATING COMPANY

Jakub Chlopecký, Ladislav Moravec, Omar Ameir, Miroslav Rössler, Daniela Navrátilová

Abstract

This contribution addresses both today's global turbulent environment and the pressure to raise wages can be stimulated by workers in heating companies. The aim is therefore to find incentives to motivate workers to increase productivity and to prevent the eventual increase in fluctuation in the company Havířovská teplárenská společnost, a.s. The focus of the article was chosen by the authors to be able to propose additional benefits as a tool for stimulating work performance, according to the evaluation of the questionnaire survey. The results of the article can help in the personnel management, size-like heating companies, to ensure higher employee satisfaction and the associated higher productivity of work.

Key words: *stimulation, work performance, heating, personnel management*

1. INTRODUCTION

Employee incentives are one of the most important aspects of management for executives. Effective managers, which, among other things, aim to make the maximum of their employees, need to understand not only the stimulus instruments, but also, in general, employee motivation as well. The topic is very up-to-date as the company Havířovská teplárenská společnost, a.s. (hereinafter referred to as HTS, a.s.) operates locally in a region where the nationwide improvement in macroeconomic indicators of unemployment is noticeable. The past is a situation where the sustainability of a quality workforce with potential was a matter of course for the heating company as one of the most important and most prestigious employers in the town of Havířov, without requiring concentration of the company's management on the personnel issues. Through the questionnaire survey, the authors sought to map the stimulus tools of HTS, a.s. and describe them through the method of explanation, and then suggest tools to stimulate workers to reduce employee turnover, with which the company has had no experience for many years. It should be noted that the system of stimulus modules is already incorporated in the company by a collective agreement (flexible working hours especially for company management, holidays, meals, etc.), personal employee accounts (individual account) and other benefits (company car and telephone especially for company management. Employee incentives are one of the most important aspects of management for executives. Effective managers, which, among other things, aim to make the maximum of their employees, need to understand not only the stimulus instruments, but also, in general, employee motivation as well. The topic is very up-to-date, as the company further only HTS, a.s. operates locally in a region where the nationwide improvement in macroeconomic indicators of unemployment is well known. The past is a situation where the sustainability of a quality workforce with potential was a matter of course for the heating company as one of the most important and most prestigious employers in the town of Havířov, without requiring concentration of the company's management on the personnel issues. Through the questionnaire survey, the authors sought to map the stimulus tools of HTS, a.s. and describe them through the method of explanation, and then suggest tools to stimulate workers to reduce employee turnover, with which the company has had no experience for many years. It should be noted that the system of stimulus modules is already incorporated in the company by a collective agreement (flexible working hours especially for

company management, holidays, meals, etc.), personal employee accounts (individual account) and other benefits (company car and telephone especially for company management.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The motivation and stimulation of people at the beginning of the development of the market economy was an integral part of the work. Often, managers have not even been aware of it because of the many changes in the world. With an increasingly hectic activity in the economic area, it is important to realize that the manager who runs the firm has no wider context and experience in terms of motivation and stimulation.

2.1 The importance of motivation and stimulation

According to Adair, the money that everyone needs today, the simplest stimulus, but also the reason why we go to work. However, it is important to realize that each person has different needs, and therefore there is also a need for the amount of money that we need different (Adair, 2004). "In managerial practice, it is customary to treat the concepts of stimulation and motivation very loosely and there is no reason to protest against it" (Plamínek, 2010, Plaměnek, 2011). Motivation and stimulation of employees is not just a matter of a certain group of people but, on the other hand, it merges with companies at every level of the management hierarchy. Motivation as an internal motivation is directly related to motivational factors that can be divided according to Urban to material and intangible (Urban, 2017, Skokan, 2013, Skokan, 2014). The most well-known classification of motivational factors, that is, aspects that affect the worker either negatively or positively, is the hierarchical classification according to the American psychologist Abraham Maslow (Black, 2018, Scherbaum, 2008). Stimulating can be thoughts of the external environment. (Bláha, 2005). Most often, these incentives are expressed in the form of various corporate benefits (cheaper meals, company kindergarten, transport or holiday allowance, etc.), corporate culture, or the incentives of an incoming executive or management. (Aleksić, 2016, Urban, 2017, Pawliczek, 2014). Even in this case, the incentives apply to each employee individually, and each employee also assigns different weight to each of the offered incentives in his priority rankings, with regard to his / her employment, such as a laborer, a THZ or a manager (Plamínek, 2010, 2011). The British Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development has pointed out that, from a practitioner's point of view, executive management includes management, coaching, rewarding, incentive and motivation for employees to boost their productivity and thus improve the performance of the organization, resulting in a reduction in employee turnover (Armstrong, 2010, Amstrong, 2007).

2.2 Employee Benefits

For employees themselves, benefits are increasingly becoming an increasingly important part of revenue, mainly because they begin to understand their benefits compared to financial rewards. The effectiveness of each form of remuneration is decreasing over time, so it is necessary to look for new forms of incentives that really motivate employees. In order for a benefit system to meet its goal, it must manage the "sales of benefits" to its own, usually very demanding employees, because it is long before the good things are sold themselves. Benefits provided by employers to employees are out of pay and are not enforceable or regulated by law (Fall 2011). They can be money, in material form or in the form of above-standard service, I can get different forms and promote economic growth and higher consumption of households (Zimmermannová, 2014, Zimmermannová, 2016).

3. RESEARCH WORK

As part of the seminar work, anonymous questionnaire survey was conducted using the Google form and the physical questionnaire. The results of the questionnaire survey are intended to find new benefits so that employees of HTS, a.s. were more stimulating for their work. An overview of the questionnaire is given in annex no. 1.

3.1 Human resources in society

The company employs a total of 82 people, including 57 men and 25 women. There are 41 persons in the category of technic-economic employee. In Managerial positions there are 3 employees and 4 employees are in the position of Head of Unit. Other THZs consist of 34 people. There are a total of 41 people in the workers' profession. Employees with disabilities are included in the job:

- Heating attendant (2 persons);
- Business and price referent (1 person);
- Technical employee (1 person).

The table below shows the layout of the HTS staff structure, a.s. according to the highest educational attainment.

Table 1. Structure of employees by education

Structure of employees by education	
Basic	4
Middle with an apprenticeship	35
Lower secondary without maturity	2
Full secondary with GCSE	33
Bachelor's	1
University	7
Total staff	82

For a clearer orientation in the structure of the employees according to the highest education achieved, the picture below is presented.

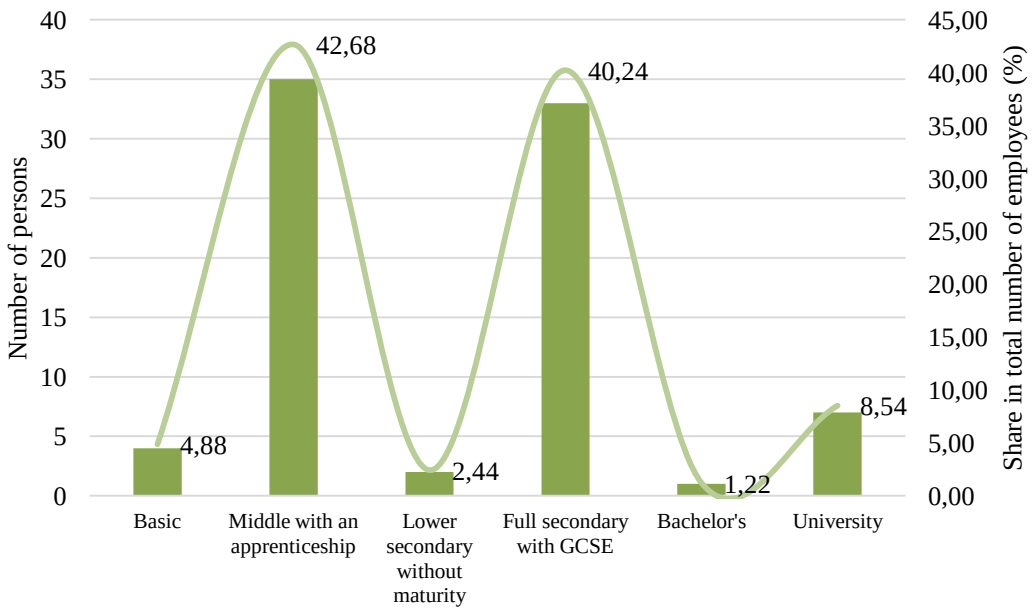

Figure 1. Structure of employees by education

The graph above shows that in the overwhelming majority, the number of employees with secondary education, respectively. with an apprenticeship certificate, which is almost 43 % of all employees in the company.

3.1 Evaluation of the questionnaire survey among employees of HTS, a.s.

The questionnaire survey was conducted between 1 December 2017 and 31 January 2018 so as to ensure the highest possible return. Information on the questionnaire survey to improve the benefit system was delivered to the employees at a corporate meeting on December 1, 2017, followed by an internal intranet and heads of departments. Employees could fill it both in working hours and in their privacy. An email was created to fill in the questionnaire that provided the anonymity to fill in. Those employees who were unable to complete the questionnaire electronically were provided through their direct superiors, and anonymity in this case was ensured by allowing the questionnaire to go to the mailbox located on the premises of the company. Of the total of 82 completed questionnaires, 79 questionnaires were completed at the end of the period, which is a return of more than 96 %. Given the scope of the seminar paper, questions 1-7 were evaluated by Table 2.

Table 2. Evaluation of questions 1-7 questionnaire survey among HTS employees, a.s.

Question	**Evaluation**				
What is your gender?	Man	Woman			
	55	24			
How long have you been employed by the company?	up to 1 year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11+ years
	1	3	5	29	41
What is your current job position?	Managerial	THZ	Worker	-	
	3	36	40		
Did the employee benefits program affect your business decisions?	Yes	No	-		
	55	24			
Are you satisfied with the current program of employee benefits and benefits provided by the employer?	Yes	No	-		
	67	12			
Would it be more stimulating for you if the amount and value of benefits increased with your company's length of service?	Yes	No	-		
	76	3			
What stimulates you best for better work performance?	Financial reward	Moral reward (praise from the leader, recognition from colleagues)	Employee Benefits	-	
	25	12	42		

The table shows that most of the employees who are in the company of 6 years and older are male employees are most stimulated by employee benefits and the program has the greatest weight in deciding whether to join the HTS, a.s.

Evaluation of question 8 "Which of these new benefits would you have the greatest interest?"

The last question from the questionnaire survey was the most important in terms of stimulation in the seminar work of employees. Out of the total of six possible responses, employees have chosen the answers as follows, see figure 3.

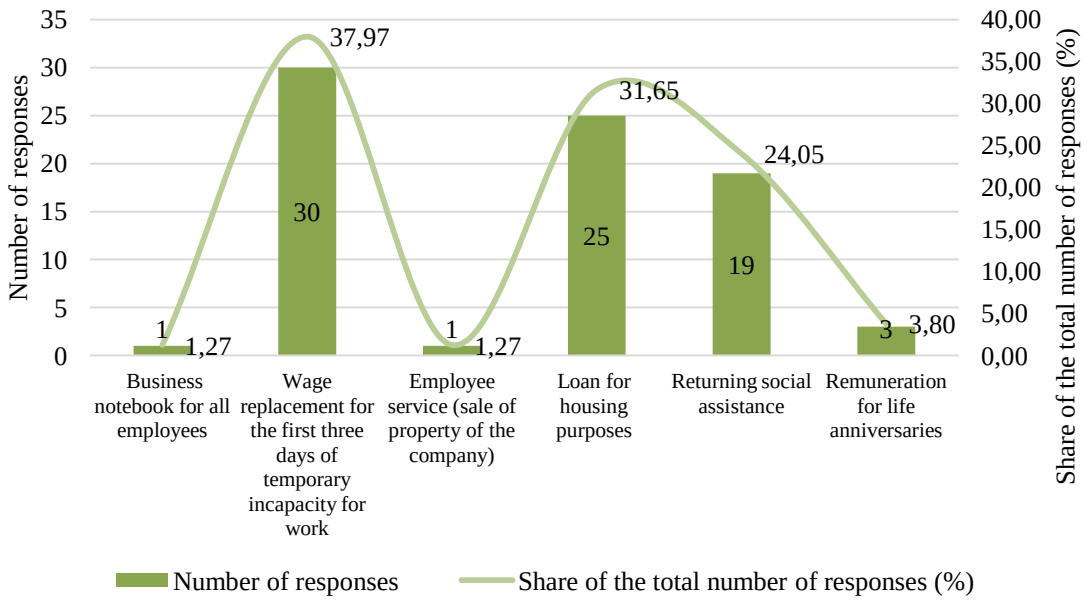

Figure 2. Evaluation of question 8 questionnaire survey among HTS employees, a.s.

The chart of answers shows that 30 employees would want compensation from the company for the first three days of work incapacity, which is almost 38 %. The second benefit in the order that employees would like is a home loan of a relative number of 25 respondents. The third most beneficial benefit that society could provide in the future is repayable social assistance.

4. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND PROPOSALS FOR MEASURES

Given the provisional validity of the so-called "retirement age", which is actually the non-payment of the first three days of employee incapacity, it is logical that the employees expressed their highest percentage of answers in the questionnaire for the benefit of the employer paying the first three days of sick leave.

4.1 Measures proposed for HTS, a.s.

Based on the results of the questionnaire, the trade union organization of the company introduced the following measures.

Wage compensation for the first three working days of temporary incapacity for work

The Employer will provide all employees with a wage compensation for the first three working days of temporary incapacity for work at the same amount as the wage calculation for the period from 4 to 21 calendar day of temporary incapacity to work. This wage compensation can be used up to twice a year. Through the Compensation Board, the Employer will check whether an employee who has been temporarily recognized as incapacitated for work complies with the Temporary Invalidity Insurance Scheme during the first 21 calendar days of temporary incapacity for work. Benefit as a replacement will be part of the wage for the calculation of income tax and health and social insurance contributions. For the purposes of calculating an employee's average earnings, this benefit will not enter the assessment base. From the employer's point of view, this benefit is subject to all deductions.

Loan for residential purposes

This loan will be available to employees of the company, the purchase of a flat, the reconstruction of the apartment and the dwelling. The loan will be interest-free. Employees

can be assigned one loan up to a maximum of CZK 30,000. The loan will be provided on the basis of a written contract concluded between the company and the employee with the following conditions:

- the loan is repayable with a maturity of up to 5 years;
- the amount of one installment is at least CZK 500 per month;
- if more than one member of the household is employed in the company, the loan will be provided to only one of them;
- when the employment relationship is terminated pursuant to Section 49, 50 (3), 55 and 52 f) g) of the Labor Code, the loan is payable no later than 6 months from the date of termination of the employment relationship;
- in the case of termination of employment pursuant to § 52 let. a) to e) or agreement for the same reasons and § 62 to 64 of the Labor Code, the loan is due within 12 calendar months at the latest.

HTS, a.s. has the so-called social fund of the employer. From this fund, interest-free housing loans would be financed.

Return Social Assistance

Employees will be able to provide a pay-back social allowance for long-term incapacity for work lasting at least 2 months or to overcome the unpredictable financial situation. Reimbursable social assistance will be provided on the basis of a written justification of the employee's application and a written contract between the company and the employee, with the following conditions:

- Reimbursable social assistance is up to a maximum of CZK 20,000;
- Maturity of return social assistance is maximum 5 years;
- The amount of the installment is at least CZK 400;
- At the end of the employment, the repayable social assistance is payable no later than 6 months from the date of its termination.

Returning social assistance will only be available to employees of HTS, a.s., not to their family members.

5. CONCLUSION

Companies and companies whose management is dedicated to human resources with due attention and appropriate organizational effort are generally characterized by higher staff initiative and loyalty, greater adaptability and flexibility, better work performance, greater willingness of people to deploy their strengths to meet corporate goals, higher creative results and the ability to take effective steps to overcome obstacles. The aforementioned companies with a high emphasis on human resources generally achieve higher profits and are better prepared for the future market environment. Significant human resource management processes include, but are not limited to, incentives such as company benefits, which was also the goal of this contribution. This article was designed to explain the situation in HTS, a.s. in the field of employee incentive tools and to propose further incentives following the results of the questionnaire survey. The results can be used in personnel management in heating plants, which are similar in size to the number of employees and size of the enterprise. The authors further address the issue.

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Annex no. 1.

Nástroje stimulace pracovníků HTS, a.s.

Dotazník je směřován na všechny zaměstnance HTS, a.s., aby zjistil nástroje stimulace pracovníků v dané společnosti za účelem nejen zpracování seminární práce.

Jaké je Vaše Pohlaví?

- [ ] Muž
- [ ] Žena

Jak dlouho jste u společnosti zaměstnán/a?

- [ ] do 1 roku
- [ ] 1 až 2 roky
- [ ] 3 až 5 let
- [ ] 6 až 10 let
- [ ] 11 let a více

Jaká je Vaše současná pracovní pozice?

- [ ] Manažerská
- [ ] THZ
- [ ] Dělnická

Měl program zaměstnaneckých výhod vliv na Vaše rozhodnutí ve firmě pracovat?

- [ ] Ano
- [ ] Ne

Jste spokojen/a se současným programem zaměstnaneckých výhod a benefity, které Vám zaměstnavatel poskytuje?

- ○ Ano
- ○ Ne

Bylo by pro Vás více stimulující kdyby se množství a hodnota benefitů zvyšovala s délkou vašeho pracovního poměru ve firmě?

- ○ Ano
- ○ Ne

Co Vás nejvíce stimuluje k lepším pracovním výkonům?

- ○ Finanční odměna
- ○ Morální odměna (pochvala od vedoucího, uznání od kolegů)
- ○ Zaměstnanecké výhody (benefity)

O který z uvedených nových benefitů byste měl/a největší zájem?

- ○ Služební notebook pro všechny zaměstnance
- ○ Náhrada mzdy za první tři dny dočasné pracovní neschopnosti
- ○ Službu pro zaměstnance (odprodej majetku společnosti)
- ○ Půjčka na bytové účely
- ○ Návratná sociální pomoc
- ○ Odměny k životním výročím

ODESLAT

PESTLE ANALYSIS OF THE HEATING COMPANY AS A STRATEGIC TOOL

Jakub Chlopecký, Ladislav Moravec, Omar Ameir, Miroslav Rössler, Daniela Navrátilová

Abstract

The present article from the authors addresses the issue of the strategic management of the heat company as a primary heat energy supplier for more than 70,000 inhabitants. The objective is to express the various factors entering into the heating business by means of strategic analysis. The chosen topic of the paper was solved using PESTLE analysis as a standard strategic management tool. The individual factors were worked out by an expert group within the brainstorming method with company management based on the research of similar topics. We have managed to find the main areas that, from a strategic point of view, influence the business in a specific area providing one of the basic human services. On the basis of the results obtained, it is possible to proceed in strategic planning even with other heating plants of comparable size.

Key words: *strategic management, PESTLE analysis, brainstorming, heating*

1 INTRODUCTION

The feature of today's period is the high degree of globalization, the trade boundaries are both physical and open-trade, and the competitive organization must also take into account factors that were less important in the past. Simplified, entrepreneurial success in this turbulent market environment depends primarily on premature anticipation of market opportunities and addressing potential strategic threats. In terms of strategic management, it is also necessary to evaluate the factors of the external environment of the company without doubt. These factors can include competitive behavior, technological development, development of macroeconomic aggregates, social and demographic development etc. The main objective of this paper is to elaborate PESTLE analysis of Havířovská teplárenská společnost, a.s. (hereafter HTS, a.s.) as the basis for strategic management of the company.

2 METHODS FOR ANALYSIS OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE UNDERTAKING

"The analysis of the external environment should focus on revealing trends that can influence the company in the future." (Keřkovský, 2006, Bryson, 2011). The analysis of macro-environment can be characterized as an analysis of interconnected economic, political, technological and social phenomena (Sedláčková, 2006, Zvaigzne, 2007)). Methods for external business analysis are different (Pawliczek, 2014,Skokan, 2014 Delgado, 2010). According to Kotler, the "4C" method can be used to analyze local and globalization trends (Porter, 2001, Porter, 2008). The analysis of PEST is based on the knowledge of the past development and tries to predict and analyze the future influences of the external environment in four main areas (Košťan, 2002, Chuchrová, 2016, Skokan, 2013). It is precisely the modified basic acronym method of strategic analysis PEST respectively PESTLE (ELMS, 2007) is used in the present article as a research method.

3 RESULTS OF PESTLE ANALYSIS

PESTLE analysis is primarily used in the article to identify the most important macro-cholesterol factors. These factors affect the business activities of HTS, a.s. Factors are grouped into political, economic, social, technological, legislative and environmental groups.

3.1 Political factors

The political factors affecting the company can be divided into two levels. The first group of political factors that will affect HTS, a.s., can be seen at the national level where they are represented by the legislative and executive powers of the Czech Republic. The second area of the factors is the political factors at the place of the company, both the influence of the local political representation and the state administration in relation to society, the business and other related areas, as well as the influence of the local self-government as founder and owner of society.

Political factors at the national level acting on the business of HTS, a.s.

The heating industry is relatively clearly defined in terms of business conditions in the area. Pricing areas are significantly regulated by the Energy and Regulatory Office (hereinafter referred to as the ERO) and a license with a detailed definition of obligations is needed before commencing business. Factors that fundamentally affect the business of heating activity related to the massive support of the expansion of technologies and activities that are environmentally friendly. The natural gas taxation system for central heat supply (CZT) raises the view that disconnection from the district heating systems can occur because local sources of pollution (in particular the boiler room) are paradoxically exempt from this taxation. Higher price and volatility of gas cause a transition to environmentally unsuitable combustion in households that have recently undergone gasification.

Support for alternative energy sources is usually done in two ways:

- direct financial support for a specific project;
- the guarantee of the stability of the purchase prices of energies realized by fixing a fixed purchase price for a certain period, using so-called green bonuses and fixing surcharges for the selling price.

Political factors affecting the company at the place of business – local factors

Cities are among the decisive owners of heat generation or distribution, respectively. interconnection of both variables.

Political factors at the local level are at the level:

- ownership;
- contact with local authorities;
- investing in the company's infrastructure;
- creating a city's energy concept.

HTS, a.s. is a joint-stock company and the only shareholder is the city of Havířov. This fact shows that there is a frequent change in the company's bodies (General Meeting, Board of Directors and Supervisory Board). In a given company, a typical schizophrenic situation of the owner at the communal level can also be found, where market behavior aimed at maximizing profits is in stark contrast to building a political image in connection with rising energy prices for own voters.

3.2 Economic factors

In the case that the largest share of heat supplied is directed to households, it can be considered in connection with economic growth that this growth / decrease is indirectly affecting the heating plants (Zimmermannová, 2014, Zimmermannová, 2016). The development of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the Czech Republic is shown in Figure 1**.**

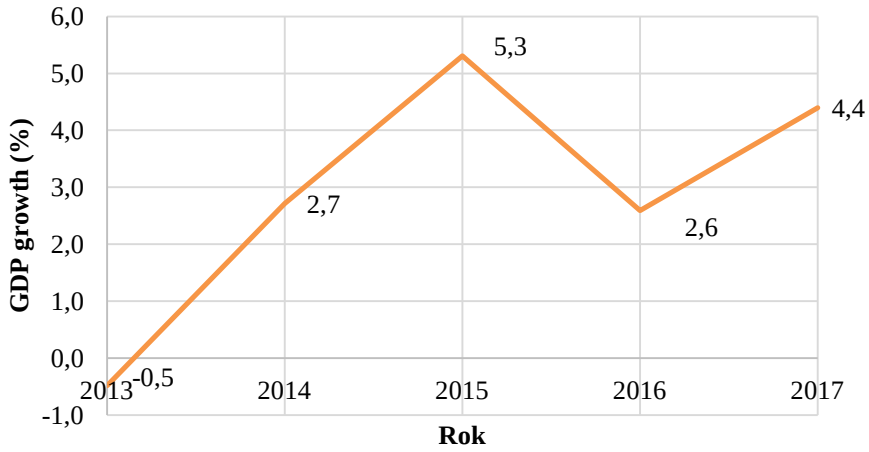

Figure 1. Development of GDP in the Czech Republic in 2013-2017 (ČSÚ, 2018)

Household heat consumption does not primarily affect the economic development of the national economy. The consumption of heat energy is mainly influenced by climatic conditions. If the heating plant supplies a significant part of the thermal energy production to business entities, the link to the condition of the economy is more pronounced, which is not the case of HTS, a.s.

The macroeconomic indicators that are already involved in the heating company business can be classified as:

- the price of energy raw materials;
- inflation rate.

According to internal sources of HTS, a.s. the price of inputs (energy raw materials) for the production of heat from hard coal amounts to about 70% of the total heat price. Even in the case of long-term contracts with suppliers of energy raw materials, each change has an immediate impact on the resulting heat price. The development of the price of black coal is shown in Figure 2.

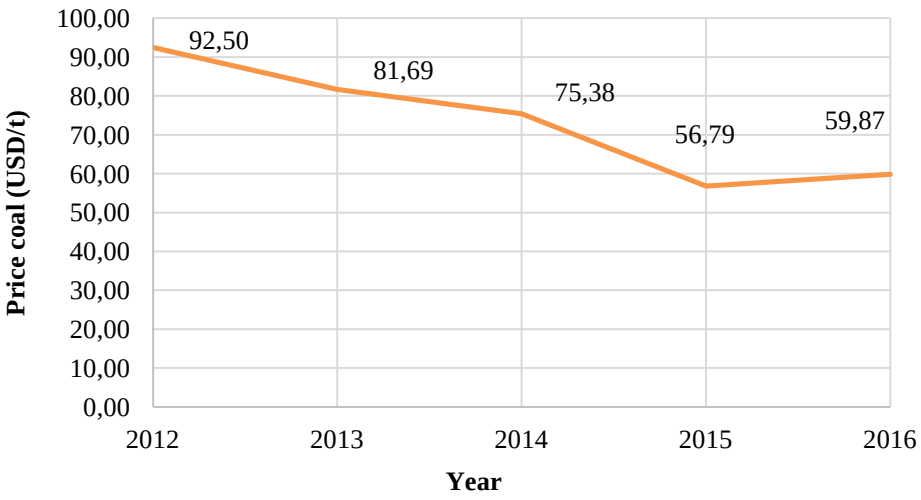

Figure 2. Coal price in 2012-2016 (Statistical Review of World Energy, 2018)

As an input raw material for the production of heat energy for HTS, a.s. primarily black coal is used. The only producer of this commodity in the Czech Republic is OKD, a.s. The long-term economic problems of the company and the gradual reduction of black coal mining in the Czech Republic will logically be reflected in the price of black coal for the production of thermal energy. A stronger increase in the price of black coal, which will have to be shipped from other producers, mainly from Poland, can be expected. The development of the koruna exchange rate against the dollar and the euro as shown in Figure 3 affects the prices of imported raw materials. However, this fact will only be more serious after the end of the black coal mining in the Czech Republic.

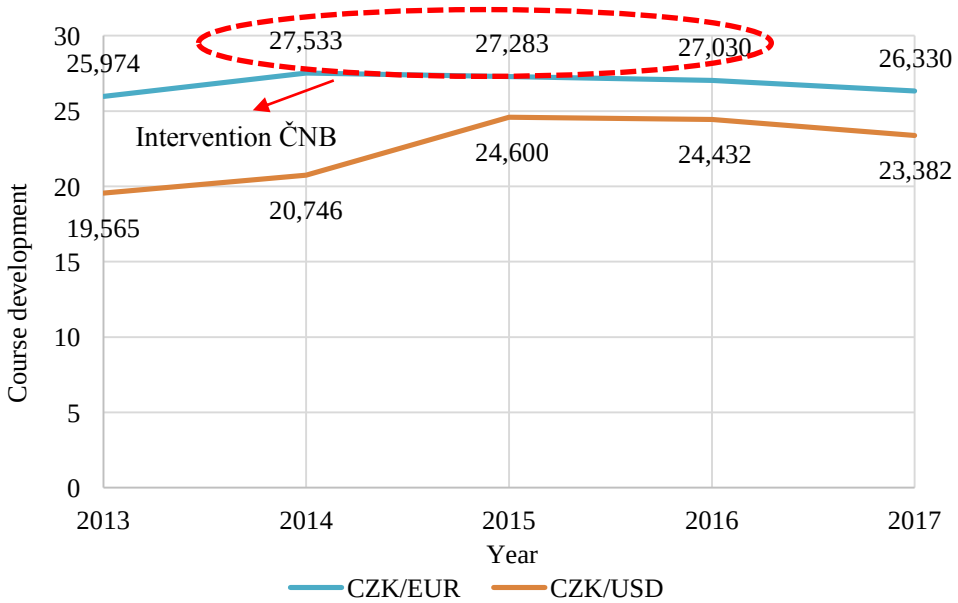

Figure 3. Course development CZK/EUR a CZK/USD v letech 2013-2017 (ČSÚ, 2018)

Among other economic factors, mainly from HTS, a.s. one factor can be included, where one customer, namely the Building Housing Association Havířov, collects about 38 % of the heat energy consumption. On the one hand, it is positive for a company that one customer shares a significant percentage of total heat supply, but on the other hand, there is a significant risk, for

example, in the application of the strategy of the flat disconnection of these houses from the CZT.

3.3 Social factors

The demographic curve in Havířov is not favorable, see figure 4. In the town of Havířov there is a gradual depopulation, when in the period 2013-2016 there were 2,835 inhabitants in Havířov.

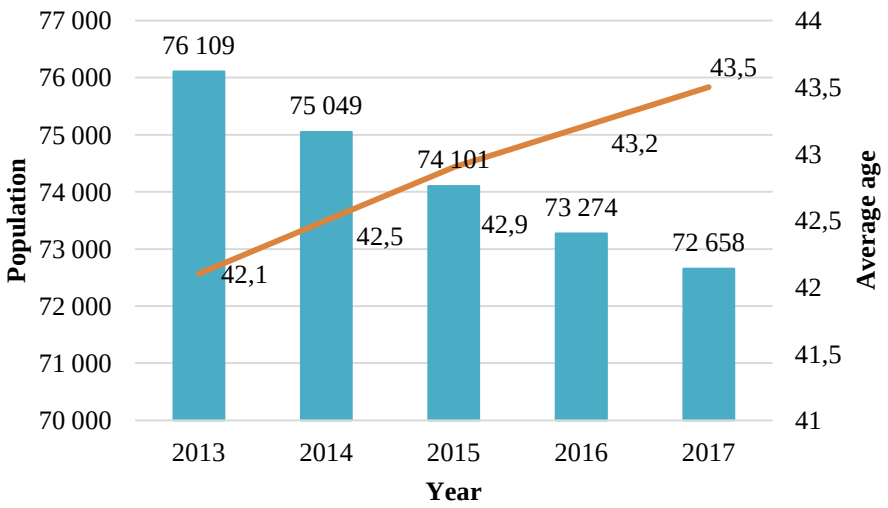

Figure 4. Development of population and average age in Havířov in 2013-2017 (ČSÚ, 2018)

The average age is increasing in the town of Havirov, which again threatens the supply of heat energy in the long run. More specifically, Figure 4. Graphically the sales volume of heat energy HTS, a.s. for the city of Havířov shown in figure 5.

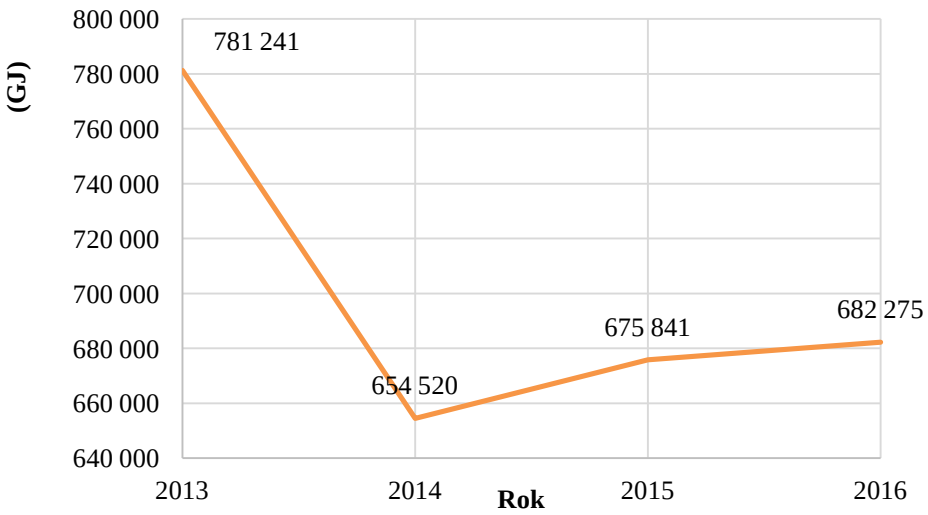

Figure 5. Volume of heat energy sold HTS, a.s. in Havířov in 2013-2016 (Internal resource)

As there are no significant development projects in Havířov, there is no prospect of connecting new significant customers yet, and the aging factor of the city's population is growing in importance. HTS, a.s. it also operates in a limited area (it supplies heat only in the town of Havířov), and the connection of new buildings outside the town of Havířov is unrealistic due to the high capital and technical demands. HTS, a.s. also affects the factor of

so-called bad opinion towards the heating plants. Heating plants are generally perceived among residents as a producer of harmful emissions that damages not only the landscape but also the environment.

3.4 Technological factors

The chapter that can be included in the technological factors influencing the production of thermal energy by burning fossil sources is the technology enabling the use of alternative fuels. These are, for example, combustion of biomass, solar heating, heat pumps, etc. These factors are closely intertwined with political decisions because the legislative base and eventual business support in this sector motivates natural and legal persons to enter this type of business. Another technological factor influencing the consumption of thermal energy is thermal insulation of buildings and buildings, insulation of roofs, replacement of windows, installation of thermostatic heads, regulation on the heel of the building and others.

3.5 Legislative factors

The heating industry is relatively extensively regulated by the state apparatus and other institutions under state administration. The regulated sector is not only in the pricing process but it complicates the entry of natural or legal persons into the sector. These include, for example, licenses which determine the parameters of energy management, lay down rules for heating, etc. Regulatory activities in the area of heating are primarily provided by the institutions: the Energy Regulatory Office and the State Energy Inspection.

3.6 Environmental factors

The location of the resource is outside the housing estates, which has a direct positive impact on the environment. From a theoretical point of view, there are no risks, for example, with the explosion of a source at the point of heat energy consumption and contamination in the residential area. There is, however, a risk of a global disruption that threatens the entire thermal system. The environmental risk, which will never be completely eliminated, is the loss of CPT. These are so-called technological physical losses due to the long transport of thermal energy from the primary distribution. It should be noted that the impact on the environment is minimal due to these losses. Divorce losses are about 4–6 %. Because the resource is centralized in one object, it is better to monitor compliance with environmental limits and protection than with decentralized sources.

4 RESULTS DISCUSSION

For an overview, a short list of the individual factors listed in Table 1 is given in the subchapter.

Tab. 1. Summary of PESTLE analysis results

Political factors	Industry regulation - ERO
	RES support
	Political aspects of the owner of the company
Economic factors	Low impact of basic macroeconomic indicators
	High impact of energy raw material prices
	Monetary Indicators (Courses)
Social factors	High impact of the demographic curve
	Aging population in the city
	Generally unfavorable public opinion
	Borderline local area
Technological factors	Technological development of alternative sources
	Heat insulation of buildings
	Absence of own resource
	Advantage of CHP
Legislative factors	Licensing of the industry
	Price regulation
	SEI powers
Ecological	Dislocation of the source
	Centralization of the system

It can be stated that HTS, a.s. most adversely affect the political and legislative interventions in the heat industry as a sector of the national economy, the price of energy commodities, the technological development of especially alternative sources and the demographic development of the population of Havířov. The main positive factors that enter the HTS business, a.s. is the dislocation of the source and the centralization of the system as an ecological factor, and from the technological factors it is the advantage of the combined production of electricity and heat, other factors favoring the production and distribution of heat are not involved. The results of this contribution can form the basis for strategic planning and managerial decisions in the medium and long term, not only for a company but also for companies of a similar scale.

5 CONCLUSION

The energy sector is associated with a specific set of aspects of business, particularly in the area of high investment intensity while at the same time stringent price regulation by the state. In addition, these significant factors are exacerbated by a certain physical disadvantage in the heating sector, consisting of the difficult storage of heat energy, unlike the gas or water sector. Although heat production is often seen as a public service from the point of view of the population, the state's support for advanced centralized systems is not consistent with this fact for a long time. Even a set of these facts should be an impetus for top management of heating companies to develop intensive analytical work with the goal of long-term strategic planning. The aim of this article was to perform a PESTLE analysis in HTS, a.s., which deals with the production and distribution of thermal energy for the city of Havířov. Research has highlighted factors that negatively or positively affect society. It can be stated that factors influencing negatively HTS, a.s. is significantly more than positive factors. The authors will continue their research with other strategic methods, such as Porter's Five Competitive

Strengths Analysis and SWOT Analysis where the results will have a synergistic and multiplier effect. Based on the results of further analyzes, material for company management will be created in the area of selected strategies in the future.

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VYUŽITÍ BUSINESS MODELU CANVAS PŘI TVORBĚ MARKETINGOVÉ STRATEGIE

USING THE CANVAS BUSINESS MODEL IN THE MARKETING STRATEGY

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Abstrakt

Článok je venovaný možnostiam využitia Business Modelu Canvas v oblasti tvorby marketingovej stratégie. Postupne sa venujeme popisu jednotlivých pojmov v rámci marketingovej stratégie a ďalej aj prostredníctvom tabuľky jednotlivým prvkom modelu Canvas. Na hlavný cieľ je zameraná ďalšia kapitola, ktorá na základe jednotlivých prvkov Business modelu Canvas postupne začleňuje proces tvorby marketingovej stratégie, respektíve popisuje možnosť využtia v smere tvorby stratégie prostriedkami Business Modelu Canvas.

Klíčová slova: *Business Model Canvas, marketingová strategie*

Abstract

The article is devoted to the possibilities of using the Business Model Canvas in the field of marketing strategy development. Gradually, we describe each concept in the marketing strategy and also through the table the individual elements of the Canvas model. The main focus is on the next chapter, which, on the basis of each of the elements of the Canvas Business Model, gradually integrates the process of creating a marketing strategy, or describes the possibility of using it in the direction of strategy creation using the Business Model Canvas.

Key words: *Business model Canvas, marketing strategy*

1. ÚVOD

Využitie business modelu pro rôzne oblasti podnikania sa stáva do veľkej miery samozrejmosťou. Dôvodom je úplne nepochopiteľne skutočnosť, že množina prvkov vytvárajúcich business model je priamo v súvislosti s procesmi niektorých životných cyklov podniku, od plánovania po zmeny týchto procesov. A práve plánovanie, v našom prípade teda tvorba marketingového plánu a možnosť využitia Business modelu Canvas pri tomto procese je témou tohto článku.

Postup tohto zapojenia business modelu je po objasnení základných pojmov koncipovaný po jednotlivých prvkov. Na začiatku sú to zákaznícke segmenty a hodnotová ponuka, ktoré priamo súvisia s procesom tvorby marketingovej stratégie, ďalej rovnako priamo začlenené vzťahy so zákazníkmi a kanály pre komunikáciu, až po kľúčové zdroje, partnerstvá a činnosti. Špecifická oblasť venovaná štruktúre nákladov ako prvku využitia Business modelu Canvas je záverečnou kapitolou tohto článku.

2. MARKETINGOVÁ STRATÉGIA A BUSINESS MODEL CANVAS

Problematika tvorby business stratégie organizácií je v súčasnosti považovaná za jednu z najvýznamnejších. Teoretici a praktici sa zhodujú v tom, že existencia stratégie je základný predpoklad prežitia organizácie, upresnenia jej postavenia na trhu i jej rozvoja (Jakubíková, 2013).

Existuje celá rada definícií pojmu „stratégia“. Za jednu z najstručnejších a najvýstižnejších možno považovať nasledujúcu definíciu. „*Stratégia je použitie a alokácia zdrojov organizácie na dosiahnutie jej dlhodobých cieľov.*“ Stratégia vo všeobecnosti vyjadruje spôsob výberu alebo kombinácie prostriedkov, ktoré majú zabezpečiť dosiahnutie cieľov (Paulovčáková, 2015).

Podnik ako hospodársky subjekt má vlastnú hierarchiu cieľov. Rozhodujúci význam tu zohrávajú marketingové ciele. Na dosiahnutie marketingových cieľov si spoločnosť volí marketingovú stratégiu alebo stratégie (Paulovčáková, 2015). Stratégia ako dokument odráža celkovú úroveň strategického myslenia v spoločnosti. Je produktom a súčasne predpokladom strategicky orientovaného riadenia (Marshall, 2015).

Pre rozpracovanie marketingovej stratégie sa už navrhlo mnoho modelov (Hedman, Kalling, 2003). Vo všeobecnosti sa uznáva, že kľúčom k úspechu v rozpracovaní stratégie je vymedzenie cieľov spoločnosti a ich transformácia do efektívneho plánu aktivít spoločnosti (Linhart, 2015), (Lecocq, Demil, Warmer, 2006).

Plátno Business modelu Canvas prináša zjednodušený a pritom komplexný pohľad na všetky kľúčové prvky potrebné pre fungovanie podnikania vrátane generovania peňazí (Teece, 2010), (Zott, Amit, 2011). K hlavným výhodám patrí jeho názornosť a prehľadnosť (vrátane efektívneho využitia pre strategické diskusie a modelovanie) (Zolnowski, Bohmann, 2011). Hlavný dôraz na poskytovanú hodnotu, zákaznícke segmenty a zdroje financovania umožňuje pri nových spoločnostiach jasne stanoviť priority a nasmerovať úsilie do oblastí, ktoré priamo generujú zdroje príjmu a naopak minimalizovať aktivity, ktoré zdroje príjmu negenerujú (Osterwalder, 2012).

Autori Business model definujú ako základný princíp, ako firma vytvára, predáva a získava hodnotu prostredníctvom deviatich hlavných oblastí, pričom v centre každého prvku je vytváranie hodnoty pre zákazníka.

Model zohľadňuje zákazníka a poskytovanú hodnotu vrátane logistiky týchto hodnôt smerom k nim. Popisuje zdroje, činnosti a partnerstvá potrebné pre poskytovanie hodnôt. V dolnej časti potom pridáva finančný rozmer Business modelu popisujúci oblasti a spôsoby platby zákazníkov za poskytované hodnoty a na strane druhej náklady súvisiace s chodom Business modelu.

Tabulka 1: Stavebné prvky Business modelu Canvas (Osterwalder, 2012)

Stavebný prvok	***Definícia/popis***
Zákaznícke segmenty	. . . definuje rôzne skupiny osôb či subjektov, na ktoré sa chce spoločnosť zamerať
Hodnotové ponuky	. . . popisuje spojenie výrobkov a služieb, ktoré vytvárajú hodnotu pre určitý zákaznícky segment
Kanály	. . . popisuje, ako spoločnosť komunikuje so zákazníckymi segmentmi a ako k nim pristupuje, aby im predala hodnotovú ponuku
Vzťahy so zákazníkmi	. . . popisuje typy vzťahov, ktoré si spoločnosť buduje s jednotlivými zákazníckymi segmentmi
Zdroje príjmu	. . . zahŕňa hotovosť, ktorú spoločnosť generuje z každého zákazníckeho segmentu
Kľúčové zdroje	. . . popisuje najdôležitejšie aktíva, ktoré spoločnosť potrebuje, aby celý business model mohol fungovať

Kľúčové činnosti	. . . určujú najdôležitejšie aktivity spoločnosti, ktoré musí vykonať, aby jej business model fungoval
Kľúčové partnerstvá	. . . predstavuje sieť dodávateľov a partnerov, ktorá je potrebná k tomu, aby jej business model fungoval
Štruktúra nákladov	. . . zahŕňa všetky náklady, ktoré sú spojené s chodom business modelu

3. VYUŽITIE BUSINESS MODELU CANVAS PRI TVORBE MARKETINGOVEJ STRATÉGIE

3.1 Zákaznícke segmenty

V oblasti zákazníckych segmentov je veľmi výrazná možnosť využitia Business modelu Canvas pre prípravu marketingovej stratégie ako podporného prostriedku pre voľbu cieľovej stratégie a tiež pre vyhodnocovanie a výber cieľových segmentov – zacielenie.

Spôsob potenciálneho využitia informácií s ktorými pracujú zákaznícke segmenty je v prelínaní sa užitočných a využiteľných informácií z oblasti zákazníckych segmentov, teda orientovaných subjektov alebo skupín, pre tvorbu jednotlivých častí marketingovej stratégie.

Tieto informácie priamo podporujú niektoré oblasti, napríklad v rámci segmentácie trhu, makro a mikro segmentácie, alebo môžu slúžiť ako významné informácie pre hodnotenie klasických spôsobov segmentácie trhu (geografická, demografická, psychografická a behaviorálna).

Ďalej prinášajú užitočné podklady pre hodnotovú segmentáciu trhu a môžu byť užitočných zdrojom údajov k analýzam prevádzaných s využitím prediktívnych modelov.

V oblasti zacielenia sa priamo vzájomne doplňujú podklady, s ktorými pracuje Business model Canvas v oblasti zákazníckych segmentov pre zdroj príjmu, ktorý je zároveň využiteľný pre zacielenie na voľbu hlavného zákazníka.

Ďalej sú tieto informácie využiteľné ako podporné pri voľbe cieľovej stratégie. Rovnako v oblasti vymedzenia pozície produktu, positioning, sa môžu vzájomne využiť informácie z oblasti zákazníckych segmentov pre správny výber stratégie.

Aj v závere procesu tvorby marketingovej stratégie, teda pri jej vyhodnocovaní, môžeme znovu, pre kontrolu, prípadne pre opravu, ako spätnú väzbu, použiť informácie, ktoré obsahujú zákaznícke segmenty Business modelu Canvas.

3.2 Hodnotová ponuka

Stavebný prvok hodnotová ponuka je pre strategický marketing, konkrétne pre produktovú politiku a stratégiu, jeden z najlepšie využiteľných stavebných prvkov a zdroj podporných informácií pri tvorbe tejto stratégie.

Vzhľadom ku skutočnosti, že podstatou hodnotovej ponuky je vytváranie hodnoty pre určitý zákaznícky segment, sú tieto informácie pre vnímanie produktu a klasifikácie produktov vo všetkých pohľadoch práce v týchto kategóriách veľmi významným zdrojom informácií.

Klasifikácie produktu priamo súvisia s pohľadom hodnotovej ponuky na výrobok a službu a to z pohľadu Business modelu Canvas, z pohľadu hodnoty pre zákaznícky segment, zároveň pre produktovú hierarchiu a ďalšie klasifikácie rozdelené na klasifikácie tovaru a klasifikácie služieb pre klasifikáciu produktov.

Pre marketingovú stratégiu produktu a jej technickú a marketingovú spôsobilosť je význam hodnotovej ponuky významným faktorom, na ktorého základe je možné túto štruktúru stavať. Pri hodnotení komplexnosti produktu je priamo hodnotová ponuka zodpovedajúca jadru úžitku, ako základnou súčasťou pre jej hodnotenie.

Ďalším významným podkladom pre marketingovú stratégiu je hodnotová ponuka v oblasti cenovej ponuky a stratégií. Je bezpochybná logická súvislosť medzi hodnotovou ponukou a strategickou úlohou ceny.
Z pohľadu významu ceny pre rôzne subjekty trhu je hodnotová ponuka produktu priamo podkladom pre špecifikáciu ceny a cenovú politiku. Strategický marketing v niektorých metódach stanovenia cenovej politiky priamo pracuje s prvkom business modelu hodnotová ponuka. Svojím charakterom hodnotová ponuka priamo ovplyvňuje externé aj interné faktory ovplyvňujúce ceny produktu a je použiteľná priamo pre metódy stanovenia ceny.
Pri postupe vlastného vytvárania cenovej stratégie patrí hodnotová ponuka medzi najdôležitejšie typy informácií – a to priamo v častiach marketingového mixu, marketingových cieľoch a cenovej taktiky.

3.3 Kanály (distribučné kanály)

Do marketingovej stratégie, a to konkrétne komunikačnej politiky a stratégie, sa priamo prelína spôsob zvyšovania povedomia o výrobku a službách medzi zákazníckymi segmentami, podpory a komunikácie so zákazníkom a tiež spôsob získavania hodnoty.
V tejto oblasti je marketingová komunikácia a jej niektoré časti (napríklad propagácia) v podstate priamo súvisiaci spôsob distribučného a komunikačného kanálu smerom k zákazníkovi.
Ďalším využitím distribučných kanálov v oblasti marketingovej stratégie je konkrétne oblasť marketingového mixu. Už z predchádzajúcej kapitoly môžeme logicky vyvodiť, že marketingový mix je už svojim významom, ktorý je tvorený prvkami ako je produkt, cena, distribúcia a komunikácia, v priamej súvislosti s významom distribučných kanálov, teda s časťou spôsobu zvyšovania povedomia o výrobkoch a službách. Marketingový mix je v podstate voľba spôsobu a techniky, ako tento proces zabezpečiť.
V tomto prípade je vzťah úžitku poskytnutých informácií vzájomne veľmi vyvážený, teda informácie využívané v prvku Business modelu Canvas, v distribučných kanáloch, možno veľmi efektívne použiť pre jednotlivé procesy marketingového mixu alebo pre jeho koncepty a zároveň niektoré hodnoty je možné opačne využiť v rámci distribučných kanálov.

3.4 Vzťahy so zákazníkmi

Vzťahy so zákazníkmi pomerne úzko súvisia s predchádzajúcim prvkom, kanálmi. Nakoľko zahrňujú aj formy komunikácie so zákazníkom, aj keď z pohľadu časovej osy pred, v priebehu a po poskytnutí hodnotovej ponuky, musia priamo súvisieť rovnako s časťou komunikačnej politiky a stratégie v oblasti marketingových stratégií, a to ako z pohľadu na proces marketingovej komunikácie, tak s ohľadom na časť marketingového komunikačného mixu a stratégie.
Niektoré z cieľov komunikačného mixu sú priamo úmerné v oblastiach foriem komunikácie so zákazníkom z Business modelu Canvas (napríklad súlad s kvantifikáciou pre odhad, aby sa dali merať – priama súvislosť s hodnotou pred, v priebehu a po poskytnutí hodnotovej ponuky).
Vzťahy so zákazníkmi môžu byť ďalej veľmi významným podkladom pre časť marketingovej stratégie, ktorá sa venuje kontrole a spätnej väzbe. V tomto prípade môžu byť práve nadstavené formy komunikácie využité pre hodnotenie úspešnosti marketingovej stratégie, môžu byť podkladom pre kontrolu, alebo rôzne typy kontrol a v dôsledku tiež pre marketingový audit.
Správne nadstavenú spätnú väzbu vo formách komunikácie ako vzťahu so zákazníkom, možno získavať podklady ku kontrolám ročného plánu, kontrole rentability i vlastnej strategickej kontrole a tieto podklady ďalej využiť pre niektoré metódy hodnotenia

marketingu – napríklad analýza predaja, analýza tržného podielu, analýza nákladov a rentability marketingu.

3.5 Zdroje príjmu

Cenová politika a stratégia, ako súčasť marketingovej stratégie, bola už zmienená v súvislosti s prvkom Business modelu Canvas - hodnotová ponuka. V súvislosti s týmto prvkom je priama využiteľnosť hlavne smerom k prvku hodnotovej ponuky, ako zdroja užitočných informácií pre oblasť cenovej politiky, teda hlavne k stratégiám pre stanovenie ceny a ďalším procesom postavený na základe významu hodnotovej ponuky pre určitý zákaznícky segment.
Ďalším prvkom Business modelu Canvas, ktorý ďalej priamo súvisí s cenovou politikou a stratégiou, je prvok zdroje príjmu. V tomto prípade dochádza k významnej previazanosti, a to priamo z dôvodu, že pre jednotlivé zdroje príjmu je možné využiť rôzne postupy tvorby cenovej politiky, ktorá je ďalej spätne previazaná s poskytovaním hodnotovej ponuky vzhľadom k typu zákazníckeho segmentu.
Zdroje príjmu, ako prvok Business modelu Canvas, môžu poskytnúť pre cenovú politiku a stratégiu spôsoby a možnosti, akými sú zákazníci ochotní zaplatiť za poskytnutú hodnotu. Na tomto základe možno stavať rôzne stratégie stanovenia ceny, brať do ohľadu faktory, ktoré ovplyvňujú výšku ceny, prípadne využiť správne metódy pre stanovenie ceny.
Ale aj ďalšie oblasti cenovej politiky, ako napríklad politika cenových redukcií, platobných a dodacích podmienok alebo úloha ceny v nákupnom rozhodovacom procese spotrebiteľa, môže čerpať z informácií, ktoré sú súčasťou prvku Business modelu Canvas - zdroje príjmu.
Hlavné ciele cenovej politiky stratégie stanovenia cien a faktory, ktoré ovplyvňujú výšku ceny, potom priamo súvisia s možnosťou správneho nadstavenia zdroju príjmu smerom k poskytnutí optimálnej možnosti, ktorú zákazníci môžu zaplatiť za poskytnutú hodnotu.
Význam prepojenia zdrojov príjmu s cenovou politikou a stratégiou, je vo veľkej miere zobrazený v tabuľke stratégií a taktiky tvorby cien.

3.6 Kľúčové činnosti

Informácie, ktoré zapadajú do súboru aktivít slúžiacich, aby prostredníctvom kanálov zákazníkom priniesli požadovanú hodnotovú ponuku a bolo možné tieto vzťahy udržovať, sú zároveň možnými podkladmi alebo zdrojovými informáciami pre distribučnú politiku a stratégiu.
Navzdory skutočnostiam, že kľúčové činnosti môžu zahrňovať napríklad výrobu, udržovanie siete a ďalšie funkčné aktivity, možno tieto informácie prepojiť s distribúciou a distribučnou politikou v rámci marketingovej stratégie, pretože jednou zo základných hodnôt distribúcie je tvorba a doručenie hodnoty, respektíve hodnotovej ponuky smerom k zákazníkovi.
Aj keď v rámci strategického marketingu je distribučná politika orientovaná hlavne na výmenné toky, v oblasti spotrebiteľských trhov prenos, ktorý sprostredkováva, je v podstate výsledkom kľúčových činností.
Distribučné cesty, prostredníctvom ktorých spotrebiteľ dosiahne na tovar a služby sú teda vlastne tunelom pre distribúciu kľúčových činností. Tvorba distribučného systému a stanovenie distribučnej stratégie teda logicky musia vnímať obsah informácie, s ktorou pracuje a táto informácia je formovaná práve na základe kľúčových činností.

3.7 Kľúčové zdroje

Všetky doteraz spomínané prvky Business modelu Canvas boli do určitej miery využiteľné, alebo aj vzájomne využiteľné s niektorými prvkami marketingovej stratégie. Ak zmieňujeme kľúčové zdroje ako prvok Business modelu Canvas, je možná využiteľná väzba pre marketingovú stratégiu asi najmenšia.

Vzhľadom k charakteru kľúčových zdrojov, teda hmotných a nehmotných zdrojov, vrátane finančného a znalostného kapitálu, sú tieto zdroje do určitej miery vždy identické pre konkrétnu činnosť alebo aktivitu. Uhol pohľadu v Business modelu Canvas a uhol pohľadu marketingovej stratégie sa ale líši.
Ak v rámci Business modelu Canvas chceme kľúčové zdroje využiť ako predpoklad, pomocou ktorého distribučnými kanálmi dodávame zákazníkovi hodnotovú ponuku, potom v rámci marketingovej stratégie, sú skôr stavebným kameňom pre základnú tvorbu marketingovej koncepcie rozvoja a plánovania strategického marketingu, ako prvku strategického riadenia firiem a organizácií.
Z pohľadu kľúčových zdrojov Business modelu Canvas sú tieto aktíva použiteľné do určitej miery vo všetkých kapitolách marketingovej stratégie, pretože viac, alebo menej, v každej jednej kapitole prostredníctvom hmotných alebo nehmotných zdrojov priamo podporujú niektoré časti. Napríklad pri implementácií marketingovej stratégií do organizácie marketingu je využitie znalostného kapitálu pre zákazníka veľmi významným predpokladom pre úspech tejto činnosti.

3.8 Kľúčové partnerstvá

Kľúčové partnerstvá, tak ako sú postavené v rámci Business modelu Canvas, sú v rámci oblasti marketingovej stratégie špecifickou oblasťou vzhľadom k tomu, že marketing nie je vo svojom princípe príliš založený na partnerstve.
Princípom marketingu je naopak, vyhľadanie prostriedkov k dosiahnutiu konkurenčných výhod alebo rôznych ďalších nástrojov pre dosiahnutie výhod nad konkurenciou.
Vzhľadom k pohľadu na kľúčové partnerstvá, ako siete dodávateľov a partnerov, ktoré potrebujeme pre fungovanie celého modelu, možno pre marketingovú stratégiu tieto informácie použiť iba pre produktovú politiku a stratégiu, pre cenovú politiku a stratégiu a do určitej miery pre špecifické metódy marketingovej situačnej analýzy (SWOT analýza, portfólio matice GE, analýza zákaznícke portfólia, analýza konkurenčnej výhody, benchmarking).
Týmto pracujem s myšlienkou, kedy informácie na základe kľúčových partnerstiev, môžeme do určitej miery využiť v rámci týchto prvkov strategického managementu takmer v minimálnej miere možno naopak z pohľadu Business modelu Canvas, využiť jednotlivé prvky marketingovej stratégie do roly kľúčových partnerstiev.

3.9 Štruktúra nákladov

Štruktúra nákladov je v rámci Business modelu Canvas pojatá ako súčet všetkých nákladov na Business modeli Canvas, ktoré delíme podľa štandardných definícií na fixné a variabilné.
V prípade, že hľadáme súvislosť s marketingovou stratégiou, je podobný proces pri implementácií marketingovej stratégie a organizácie marketingu v spoločnosti. Sú to teda do určitej miery podobné procesy súvisiace s implementáciou jednotlivých prvkov ako do organizačnej štruktúry, alebo do ďalších procesov v rámci firemného prostredia z pohľadu Business modelu Canvas zaistenie kľúčových zdrojov, výkon kľúčových činností, náklady na vytvorenie a udržovanie kľúčových partnerstiev alebo náklady na vlastnú implementáciu marketingového procesu a stratégie budovania marketingovej organizácie v spoločnosti.

4. ZÁVER

Článok sa venuje pomerne špecifickej oblasti súvisiacej s orientáciou na konkrétny typ Business modelu Canvas a jeho implementáciou do procesu tvorby strategického marketingového plánu. Vzhľadom k veľkému potenciálu business modelu a vysokej miere súvislostí pri tvorbe strategického marketingového plánu je článok veľmi použiteľným k praktickému využitia týchto dvoch oblastí ako celku. Tým naplňuje stanovený cieľ a prináša

zaujímavú možnosť využitia Business modelu Canvas v ďalšej oblasti súvisiacej s životným cyklom podniku.

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EKONOMIKA, BANKOVNICTVÍ, POJIŠŤOVNICTVÍ

ECONOMY, BANKING, INSURANCE MANAGEMENT

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FOOTBALL CLUBS - TRADITIONAL OR NONTYPICAL ENTERPRISE?

Katarzyna Brożek

Abstract

The article discusses the problems of football clubs as an example of one of the forms of functioning of enterprises. Similarities and differences between the football club in terms of a traditional enterprise and an extraordinary business idea have been proposed. The aim of the study is therefore a comparative analysis of the subject matter. The proposed article was divided into two main chapters, and these were further elaborated by in total four sub-chapters. The first part of the work concerns the theoretical approach of the company, while the second part deals with the football club. The theoretical analysis was supplemented with an empirical approach, in which five of the strongest football leagues in Europe in terms of selected indicators were examined. The basic statistical measures were used in the calculations.

Keywords: *football clubs, Pearson's correlation, enterprises*

INTRODUCTION

Economic, social, political and technological changes over the last decades have directed the global economy to a new direction of development (KBE). One of its fundamental determinants is the globalization of economic activity. Another important feature of the changes is the constant increase in ambient turbulence. This changeability has led to the need to find new ways of organizing and managing business. Classic ways of managing enterprises can lead to developmental stagnation and even collapse. With this fact in mind, entrepreneurs increasingly redefine their ways of doing things and thus strive to achieve a high level of flexibility. There is a wide range of diverse enterprises operating in the current economic arena, among them football clubs have also developed their position. In this article, the subject of football clubs was undertaken in relation to enterprises operating in the economy. One can ask the question whether current football clubs with their activity characteristics fit into the canon of traditional enterprises, or maybe they are already an unusual form of business activity? The proposed considerations are aimed at conducting a comparative analysis, enriched with Pearson's correlation indicator.

1 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF AN ENTERPRISE

1.1 The business development process

The enterprise is a historical product that appeared in economic life at a particular stage of its development. According to economists and economic historians, farms in the era of slavery and feudalism did not have the characteristics of a company. "Enterprises were created along with the development of goods and money relations. Creating lively commercial, banking and industrial enterprises became the foundation of the capitalist economy" (Godziszewski, Haffer, 2011, p. 16).

The dynamic development of the company led first in England and then in other countries to the industrial revolution. In the history of business development, they have become the first "center of application of the rational management principle, in which the goal and means are quantified, expressed in uniform units of measure such as money "(Godziszewski, Haffer, 2011, p. 16).

The turn of the Middle Ages and modern times is considered to be the establishment of the company. According to O. Lange, the company derives from medieval stalls, stores or warehouses. At the same time, the formation of the first commercial companies can be noted. At the turn of the 16th and 17th centuries large commercial companies began to appear, which undertook risky and costly overseas expeditions (Lange, 1998, p. 152). One can, therefore, speak of the merchant origin of many enterprises. In the case of enterprises established in England and North America, one should speak of industrial origin. In England, the forerunner of the company was the manufacture. The entrepreneur gathered in it craftsmen, who from his raw materials, using basic tools, carried out production processes similar to those they did in their workshops.

In the 18th century, manufactories were transformed into factories. The reason for this was the displacement of manual work by machine works (Godziszewski, Haffer, 2011, p. 18). The first country in which factories were created was England, later they began to be established in other European countries and the USA. In the 19th century, railway networks were built that allowed transport of raw materials, finished products or semi-finished products (more on: Dyr, Ziółkowska, 2014, pp. 5-22). Even faster, the industry began to develop when steam engines were replaced by electrically driven machines.

In the 1920s, the development of an industrial enterprise contributed to the creation of a stream production, in other words - belt-system production. It consisted of "performing technological operations on sliding objects, in the rhythm imposed by the machines, from the position into the position" (Godziszewski, Haffer, 2011, p. 18). It allowed for a significant increase in work efficiency and reduction of manufacturing costs, and thus a reduction in product prices. These changes are related to the dissemination of Henry Ford's activity in the automotive industry, as well as other industries that until today are known in the world under the name of Fordism.

The enterprise development process continues uninterruptedly to the present day. Since the Industrial Revolution in England, countless forms, types and kinds of them have been created. It is also important to mention two evolutionary changes in both technology and management, the meaning of which is called epochal in the literature. They were mainly:

a) since the early 1970s - implementation of IT solutions, computerization and development of the Internet,
b) since the beginning of the 90s of the last century - globalization of the economy referred to as an economy without borders (Godziszewski, Haffer, 2011, p. 18).

1.2 Presentation of enterprises - basic information

In the 1990s, it was decided to unify the definition of a company. The words that most often appeared in definitions, and the literature of the subject has them about 77 (Gaweł, 2007, p. 15), were: creating a new company, establishing, taking risks, seeking a profit, acquiring resources. It follows from the above that the term enterprise is understood very broadly, and the authors approach it in a different way. The reason for differentiation of definitions is a different approach to the enterprise as various scientific disciplines. Otherwise it is defined by the economy, in other words by management, law, or sociology, and yet by cybernetics.

One of the company's definitions is the one proposed by M. Nasiłowski and it is as follows: "an enterprise is an economic entity that carries out production or service activities on its own in order to achieve certain benefits. It employs various factors of production, including labor, capital, land, in order to produce specific goods or provide specific services that it sells on the market to other enterprises, households, central or local authorities" (Nasiłowski, 2002, p. 41). It can therefore be said that a company is an organizational unit that runs its own business. The unit is separate legally, territorially, organizationally and economically, and includes both financial as well as human, material and non-material resources. It can carry out service,

production or commercial activities. The important information is that the company has legal capacity and the fact that its form and system is strictly defined in the legal system. In Polish law, the definition of entrepreneurship is in art. 55 of the Civil Code, "an enterprise is an organized set of intangible and physical assets intended for conducting business activity" (Act, 1964, Article 55).

The company has many functions, of which the most important are listed below:

- development function - investments, research, training, modernization;
- production function - service and production processes;
- personnel function - staff, training, occupational safety and health, social issues;
- economic function - costs, prices, finances, technical and economic planning, analyzes, settlements, bookkeeping, balance sheets, reports;
- marketing function - procurement, sales, logistics (Moczydłowska, Pacewicz, 2007, p. 32).

The economy of each country is characterized by the existence of different types of enterprises. Observing the technological progress and the demand for services, it is clearly visible that their differentiation is progressing, that is why it is important to catalog them, because problems in managing them are solved differently. The basic classification of enterprises is based on the following criteria (Wolak-Tuzimek, Duda, Sołoma, Lament, 2015, p. 27):

1. property,
2. legal form,
3. listing or not noticing on the stock exchange,
4. type and scope of activity,
5. territorial fragmentation,
6. scope of internationalization (Dąbrowski, 1995, s. 45).

2 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FOOTBALL CLUB AS A COMPANY

2.1 A sports club, an original or a traditional enterprise?

Nowadays, sports clubs are one of the types of enterprises. The PWN Encyclopedia defines them as "organizations established for the purpose of practicing various sports, organizing competitions and sporting events and promoting physical culture" (Encyclopedia of PWN, 2017). Sports clubs can take various organizational forms and can be associated with joint-stock companies or associations. They can also be single or multi-sectional. In order for the sports club to operate it must have a statute. Art. 3 of the Sport Act stipulates that "sporting activity is carried out in particular in the form of a sports club, while this one acts as a legal person" (Act, 2010, article 3). As it is clear from the above, the Act does not specify which sports club should have a legal form. Nor does he give its definition. The only important thing is that it must have legal personality, and the persons who sets it up must decide, depending on the possibilities and needs, about its legal form. Sports clubs can take many forms, such as:

- limited companies, i.e. limited liability companies registered in the National Court Register (more broadly: Sieradzka, 2014, pp. 100-103);
- joint-stock companies, i.e. enterprises conducting business activity, e.g. football clubs belonging to the first division (Noga, 2010, p. 142).

In view of the information about football clubs, it is noted that they have the ability to generate considerable revenues. In addition to the income from the sale of players, football clubs are often the owners of stadiums, which, in addition to the revenue from tickets, are also rented for the organization of not only sports but also cultural events. In addition, there are also investment outlays and costs borne by sports clubs, just like in an enterprise. They are divided into permanent and variable. There are employees who are employed, like: trainers, footballers, training staff, stadium staff, massage therapists; it pays off management staff. The

club has clients and contractors, for example, fans coming to the match and buying tickets, television stations that acquire rights to broadcast, and also operates on the basis of the laws of the country. A sports club as well as an enterprise also has its own property, development strategy, brand and trademarks.

Sports clubs are required, as in the case of traditional enterprises, to have:

- mission,
- aim,
- values,
- vision.

It should be noted that contemporary professional sports clubs are most often production and service companies, because they are also their competitors and partners, and their activities are supervised and commented on by stakeholders. The product that is provided by the football club is TV law and advertising for institutions, as well as sports shows and souvenirs offered for individual clients.

More and more often, when looking at warehouse companies, it can be noticed that sports clubs are present on the trading floor, which, looking for new sources of investment, issue shares and introduce them to the stock exchange. Innovations in such an approach of club management were introduced by the British, namely the managers of Manchester United (Sport Marketing, 2017). This process causes that current valuation techniques must adapt to new conditions, which is the introduction of football clubs to the stock exchange. The vast majority of these methods were taken from the valuation of the company, which means that sports clubs are just one of its types (Noga, 2010, p. 143).

Recent years have shown that football is one of the most popular sports in the world, but also the most profitable. "As a result of economic and political and legal changes occurring over the years in the national economies of almost all countries, sports clubs have been forced to change their model of functioning, becoming sports enterprises" (Gajda, 2015, p. 188). Let us just take a look at the salaries of the most popular players, or investments such as building stadiums for hundreds of millions of EUR, to make sure that huge sums are involved. Financing such a large undertaking as the leading football clubs requires huge financial outlays, therefore more and more clubs are making decisions to raise capital from the stock exchange (eBiuletyn, 2017). The result is an increase in the capitalization of sports clubs.

The amounts used by football clubs suggest that their management requires appropriate knowledge and skills. The same is true for marketing. If the clubs want to stay in the world leading edge, they must take care of their financial condition and proper marketing. The football club is to be successful on the pitch, the team is supposed to run smoothly, win matches and play nice football. The same applies to enterprises. If they want to belong to the best, they look for a competitive advantage by maximizing their profits or having significant market shares. It is no different with strategy. In both cases, both clubs and companies work similarly. Both economic entities have people responsible for planning development strategies. In the football club it will be a training staff, which in a proper way must prepare the team for the season, develop tactics and determine actions. In the case of a company, these are managers, whose responsibilities include the development and implementation of its objectives and actions that will result in achieving the priorities set (Styś, 2002, p. 154). An analysis is used both in enterprises and in football clubs. In the case of a business unit, this analysis is designed to make the best decisions both outside and inside the company in the future. In football clubs, however, it is about taking a look and correcting mistakes in the players' game.

When comparing a football club to an enterprise, it should be mentioned that each of them has a key figure in its structures, the so-called leaders who give an example to their behavior, inspire and motivate to work. In order for the team to be able to work efficiently, the teams

need to be convinced of their own strength and value, which is why both the training staff and managers should support their subordinates with a sense of security and belonging to the team (Gajda, 2015, p. 189). Success on the pitch or on the market depends also on the mental and physical condition of both entities. In the football club, necessary for this are appropriate facilities that are responsible for the rehabilitation of injured players, or biological renewal of the whole team. Thanks to this, the players are refreshed, relaxed and full of energy. The situation is similar in the case of an enterprise where the management provides its employees with meeting rooms, relaxation rooms, and cafes where employees can rest and calm down. Thanks to this, their work will be more effective, which will increase profits or improve the position of the organization in the market.
The recruitment to the workplace is also a similar situation. In the case of football clubs, players can fill the gap on the pitch. Despite this, so-called Scouts are looking for young talents among players of football schools. In enterprises, however, people from HR departments look for talented, potential employees, while managers train apprentices who will take up a vacant position in the future (Styś, 2002, p. 155).

2.2 Football clubs - an empirical approach

The main elements of the financial success of sports clubs are presented below. Table 1 presents the income of football clubs from the highest class in the years 2011-2015. The statistics refer to the five strongest football leagues in Europe. For the sake of clarity of analysis, the proposed data was supplemented with own calculations, using basic statistical measures.

Tab. 1: Income of football clubs from the highest competition class in 2011-2015 (in millions of EUR)

Country / year	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**Arithmetic average**	**Dynamics[1] 2015/2011**	**Structure[2] 2015**
England* (A)	2500	2900	2900	3900	4400	3320	76%	36%
Spain (B)	1600	1800	1900	1900	2100	1860	31%	17%
Germany (C)	1700	1900	2000	2300	2400	2060	41%	20%
France (D)	1100	1100	1300	1500	1400	1280	27%	12%
Italy (E)	1500	1600	1700	1700	1800	1660	20%	15%
Σ	**8400**	**9300**	**9800**	**11300**	**12100**	-	-	-

*In the British community, each league is treated as a separate economic entity.
Source: Own calculations based on Deloitte reports, own calculations.

In football, clubs from the aforementioned leagues gradually increased their income (except for the French league, which between 2014 and 2015 dropped by EUR 100 million). The leader in this ranking is the English league, which over the past five years has recorded an increase in income of EUR 1.9 billion, from EUR 2.5 billion to EUR 4.4 billion. Such financial results are mainly related to the sale of television rights to show matches. No other league approached the results obtained by the English. The second in this respect, the German league, in 2015 recorded revenues of EUR 2.4 billion.
In many studies and literature devoted to issues related to the finances of sports clubs, their income is most often considered in terms of television rights, marketing and tickets revenues.

[1] Single-element index of dynamics: $i_{t/0} = (y_t/y_0) *100\%$, where: y_t - the level of the phenomenon in the period considered,
y_0 - the level of the phenomenon from any period used as a basis for comparisons.
[2] Structure ratio: $w_i = (n_i / n) *100\%$, where: n - the size of the whole collectivity, n_i - the number of the highlighted part of the collectivity.

The following analysis presents a slightly different view, namely the impact of such factors as GDP, unemployment, or earnings for the incomes of football clubs in Europe.
Table 2 presents changes in the GDP of individual countries in the period 2011-2015. England in this case will be treated as Great Britain (no access to GDP data with a distinction for the countries of the United Kingdom).

Tab. 2: GDP in the period 2011-2015 (in billion EUR)

Country/year	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Arithmetic average	Dynamics 2015/2011	Structure 2015
England (I)	1880	2041	2017	2222	2580	2148	37%	24%
Spain (II)	1040	1055	1049	1058	1075	1055,4	3%	10%
Germany (III)	2700	2750	2809	2904	3030	2838,6	12%	29%
France (IV)	2060	2091	2114	2142	2180	2117,4	6%	21%
Italy (V)	1640	1615	1609	1616	1645	1625	0,3%	16%
Σ	**9320**	**9552**	**9598**	**9942**	**10510**	-	-	-

Source: Own calculations based on Eurostat data, own calculations.

The highest GDP indicator among the analyzed countries was characterized by Germany, because in 2011 they reached EUR 2,700 billion, and by 2015 increased it to EUR 3030 billion. The lowest GDP was recorded by the Spaniards, who are slowly but steadily trying to stave off the economic crisis. On the Iberian Peninsula, GDP in 2011 was EUR 1040 billion and in four years it increased by EUR 35 billion.
The next step in the analysis was to check the correlation between the GDP of the countries mentioned and the incomes of their football clubs, which is presented in Table 3.

Tab. 3: Correlation between GDP and club revenues

I and A	0,96
II and B	0,91
III and C	0,96
IV and D	0,84
V and E	0

Source: Own calculations.

In the case of England/Great Britain, Spain, Germany, the correlation between GDP and club incomes was plus/positive, and the dependence was very strong. For France, the Pearson correlation coefficient was r = 0.84; which indicates a significant - strong correlation. Thus, both traits studied increased or decreased simultaneously, i.e. if the level of GDP increased, the incomes of the clubs increased automatically, whereas in the opposite situation, i.e. when the GDP of the surveyed countries dropped then football clubs recorded a drop in incomes. In the case of Italy, the analysis showed no relationship between the examined factors.[3]
On the next stage, the focus was on analyzing the unemployment rate in selected countries in the period 2011-2015, which is presented in table 4.

Tab. 4: Unemployment rate in 2011-2015 (in%)

Country/year	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
England (I)	8,1	7,9	7,6	6,1	5,3

[3] $r_{xy} = 0$ –means no linear relationship between features; no linear correlation (when x grows, y sometimes grows and sometimes decreases), but it can then be a curvilinear correlation.

Spain (II)	21,4	24,8	26,1	24,5	22,1
Germany (III)	5,8	5,4	5,2	5	4,6
France (IV)	9,2	9,8	10,3	10,3	10,4
Italy (V)	8,4	10,7	12,1	12,7	11,9

Source: Own elaboration based on Eurostat data.

The highest unemployment rate was recorded in Spain, where from 2011 to 2013 the rate increased from 21.4% to 26.1%. However, already in 2014, the authorities from Madrid managed to reduce this level to 24.5%, and a year later to 22.1%. In turn, the country with the lowest unemployment was Germany, which since 2011, when unemployment was recorded at the level of 5.8%, is constantly reducing it, and in 2015 it was only 4.6%. The study of the correlation coefficient between unemployment and club incomes is presented in Table 5.

Tab. 1: Correlation between the unemployment rate and club incomes

I and A	-0,99
II and B	0,19
III and C	-0,97
IV and D	0,83
V and E	0,86

Source: Own calculations.

In the case of England/Great Britain, the correlation between the analyzed variables was r = -0.99, which means that it is minus/negative, and the relationship was very strong. In Spain, the correlation coefficient was r = 0.19; in this case, the correlation is plus/positive, and the linear relationship is clear but low. Analysis of data from Germany shows that the relationship between the unemployment rate and club incomes was equal to r = -0.97; that is, the correlation was minus/negative, and the dependence was very strong. Because if unemployment grows, clubs' incomes decrease, and vice versa.

In the last two cases: France and Italy, the relations were plus/positive r = 0.83 and r = 0.86, respectively, the relationships were therefore significant (strong).

The last stage of the research was to check the impact of annual net earnings to clubs' revenues. First, the values of earnings in the period 2011-2015 are shown, which is presented in Table 6.

Tab. 2: Annual net earnings in 2011-2015 (in EUR)

Country/year	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**Arithmetic average**	**Dynamics 2015/2011**	**Structure 2015**
England (I)	20631	23186	22295	23804	26860	23355,2	30%	28%
Spain (II)	14040	14157	14220	14297	14635	14269,8	4%	15%
Germany (III)	18910	19337	19618	20054	20584	19700,6	9%	21%
France (IV)	17580	17909	18162	18327	18766	18148,8	7%	19%
Italy (V)	14180	14406	14639	15622	16066	14982,6	13%	17%
Σ	**85341**	**88995**	**88934**	**92104**	**96911**	-	-	-

Source: Own calculations based on Eurostat data, own calculations.

The highest earnings were recorded in England/Great Britain, where the average of five years was EUR 23355.2 per year. The least paid workers were in Spain, an average of EUR 14269.8 and in Italy EUR 14982.6 per year.

The results of the correlation between annual net earnings and club revenues determining the studied five countries are presented in Table 7.

Tab. 3: Correlation between annual net earnings and club incomes

I i A	0,93
II i B	0,94
III i C	0,98
IV i D	0,81
V i E	0,88

Source: Own study.

In all analyzed cases, the correlation is plus/positive, and the dependence is very strong or strong. It can therefore be concluded that, as the annual earnings of citizens of a particular country increase, the incomes of clubs increase.

SUMMARY

After the analysis, it can be noticed that despite many common features between the company, in the classical form of this meaning, and the sports club, there is a certain common framework of functioning. However, the specificity of this other economic entity does not fully manage it in the same way as a traditional enterprise. Often, economic changes do not have to have such negative or positive effects on a football club as in the case of an enterprise. Currently, many teams are supported by private investors (from Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Russia, China or the United States), who invest huge amounts of money without looking at the costs, which allows them to easily cope with, for example, the economic crisis occurring in a given country.

In the empirical part, five of the strongest football leagues in Europe were examined in terms of selected indicators. Among the examined leagues were those from the following countries: England, Spain, Germany, France and Italy. On the other hand, the analyzed indicators included: incomes of football clubs, GDP, unemployment rate and annual net earnings in selected countries. The research period was limited to five years, i.e. 2011-2015.

The highest income of football clubs in 2015 described the English league, as they amounted to EUR 4.4 billion, which accounted for 36% of all incomes from the five leagues tested. It is worth noting that this league was also characterized by the highest growth dynamics in the ranking of the last examined period, i.e. 2015 to the first, i.e. until 2011, it was exactly 76%.

In the case of the second index - GDP, the leader turned out to be Germany, because their share in the total value obtained was 29%, however Germany was immediately followed by England and France with structure indicators, respectively: 24% and 21%. The largest growth dynamics again described the English league (37%).

In the case of the analysis of the unemployment rate the worst was Spain, because in 2015 this rate constituted as much as 22.1%, while the German economy was the most advantageous, because in this case the result was 4.6%. The last analyzed indicator was the annual net earnings and in this case again the English economy was the most favorable (structure ratio - 28%, and growth dynamics - 30%).

The culmination of the analysis was to examine the dependence of three indicators (GDP, unemployment rate, net earnings - five studied countries) in relation to the incomes of football clubs. In the case of GDP and incomes of football clubs, a very strong positive correlation was recorded in most countries (with the exception of Italy). However, when examining the relationship between the unemployment rate and the incomes of football clubs, it should be noted that in both England and Germany a very strong negative correlation was recorded. In the last analyzed case, i.e. considering the relationship between annual net earnings and the

incomes of football clubs, unanimously in all cases, positive, strong or very strong correlation was obtained, which clearly determines the fact that annual net earnings were the most correlated with the incomes of football clubs in all the five countries studied.

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THE LIVED EXPERIENCE OF E-WORKING, A CASE STUDY FROM AN INTERNATIONAL SPORTS COMPANY

Michal Beňo

Abstract

Changes in society, economy and technology have transformed the world of work from traditional office locations to a combination of computing and telecommunications technologies to various developed forms of flexibility such as teleworking, telecommuting, flexi-work, remote work, mobile working, nomadic work and e-work. This type of work is on the rise. Flexibility in the workplace is essential for meeting the demands of work and family, commuting and the environments issues of today's society. This paper was designed to understand and explore the lived experiences of 4 e-workers from an international sports company based in Austria through email interviews.

Keywords: *e-working, teleworking, lived experience, employment, employees*

1 INTRODUCTION

E-working or working at a distance is a modern way of organizing work which has recently become more popular (Chung, 2015; Manyika et al. 2016; YE, 2012) because employees expect more and more flexibility (IBM, 2012; Matos&Galinsky, 2014). Flexibility in the workplace is essential for meeting the demands of work and family as traditional gender roles of the male as the breadwinner and the female as the homemaker have changed (Oláh et al. 2014). Among the different forms of work is a concept known as teleworking (Nilles, 1998). This concept is on the rise (GlobalWorkplaceAnalytics, 2017; Matos&Galinsky, 2014; WorldatWork, 2009, 2011).

The main feature of this activity is to limit the need to commute to work to an office. It is an innovative form of work from which we can expect such benefits as flexibility, productivity, and costs not only for employers but also employees. Nowadays, the occupations and working conditions which are preferred and desirable, require a high degree of independence and decision-making and a better work-life balance. From companies and firms, it is increasingly required to offer adequate forms of work and cooperation, and from the employees an ability to respond flexibly to new challenges is required.

The modern term eWork better fits into a world where knowledge is highly separated from the head office, where there is no need for a special, fixed area to complete it and transferring it on to others is no longer complicated nor needed as we live in globalized world. Modern mobile phones, smart phones, wireless LANs outside the office through the PDA, laptop or tablets allow both employees and employers to finish tasks, and send the work results from anywhere and anytime to any other virtual location.

ICT is instrumental to understanding modern democracy. According to data from the InternetWorldStats (2017) updated on June 30, 2017 3.885.567.619 internet users were recorded. These users have almost unlimited access to any information. But we try to ask the same question as did Albert Einstein: "*why does this magnificent technology which saves work and makes life easier bring us so little happiness*? ", and agree with his answer: "*because we have not yet learned to make sensible use of it*".

The purpose of this paper is to understand and explore the lived experience of e-workers. The study site was located in an international sports company and the analysis of the e-workers was conducted through e-mail interviews. This study is significant to those workers, as it provides additional context for the experiences of those who telework. The result from this study may provide information for an e-employee who is interested in better understanding this modern work form, and it could educate non-e-workers about the experience of e-working. Overall, this study further adds to the knowledge based on e-working.

The paper is organised into three parts. In the first part, we review the methodology used in this paper. The second section briefly outlines different perspectives on e-work and charts the broad history of telework schemes to date. The third outlines the main empirical data based on e-mail interviews completed with the relevant staff. The research question guiding this paper was, what are the lived experiences of e-Work employees. Through this piece, comparison will be made between the observations of the experiences of the e-workers.

2 METHODOLOGY

More people accumulate online, qualitative researchers explore the use of online tools for research (Salmons, 2010). These tools include e-mail interviewing, instant messaging, skype (Lo Iacono, et al. 2015), and (a) synchronous interviewing (Salmons, 2010; Bowden & Galindo-Gonzales, 2015).

It was found that e-mail interviewing offers unprecedented opportunities for qualitative research, providing access to millions of potential research participants who are otherwise inaccessible. The method can be employed quickly, conveniently, and inexpensively and can generate high-quality data when handled carefully. This method involves multiple e-mail exchanges between the interviewer and interviewee (Salmons, 2010).

We carried out a three-step research project to study e-working with a focus an e-workers arrangements at an international sports company. The first step was a literature review, the second one, the company's data analysis through examining existing e-workers data, and the last step was a qualitative study with a sample of 4 e-workers (2 female and 2 male). The empirical research was conducted in an international sports company in January 2018. The evaluated population was a sample of e-workers of 4 people based on the internal company data with the utilisation of screening questions of the utilisation of telework. We developed an interview protocol with 7 semi-structured, open-ended interview questions to gather information on the participant's lived experience of e-working. There was one demographic question about the participants. We used e-mail interviewing as a standard qualitative method.

3 E-WORK

We mentioned in the introduction that working remotely has become popular and being able to work from anywhere and anytime is becoming standardized. We summarized the main timeline events in the history of teleworking as follows: 1) FI Group plc in 1960s – Freelance Programmers involved software programmers mostly women who had left office based-jobs to have children - working for F-International (later the FI Group) (1962) and ICL (1969) (Rigby, 2018); 2) 1967 company Messerschimdt-Bölkow-Blohm presented Ottobrunner Model known as flexible working (Hillert, 1969); 3) First Network Email sent to by Ray Tomlison with the text consisted QUERTYIOP in late 1971 (Tschabitscher, 2017); 4) 1973 Oil crises and Jack Nilles – the Father of Telecommuting coined the term telecommuting, using electronics to work remotely (Nilles, 1974); 5) Frank Schiff coined the term flexplace, he wrote an article for the Washington post called Working at Home Can Save Gasoline

(Schiff, 1979), 6) 1990's Internet, World Wide Web is born. 1994 Yahoo and 1996 Hotmail is founded. 1998 Google launched with the domain registration in 1997 (ICTLounge, 2018) and 7) 2000's Rise of Teleworking through Digitization, Digital Economy, and Social Media. One in Five Americans Work From Home computers, cell phones, the Internet, and Skype have all contributed to this rise (Forbes, 2013). Despite the history of interest, telework has developed far more slowly than some of the predictions had anticipated.

It is currently being discussed how to combine home and workplace through industrialization. The catalyst of this discussion was evidently the oil crisis in 1973 with long waiting times at petrol stations in the US and the Sunday driving prohibition in Germany (SWR2, 2015). As a result, several publications were published which solved the topic of the substitution of telecommunications and transport, e.g. Working from Home (Glover, 1974), Telecommunicate or Travel (Pye et al. 1974). The term "telecommuting", first introduced by Nilles (Nilles et al., 1974), provides a new way of interaction between employees and employers . It means that the employee works from home, and he/she carries out his/her working activities outside the employer's premises.

The industrial revolution brought employees from their homes to the factories. With Information and communication technologies (ICT) the reverse is possible, with employees able to move back into their homes (Simitis, 1986). The flexibility for jobholders to be able to work any time at any place is technically feasible for many employees and has been for many years. In the literature, there seems to be the term anywhere working subject for over forty years (Hunton and Strand, 2010; Nilles, 1975; Wilkes and Frolick, 1994). Hartman et al. (1992) affirm that "alternative work arrangements, to include telecommuting, have been used to deal with the increasingly complex human resource issues", such as growing workforce diversity, changing social forces, lifestyle changes.

The term "teleworking" has been approached in different ways. Several authors have attempted to characterize developments, to define it as "remote working", "distance working" (Holti & Stern, 1986a & 1986b) or "outwork" (Probert & Wajcman, 1988). The prefix "tele-" means "distance", therefore the term "telework" means "work at a distance". In Europe and other countries, the term "telework" is preferred, while in the USA "telecommute" is more common (Bairnsfather & Ringelberg, 2004). Others seek to categorize the various forms of the concept, such as "home work", "alternative officing" and "mobile working" (Gordon, 1996).

E-Work was defined by the PRISM Center as any collaborative, computer-supported and communication-enabled productive activities in highly distributed organizations of humans and/or robots or autonomous systems (Nof 1999, 2000a, 2000b). Basically, e-Work is based on e-activities e.g. e-Business, e-Commerce, e-Government, e-Logistics, e-Learning and other, which rely on ICT. Some have defined e-Work as Telework (Chiozza & Standford-Smith, 2001; Huws, 2001), several conferences on e-Work as Telework have taken place (Adaptland.it, 2015, e2003 – eChallenges Conference).

The concept of e-Work is a relatively new term, replacing different terms such as teleworking, telecommuting, networking, digital nomads, flexi-work, and various other variants that describe how ICT have enabled remote work. Huws (2001) emphasizes that although this term does not specifically refer to distance, it has the benefit of avoiding over-specificity and of being capable of being applied across a range of activities and not being restricted to a particular form (homeworking or mobile working).

We consider that the classic definition of remote work is actually obsolete. Nowadays almost all office work with one or another telecommunication medium is unimaginable. In our opinion, e-Work is no longer an exception, but it has become more and more standardised in the working process. E-Work is associated with working at a distance. We think that this term extends the definition of teleworking in all activities through information processing with the utilization of ICT. This may involve individual or collective forms, internal corporate decentralization and classic outsourcing. The scope of e-Work ranges from call center or software development companies in decentralized locations to mobile working, home working and e-lancers (Flecker & Kirschenhofer, 2002).

In a very broad definition, e-work "*encompasses any work which is carried out away from an establishment and managed from that establishment using information technology and a telecommunications link for receipt or delivery of the work*" (Huws 2001, p. 22). Eichmann et al. (2002, p. 12) define e-work "*as any mode of work organization within a country or between countries practicing: telemediated, controlled, remote work (individualized/isolated or office-based* and *telemediated, collaborative work (tele-cooperation, virtual teams))*". Using this definition, e-work can be distinguished from similar concepts that are either more restricted or more widespread such as telework, E-work, online work, Knowledge-based work, and White collar work. We understand the concept of e-Work as a way to be an employee as well as a method and mechanism for performing a job task in a modern, digitalized world because "to Do Good e-Business, Somebody Has to Do the e-Work (Purdue News, 2000)".

4 RESULTS

4 staff members volunteered and participated in the interviews and of the 4 participants, two participants were identified as male and two identified as female. We identified the list of participants by pseudonyms as demonstrated in Table 1, supplied by participant codes and e-Work day. 3 of the participants were full time employees, one being a part time employee. The days of the week that the participant was e-working, varied from 1 to 4 days with two participants with standard teleworking days.

Table 1 Demographic Characteristic of Participants

Participant		Gender	Participant Code	e-Work Days
Claudia	Employee	Female	1	1
Michael	Employee	Male	2	4
Peter	Supervisor	Male	3	1
Petra	Employee	Female	4	5

Source: author

The purpose of our study was to understand and explore the lived experience of e-workers. In the interviews, each participant wrote about their experiences which are unique. We provide an overview of the experience of e-working for each participant structured by participant name and code. 1 Claudia has been e-working since 2015 and e-works on Mondays. Claudia's primary task is to support customers in the export department and serve as an employee to her manager in the office. In the interview discussions with Claudia, it was common to find unprompted remarks about the potential problem of isolation from e-work: "*I do not want to work from home more days because I come out to work as I want to mix with people. Sometimes you want to just chat about things with someone and ask them their opinions or just discuss something about a decision as a more natural flow but it depends on the person*".

On her e-work day, she works on tasks that are time consuming, requiring more concentration and time. She decided to work from home on Mondays because of the traffic on the way to the main office. She has own home office with the necessary technology from the company at home located on the second floor. On her e-work day, which usually begins around 7:30 am, she starts by making cup of coffee and a little breakfast and checking her work mail on her smart phone, she then starts the work she has lined up for the day. Claudia uses emails, text messaging, skype, and phone calls to communicate with her supervisor and colleagues. She does not e-work during the high season within her department. For her, e-working means to accomplish more, as she does not encounter the interruptions, gossips, meetings during her e-work day, compared to the main office. Depending on the specific duty, she will work until 5:00 pm but she revealed that many times she often worked in a more concentrated, focused way and therefore forgot the time. The longer hours appear to be a combined nature of e-working because work can be done anytime/anywhere regardless of the time of the day. For her, e-working has many profits e.g. saving money from not eating in the cantine, saving time and money from commuting. She noted that her favourite feature is: "*to enjoy Sunday, going to bed later and not having come to the office early in the morning on Monday because of the traffic*" and "*it removes also stress*".

2 Michael, when starting his employment, there was no agreement regarding e-working but after Michael moved to another home location away from the main office, his supervisor offered him this work form option. His first e-working agreement was submitted 7 years ago with Thursday as his main office day work. When he first started working in the company, he used public transportation tube, train and spent about 60 minutes commuting one way. Shortly after, he changed his residence, making his commute more complicated. At that point, he asked his supervisor about working from home. Responsible for the main tasks, Michael states 90% of his job online and he only needs a computer or laptop, internet, VPN and scanner and printer (supplied by the company) to perform his job tasks. Michael handles his e-work as an in office day and will get up, dress, take breakfast and go in his office on the first floor as if he was going to the main office. Following the rules puts him in the right mentality for working at home. He works his normal office hours from 7:00 am till 16:00 pm (depending on circumstances e.g. high season, sales, exhibitions etc.) but tends to do the extra hours: "*you probably do more hour because there is always something you can do, a phone call you can make, email you can read or write…*". He starts his day with checking emails, keeps his email open all day (checking via smart phone or tablet), as emails are his primary means of communication with his partners, colleagues, customers. His fixed line calls are connected with his smart phone and he sometimes uses also conference calls with his colleagues. The advantage of e-work for him is that he has fewer interruptions and can complete work quickly and efficiently at home. He see the office as "*a distracting place with all its hurly-burly…people going up and down the corridors, private phone call conversations can distract you so much*". Michael commutes roughly 50 minutes each way to work, so this option of work remains for him as the main benefit. He is also surprised how much e-working has reduced his stress at work. Not commuting to work is the main issue of e-working: "*I can think of nothing worse than sitting in a car for more than seven hours a week when I could use that time for something else*". For him, this option of workplace leads to greater satisfaction, work life balance, productivity and flexibility. Important are the interactions with others. From his point of view, e-working makes employees happier, creates a happy work environment "*the main advantage of working from home is for me that I am more confident and relaxed*", however he recognizes that not all jobs are suitable for e-working and not all employees suit this form of work as they need to be free from distraction, have high self-discipline, have the proper equipment and job to work from home. He reiterated the desire for

autonomy as follows: "*feeling as if you are your own boss… feeling more in control of the situation. You can plan things to fit your own routine opposite to the company in your own environment*". He loves the freedom e-working affords him, believes that he is just as effective and productive at home as he is in the main office, and saves gas, good money and it is a tool to avoid unemployment. He commented that without this flexible working he would not have found any job opportunities closer to home, as he commutes 60 km each way to work.

3 Peter started e-working in 2011, starting with just one day a month, Peter now works from home 4 days a month. He manages his team in the office and trusts them. His office is in a home office room in a second owned apartment utilizing a computer, internet, printer, scanner and can perform the majority of his work from home. He works a conformed schedule of 09:00 am till 17:00 pm to avoid traffic, and so his e-work day will usually begin at 8:30 am by first checking his mail by a smart phone, then start his computer. He finishes his work throughout the day, usually working until 19 pm, but completes any home related tasks or visiting doctors, having lunch with friends. While much of his job is support and supervision, he completes many tasks during his e-work Friday. "*Because everyone wants a bit of you and if you are trying to do things like work with figures and do budget bids or business, or productions plans it's very difficult when there is a constant interruption*". He is still surprised how much ICT has changed over the years. With a computer, tablet, smart phone and accessible internet, he is able to access most of his work from home and conducts most communication with his staff via mail or phone calls if necessary. He believes that there is a culture of support for e-working in his office but he does not believe that e-working is widely accepted in society. He hopes that this will change, as this kind of work provides benefits to employees (morale, better work-life balance, flexibility, reducing costs (travel, gas)) as well as for employers (productivity, employee retention, cost effectiveness, absenteeism). "*I would not be surprised if our company realises an effectiveness and quality of work increase of 10-20 % from e-Work*", highlighted Peter. We have to recognize that e-working is not a right but a privilege in our company. Peter says discipline and maturity are necessary for employees to be able to work from home. He perceived that not all employees are acceptable for this kind of work or in jobs that can be finished off site. When asked about the main issue regarding technology Peter underlined: "*I suppose you are always very reliant on technology that the phone works and the computer works whereas if you're in the office and your phone breaks you just go to another desk and use that phone or another computer. When you are at home you are at the mercy of technology*". His favourite aspect of e-working is not having to commute, listening to gossip in the office and being able to work in pyjamas or a sweat suit. If the meetings are scheduled on his e-Work day, he will come into the office. On his day at home he stays connected to his office primarily through emails or smart phone.

4 Petra noticed others in the company, including her own colleague, e-working and approached her supervisor about e-working and it was approved. She has worked since 2013 as a part-time worker for 5 days in the main office and 5 days in the home office. Petra focuses on online customer service, invoicing, preparing export documentations etc. She does now want her e-work to interfere with being present in the office. Petra has the full support from the supervisor and colleagues and her primary target is to get the job tasks finished, even if it means doing extra work hours. She noticed that this kind of work form offers her more flexibility, such as picking up the kids from school, doing the shopping but she will definitely finish her work tasks: "*I think I tend to spend more hours if I am working from home and I work longer compared to the traditional office and that's Ok as it gives you more flexibility to be able to do it*". She also affirmed that she has e-worked in the past when for example the

weather conditions were bad, car was broken, kids were ill. 14:00 am Petra is logged onto her laptop, using VPN, located on the first floor in her house, and continues her work by checking emails. She is mostly listening to relaxing music for background noise and will contrite herself to finish her tasks that she needs to finish. Petra's favourite thing about e-working is to have more time for the family and the most obvious starting point was also economic considerations: "*just another possibility to save money*". As a core benefit of e-working she mentioned: "*I think you are more focused when you are working from home because you do not have the same distractions as you do in the main office. It is much easier to concentrate. I guess when you are used to working in the office you do not distinguish the distractions but I know when I come in to the office now I can find it quite difficult sometimes to concentrate and to hear what's being said because there is so much background noise going on whereas when you are at home it is just me and there is no background noise*". She thinks that only disadvantage of e-working: "*could be for some employees sometimes the social isolation… but there is no reason to be isolated because I visit the main office once a week, speak to my colleague at least three times a week, we meet at weekends, we keep in touch with one another*". She understands that e-working is not for everyone, that is a benefit, and should be approved on a case-by-case basis. For others interested in e-work, Petra recommends putting files, documents on a computer or use the server platform so that they are accessible at home. When asked what she would change about e-working, Petra answered: "*I would like to have a bigger monitor to work from at home*".

5 CONCLUSIONS

Despite the benefits associated with e-working as detailed in this paper, we have found that the adoption of certain flexible working practises can be fragile within many organizations. An analysis of this paper which was conducted in three steps (literature review, company's data analysis through examining existing e-workers data, and qualitative study with a sample of 4 e-workers) has achieved a number of key findings.

The research question of this study aims to explore and understand the lived experiences of e-workers. Each interviewee had a unique experience, but some similarities can be found. Most of them, on their telework day, first turned on their electronic device and checked emails. Email is a tool used to communicate or to gather their tasks. E-working provided the freedom and flexibility to complete tasks at home. Logging onto email is the same as coming into the office and connecting with other members of the team. It is interesting to note that the main form of communication of participants to the main office during their e-work days was to email them and use the smart phone. The majority of contributors referenced the need for good health with regards to successful e-working e.g. mind-set, discipline. The technology needs were also mentioned such as computers, internet, and successful electronic documents which are provided by the company. The majority of the interviewees indicated that their office culture was one of support towards e-working. Most of them indicated a desire to telework more as he/she is able to be more productive compared with the interruptions in the main office. He/she is removed from the distractions of work colleagues. It means that he/she tends to work on tasks that require attention and focus. E-Work provides her/him with greater flexibility and more relaxation. For one interviewee, face-to-face communication was necessary to complete the work tasks. For another, face-to-face interaction was needed to supervise the employee. Commonly, one day per week e-working is standard, one participant indicated to e-work 4 days per week. We are of the opinion that half the week would be ideal. All of the respondents indicated an enjoyment in e-Working as it decreases also the need to commute to work and enjoy the time he/she saves by not commuting. Conclusively, we have discovered that the supervisors trust was also important for successful e-working.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge on the topic of e-Work. The paper provides valuable insight into the experiences of those who telework. These findings are based on the interaction as to whether an employee is a suitable candidate for teleworking. Overall this contribution provides additional knowledge on the subject of e-Work.

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K PRÁVNÍ REGULACI KRYPTOMĚN

TO THE LEGAL REGULATION OF CRYPTOCURENCIES

Pavel Datinský

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se zabývá analýzou kryptoměny pohledem českého právního řádu s přihlédnutím k analýzám na úrovni Evropské unie, kdy autor uvádí a blíže analyzuje též dva základní způsoby využití kryptoměny, a sice využití jako platidlo a jako investiční nástroj. Příspěvek se dále zabývá analýzou rizik, souvisejících s užíváním kryptoměn s bližším zaměřením na rizika investiční a komparací s obvyklými investičními riziky u běžných investičních nástrojů. Závěrem se příspěvek věnuje možnosti regulace užívání kryptoměn a kriticky hodnotí úpravu de lege lata, která není příliš efektivní.

Klíčová slova: *kryptoměny, Bitcoin, investování, regulace*

Abstract

The article deals with an analysis of a cryptocurency by the view of Czech law with inspiration in analysis in European union level, where author explains two main ways of using of a cyptocurrency, as a currency and as a investment instrument. The article continues with analysis of risks, connected with using a cryptocurrency, with focus to investment risks and comparation with usually investments risks, connected with standard investment instruments. Finally the article deals with regulation of using a cryptocurrency and critically rates an inefficient de lege lata regulation.

Key words: *cryptocurencies, Bitcoin, investment, regulation*

1 ÚVOD

Kryptoměny jsou fenoménem posledních několika let, který strhuje pozornost široké veřejnosti, a to jak odborné právní či ekonomické, tak i neodborné. Množství jednotlivých druhů kryptoměn rok od roku kontinuálně roste, od roku 2009, kdy tvůrce Bitcoinu Satoshi Nakamoto spustil systém Bitcoinu, počet známých kryptoměn převýšil číslo 1.250[1] a počet aktivních „peněženek“ uživatelů kryptoměn byl koncem roku 2017 odhadován mezi 2,9 – 5,8 milionů aktivních peněženek[2]. Z tohoto množství je však jen zlomek kryptoměn, které jsou užívány širokou veřejností ať už k placení, anebo k účelům jiným. Mezi tyto „známé“ kryptoměny patří zejména nejstarší z kryptoměn Bitcoin, od něj odvozený Litecoin, Ethereum a další.

Přímo úměrně s růstem počtu druhů kryptoměn roste i základna jejich uživatelů, kteří kryptoměny využívají buďto k placení, anebo k velmi specifickému způsobu investování. Čím širší veřejnost je do těchto transakcí zapojena, tím silnější jsou také požadavky na regulaci tohoto prozatím téměř neregulovaného segmentu, nicméně regulace se uživatelům kryptoměn (bohužel) prozatím nedostává a nejen uživatelé kryptoměn jsou vystaveni poměrně zásadním rizikům s jejich užíváním spojených. Tato skutečnost je dána nejen laxním přístupem

[1] Seznam známých kryptoměn: https://coinmarketcap.com/all/views/all/ (online)

[2] HILEMAN, Garrick, RAUCHS Michel. 2017, *GLOBAL CRYPTOCURRENCY BENCHMARKING STUDY* (online)

zákonodárce a dohledových orgánů v České republice i v Evropské unii[3], ale též velmi obtížně proveditelnou regulací, zapříčiněnou absencí konkrétního emitenta či zodpovědné osoby, na kterou by regulace mohla efektivně dopadat.
V tomto příspěvku nejprve nastíním právní základ kryptoměn a základní východiska, následně blíže představím kryptoměny jako obdobu investičního nástroje, do kterého široká veřejnost investuje za účelem dosažení zisku a uvedu též výhody případného investování prostřednictvím fondu kolektivního investování. V samostatné kapitole budou analyzována související rizika, jak soukromoprávní, hrozící samotným uživatelům, tak ta veřejnoprávní, hrozící společnosti jako celku a závěrem se příspěvek bude zabývat případnými možnostmi regulace tohoto segmentu.

2 CO JE TO KRYPTOMĚNA?

Technické parametry a způsob fungování kryptoměn v tomto článku analyzovány nebudou, nicméně alespoň ve stručnosti zmíním, že kryptoměna je prostředek, věc, která je vytvářena blíže neurčenou skupinou lidí, která ji následně používá jako platidlo za zboží či služby, anebo ji drží za účelem pozdější směny za legální peníze a dosažení zisku z tohoto prodeje, jehož velikost závisí na tržní ceně dané kryptoměny.
Nespornou výhodou využití kryptoměny jako platebního nástroje jsou minimální transakční náklady, limitně se blížící nule a značná rychlost převodu jejich jednotek, neomezená geografickými ani politickými hranicemi, což představuje značnou výhodu oproti placení zahraničních plateb prostřednictvím standardních poskytovatelů platebních služeb. Do jisté míry lze považovat za výhodu i anonymitu uživatelů kryptoměn, kteří jsou až do případné směny kryptoměny za legální měnu zcela anonymní, neboť jsou jen jedním členem z velké, blíže neurčené skupiny uživatelů systému kryptoměny. Obrácenou stranou mince uvedených výhod je skutečnost, že jsou velmi šikovným prostředkem k financování nelegálních transakcí, terorismu a lze jejich prostřednictvím legalizovat výnosy z trestné činnosti, neboť je prakticky nedohádatelné kdo, za co a komu platbu kryptoměnou poskytnul.
Jelikož koncem minulého roku kulminovala poptávka po kryptoměnách a neustále se objevují nové druhy, logicky tato vysoká poptávka tlačila vzhůru i cenu, za kterou se daly jednotky kryptoměn koupit. Tato skutečnost měla za následek značný zájem o kryptoměny ze strany spekulantů a investorů, kteří doufají, že jimi zakoupené jednotky v čase porostou na hodnotě, což se v minulosti též dělo[4]. V současnosti dokonce fungují první fondy kolektivního investování, zaměřené na investice do kryptoměn, kdy prvním obdobným fondem ve střední Evropě je fond založený českou správcovskou společností.
Z hlediska právního však definice kryptoměny není zcela jednoznačná, a to přestože plní mnohé ekonomické, jindy právně regulované, funkce. Zákon č. 253/2008 Sb., o některých opatřeních proti legalizaci výnosů z trestné činnosti a financování terorismu (dále jen „AML zákon“) sice obsahuje definici tzv. virtuální měny, kterou označuje za „*elektronicky uchovávanou jednotku bez ohledu na to, zda má nebo nemá emitenta, a která není peněžním prostředkem podle zákona o platebním styku, ale je přijímána jako platba za zboží nebo služby i jinou osobou odlišnou od jejího emitenta*“, nicméně tato definice je určena pouze pro omezené účely AML zákona.
Analyzujeme-li kryptoměnu optikou českého právního řádu, zjistíme, že nespadá do definice peněz, resp. bankovek, a to přestože např. Bitcoin lze vytisknout na papír a platit jím jako

[3] WOLF, Karel. *Náš postoj ke kryptoměnám? Nepomáhat, nechránit, neškodit, nevodit za ruku*. (Online) Lupa.cz.

[4] Vývoj hodnoty jednotek kryptoměn: Kurzy.cz (online)

bankovkou, nespadá ani do definice elektronických peněz[5], a to přestože jejich funkci z velké míry plní. Jednotka žádné kryptoměny není ani investičním nástrojem, přestože je mnohými investory považována za derivát.
Prozatím se jednotka kryptoměny dá s největší právní jistotou označit za věc ve smyslu občanského zákoníku, a sice věc nehmotnou a stejně jako u klasických peněz, resp. bankovek může být předmětem diskuze, zda jde o věc zastupitelnou či nikoliv. Pro účastníky platebního systému, jejichž cílem je převést hodnotu jednotky od jednoho subjektu k jinému se bude jednat o věc zastupitelnou, nicméně každá jednotka kryptoměny je představována konkrétním programovým kódem, který jí dělá jedinečnou, obdobně jako má každá bankovka svoje jedinečné sériové výrobní číslo, odlišné ode všech ostatních, čímž může být pro jistou skupinu veřejnosti považována za věc nezastupitelnou[6]. Optikou investora by se poté jednotka kryptoměny dala označit za komoditu a stejným způsobem také bývá obchodována. Obdobně jako u jiných komodit i od obchodování s kryptoměnami se odvíjí různé derivátové obchody.
Evropská centrální banka v únoru 2015 vydala dokument „*Virtual currency schemes – a further analysis*", ve kterém se blíže zabývala podstatou, analýzou a hodnocením kryptoměn, zejména Bitcoinu a při snaze o pozitivní definici kryptoměny použila formulaci, že se jedná o "*vyjádření hodnoty v digitální formě, která není vydána centrální bankou, úvěrovou institucí nebo vydavatelem elektronických peněz a která může být za určitých okolností použita jako alternativa k penězům*" (*a digital representation of value, not issued by a central bank, credit institution or e-money institution, which, in some circumstances, can be used as an alternative to money*)[7], nicméně je vhodné zmínit, že celý uvedený dokument obsahuje širokou škálu definicí negativních, říkajících, co vše kryptoměna není, ač se může zdát opak.

3 INVESTOVÁNÍ DO KRYPTOMĚN

Možností, kterými lze kryptoměny využít jako investici, je vícero, obdobně jako u investování do klasických komodit, jako je káva, zlato či ropa. Základním rozlišovacím kritériem pro účely tohoto článku bude, zda se investiční transakce účastní investor s „emitentem" napřímo, anebo s využitím nějakého prostředníka, tedy zda investuje přímo či nepřímo.

3.1 Přímé investování

Za přímou investici do kryptoměny můžeme považovat prostý nákup její jednotky, kdy investor kalkuluje s růstem hodnoty. Investovat do nově vzniklých kryptoměn bude pro investora relativně rizikovější, nežli do těch starších a jistým způsobem „zaběhlých", na druhou stranu nově vzniklé kryptoměny poskytují relativně větší možnosti potenciálního růstu jejich hodnoty a pořizovací cena nebude příliš vysoká[8]. Rozhodne-li se investor zakoupit jednotku nějaké starší kryptoměny, např. Bitcoin, bude pořizovací hodnota výrazně vyšší a potenciál růstu nemusí být tak vysoký, jako u kryptoměny nové, na druhou stranu může být taková investice se značnou měrou nadsázky považována za bezpečnější, alespoň z hlediska rizika kreditního, o kterém se zmíním níže v kapitole o rizicích níže.
Jinou formou přímé investice do kryptoměny je její tzv. těžba, kdy investor zakoupí hardware, nezbytný pro výpočet operací, které jsou potřebné pro vznik kryptoměny. Tento způsob je však u některých kryptoměn značně nákladný, neboť z povahy této činnosti vyplývá, že čím více subjektů se těžbě věnuje, tím náročnější pro jednoho těžaře tato činnost je a zakoupený

[5] Neexistuje emitent, ani nemusí být nutně vydávána proti legálním penězům - v případě těžby, viz ust. § 4 zákona č. 370/2017 Sb.
[6] Např. sběratelské bankovky, či první kód bitcoinu, tzv. Genesis block
[7] European Central Bank. *Virtual currency schemes – a further analysis* (online), str. 33
[8] Např. 1 BTC se ke dni 2. 1. 2018 obchodoval za 316.571,- Kč a 1 Ripple pouze za 52,- Kč

hardware poměrně rychle přestává být k těžbě dostačujícím[9]. Druhým omezením těžby je skutečnost, že k ní těžař potřebuje znalosti IT techniky, což okruh potenciálních investorů zužuje.

3.2 Nepřímé investování

Nepřímo lze do kryptoměn investovat tak, že investor poskytne peníze jinému subjektu, který se zabývá některým z přímých způsobů investování do kryptoměny, uvedenými výše, který však nemá dostatek vlastních prostředků k nakoupení požadovaného množství jednotek či hardwaru k těžbě. Výhodou této metody může být snížení nákladů na investici (jde-li o kolektivní způsob investice), ale též částečný přenos investičního rizika na osobu, které jsou poskytovány prostředky k realizaci investice.

Nepřímé investování s využíváním prostředníků a zprostředkovatelů investic, ve smyslu ust. § 4 zákona č. 256/2004 Sb., není příliš představitelné, neboť tyto služby mohou být poskytovány ve vztahu k investičním nástrojům, mezi něž se kryptoměny neřadí, nicméně pravděpodobně k poskytování obdobných služeb dochází, mimo zákonem regulovanou zónu.

3.3 Fondové investování

K nepřímé investici do kryptoměn se jeví jako zajímavá varianta investování kolektivní, neboť více investorů dokáže snáze nakumulovat dostatek prostředků na zakoupení většího množství jednotek nebo případně hardwaru k jejich těžení. Současně se také může částečně diverzifikovat investiční riziko investorů, neboť díky jejich pluralitě není třeba, aby jednotlivý investor investoval vyšší částku a v případě ztráty se tato rozdělí mezi více osob.

Jelikož kryptoměna není investičním nástrojem, ve smyslu zákona o podnikání na kapitálovém trhu, bylo by možné kolektivně investovat do kryptoměn s využitím některého speciálního fondu, na který nedopadají pravidla přípustné skladby majetku, daná nařízením vlády č. 243/2013 Sb. Takový fond by byl určen pouze kvalifikovaným investorům, což by částečně zabránilo účasti na investici běžným, drobným investorům (spotřebitelům). Pakliže by drobný investor přesto chtěl využít investice do takového fondu, mohl by se buď stát kvalifikovaným investorem na žádost[10], případně prostřednictvím účasti v jiném podílovém fondu, který je již zákonem považován za kvalifikovaného investora a který takto může investovat do fondu pro kvalifikované investory a běžný investor spotřebitel tak využije podílový fond jako prostředníka k účasti v preferovaném fondu pro kvalifikované investory.

V současné době je na finančním trhu v ČR obchodován jediný, obdobně zaměřený fond, a sice tzv. Kryptofond, spravovaný správcem CFG Funds s.r.o., který byl otevřen k 31. 1. 2018, avšak v podobě privátního fondu pro kvalifikované investory, který jeho správcovská společnost spravuje ve smyslu ust. § 15 zákona č. 240/2013 Sb., tedy v režimu nepodléhajícímu dohledu ČNB. Principem investování tohoto fondu je poté nákup vybraných jednotek kryptoměn, kdy investoři profitují na vývoji cen daných kryptoměn. Jelikož je skladba aktiv fondu rozdělena mezi více druhů kryptoměn, dá se fond považovat za jistým způsobem diverzifikovaný, bohužel prozatím fond neinvestuje též do zařízení a hardwaru pro těžbu jednotlivých kryptoměn, což by jej mohlo činit atraktivnějším.

4 RIZIKA, SPOJENÁ S UŽÍVÁNÍM KRYPTOMĚN

S výše uvedenými způsoby užití kryptoměn jako nástrojů k placení či investování se pojí řada rizik, ohrožujících nejen samotné uživatele, ale i širší veřejnost. Tato rizika by se dala rozčlenit pro účely tohoto příspěvku na rizika (i) soukromoprávní, tedy taková, která ohrožují samotné uživatele kryptoměny, bez přesahu k širší společnosti a rizika (ii) veřejnoprávní,

[9] CHOVANCOVÁ, Petra Júlia. Kryptoměna Bitcoin. Brno, 2015, 86 str. Diplomová práce. Masarykova univerzita, Ekonomicko-správní fakulta, str. 28 - 30

[10] Ve smyslu ust. § 272, odst. 1, písm. h) a i) zákona č. 240/2013 Sb.

která ohrožují společnost jako celek, nicméně je zřejmé, že i soukromoprávní rizika mohou přesahovat do sektoru veřejnoprávního a při jejich častějším výskytu ohrožovat i širší veřejnost. Stejně tak projev rizik veřejnoprávních bude mít dopad i na samotné uživatele.
Rizika veřejnoprávní mohou mít podobu naplňování skutkových podstat některých trestných činů, uvedených v hlavě VI. trestního zákoníku, např. ohrožování oběhu tuzemských peněz, kdy někteří podnikatelé v současnosti nabízí své služby veřejnosti a odmítají přijímat za tyto služby jinou protihodnotu, než kryptoměnu. Dále mohou veřejnoprávní rizika též představovat hrozící rozmach nelegálních transakcí, nákup nelegálního zboží, zbraní, drog a financování terorismu, což je podpořeno anonymitou uživatelů kryptoměn. Makroekonomickým problémem může být v extrémním případě i ohrožení stability finančního systému státu případně odliv kapitálu do zahraničí, kde může být přístup vlády daného státu ke kryptoměnám vlídnější či mírnější, což bude ovlivněno zejména daňovými předpisy.
Rizika soukromoprávní poté vystupují v podobě běžných investičních rizik, avšak s jistými modifikacemi. Při investování obecně hrozí investorovi dvě rizika, a sice riziko kreditní, spočívající v neschopnosti emitenta cenného papíru či obdobné protistrany investora, splnit svůj závazek vůči investorovi, a riziko tržní, které spočívá ve snížení poptávky po investičním nástroji, čímž dochází ke snížení ceny tohoto nástroje.
Při přímém investování do kryptoměny je investor ohrožen rizikem kreditním ve zcela jiné formě, než jej známe z běžných investic, neboť neexistuje konkrétní emitent či protistrana, která by kryptoměnu vytvářela. Kryptoměny jsou těženy anonymně a nově vytěžená jednotka se stává součástí celého systému, což de facto znamená, že emitentem je sám systém kryptoměny, tedy všichni jeho anonymní uživatelé. Při využití značné míry abstrakce lze tedy prezentovat kreditní riziko takovým způsobem, kdy celá síť uživatelů dané kryptoměny by přestala kryptoměnu využívat, čímž by tato pochopitelně ztratila svoji hodnotu a uživatel, který by chtěl jednotku směnit za legální peníze by ji neměl komu odprodat.
Při investování nepřímém je však situace jiná, neboť mezi investorem a kryptoměnou existuje mezičlánek, který na sebe částečně přebírá odpovědnost za konkrétní způsob investice, čímž vzniká investorovi standardní kreditní riziko, spočívající v neschopnosti prostředníka dostát svým závazkům vůči investorovi. Tento prostředník poté musí splnit požadavky přinejmenším kladené na něj samotným investorem, který se rozhodl s tímto prostředníkem spolupracovat a stává se odpovědným za dodržení, případně nedodržení těchto požadavků. V současnosti se objevují profesionální subjekty, kteří emitují a veřejně nabízí dluhopisy, kterými financují své přímé investice do kryptoměn, kdy jsou tito poté regulováni též zákonem č. 256/2004 Sb. Je-li k investici využíván fond kolektivního investování, který sdružuje prostředky většího množství investorů, je tento subjekt regulován speciálně zákonem č. 240/2013 Sb.
Významnějším rizikem užití kryptoměny jako investičního nástroje je riziko tržní, které je však významně větší, nežli u jakéhokoli jiného nástroje, resp. komodity, na trhu obchodované.
Volatilita kryptoměn je v porovnání s ostatními komoditami enormní[11] a bývá některými odborníky přirovnávána dokonce k velké tzv. Tulipánové horečce ze 17. století v Holandsku, což podporuje i prohlášení ESMA z počátku roku 2018, které označilo investování do kryptoměn jako zásadní riziko retailových investorů[12]. Hodnotu kryptoměny může ovlivnit široké spektrum skutečností, ať už veřejnoprávních (např. regulace, zákaz či omezení jejich užívání) či soukromoprávních (např. zjednodušení přeshraničních převodů legálních měn,

[11] Např. jeden Bitcoin se 1. 10. 2017 obchodoval za cca 4.400 USD, 1. 11. 2017 již přes 6.700 USD, koncem roku 2017 jeho hodnota přesáhla 14.000 USD a v únoru 2018 hodnota klesla pod 7.000 USD, obdobné výkyvy jsou pozorovatelné i u dalších kryptoměn, viz kurzy.cz
[12] European Securities and Markets Authority. *Report on Trends, Risks and Vulnerabilities No. 1, 2018* (online)

vznik nové, dokonalejší kryptoměny) a v případě významného propadu ceny jednotky kryptoměny investorovi, na rozdíl od investice do jiných komodit, nezůstane vůbec nic, tedy ani pytel kávových zrn, ani kráva, ani zlatá cihla[13].

5 REGULACE KRYPTOMĚN

Nejen výše uvedená rizika a současně stále rostoucí množství uživatelů vzbuzují oprávněnou otázku, zda není nutné, aby byly kryptoměny a jejich užívání nějakým způsobem regulovány a nad investováním s jejich využíváním vykonáván dohled. Otázkou však zůstává, co vlastně regulovat a zda je taková regulace vůbec proveditelná.

Odpověď na první otázku bude jistě jednodušší, neboť je zcela zřejmé, že je třeba ochránit investory, kteří sází na růst hodnoty kryptoměn a přesouvají do tohoto segmentu až fanaticky velké množství peněz, je třeba chránit národní měnu před jejím znehodnocením nadměrným využíváním měn virtuálních, je třeba též dohlížet nad účelem využívání kryptoměn pro zabránění financování trestné činnosti a legalizaci výnosu z ní a optikou finanční správy je pochopitelně důležité zisky z případných úspěšných investic zdanit.

Odpověď na otázku druhou však není snadná, neboť při absenci konkrétního emitenta neexistuje subjekt, kterému by mohly být uloženy konkrétní povinnosti a na který by případně mohl dohlížet dohledový orgán. Jednou z možných cest je proto regulace skrze samotné uživatele, nicméně ani tato varianta není jednoduchá, neboť jsou uživatelé až do okamžiku směny kryptoměny za měnu legální zcela anonymní. Způsobem, kterým lze alespoň částečně regulovat kryptoměnu je regulovat samotnou transakci, skrze kterou se kryptoměna směňuje za legální měnu, tedy okamžik, kdy uživatel přestává být anonymní a využívá služeb některého provozovatele směnných zařízení, burz či obdobných platforem. Tento model je v České republice částečně využíván, když AML zákon označuje osobu, poskytující služby, spojené s virtuálními měnami za osobu povinnou, avšak tato skutečnost pokrývá hrozící rizika pouze ve vztahu k smyslu a účelu AML zákona. V situaci, kdy by však jakákoli národní regulace nebyla příznivá pro uživatele, tito by mohli své jednotky zcela anonymně převést a směnit v jurisdikci, která je v otázce regulace příznivější, což by mohla ovlivnit zejména regulace daňová. Ve vztahu k danění zisků z prodeje kryptoměn je vhodné uvést, že právní řád stanovuje standardní daňovou povinnost osobám, které smění jednotku kryptoměny za peníze, případně za zboží a taková osoba je povinna příjmy zdanit daní z příjmů. Otázka ochoty daňových subjektů k přiznávání svých kryptoměnových transakcí by však mohla být samostatným tématem.

Ochrana investorů při investování do kryptoměn, viz kapitoly výše, poté probíhá pouze skrze regulaci investičních fondů, které do kryptoměn[14] investují a regulace derivátových investic, od kryptoměn odvozených, prozatím však není upraveno přímé investování do kryptoměny jako takové, neboť tato je komoditou, věcí, kterou osoby mohou nakupovat zcela volně a bez omezení.

6 ZÁVĚR

Jednotka kryptoměny je využívána jako platební i investiční nástroj, přestože není zákonem prakticky nijak regulována, obecně vymezena či autoritativně dohlíženo na transakce s ní. Z právního hlediska je jednotka kryptoměny nehmotnou věcí a pro účely investování se dá označit za komoditu. Varianty investování do kryptoměn jsou různé a pojí se s nimi investiční rizika, které jsou pro tuto komoditu poměrně specifická, oproti komoditám jiným. Tato rizika, společně se složitostí samotného systému způsobují, že ve společnosti roste zájem o

[13] Více k rizikům užívání kryptoměn viz European Banking Authority. *EBA Opinion on 'virtual currencies'*. 2014, online, str. 21-38.

[14] Ať už fondy standardní, investující do kryptoměnových derivátů anebo fondů speciálních, investujících přímo do kryptoměn

zprostředkování investic do této komodity specializovanými subjekty, kteří dokáží investici řídit lépe, než nekvalifikovaný investor. Z těchto důvodů jsou např. emitovány dluhopisy, za účelem financování přímého investování do kryptoměn a na území České republiky byl založen též první privátní fond kolektivního investování pro kvalifikované investory, který do kryptoměn investuje.

Přes rostoucí zájem o kryptoměny z řad široké veřejnosti je však toto odvětví velmi spoře regulováno, kdy v současnosti asi nejzásadnější regulace tkví v AML zákonu, který (i) vymezuje pojem virtuální měny a (ii) stanovuje povinnosti pro osoby, poskytující služby, s kryptoměnami (virtuálními měnami) spojenými. Takto získané informace poté lze použít pro účely další, zejména k šetření případných měnových trestných činů dle hlavy VI. Trestního zákoníku, nicméně stále bude záležet pouze na uživateil kryptoměny, zda služeb tuzemského poskytovatele služby využije či nikoli. Rizika, ohrožující uživatele kryptoměn jako investičního nástroje též prozatím regulována velmi spoře a dle názoru autora nedostatečně.

Nedostatečnost regulace však není dána pouze neochotou zákonodárce, ale též tím, že je velmi obtížně proveditelná, neboť neexistuje konkrétní emitent a neexistuje ani subjekt či entita, která by zajišťovala veškeré transakce s kryptoměnami prováděné, jednoduše není koho regulovat, krom samotných, anonymních uživatelů, kteří se z anonymity vynoří pouze při směně jednotek kryptoměny za měnu legální, což mohou, ale též nikdy nemusí učinit. Jediným subjektem, který lze v současnosti relativně efektivně regulovat jsou poskytovatelé tzv. směnáren či jiných, obdobných platforem, skrze které lze jednotky kryptoměny směnit za měnu legální. Pokud by však regulace byla příliš tvrdá a nevýhodná pro uživatele, např. v otázce daňové, velmi snadno by uživatelé směnili své jednotky v cizí jurisdikci, která by mohla být v této otázce liberálnější, což by danou regulaci učinilo značně „bezzubou“.

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WORKING IN THE VIRTUAL WORLD, AN APPROACH TO THE HOME OFFICE BUSINESS MODEL ANALYSIS

Michal Beňo

Abstract

More and more employees are working outside of traditional on-site work environments in locations connected electronically to a central office. This telework or telecommuting practice has become an increasingly important employment tool, fulfilling key business needs while helping employees balance their work and personal commitments. The aim of this paper is to emphasize the importance of homeworking rather than working in the office, to identify the specific advantages and disadvantages, distinguishing between them. A total of 308 individuals from many countries worldwide took part in the online survey. The interest in working at home, how the intensity of working in a Home Office affects productivity, coping with demands, communication, work-life balance, career satisfaction were analyzed. The overall results indicate that people prefer to work at home rather than in traditional office, that a Home Office has a positive influence on the personal work experience.

Keywords: *"Home Office" Business Model, Home Workers, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), Teleworking, Telecommuting, Enterprise Performance, Virtual World*

1 INTRODUCTION

Globalization and development of modern innovative technologies, social changes and associated with them increase of the collective environmental awareness, have augmented the interests in the alternative forms of working in recent years, (Chung, 2015; McKinsey, 2016; UNDP, 2015). The population is exploring products and services through ICTs, e.g. desktops, laptops, tablets, smartphones and even virtual reality devices.

Job has always been one of the most defining aspects of our lives. Besides "telecommuting", which originated in the 1970s as a response to the oil crisis and concerns over employees' potential inability to travel to and from the office, involves employees completing work/tasks outside of the traditional office (Böll et al, 2014; Torten et al., 2015, 2016).

The term "telecommuting", first introduced by Nilles (Nilles et al., 1974), provides a new way of interaction between employees and employers . It means that employee works from home, and he/she carries out his/her working activities outside employer premises. Typically it takes place in the employee's residence, but there may be other places as well. In the Europe and other countries, the "telework" and in the U.S. "telecommute" are preferred terms (Bairnsfather and Ringelberg, 2004; Baltina, 2012; Baltina and Vitola, 2014).

In connection with this type of employment the terms "*home office*" and "*homeworking*" are often associated. It is important to notice that "*home office*" indicates rather a special situation when the employee occasionally works at home for some reason (s), while with "*homeworking*" working tasks are performed at home, as an agreed standard.

"*Homeworkers*" is a sub-division/type/group of employees, who carry out their professional activity from their own home (OECD stat., 2001). Work from home can be carried out only within standard contractual employment relationship between the employee and employer. It means that the employer and the employee have their rights and obligations set by law. Work from home is always a subject of internal enterprise agreements. Therefore, an employer cannot force an employee to work from home, and employee cannot demand it from an employer. If an employee works from home, his/her total working hours are regulated by the

contracted job time as in any other type of job. However, a “Homeworker” can schedule/plan his/her working time more at his/her personal discretion.
This paper is organized as follows: In the following section, we briefly outline the methodology which we used for our research project. In the next part results of a case study is presented to analyze the results of the survey. Our conclusions are drawn in the final section.

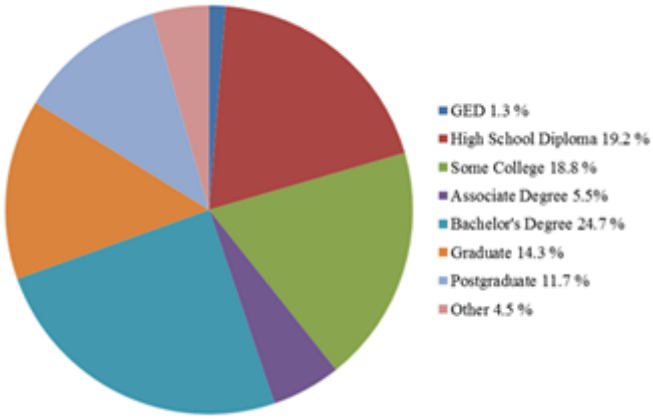
2 METHODOLOGY

Electronic surveys provide the ability to conduct large-scale data collection by other than organizations at the centers of power in society (Couper, 2000). Technology provides an inexpensive mechanism for conducting surveys online, instead of through the postal service (Sheehan and Hoy, 1999; Weible and Wallace, 1998) and one in which costs per response decrease instead of increase significantly as sample size increases (Watt, 1999). Electronic surveys are becoming increasingly common (Lazar and Preece, 1999), and research comparing electronic vs. postal surveys is starting to confirm that electronic survey content results may be no different from postal survey content results, yet provide the distinct advantages of speedy distribution and response cycles (Swoboda, et al., 1997; Yun and Trumbo, 2000).
We carried out a research project to study the Home Office and homeworking. This project investigates the issues, benefits and disadvantages of office workers versus homeworkers. Specifically, we explore telecommuting as it affects the employee, employer and society. Data from an online survey examine the viability of telecommuting work arrangements. The survey is an appropriate research strategy, because the purpose of the study is to describe the incidence of the phenomenon under investigation.
The survey questionnaire contained several types of questions for respondents to answer. Some questions were also open-ended, which allowed respondents to submit their own answers. Other questions allowed respondents to note their answers on a different scale, with the ranges varying from negative to positive, and disagree to agree. A few of the questions required respondents to check appropriate responses. The survey was mailed out to employees in different countries using the following link http://www.survio.com/survey/d/K6U7B3U1J9E6L3O3H and also through different new ICT to obtain the necessary response rate of 52.74 % (308 questionnaires were completed). The survey was coded, so that it was possible to determine employee type (management, non-management, homeworkers).
Respondents were asked to answer questions relating to working at home, with various scale answer options used related to the interrogation. The research was conducted from a normative perspective, and attempted to take into account both the viewpoints of the employees and of the employer, including their perspectives on homeworking.

3 RESULTS

The data used in this study were collected from October 18 to November 19, 2016 in an Internet online survey with a probability sample of 584 workers. The participants, who were randomly chosen, had jobs that required the use of ICT to accomplish their work tasks. The response rate was 52.74 %. 308 questionnaires were completed, 52 of them (8.90 %) were incomplete. In the sample, 48.1 % respondents were male and 51.9 % female, from different countries worldwide, 65.6 % of the participants were in non-management positions, 38.0 % were high school graduates or had some college education, and 56.2 % had graduated with a Bachelor’s degree or higher. More details related to education are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Highest Level of Education (N=308)



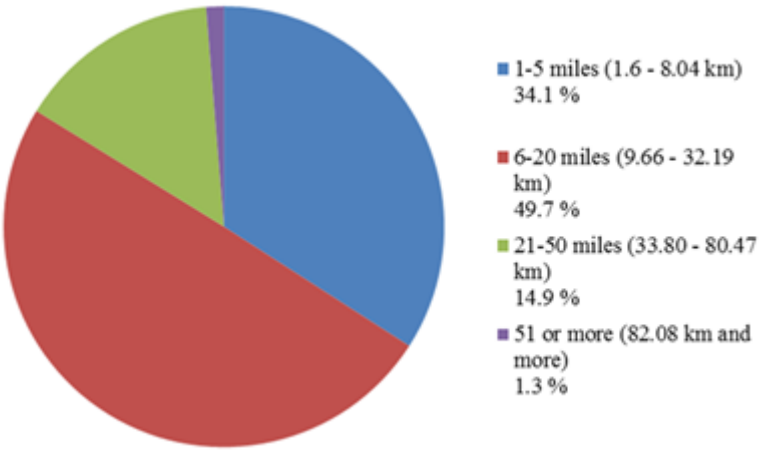
Most of the respondents were from USA (21.10 %), Austria (16.88 %), the United Kingdom (13.64 %), the Czech Republic (7.47 %), Slovakia (7.14 %), Italy (5.84 %), and Germany (4.22 %). More details are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Percentage of participants by nationality (N=308)

Country	%	Country	%
Australia	2.27	Lithuania	0.97
Bosnia	0.32	New Zealand	1.62
Brazil	0.32	Poland	1.30
Canada	1.95	Russia	1.62
China	0.65	South Korea	0.32
France	2.60	Spain	1.30
Hungary	0.65	Switzerland	2.27
India	0.65	The Netherlands	0.32
Japan	2.92	Turkey	0.65
Latvia	0.65	Ireland	0.32

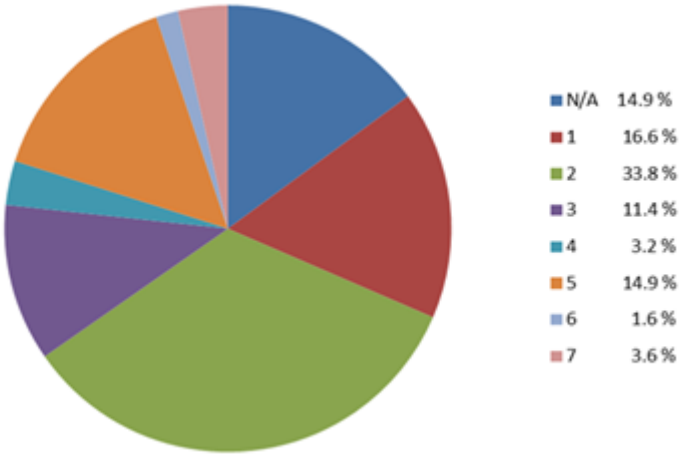
In many studies, research has connected “homework” with the term “commuting to work” as an important advantage. For this reason, we also included these data in our questionnaire, where most respondents (49.7 %) commute 6-20 miles to work (9.66 -32.19 km). See Figure 2.

Figure 2. Commuting to work in miles (km), (N=308)



Results of the survey show a clear distinction between homeworkers (32.8 %) and those who do not work at home (67.2 %), but we note that there is a large demand by employees to work at home (Figure 3).

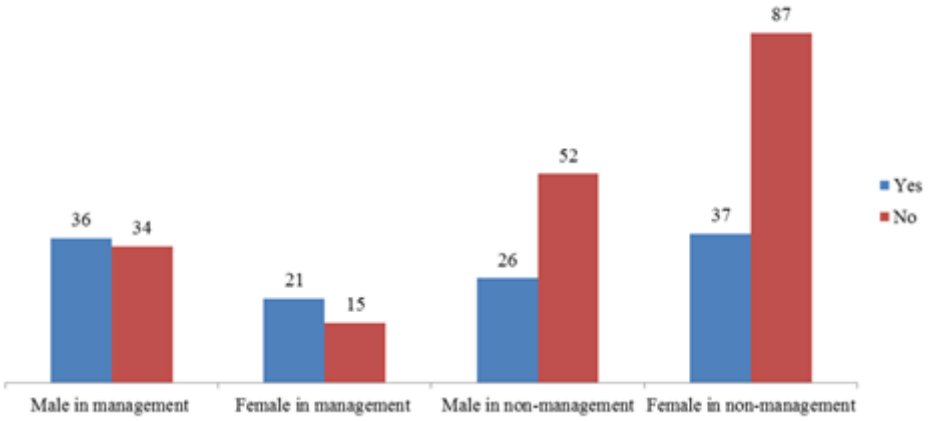
Figure 3. How many days per week would you be willing to work at home? (N=308)



Only 14.9 % of respondents did not tend to choose the possibility of working at home, versus 85.1 %, most of whom would prefer to work at home for 2 days per week. If we examine it from the male viewpoint, we discover that only 17.14 % refuse homeworking and 82.86 % tend towards it. Out of 70 respondents in management positions, most prefer to work 1 or 2 days per week at home. In non-management positions, out of 78 respondents, 14.10 % reject homeworking versus 85.90 % who are interested in it, preferring 1, 2 or 5 days per week. The female viewpoint is clearer, as 8.33 % reject homeworking and 91.67 % tend towards it. Out of 36 respondents in management positions, 1, 2 and 5 days per week are preferred. Out of 124 respondents in non-management positions, 16.13 % dislike homeworking versus 83.87 % who are interested in it, preferring to work mostly 1, 2, 3 and 5 days per week at home. In our opinion, the reasons that employees might have a preference for homeworking could be for a better work-life balance (e.g. time saving, flexibility, calm atmosphere), meeting family demands, not having to commute to work, financial costs, etc. However, these will be discussed in a later section.

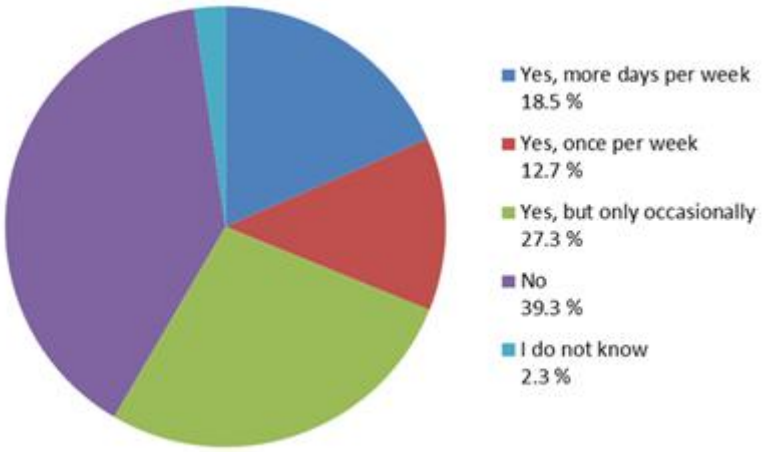
It is evident that respondents do have a demand for remote work (under remote work, we understand work in an environment other than the employer's workplace, e.g. working from home or from another feasible environment e.g. hotel, beach, in transit, etc.). Only 39.3 % of organizations offer a Home Office, versus 60.7 % who do not. However, 49.7 % of employees would like to have this opportunity and only 11.7 % reject it. Figure 4 depicts the response by gender and between management and non-management respondents, with reference to the Home Office possibility in companies. We determine that 63.75 % of females in management and non-management positions do not have the possibility of working in a Home Office, compared to 58.11 % of males in management and non-management positions. As far as we are aware, this result further strengthens our belief in the fact that the policy is missing for this type of work.

Figure 4. Home Office opportunities in organizations, number of respondents (N=308)



The next topic regarding working at home, providing the most remarkable result to emerge from the data, is that 58.8 % of the respondents work full- or part-time at home, whereas only 39.3% do not work full- or part-time at home, as illustrated in Figure 5. The results indicate important evidence that employees are also included in this section who do not have a Home Office possibility. It is fundamental to note that 10.7 % of this group always take work home, 46.8 % sometimes take work home, and only 17.9 % never take work home. 47.7 % of respondents spend 1 day per week working at home, and 28.2 % spend 2 days working at home. This confirms our suggestion that the idea of working at home does not make employees feel less able to finish their work on time, as 75 % of them answered this question in the negative, while only 11.4 % were concerned about it, fearing possible interruptions at home making them unable to meet deadlines.

Figure 5. Do you work full- or part-time at home? (N=308)



Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) are transforming not only our society and the economy, but also the way we use them in our work. These products are used by most people, ranging from mobiles, smartphones, tablets to personal computers and the World Wide Web. The more ICT is used at work, the greater flexibility and permeability will be its domain.

According to the issue of ICT utilization, we focused on the field of mobile devices outside the office, the places in which people work, which data and applications they have access to online when they are commuting to and from the office, and what professional activities they practice with electronic media on their way to work. Only 21.8 % out of 308 respondents do

not work outside the office and can be identified as office workers who reject any possibility of changing this situation. Out of 308 respondents, more than 68 % of homeworkers use ICT devices outside the office. Further, we affirm that the utilization of ICT mostly takes place everywhere e.g. in cafés, restaurants, hotels and airports, in public transport, in cars, taxis and other venues. 76.6 % of respondents use ICT for checking emails or Calendar, 47.4 % for editing, changing or writing documents, 28.2 % for using company- specific applications (programs). Most respondents use mobile devices for communication with organizations, use electronic media for phone calls, reading and writing emails. 30.2% of the total respondents use ICT for browsing the Internet, searching for contents for the company, and 24.4 % for editing documents.

Is working from home less problematic, more productive, or why do employees prefer to work at the office? Some people consider working from home rather problematic. One reason from our point of view could be that he/she shares the home office with pets, he/she has to take care of children while speaking to customers, which does not facilitate good communication. These were only a few examples of the lack of interest. On the other hand, many people with young children stress that homeworking is a way of combining family and work.

Our respondents appreciate the fact that, while working at home, they are not interrupted by office gossip, noise, disliked colleagues, etc. Only a few of them miss the social interaction. Others, on the contrary, miss contact with colleagues when working from home. 239 of all respondents see the contact with colleagues as a great plus for working in the office. We think that for some people, working in the office is beneficial for the quality of work and as a counterbalance to Home Office isolation. So they prefer commuting (also part-time) to the office, so as not to miss out on the productive atmosphere and companionship of colleagues. 34.4 % of respondents state that presence is very important, many things can be discussed and explained face-to-face better than at home. 131 participants prefer the separation between professional and private life.

The greatest benefits with regard to the traditional office are the skills which they can acquire in the office, e.g. behavioral and interpersonal skills (129 answers), creativity (67 answers), more experience (87 answers), and building relationships (22 answers). Respondents think that most employers reject working from home even when it is required. 15.6 % of respondents think that a Home Office can lead to isolation, one works non-stop, is always on the alert (Table 2).

Table 2. Benefits of traditional office (N=308), answers

Contact with colleagues	239
Presence is important	106
Separation between professional and private life	131
Home Office leads to isolation	48
Most employers reject homeworking	48
Systematic networking	44
Time management	108
Become more experienced	87
Become creative	67
Behavioral and interpersonal skills	129
Build relationships	22
Face-to-face contact	14

Our 201 respondents understand the benefit of a Home Office as being the flexibility. 100 of them think that this type of work makes work more flexible, one can focus better on work and will not be disturbed by a bustling office atmosphere (Table 3).

Table 3. Benefits of Home Office (N=308), answers

Generally better work-life balance	152
Flexibility	201
Better quality of workplace (environment, technology	82
Home Office is the best option for not having to commute to work	99
Working from home leads to more contentment	61
Higher satisfaction with work	72
Home Office makes work more flexible	100
Home Office provides more career satisfaction	54
Time saving and time management	197
Home workers are happier and more loyal	53
Peaceful environment	25
More time for family	13

The discussion about a Home Office also shows that work organization has changed during recent decades. We estimate that older people would not prefer this type of work; the idea is spreading among younger people and people of the new digital world. The benefits of working from home are evident to homeworkers: 64.0 % think it saves time and 49.4 % that a better work-life balance can be achieved. 26.6 % mention a better quality of workplace. People working from home actually work more overtime than their colleagues who have never worked from home. The difference between work and leisure is, however, also evidently blurred for others. In their leisure time, 85 of all managerial staff deal with work calls and 70 reply to urgent emails after work. The culture of attendance that is still rooted in many companies functions in working from home. 34.4% of the participants said that attendance is important.

Work Life Balance are three words that are currently popular. In our view working from home is often celebrated as the solution to this problem. Our findings demonstrates it because 32.1 % of respondents save time on commuting, it allows a better balance between work and all other activities, as stated by 152 respondents. From our own experience of a Home Office, we are in the office a maximum of 2 days per week, when we are happy to meet other colleagues and cooperate with them. In spite of the fact that the commute is 45 minutes each way, we are no longer stressed because we do not have to do it every day. 23.4 % are more satisfied with their work, working from home makes 61 of them feel more contented and 54 of them feel greater career satisfaction, 17.2 % are happier with their lives in general.

Working alone or from home is as expected not for everyone. Those who have to battle to meet deadlines or to avoid postponements, or who often find themselves clicking from one reference to another will not make any progress. Very likely such persons will fare much worse in a Home Office than in a real office. Self-discipline is important, with a clear determination of time constraints, as well as the care of your own biorhythm, needs and habits. Reality shows that only a few people would take working from home as a voucher for leisure and idleness. Remote working, which means being able to work from home, increases your productivity and creativity. The correct resources are essential for remote work. Email and mobile phone are alone not sufficient for homeworking.

4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Evidently, those who have researched teleworking will be aware, there are numerous definitions of the phenomenon and variations concerning where to draw boundaries around this working practice. Telework has been seen as simply one form of flexible labour among others which could be clearly located within contemporary discussion of the need to develop firms which could adapt more easily to market changes. Meanwhile, telework should has been the subject of policy discussions which can inspire research to provide the public image of this form of working to show the main benefits such as reducing unemployment and the costs, saving the environment and other.

This paper has both emphasized how much diversity exists, and has indicated some main dimensions based on online survey. The first aspect is the attention given the dynamics of telework (benefits, Work Life Balance etc.) and second aspect is the very specific question of the experience of ICTs.

A global increase in alternative forms of work and employment is currently observed, entailing alternating working at home and in the main office. According to our results, the factors contributing to the rise in the number of staff working from home include the fact that employers are seeking to reduce office spaces, utility bills; technology makes it easier, more employees request some flexibility in workplaces and working hours; an increasing number of employees have the responsibilities of caring for a family; rising costs of commuting, government policies, employees and employers reporting the success of homeworking.

By 2015, the results from IDC research showed that the world's mobile working population reached 1.3 billion, i.e. 37.2 % of the total workforce, which is 300 million more compared to 2010 (The Rise of Mobility, 2017).

The overall results indicate that people prefer to work at home, that a Home Office has a positive influence on the personal work experience. However, at the same time, a subgroup of 11.7 % report no interest in homeworking. The following data suggest a part-time period of 2-3 days per week in the Home Office as a positive factor for the success of this new form of working. It is conceivable that individuals who are more open to new experiences will profit from working in the virtual world, experiencing a more flexible working arrangement, while expending less energy to adopt this new work design. Solitude may also play a significant role for highly self-disciplined persons, who are probably better able to work efficiently at home and to schedule their workday.

From both the survey's findings, it can be stated that the Home Office business model can be observed as the new future challenge to employment. Global connectivity, smart machines, and modern media are just some of the drivers reshaping how we think about work, and the skills that we need to be productive contributors.

The Home Office business model can benefit the employee, the employer, and the new digital society. This study presents the data to substantiate that claim, provided the program is initiated correctly. We are confident that it will be a strong and valuable tool that management can use to attract and retain good employees. By retaining a workforce that has superior future potential, a company may gain the competitive advantage it needs to compete in the global marketplace. With increasing focus on quality family time and environmental concerns, homeworking provides employers the option of successfully dealing with these issues.

As far as we are aware, reducing commuting time and providing opportunities for employees to have a better work-life balance can increase employee well-being. A flexible workplace attracts and retains quality employees. Providing occasions for engagement of workers with the organization is a crucial element of working anywhere. It is important to note that organizations have to find an engaged workforce with the skills and capabilities of delivering exceptional customer service.

The management of all companies should seriously consider this alternative working arrangement, as it creates a strategy for success. We found that managers play an essential role in creating a successful homeworking environment. The majority of employees believe that their relationship with the company is based on mutual trust. However, managers should be aware of the benefits and limitations of this H.O. business model, to ensure that it provides workers and the organization with sustainable benefits while reducing the limitations.
Despite the benefits associated with homeworking, as detailed in this report, and the statistics indicating that homeworking as a flexible working practice is on the increase, we have to note that the adoption of certain flexible working practices can be quite tenuous. Our case study research initially comprised many organizations. This suggests that the adoption of homeworking may still be quite fragile in many organizations, even those publicly lauded for their successful implementation of flexible working practices.

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ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL LABOUR MARKET SPECIFICS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES

Zuzana Hrabovská, Vladimíra Žofčinová

Abstract

The aim of article is to analyse economic and social differences based on the empirical statistical data and to evaluate the main features and trends of regional differentiation within the European Union and selected member countries-the Czech Republic, Germany and Slovakia. The source for data for analysis describing conditions in the Czech and the Slovak Republic and Germany in comparison to average data collected in member states of the EU was Eurostat database. The study was condemned for the reference term of 2007 – 2016. We find that the GDP growth rate and unemployment rate are key indicators for the evaluation of macroeconomic development. One the most important factor affecting GDP growth in the future through changes in employment is the trend of increasing the number of people in productive age and the extension of the retirement age can act as a problem in terms of long-term unemployment and the imbalance on the labour market.

Keywords: *GDP, employment, unemployment, Germany, Slovak republic, Czech republic*

1 INTRODUCTION

Each state of the European Union is granted some degree of autonomy. The reason for that is that social politics is common part of Union´s politics when setting up its own social system.
European Union does not mean to unite different social systems of the Member States, but to support the objectives, by which they want to achieve higher level of employment. They also wish to secure equal status for women and men in the labour market, promoting of education, the development of qualifications achieved by employees etc. The European Union committed itself to creating greater number of quality jobs as well as to the generation of socially inclusive society. For the above mentioned purposes, the European Social Fund (ESF) has been set up. The Member States are entitled to use its financial means as a source for financing of their programmes and for reducing of unemployment as well as for the inclusion of the endangered categories of the labour market into the working society, etc.
For the period of 2014-2020, the following objectives were set out as Fund´s main aims:

- Increase in employment and in the mobility of the labour force.
- Help in the fight against poverty and social exclusion.
- Investment in education, including lifelong learning.
- Support granted to professionals and the efficiency of the work of the public authorities. (ESF, 2018)

Each member state of the European Union has a different social policy and social model and is based on different traditions and economical self-sufficiency. Nowadays, none of the models is being implemented in its pure form and gradually mutual convergence of social politics of the individual European countries occurs as well as transition of the elements from one model to another. We may expect convergence and gradual adjustment of the social models even in the future due to the fact that the European Union as well as individual states will seek such instruments, which will ensure the social models with competitiveness in a global environment.
State of the labour market is directed towards flexibility, which is far more significant tool than holding a discussion about the minimum wage and at the same time it aims at internal sequencing, not taking into account the nationals borders. The same employment processes

are taking place in Germany, as well as in the Baltic countries, in Slovakia or in the Czech Republic more and more evenly and they are more and more homogeneous in their nature.
In this article, we pay attention to unemployment development in selected countries and we offer its brief overview. Based on our findings, we have it that in comparison to Germany, the Slovak Republic lags behind. We also point to the increase in the average length of working life, the sphere where, on the contrary, Germany is a leading country. We pay attention to the indicators of the total employment and productive population, where clearly the Slovak Republic is also lagging behind.
The authors define economic and social differences based on the empirical analysis of statistical data and the evaluation of the main features and trends of regional differentiation within the European Union and selected member countries-the Czech Republic, Germany and Slovakia. The source for data for analysis describing conditions in the Czech and the Slovak Republic and Germany in comparison to average data collected in member states of the EU was Eurostat database. The study was condemned for the reference term of 2007 – 2016.

2 ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPECIFICS OF THE JOB MARKET IN SELECTED EU COUNTRIES

2.1 Economic Growth and Unemployment

Nikulin (2015) was analysing the relationship between wages, labour productivity and an unemployment rate in the new EU member countries, concluding that correlations between salary and unemployment rate ratios are of smaller significance. Numerous studies dealt with the question of the mutual relationship of the employment and its influence on the real GDP. In their research, Simionescu, Dobeš, Brezina, Gaal (2016) have verified that the previous real GDP growth and employment had an impact on the current real GDP rate. Similarly to that, in determining the relationship between growth and unemployment, Schubert and Turnovsky (2017) applied survey on the unemployment rate and wage bargaining. They conclude that while the long-run tradeoffs between unemployment and growth are weak, the short-run tradeoffs are much stronger. Stanila, Andreica, Cristescu (2014) focus on analysing the evolution of the primary relevant macroeconomic EU indicators, by studying the changes that occurred in the last years. Based on their research they claim that GDP has a positive influence on employment.
The mutual association between economic growth and unemployment is expressed in the so-called Okun's Law (Okun, 1962), which has its base in the finding that the larger amount of products requires larger amount of workforce. Therefore, if GDP increases, the employment increases as well and at the same time, unemployment decreases. The law expresses quantitative variations of GDP and unemployment, in case that economic growth increases or decreases. To verify the relationship between changes in the unemployment rate and the GDP growth rate, we used the first version of Okun's Law (difference version).

$$\Delta U = a + b \, x \, (g \, GDP)$$

Δ U – annual change in the unemployment level
a – constant indicating, what the unemployment level is when the variation of GDP equals 0
b – Okun's coefficient, which describes the relation between the intensity of economic growth and unemployment (it indicates what the rise in employment will be, when the rise in GDP decreases or increases by one unit). This value is usually negative as growth of GDP is related mainly to decrease in unemployment.

To analyse the mutual dependence of these two economic quantities, we shall employ correlation coefficient. When calculating the correlation coefficient, we used function CORREL in Excel, while one of our variables is the GDP growth rate and another variable is unemployment rate variation.

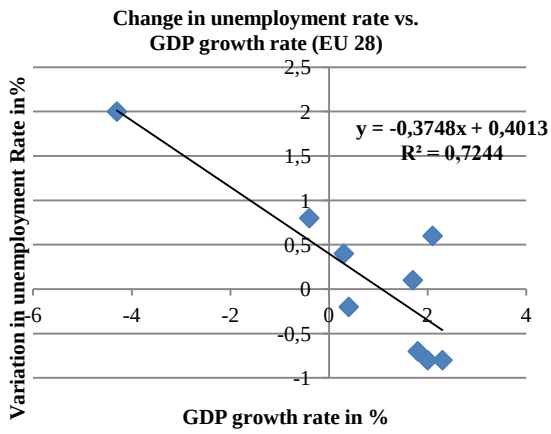
Based on the real GDP growth rate and unemployment values (Table 1, Figure 1), we can conclude that in the countries concerned (Czech Republic, Slovak Republic and Germany as well as according to all the data collected in all member states of the European Union), there has been a favourable development, i.e. After overcoming the critical values in 2009, the value of monitored indicators were developing in positive way. The most positive was the development of the unemployment indicator, which continuously decreased to the level of values of the indicator that were recorded in 2008.

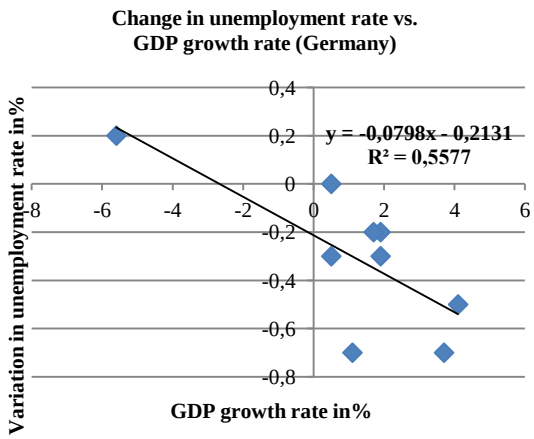
Table 1: Correlation Coefficient for real GDP growth and unemployment

		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Correlation Coefficient
real GDP growth rate	EU 28	3	0.4	-4.3	2.1	1.7	-0.4	0.3	1.8	2.3	2	**-0.1366486**
unemployment rate		7.2	7	9	9.6	9.7	10.5	10.9	10.2	9.4	8.6	
real GDP growth rate	Czech Republic	5.6	2.7	-4.8	2.3	1.8	-0.8	-0.5	2.7	5.3	2.6	**-0.5426875**
unemployment rate		5.3	4.4	6.7	7.3	6.7	7	7	6.1	5.1	4	
real GDP growth rate	Germany	3.3	1.1	-5.6	4.1	3.7	0.5	0.5	1.9	1.7	1.9	**-0.7467940**
unemployment rate		5.6	4.9	5.1	4.6	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.2	2.9	
real GDP growth rate	Slovak Republic	10.8	5.6	-5.4	5	2.8	1.7	1.5	2.8	3.9	3.3	**-0.2514448**
unemployment rate		11.2	9.6	12.1	14.5	13.7	14	14.2	13.2	11.5	9.7	

Source: Eurostat (2018a, 2018c), authors' calculation

Calculated correlation coefficient confirms the existence of theoretical background related to the existence of mutual dependence between increase in GDP and decrease in unemployment. The strongest correlation was measured in the most developed one of the analysed economies-economy of Germany. Relatively the least intense dependence was calculated using the indicators for each of the 28 countries of the European Union, which reflects the different pace of economic development of member countries of the EU.





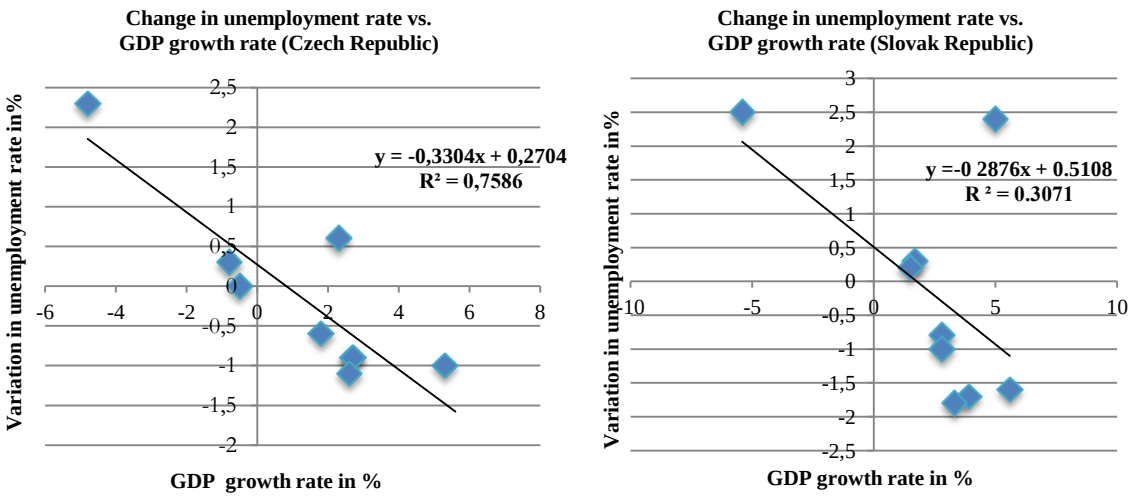


Figure 1: Ocun′s law application
Source: Eurostat (2018a, 2018c), author's calculation

For further details on unemployment development see Figure 2. Evolution of the share of unemployed persons to the total population has a decreasing tendency, while during the whole reference term; the highest unemployment was being recorded in the Slovak Republic. Annual evolution of the indicator of unemployment in the Slovak Republic was identical to the development of changes in the values in the EU countries, but the values recorded in the Slovak Republic were higher by approximately 3% compared to the average values recorded in the 28 EU countries. Up to 2009, the development of the unemployment indicator was less favourable in Germany than in the Czech Republic (the value of the indicator ranged between 5-6%), while in the Czech Republic, these values reached maximum level of 4%. Since 2010, having the tendency to decrease, the development of the indicator for the Czech Republic and Germany has been similar from the perspective of annual changes.

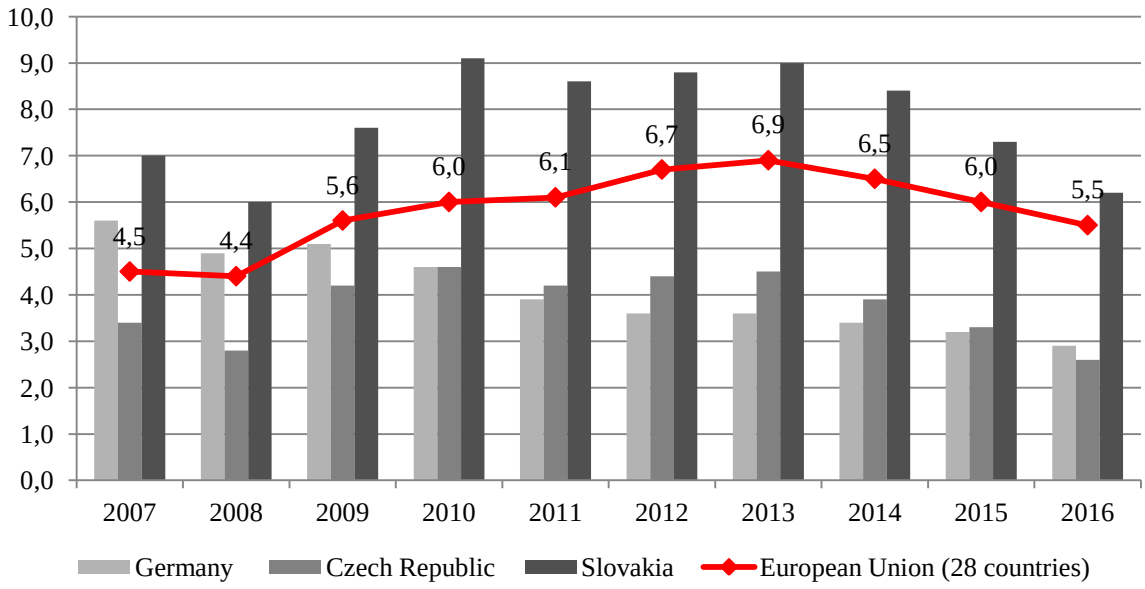


Figure 2: Unemployment (percentage of total population)
Source: Eurostat (2018c), author's calculation

2.2 Economic Indicators of the Labour Market

The positive development of the labour market from 2007 to 2016 confirms the development of selected indicators of the labour market. The reduction of the unemployment indicator (if it is expressed as a percentage of the size of the total population) reflects the gradual increase in the length of working life (i.e. the part of an individual's life, during which they are employed whether part-time or full-time) (Figure 3). In EU countries, the length of working life has been extended by about 1,6 years to 35, 6 years in 2016. The residents of Germany are said to be put to work for the longest share of their lives, being employed for up to around 38 years (in 2016), in the Czech Republic and in Slovakia, the length of working life is also in the process of extension, while in the Czech Republic, towards the end of the reference term, the length of the working life was equal to the level recorded in 28 countries of EU.

The Slovak Republic is known for the shortest period of one´s working life, in 2016, people still worked less than 34 years. The legislator increased the retirement age. In 2018, Slovakia set as its retirement age 62 years and 139 days. Raise of the retirement age results from increase in average life expectancy. Given the circumstances, 2050´s retirement age is assumed to reach 67 years. The question of hiring of older people is a matter of social responsibility to adopt necessary measures that would lead to employment of the elderly employees, which will prevent their social exclusion. In addition to the legal and economic instruments, the successful fulfilment of this aim supposes the social change in employer´s way of thinking. Programs such is the one developed in Germany, where special programs for active ageing are adopted annually can act as an inspiration, for example "Perspektívy 50 plus" (Barancová, 2012). A group of older employees appears to be a suitable tool when dealing with problem of unemployment across Europe when increasing the average length of working life.

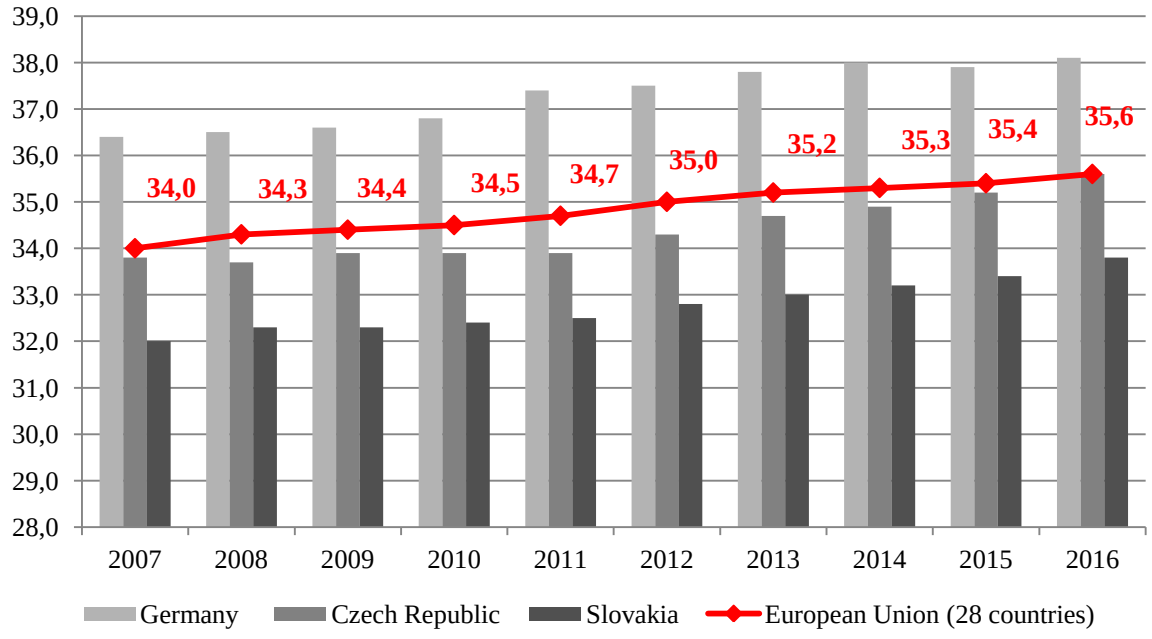


Figure 3: Duration of working life

Source: Eurostat (2018b)

Another indicator that confirms the tendency of unemployment to decrease, by which it implies the positive impact on the overall growth of the indicator of GDP is an indicator of the overall employment in the population aged 15 to 64 years of age, i.e. in the productive population group (Figure 4).

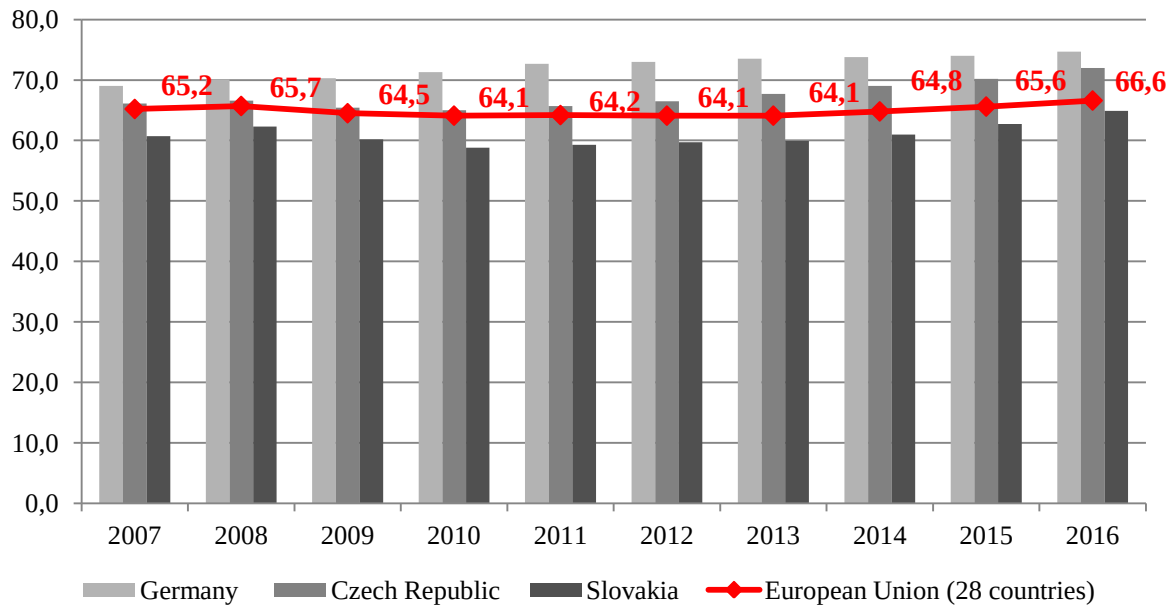


Figure 4: Total employment from 15 to 64 years (percentage of total population)
Source: Eurostat (2018d)

The highest values of this indicator are again achieved in Germany (higher than the average of EU 28) in 2016 the indicator in Germany reached the value of 74.7%, which means that only one quarter of the total population in Germany is not employed. Similarly, the indicator of the employment of the productive share of the population was evolving favourably in the Czech Republic (the value in the reporting period exceeded the value of the average of the EU 28 countries). The Slovak Republic saw only a slight increase in the value of total employment at the end of the reporting period, even towards the end of reporting period the share of productive population did not reach the average level of other EU countries. Look at the correlation of the highest attained educational and employment data recorded in Table 2.

Table 2: Employment by educational attainment level (percentage of total employment)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Pre-school, Primary and Lower Secondary Education										
European Union (28 countries)	24.1	23.3	22.3	21.5	20.7	19.8	18.8	18.2	17.8	17.6
Czech Republic	5.9	5.7	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	4.1
Germany	15.3	14.5	14.1	13.4	12.7	12.5	12.4	12.2	12.3	12.5
Slovak Republic	4.5	4.5	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.4	4.3	4.4
Upper secondary and Post Secondary non-tertiary Education (levels 3 and 4)										
European Union (28 countries)	49.6	49.6	49.3	49.2	49	48.9	48.8	48.8	48.5	48.3
Czech Republic	79.3	78.7	77.9	77	75.9	75	73.7	73.1	72.8	72.1
Germany	59.5	59.2	58.4	58.9	58.5	58.1	58.1	60.1	59.3	58.7
Slovak Republic	79.3	78.9	78.2	76.1	74.9	74.9	74	73.1	72.7	72,2
Tertiary Education										
European Union (28 countries)	26.1	26.8	28.1	29	30	31,0	32,0	32,6	33,4	33.9
Czech Republic	14,8	15,5	16,8	18,1	19,5	20.7	22,1	22,8	23.3	23,8
Germany	25,2	26,0	27,2	27,6	28,5	29	29,2	27,6	28,2	28,7
Slovak Republic	16,3	16,6	17.9	20,0	21.2	21,3	22,1	22.4	23,0	23.5

Source: Eurostat (2018e)

The share of employed people that are educated only at the lowest level is dropping in all the countries concerned. Similarly, the percentage of the employed with upper-middle-education is decreasing, yet, the share of employed in this educational group in the countries being analysed is higher than in all EU countries. On the contrary, from 2007 – 2016 the proportion of employed people with tertiary education was increasing and in the regions that were compared it did not reach the level of average EU values.
From the data in Table 2 we can conclude that compared to the Czech and Slovak Republic, Germany possesses the higher proportion of employed with lower education than with secondary education. By contrast, the share of employed with the highest level of education in Germany has seen the long-term rise in the employment values that have been by 5 percentage points higher than in the Czech or in the Slovak Republic.

2.3 Socio-legal Aspects of the Labour Market

EU has adopted the 2020 Strategy for the intelligent and sustainable growth supporting the inclusion of endangered groups of workers into the working life. By the end of 2020, this strategy aims to withdraw 20 million people out of poverty and social exclusion and to increase employment among people aged from 20 to 64 years up to 75%. Together with the Lisbon Strategy, the 2020 Strategy is often likened to a central planning in the former Communist block of countries.
Although Europe 2020 admittedly describes the state of the economies of the Member States of the European Union rather aptly, it contains a number of points, with which we could not fully agree. For example, it advocates a state´s active intervention into its economy. The proposals on how to solve these problems suggest additional regulations. Furthermore, this strategy is based on the assumption that the added value only results in common solutions at European Union level and therefore, the national specifics are fully ignored. When it comes to the powers of EU and its Member States, similarly to the Lisbon strategy, Europe 2020 has a hybrid character. At the national level, the implementation of the strategy Europe 2020 is being realized through so called National Reform Programme, according to which each Member State defines its activities and measures at the national level in the framework of employment policy and labour market policy (Horváthová, Abrhám, 2017, p. 7).
The labour market policy can be characterized merely as a system aiming to support and help citizens when integrating to their jobs in the labour market. It is a collection of forms, activities, regulations, and tools, which should be put to use when working with a registered job applicant. In some cases, even positive factors can have a somewhat negative impact on the unemployment development tendencies.
The labour market is profoundly governed by law in the sphere of a given country, mainly by the labour and social regulations, such as flexible forms of employment (Work at home, Telework, Job Sharing etc.), but also by a minimum wage level regulated by the state, conditions that make one entitled to retirement benefits etc. The main reason attributing to the formation and deepening of differences between regions are their differing abilities to adjust to the requirements of economic and social transformation or to adapt to new conditions arising from the development. Individual regions started from different positions and that, too, had a significant impact on the whole process. These disparities are conditioned by the complex of dispositions in the potentials of the regions (mainly dispositions of economic and human resources), infrastructure dispositions, civilization and cultural dispositions but also localization ones, which increase, reduce development and attractiveness of their dispositions, respectively (Gajdoš, 2008).
Functional labour market (employment) classifies as another main component contributing to the development of a country. The positive elements of such market, influencing the progress of regions in a right way are mainly supply and demand, and the natural increase of the

employment rate, economic activity and the rise in the number of working people in a population. Each of these labour market existing regulations has its specifics and individual ways of application. In general, it is necessary to note that, from the macroeconomic perspective, these regulations and the financial subsidies provided on their bases only compel secondary way of decreasing the instability that has arisen on the labour market.

3 CONCLUSION

The employment rate is a standard and extended indicator for market´s ability to use its available work force; it also displays the level of efficiency of the labour market. One of the target values of Europe 2020 has been determined for this indicator; it is also sufficient indicator of socio-economic level of the country. We can look at the labour market and employment within the borders of the European Union from two perspectives. The growth of the economy and the arrival of new business investment generate new jobs (even at the cost of minimum wage salaries) thus it also has an impact on growth and employment and a fall in unemployment. Within the entire European sphere of law, the employees are entitled to the adequate compensation for their labour which was set as such that even its lowest level should secure a decent living standard to the workers and their families. Majority of European Union states, including the Slovak Republic, ensures exercising of employees' right for a decent living standard when introducing a minimum wage level (Barancová, 2009).

On the other hand, the trend of increasing the number of people in productive age and the extension of the retirement age can act as a problem in terms of long-term unemployment and the imbalance on the labour market. High unemployment raises considerable economic, psychological and social costs. The GDP growth rate and unemployment rate are key indicators for the evaluation of macroeconomic development. High, permanent and sustainable economic growth and low unemployment ranks among the most commonly formulated objectives of economic policy. High unemployment has a significantly negative effect on economic growth in the country. As a result, low consumer demand, risk of deflation, low demand for loans and decline in consumer confidence arise. The decline in economic growth, in turn, affects the increase in unemployment benefits, for it leads to redundancies in the production and to termination of employment contract (Košta et al., 2011, p. 74).

In the future, European Union should ensure the greatest possible consistency of individual social systems as possible and one of the possible solutions might be a social model that contributes to the increase of the competitiveness on the European job market.

Acknowledgment

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CONCEPTUALIZING THE POSSIBLE IMPLEMENTATION OF FOOD TAXES IN DEVELOPED ECONOMIES: CASE OF LATVIA

Karlis Ketners, Mara Petersone, Ilze Abolina

Abstract

Broad system of taxes on unhealthy foods, possibly combined with subsidies for certain healthy foods is one of the public health policy directions. This paper assesses possible rationales for such a tax, examining arguments and historical development of health taxation in Latvia. The aim of study is to examine rationales for tax, including behavioural issues and develop proposals for the future development in Latvia. The conventional quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods of economics as well as inductive and deductive research methods were used. Proposals for the possible food tax system as a part of health financing model had resulted from this research.

Keywords: *unhealthy food tax, taxation, health policy, excise tax on junk food*

1 INTRODUCTION

General tax revenues are important source of public spending and "sin taxes" – taxes on alcohol, tobacco have long been an important mean for raising revenues and reducing harmful targeted product consumption. Over the last decade politicians and scientists have shown additional interest on using of excise taxes on unhealthy products to achieve public health goals and reduce consumption of foods, such as sugar sweetened beverages and other targeted products. While the use of "sin taxes" on alcohol beverages and tobacco for fiscal and health policy purposes, changing consumers' behaviours is well-established, we have founded only few publications which synthesize research on "health tax" policy issues. Another question is whether and to what extent the revenues generated by specific taxes are sufficient for health-related spending. Earmarked ("hypothecation") revenues does not guarantee that overall spending for health promotion and prevention will be increased, partly because these measures are perceived to be less urgent, and partly because they tend to lead to the results over the longer term, making them less attractive for political process. There is no reason why revenues from a tax will match the funding needs of a corresponding public health effort. For example, the optimal subsidy for healthy foods might require twice as much money as a tax provides or only one-half. Linking the two policies too tightly may require compromising on one or both. Moreover, the imposition of a tax that improves public health by changing behaviour does not imply that the revenue should also be used to improve public health. Governments have many other useful ways to use their revenue. They may prefer to help people with low incomes (thus offsetting some of the regressivity of the tax), reduce taxes that weaken economic growth, invest in new opportunities that may or may not be related to health. This paper represents the review of experience with studying arguments and historical development of the tax system of health care. It seems obvious that broad system of taxes on unhealthy foods, possibly combined with subsidies for certain healthy foods, is one of the public health policy directions. This paper assesses possible rationales for such a tax, examining arguments and historical development of health taxation in Latvia. The purpose of the study is to examine rationales for taxation, including behavioural issues and develop proposals for the future development in Latvia. The conventional quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods of economic data, as well as inductive and deductive research methods were used. Proposals for the possible food tax system as part of health financing model had resulted from the study.

2 TAX POLICY GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS AND COUNTRIES' EXPERIENCE

Over the last few decades there has been a growing international trend towards development of taxation of unhealthy products and research devoted to this policy. Taxes on unhealthy products or "sins" such as alcohol, tobacco, certain foods and beverages are widely used. Historically, the primary objective of these taxes has been fiscal revenues to be generated, but nowadays policy and research interest in the ability of such measures to raise the cost of manufacturing, distributing and consuming of these products is increasing. Taxes imposed on consumed goods can be collected from manufacturers (as taxes on ingredients), distributors, retailers, or consumers (as sales or excise taxes on finished products). In several countries governments have employed taxes on alcohol and tobacco to promote reduced consumption (Wright et al. 2017). More recently, since 2010, countries including Finland, Denmark, Hungary, France, Mexico and England, have introduced sales taxes on foods or beverages deemed unhealthy. Food taxes are generally categorized as "junk food" or "fat" taxes, but while similar, only the latter attempts to modify behaviour (Fox et al. 2017., Roache & Gostin 2017). The intent of the "junk food taxes" seems to be used to promote healthier food choices, through reduction of consumption or usage of earmarked revenues for public health promotion to educate and inform the public about healthy diet. Regarding the "fat taxes", in general, this type of taxes is applied to foods considered to be high in fat or unhealthy. Many of the present-day food taxes were enacted without health concerns in mind. However the health impact of particular foods is subject to scientific uncertainty and often depends heavily on the other components in each individual's diet. Disease responses to food products are non-linear in quantity consumed and vary substantially across individuals. Individuals also are heterogeneous with respect to their preferences and self-control. A food tax scheme will result in an industry response and may spur both constructive and detrimental innovation.

The traditional view in economics has been that taxation can have a corrective role only if consumption causes negative externalities. However, recent literature on behavioural economics has shown that consumers sometimes make sub-optimal decisions even from the point of view of their own welfare. Consumers often behave myopically, and therefore consume too much of goods with delayed negative effects – excess consumption of unhealthy food and the resulting rise in obesity rates is an important example of this type of behaviour (O'Donoghue & Rabin 2006). Taxation can potentially be used to counteract this tendency for over-consumption. Relatedly, Lusk & Schroeter (2012) argue that policies such as the soda tax are hard to justify unless traditional rationality assumptions are relaxed. On the other hand, even if one dislikes paternalism in general, heavy taxation of unhealthy food may be justified by externalities arising through higher public health care expenditures, as well as by the need to protect children from the long-term consequences of their parents' unhealthy lifestyles (Brunello et al. 2009). Some studies (Allais et al. 2012; Cavaliere et al. 2017) also proposes analysis of the cost-effectiveness of conservative scenarios for two commonly proposed policy-based interventions: front-of-pack 'traffic-light' nutrition labelling (traffic-light labelling) and a tax on unhealthy foods ('junk-food' tax).

An unhealthy good causes health issues in the long run. It creates a misperceived utility loss and increases health care costs. Conversely, a healthy good provides misperceived utility gains and reduces health care costs. People underestimate their future health costs from secondary disorders and, thus, choose unhealthy diet and weight. Individuals differ in income and in their degree of misperception; they vote over a fat tax according to their misperceived utility. A fraction of the tax proceeds is "earmarked" to reduce health insurance premiums; the remainder finances a subsidy on the healthy good. This earmarking rule is determined to maximize welfare, anticipating the induced political equilibrium. (Cremer et al. 2016). From policy making view the strongest role for a broad, health-based tax on foods would be as a

health-insurance system component. Ideally, the tax amount would approximate the expected medical cost from consuming each unit of food, and the tax revenues would cover claims for the associated disease conditions as they arose. This tax - claim system could serve for major purposes. First, it would reduce moral hazard by causing individuals to make ex ante payments covering the expected covered costs of risky eating behaviour. Second, it would address the incomplete markets problem that consumers are restricted to short-term coverage by introducing a long-term component into the system. Third, it would aid in separating inherent risk over which individuals have no control from risk that is a function of behaviour. However as shown by (Mazzocchi et al. 2014) the main drivers of policy support are attitudinal factors, especially attribution of obesity to excessive availability of unhealthy foods, while socio-demographic characteristics and political preferences have little explanatory power. A high level of support for healthy eating policy does not translate into acceptance of higher taxes to fund them. The economic concept of externalities offers one way to think about appropriate tax levels. Externalities arise when consumer and business choices impose costs on third parties. Pollution from a power plant is a classic example; emissions harm people who have no role in purchasing or producing the electricity. With nutrition, the primary channel for potential externalities is through health insurance. Unhealthy foods and drinks can increase health care costs; insurance then spreads those costs across everyone in the same pool (if private) or across taxpayers (if public). Consumers have no reason to consider those spillover costs when they decide what to eat and drink. A tax can act as a proxy for those costs, however, leading consumers and businesses to make more efficient eating and drinking choices. The externality approach would thus calibrate taxes to any overlooked health care costs that would be passed on to other people through health insurance.

A newer approach, based on knowledge of behavioral economics, goes further and suggests that such taxes should also reflect any internal harms that people overlook (Marron et al. 2015). Such internalities occur if people make eating and drinking choices without being fully aware of the possible damage to their health. Taxes on unhealthy foods and drinks can proxy for those overlooked internal costs, just as they can for any external costs. The internality approach would thus calibrate taxes to any overlooked costs, whether borne by third parties or by consumers themselves.

In accordance with both approaches, appropriate tax levels might then be adjusted up or down based on distributional concerns. If taxing externalities would be highly regressive, for example, policymakers might choose a tax smaller than the externality. Under the internality approach, moreover, policymakers might also consider the welfare of people a policy is trying to help. From that paternalistic perspective, taxing unhealthy foods and drinks poses a tradeoff. Taxes can improve the health of people who do not account for potential health effects when making eating and drinking choices, but they also reduce enjoyment from eating and drinking and represent a new financial burden. As a result, the optimal paternalistic tax may be significantly less than the amount of the overlooked internal costs (Marron et al. 2015).

Franck et al. (2013) examined the advantages and disadvantages of implementing a junk food tax as an intervention to counter increasing obesity in North America. It seems approved that small excise taxes are likely to yield substantial revenue but are unlikely to affect obesity rates. However high excise taxes are likely to have a direct impact on weight in at-risk populations but are less likely to be politically palatable or sustainable. Ultimately, the effectiveness of earmarked health programs and subsidies is likely to be a key determinant of tax success in the fight against obesity. Madden (2015) shows that to combat growing levels of obesity, health-related taxes have been suggested with taxes on foods high in fat or sugar. Such taxes have been criticised on the basis of their regressivity and potentially adverse

impact upon poverty. Madden analyses the effect of such taxes on a range of poverty measures and also examines the effect of a revenue-neutral tax subsidy mixed with a tax on unhealthy food combined with a subsidy on more healthy food. Using Irish expenditure data, the results indicate that taxes on high fat/sugar goods on their own will be regressive but that a tax-subsidy combination can be broadly neutral with respect to poverty. Based on our own calculations and interviews with experts we can agree that despite short-term impact on household spending in the long run, changes in behaviour lead to changes in food demand and health outcomes. It is observed that taxation of sugar could lead to a statistically significant reduction in both the incidence of type 2 diabetes and coronary heart disease. The health effects appear to be most pronounced for low-income individuals, and the reforms may therefore reduce health inequality. This effect undermines the traditional regressivity argument against the heavy taxation of unhealthy food.

3 TAX BASE CONSIDERATION

As a countermeasure against obesity and overweight, many countries have implemented taxes on unhealthy food, for instance, the soda taxes in France, Hungary, Mexico, Ireland and UK, the sugar tax in Norway and the fat tax in Denmark. In practice, the stated aim of implementing such sin taxes on unhealthy food is to reduce the prevalence of obesity. World Health organization experts (WHO 2016) argue that "evidence shows that a tax of 20% on sugary drinks can lead to a reduction in consumption of around 20%, thus preventing obesity and diabetes."

Chilean experience (Cremer et al. 2016) shows that a tax on the same foods and beverages already delineated as unhealthy by the marketing controls and front-of-pack labelling should promote a healthier diet. To reduce obesity, diabetes and most other non-communicable diseases (NCDs), causing significant costs to societies and individuals tax base analysed included sweets and desserts; salty snacks and chips; meat products and fats; fruits, vegetables and seafood; grain-based staples; ready-to-drink SSB; SSB from concentrate; plain water, coffee and tea; and milk, which together represent 90% of food expenditures. Possible discussed taxes are 18% price tax on all foods and beverages exceeding thresholds on sodium, saturated fat, and added sugar and for which marketing is restricted (based on a Chilean law, effective June 16, 2016); 40% tax on SSBs (22% above the current tax level); and a 1 Chilean peso (0.2 US cents) per gram of sugar tax on products with added sugar. Chile is unique in currently having instituted a small current SSB tax as well as marketing controls and front-of-package labelling of unhealthy foods and beverages. The design of a more comprehensive tax to enhance the overall effect of these policies on healthier diets is a next critical step. The Danish fat tax (Bødker et al. 2015) had a marginal effect on population consumption of fat and risk of ischaemic heart disease (IHD). Examined effect of the Danish fat tax on consumption patterns and IHD risk shows that the total sales of twelve taxed foodstuff categories decreased by 0.9%, the intake of saturated fat, unsaturated fats and dietary cholesterol decreased and the risk of IHD decreased by 0.3%. Based on Danish taxation experience it can be concluded that fat taxes have to be carefully designed to prevent possible adverse effects from outweighing its beneficial effects on health outcomes. Policymakers must therefore be more ambitious in relation to food taxes, e.g. by implementing more comprehensive tax-subsidy schemes. Another decision making risk shown by Danish experience is related to the implementation process and rapid abolition of the fat tax. Findings (Backholer et al. 2017) suggest that industry and trade associations were heavily involved in the political process of formulating the fat tax. Industry representatives used certain tactics to oppose the fat tax: threatening lawsuits, predicting welfare losses, casting doubt on evidence, diverting focus and requesting postponement. However, the fat tax received criticism for being poorly designed and gradually lost popularity among health professionals, politicians

and the public. In the end, the fat tax was abolished for financial reasons. Denmark's experience with fat taxes speaks to the difficulty of imposing them, while also illustrating the impact of consumer tax avoidance on the local economy. Denmark was the first country in the EU to enact a health-related food tax levied taxes on confectionary items and soft drinks from 2008 to 2010 (Wideback et al. 2011). In the last few years the list of countries that have implemented a soda tax, or plan to, has grown rapidly (Cornelsen et al. 2018). Table 1 illustrates experience on health related food taxes introduced by different countries.

Table 1. Examples of health related food taxes (Source: Authors constructed based on (Mytton et al. 2012; Bíró 2015; Bergman & Hansen 2016; Hagenaars et al. 2017; Härkänen et al. 2014; Marron et al. 2015) and involved countries experience)

Country	Date introduced	Foods taxed	Tax rate
US	Various	Sugar sweetened drinks (in 23 states)	1- 8%
Norway	1981	Sugar, chocolate, and sugary drinks	Variable
Samoa	1984	Soft drinks	(€0.14 per liter
Australia	2000	Soft drinks, confectionary, biscuits, and bakery products	10%
French Polynesia	2002	Sweetened drinks, confectionary, and ice cream	€0.55 for imported drinks
Fiji	2006	Soft drinks	5% on imported drinks
Finland	2011	Soft drinks and confectionary	
Hungary	2011	Foods high in sugar, fat, or salt and sugary drinks	10 forint per item
Denmark	2011	Products with more than 2.3% of saturated fat: meat, dairy products,	Kr16/kg (€2.15) of saturated fat, animal fats, and oils
France	2012	Drinks containing added sugar or sweetener	€072/L

Based on countries experiences (Wright et al. 2017) tax policy construction question also is on who is responsible for sending payments to the government, and determination of who ultimately bears the tax. If taxes are levied on businesses, they may absorb it in reduced profit margins, increase prices to pass some or all of it through to consumers, or bargain with workers and suppliers to pass some of it back onto them. If taxes are levied on consumers, businesses may keep their prices steady or may lower prices to offset some or all of the taxes consumers face. In relatively competitive markets, the interplay of demand and supply determines how taxes get shifted, with the less price-responsive side of the market bearing more of the tax and the more price-responsive side bearing less. In less competitive markets—those having just a few major sellers—tax shifting also depends on how those sellers interact. Businesses with market power may absorb much of the tax, may shift it to consumers, or may even over shift, increasing retail prices by more than the tax. The magnitude of such shifting or over shifting depends on how the firms compete and how the tax is designed. Studies typically find that businesses pass on a large fraction of excise taxes they pay and do not reduce prices very much when taxes are levied on consumers. (Signal et al. 2017). Consumers thus bear most of sales and excise taxes via higher prices, and businesses bear relatively little of the burden through lower profit margins. In some cases, profit margins expand, with

businesses raising prices more than the taxes. There are some exceptions, however; cigarette taxes are not fully passed on to consumers according to the most recent literature (Fox et al. 2017; Bergman & Hansen 2016). Studies of nutrition-focused taxes have generally confirmed substantial pass-through and, in some cases, over-shifting. For example, excise taxes are more likely to be over shifted than sales taxes (Bergman & Hansen 2013). Taxes can be calibrated in several ways, focusing on content, volume, or sales. Those choices have different implications for reducing unhealthy eating and drinking (Caro et al. 2017). If policymakers want to use taxes to reduce health risks, the most efficient approach is to target harmful product characteristics. If calories are the problem, the tax should be on calories. If sugar is the problem, the tax should be on sugar. And so on. Such targeting encourages consumers to reduce the amount of harmful ingredients they consume and encourages businesses to offer healthier products.

One additional concern is the administrative cost of implementing different tax regimes. Taxes that parallel a jurisdiction's existing tax structure may be easier to collect. If a government already levies a retail sales tax, for example, it may be less costly to implement a nutrition-focused tax at a different sales tax rate, rather than on volume or ingredient contents. Policymakers will have to balance such administrative concerns against the benefits of better targeting such taxes. Denmark's short-lived fat tax targeted saturated fat. But the tax was levied on saturated fat used in production, rather than the amount in food itself, and flat rates were used for meat categories (e.g., beef, chicken, pork) independent of the saturated fat content in specific products (Bødker et al. 2015). The tax thus did not closely track the actual content of saturated fats. Another approach would be to categorize food and beverages on a broad healthiness scale and tax those found insufficiently healthy (Engelhard et al. 2009). Discussions of taxing unhealthy foods and drinks often focus on tax rates that average about 10 to 20 percent of a product's cost. Taxes at that level would likely inspire consumers to cut back on taxed products and switch to other, hopefully healthier, ones. The potential for such shifts does not tell us, however, whether taxes at this level are optimal. Without further context, it is not possible to know whether such taxes, and the behavior changes they inspire, are too large, too small, or just right. Pomeranz et al. 2018 shows that from legal and administrative perspectives, a federal junk food tax appears feasible based on product categories or combination category-plus-nutrient approaches, using a manufacturer excise tax, with additional support for sugar and graduated tax strategies. However tax base and definition of the object is also crucial. For instance, a tax based on energy density rather than components such as fat might best address the obesity epidemic. Preliminary estimates show that such a tax, if focused on foods that are nutritionally poor as well as energy dense, might be quite large compared to existing prices for many such foods. The paper also considers the possibility of basing the tax partially or wholly on certain biomarkers (weight, blood chemistry, etc.) and briefly considers litigation as an alternative to taxation.

4 LATVIAN EXPERIENCE IN TAXATION

Latvian experience related to excise taxation of "unhealthy" goods is related to excise tax on coffee and sugar sweetened beverages. The taxable object of excise tax on non-alcoholic beverages is water and mineral water with added sugar, other sweetener or flavouring, and other non-alcoholic beverages, as well as other beverages not conforming to the definition of alcoholic beverages referred to in this Law (Law On Excise Duties), except fruit and vegetable juice and nectar, beverages which contain not less than 10 per cent of juice (except fruit juices made of concentrate), not more than 10 per cent of added sugar and which do not contain food additives and flavourings, natural water and mineral water, water enriched with minerals and vitamins, and without added sugar, other sweetener or flavouring. The taxable object of excise tax on coffee is ground or not ground, roasted or not roasted, with caffeine or

decaffeinated, which is classified within the Combined Nomenclature under the code 0901, as well as coffee extracts, essences and concentrates and products based on such extracts, essences or concentrates or on coffee, which is classified within the Combined Nomenclature under the codes 210 111 or 210 112. The rates of tax are shown in Table 2. Rates on coffee remains unchanged, and rates on non-alcoholic sweetened beverages are harmonised with excise tax rates on beer.

Table 2. Excise tax rates for non-alcoholic beverages and coffee, EUR (Source: Authors constructed based on law "On excise tax")

Product	01.01.2016	01.01.2017	01.01.2018
Non-alcoholic drinks, per 100 litres	7,40	7.40	7.40
Coffee, per 100 kg	142,29	142.29	142.29

From fiscal perspective generated revenues are not so significant and all other excises (other than EU traditional tobacco, alcohol and energy products) in 2017 constituted only 15,3 millions Euro and it is projected for 2018 that revenues will be 16 millions Euros (0,18% of the total state budget expenditures).

Over recent years the Ministry of Health several times has made various proposals to place excise tax on several grocery products that the Ministry of Health consider "unhealthy". The tax proposal expected to allow capitalizing on the consumption of these products as well as limiting the consumption itself. Similar to above mentioned scientific literature some authors argued in public discussion in medias that this excise duty have purely fiscal nature and can cause several complications such as financial pressure on not-well-off households. According to the calculations of Ministry of health and calculations of authors (see Table 3) possible excise tax on unhealthy products could generate 22,3 millions Euros (0,25% of the total state budget expenditures). The estimation is based on other countries approaches to tax final processed products (except for palm oil, where estimation is based on imported amounts) which are potentially unhealthy and to change the consumer's attitude.

Table 3. Preliminary annual revenue estimates, the introduction of excise duty on certain food groups (Source: Authors constructed based on Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia 2018)

Preliminary annual revenue estimates, the introduction of excise duty on certain food groups					
Food products	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
	Average consumption of food per household member in 2016	**Tax rate (euro) per 100 kg**	**Annual consumption of total population (1931200 inhabitants) (kg)**	**Tax revenues estimation 2017 assumption (euro)**	**Revenues per capita (euro)**
Sausages, cooked and smoked meats (kg)	20.71	21.00	39995152.00	8398981.92	4.35
Fresh lard, other animal fat (kg)	0.35	41.00	675920.00	277127.20	0.14
Chocolate sweets (kg)	1.97	41.00	3804464.00	1559830.24	0.81

Chocolate (kg)	0.69	41.00	1332528.00	546336.48	0.28
Caramels, toffees (kg)	1.32	41.00	2549184.00	1045165.44	0.54
Confectionery (kg)	4.88	41.00	9424256.00	3863944.96	2.00
Biscuits, crackers, rusks (kg)	6.40	41.00	12359680.00	5067468.80	2.62
Prepared soups and broths, preparations for making them (kg)	0.67	41.00	1291768.00	529624.88	0.27
Chips (kg)	0.58	41.00	1120096.00	459239.36	0.24
Palm oil (kg)	0.75	41.00	1456916.00	597335.56	0.31

Taxation proposal could be justified also by other countries experience. Thus, Bíró (2015) estimated that consumed quantities of processed food to decrease by 3.4% due to the unhealthy food tax, while the consumed quantities of unprocessed food increased by 1.1%.
Placing the excise duty on products would consequently increase the price of the product, and it can be agreed with Bergman & Hansen 2016 that the response to tax changes is asymmetric, and the tax incidence is dependent on the relative size of the tax. Since the excise duty is a consumption tax, it will directly affect lower income citizens, as they spend the majority of their income on grocery products. According to authors the financial regressivity of taxes on unhealthy foods and drinks can be softened or amplified depending on how the revenue is used. Using the revenue to increase tax credits for families, expand transfer programs, or support programs in lower-income communities, for example, could offset or even reverse the initial regressivity of the tax. Effects on individual families would vary, however, depending on how much they continue to buy taxed products and how much of the tax reductions or spending increases benefit them. Using the revenue to reduce income taxes, by contrast, would primarily benefit higher-income households and thus increase the regressivity of the overall policy. Distributional effects also depend on any health improvements resulting from a tax. Many of those gains would go to any individuals whose health improves because of the tax. If people with lower incomes are systematically large beneficiaries from the health improvements, the tax might thus generate a regressive financial burden but progressive health benefits. If health gains result in lower health care spending, however, some gains will also accrue more broadly to the workers who pay for private health insurance and the taxpayers who pay for public health programs.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Introduction of excise tax could be pilot project for Latvian health policy with main goal to change the diet and reduce risks of ICD. However in general remaining problems are cross border trade issues and research on substitution effects: that is, what products will consumers substitute in place of taxed items? Consumers may elect to substitute healthier items, but they may also elect to purchase products that have similarly harmful health consequences as the items being taxed. Consumers appear to find it easier to switch away from sugary drinks, which have many alternatives, than from other foods and drinks. In principle, taxes can encourage businesses to develop and market healthier products; in practice, most existing and proposed taxes fail to do so. Taxing sugary drinks based on their volume, for example, does nothing to encourage businesses to reduce the sugar content of their products (unless they can

eliminate it). Taxing sugar content would be more effective. It would encourage businesses to reduce the sugar in existing drinks and to introduce new, lower-sugar alternatives, and it would encourage consumers to switch to less-sugary drinks. Policymakers should give careful thought to how they use revenues from taxing unhealthy foods and drinks. That revenue could be used to fund subsidies to fruits and vegetables, healthy eating information campaigns, obesity prevention, and similar efforts. Several aspects of nutrition-focused taxes remain under-studied. These include how taxes change overall diets including food in restaurants, schools, and other locations outside the home, how businesses change their product offerings in response to different tax designs, and how policymakers should determine the magnitude of potential taxes.

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VAT TAXATION OF SELECTED PRODUCTS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AS AN ELEMENT OF FISCAL POLICY

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Abstract

Public finances, besides the implementation of an obvious fiscal objective, are also aimed at the implementation of non-fiscal tasks. In addition to the fiscal objective, establishing the VAT rates for individual products is aimed at the implementation of other non-fiscal tasks. One of these tasks is to encourage or discourage the consumption of a given good. The individual VAT rates can be used to increase or decrease the purchase of individual products. The rates of chosen products in selected European countries and their comparison with the rates in Poland will be analyzed in this article.

Keywords: *fiscal policy, VAT, European Union*

1. LITERATURE REVIEW – FISCAL POLICY

Almost all the taxes, except for lump-sum taxes, act as automatic stabilizers. They can be described as a built-in response of public revenues to economic fluctuations [Krajewski, Piłat, 2017, p. 22]. Taxes are the main source of public revenues, therefore, the authorities should be interested in increasing the tax revenues. Then, the problem arises how to improve the fiscal performance of tax systems. There are two solutions - the first one is an increase of fiscalism by imposing new levies as well as obtaining an additional income from existing taxes by increasing the nominal tax rates, extending the tax base and increasing the oppressiveness of the tax apparatus in relation to the taxpayers who evade compulsory burdens for countries. The second solution indicates that increasing the tax revenues is possible by taking measures to limit the taxpayers' resistance before tax, or even to encourage taxpayers to pay taxes by increasing the tax-related convenience. Finding the answer to the question which of these approaches may turn out to be more effective is crucial to the sustainability of public finances [Adamczyk, Franek, 2017, p. 8].

Local government is an integral part of modern democratic states. However, the institution of local government may only exist if the obligation to organize public tasks imposed on local governments by the state is accompanied with the sources of revenue necessary to finance such tasks [Guziejewska, 2018, p. 102]. An expensive budget policy affects the volume of a real output by increasing the volume of a global demand. The effectiveness of this policy in increasing the real volume of a global demand is the highest when the fiscal expansion takes a form of the growth of state expenditures on the purchase of products, which is fully financed from the growth of budget deficit [Malinowski, 2017, p. 92].

At the current stage of development every state has to obtain funds to accomplish specific public tasks. Taxes are the main instrument which serves this purpose. The fundamental function of tax in a properly functioning public finance system is the fiscal function [Namysłowski, 2017, p. 75]. State authorities dealing with collection of budget revenues and their spending are in the market economy, along with the central bank, the second entity implementing a stabilization policy. In an economic theory, the view is expressed that the state fiscal policy of regulating the overall amount and proportion of state revenues and expenses may affect the real processes in economy, including its growth opportunities.

However, in spite of fulfilling the various functions, fiscal policy is above all a classic tool of a stabilization policy. Fiscal policy, including tax policy and budget expenditure policy, is inextricably related to the public finances and its impact on economy can be multilateral [Spychała, 2017, p. 136].

In countercyclical measures carried out in market economies, in addition to cash instruments, fiscal instruments may also be used. Public revenues, which directly or indirectly stabilize changes in a market demand, are of particular importance. The growing importance of fiscal tools in shaping the morphological features of business cycles can be observed especially after the outbreak of the global financial crisis in 2007-2008 [Barczyk & Spychała, 2017, p. 35]. Although many international institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) attach considerable importance to fiscal transparency, recognizing it as one of the basic conditions for the sustainability of public finances in Poland, these issues seem to be still underestimated. What is more, fiscal transparency is often understood in our country in a very narrow sense and does not apply - as at dawn - to covering openness and accountability of a wide range of fiscal policy. Fiscal transparency is an interdisciplinary issue. Political, administrative, financial and accounting aspects are present in considerations on this subject. Undoubtedly, the most important publication in the field of fiscal transparency is the study by G. Kopits and J. Craigaz from 1998, where the most commonly cited definition of this concept comes from. Almost 15 years later, another equally important publication - *Fiscal Transparency, Accountability, and Risk* appeared which became the basis for changing the standards of fiscal transparency of the IMF [Malinowska-Misiąg, 2017, p. 31].

A stabilizing function of fiscal policy, developed on the basis of J.M. Keynes' theory according to which one can influence the shaping of real economic processes by influencing the structure and level of a global demand, allows a countercyclical fiscal policy to be divided into an active policy related to discretionary actions of the state and into a passive policy connected with the operation of automatic economic stabilizers. Stabilization measures of a discretionary nature are taken by politicians ad hoc in a conscious and purposeful manner. They are targeted at a specific process or situation, and their aim is to influence changes in an economic activity. Discretionary instruments are to affect changes in a global demand and its individual components. In addition to counteracting cyclical fluctuations, an active fiscal policy is also used to stabilize prices and reduce unemployment [Spychała & Spychała, 2017, p. 120].

1.1 Fiscal Policy in the European Union

Public finances of many European Union countries are in a state of permanent imbalance. The Stability and Growth Pact is to ensure that the Member States of the European Union will maintain public finances in a state of equilibrium and coordinate fiscal policy. This pact is aimed at the correction of excessive public debt or excessive budget deficits [Przybylska-Mazur, 2017, p.123].

After the extreme decrease of public revenues during the financial crisis 2008-2011, tax revenues increased steadily again. Nevertheless, the fiscal balances of the majority of the European countries are still negative, i.e. the amount of public revenues is smaller than the amount of public spending [Jaenchen, 2017, 85]. Until 2013, fiscal consolidation in the European Union countries took place primarily by increasing public revenues, mainly from higher taxes. The share of public revenues in GDP in the years 2010-2013 increased on average in the EU by almost 2 p.p. (from 43.5% in 2010 to 45.4% in 2013). At the same time,

the ratio of public expenditure to GDP decreased by less than 1p.p. (from 49.9% to 48.7%). Since 2014, it was assumed that by 2017 public spending in the EU countries will be reduced on average by 1.5 p.p. - from 48.8% to 46.5% of GDP. Unfortunately, this limit does not include the so-called extra-budgetary expenses, often skillfully hidden, thus the gate to discreetly increase public spending has been left. [Dziemianowicz & Poniatowicz, 2017, p. 79].

Fiscal rules can be introduced for several reasons. One of them is to ensure macroeconomic stability in economy and to improve the credibility of the pursued fiscal policy and to reduce the excessive budget deficit. The task of the rules is also to maintain the stability of the accepted shape of fiscal policy in the long run. The role of fiscal rules is also to limit the negative externalities of conducting an independent fiscal policy by countries belonging to a specific federation of states. In addition, the introduction of fiscal rules is to limit freedom of politicians in shaping fiscal policy. The latter problem has been well recognized in political economy where the excessive tendency of politicians to generate a budget deficit and the systematic growth of public debt regardless of cyclical fluctuations are indicated. One should mention the issue of moral hazard and free ride, which may occur when an economically strong and credible euro area Member State decides to increase the expansion of fiscal policy independently of the business cycle [Działo, 2016, p. 44].

According to the European Commission, the reforms introduced both in the preventive and corrective parts of the Pact have proved their effectiveness by strengthening the supervision over the conduct of fiscal policy in the member countries. In terms of the preventive requirements of the part of the Pact, most of the member countries have achieved medium-term budgetary objectives or made a good progress in this direction. In terms of adapting to the rules contained in the corrective part of the Pact, the Commission has indicated a significant progress in correcting excessive government deficits made by Member States, as evidenced by the reduction of the number of countries subject to the excessive deficit procedure from 23 in December 2013 to 11 in August 2014. However, the effectiveness of fulfilling the reference value criterion for the public finance sector indebtedness requires the passage of time due to the transitional period until its entry into force. The assessment of the effectiveness of new solutions is also difficult due to the short period that has elapsed since facing the deep financial and economic crisis. The effectiveness of new solutions depends to a large extent on the way how the preventive part of the Pact operates, which should be tested during a relatively good economic climate [Gajda-Kantorowska, 2017, p. 87].

1.2 Value Added Tax – VAT

The fiscal effectiveness itself is only possible when two basic conditions are met simultaneously. The first one is the efficient administration of public levies, in which competence and responsibility will not be blurred and negotiations with a taxpayer will become the norm, not an anomaly from the adopted behaviors. The second is a tax system understood as simple and at the same time competitive with the systemic factors shaping the legal and institutional model of the procedure for public levies [Raczkowski, 2016, p. 72].

Value added tax, as any other tax, fulfills a fiscal function - it is the power source of a state budget. In the nineties, the role of indirect taxes increased in the budget supply system significantly. Among the three indirect taxes functioning in the Polish tax system, value added tax has a leading role in the budget supply. It can also act as a tool for stabilizing economy, because it can shape demand for certain goods. The use of the stabilizing function of VAT, as well as other taxes, depends on changing the amount of encumbrances. The increase in the

rates of this tax leads to a decrease in demand, while the application of preferential rates, tax concessions etc. will affect demand in a stimulating way [Jarczok-Guzy, 2014, p. 85].

2. METHODS AND RESEARCH

The tables below (1,2,3) present specific groups of selected products with a comparison of the value added tax rates in various European Union countries. Due to the number of Member States, the data are included in three tables. The comparative analysis method has been used.

Table 1. Value-added tax rates for selected goods and services in various European Union countries

Article	BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES
Foodstuffs – the lowest rates	6	20	10	25	7	20	0	13	4
Foodstuffs – the highest rates	21	20	15	25	19	20	23	24	10
Water supplies	6	20	15	25	7	20	23	13	10
Books	6	20	10	25	7	9	0	6	4
Social housing	6	20	15	25	19	20	13,5	24	4
Agricultural inputs	6	20	15	25	7	20	0	13	10
Restaurant and catering services	12	20	15	25	19	20	9	24	10
Medical and dental care	21	20	15	-	7	-	13,5	24	21
Hairdressing	21	20	21	25	19	20	9	24	21

Source: www.ec.europa.eu

Table 2. Value-added tax rates for selected goods and services in various European Union countries

Article	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT
Foodstuffs – the lowest rates	2,1	5	4	5	12	21	3	5	0
Foodstuffs – the highest rates	20	25	10	19	21	21	3	27	0
Water supplies	5,5	13	10	5	21	21	3	27	-
Books	5,5	5	4	5	12	9	3	5	5
Social housing	5,5	25	4	5	21	21	-	27	5
Agricultural inputs	10	25	4	5	21	21	3	27	18
Restaurant and catering services	5,5	25	10	9	21	21	3	18	18
Medical and dental care	-	25	-	5	-	21	17	-	-
Hairdressing	20	25	22	5	21	21	8	27	18

Source: www.ec.europa.eu

Table 3. Value-added tax rates for selected goods and services in various European Union countries

Article	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK
Foodstuffs – the	6	10	5	6	9	9,5	20	14	12	0

lowest rates										
Foodstuffs – the highest rates	6	10	23	23	9	9,5	20	14	25	20
Water supplies	6	10	8	6	9	9,5	20	24	25	0
Books	6	10	5	6	5	9,5	10	10	6	0
Social housing	21	20	8	6	5	9,5	20	24	25	20
Agricultural inputs	6	10	5	6	9	9,5	20	24	25	20
Restaurant and catering services	6	10	8	13	9	9,5	20	14	12	20
Medical and dental care	21	20	23	6	19	-	-	-	-	-
Hairdressing	6	20	8	23	19	9,5	20	24	25	20

Source: www.ec.europa.eu

Table 4 illustrates the legend with the description of the Member States.

Table 4 The abbreviation legend of the European Union Member

Country	Abbreviation
Belgium	BE
Bulgary	BG
Czech Republic	CZ
Denmark	DK
Germany	DE
Estonia	EE
Ireland	IE
Greece	EL
Spain	ES
France	FR
Croatia	HR
Italy	IT
Cyprus	CY
Latvia	LV
Lithuania	LT
Luxembourg	LU
Hungary	HU
Malta	MT
Netherlands	NL
Austria	AT
Poland	PL
Portugal	PT
Romania	RO
Slovenia	SI
Slovakia	SO
Finland	FI
Sweden	SE
United Kingdom	UK

Źródło: www.ec.europa.eu

3. DISCUSSION

From the tables 1-3, it is clear that taking into account food products in individual countries of the European Union, the lowest rates are characterized for the United Kingdom, Luxembourg, Spain, Italy, Croatia, Cyprus and Hungary. In turn, among the highest rates for food, Hungary, Sweden, Croatia and Denmark take the first place. For water supply, Hungary, Sweden, Denmark and Finland have the highest rates among the EU countries. The lowest rates for water can be found by residents of the United Kingdom, Luxembourg, Cyprus and France. The highest-taxed books can be found in Denmark and Greece, while the lowest-taxed books are in Luxembourg, Italy and Spain. The next analyzed service is social housing. The highest tax is imposed on this service in Denmark, Croatia and Sweden. In turn, the lowest value-added tax on social housing is imposed in Spain and Italy. The next analyzed factor is agricultural inputs. The highest tax on agricultural inputs is in Hungary, Denmark, Croatia and Sweden, and the lowest in Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Poland. The highest rate for restaurant and catering services is observed in Croatia, Denmark and Greece. The lowest rate for these services is in France, Netherlands and Ireland. The highest rate for medical and dental care is noted in Croatia, Greece and Poland. The lowest rate for these services is used in Cyprus, Portugal and Germany. The last service to be analyzed is hairdressing. The highest tax on hairdressing is in Denmark, Croatia and Sweden, while the lowest is in Cyprus, Netherlands, Luxembourg and Poland.

4. CONCLUSION

The presented above data shows that in individual countries the rates of value added tax vary quite significantly depending on the type of product or service. This differentiation clearly signifies that each country has its own fiscal policy and directs it in a strictly defined way. For instance, in Poland preferential rates for food, medicines, medical equipment or water supply are applied. These are the components necessary for a person to live, and the government has decided not to overburden the consumption of this kind of goods. On the other hand, comparing these elements essential for life, there is alcohol, which is taxed at the rate of 23%.This is because an excessive consumption of this type of drink can cause social tensions, pathology and aggression. Thus, in a skillful way, the state, using its attribute of power, decides on which goods increase or reduce demand. By lowering the rates, consumption is stimulated, and by increasing it, the government discourages buying. And that is the intentions of every government of Member States. Individual states have their own individual preferences and plans defining on which products increase rates, and on which ones lower.

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RIGIDA CIEN A MIEZD – TEORETICKÉ PRÍSTUPY K STRNULOSTI CIEN

PRICE AND WAGE RIGIDITY – THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO PRICE RIGIDITY

Marek Kálovec

Abstrakt

Teórie rigidných cien a miezd zohrávajú významnú úlohu v mikroekonomických analýzach a v makroekonómii už niekoľko desaťročí. Článok je venovaný empirickému výskumu (Blinder, 1994) z 90. rokov 20. storočia, ktorý bol realizovaný v USA a snažil sa kvantifikovať mieru strnulosti cien v americkej ekonomike. V článku rozoberáme osem najdôležitejších teoretických prístupov k rigidite cien a miezd, ktoré firmy identifikovali ako najviac relevantné, a ktoré sa javia ako významne vysvetľujúce vtedajší stav americkej ekonomiky. Za najvýznamnejšiu je považovaná teória zlyhania koordinácie (Ball-Romer, 1991), nasledovaná oneskorením v cenách spôsobeným nákladmi (Gordon, 1981), oneskorením dodávok, služieb a iných necenových parametrov (Carlton, 1987), teóriou implicitných nákladov (Bodkin, 1982), teóriou nominálnych kontraktov, nákladov prispôsobenia sa (Mankiw, 1985), procyklickou elasticitou (Bils, 1989) a poslednom analyzovanou teóriou cenových bodov (Kashyap, 1994).

Kľúčové slová: *ceny, mzdy, strnulosť, fluktuácie*

Abstract

The theory of prices and wages rigidity has played a major role in microeconomic analyzes and in macroeconomics for several decades. The article is devoted to empirical research (Blinder, 1994) of the 1990s, which was conducted in the US and attempted to quantify the rate of price rigidity in the US economy. In the paper, we discuss the eight most important theoretical approaches to rigidity of prices and wages that companies identified as most relevant and which appear to be a significant explanation for the current state of the US economy. The most notable were the theory of Coordination failure (Ball-Romer, 1991), followed by Cost-based pricing with lags (Gordon, 1981), Delivery lags services, etc. (Carlton, 1987), Implicit contracts (Bodkin, 1982), Nominal contracts theory, Costs of price adjustment (Mankiw, 1985), Procyclical elasticity (Bils, 1989), and the latest analyzed Pricing points theory (Kashyap, 1994).

Keywords: *prices, wages, rigidity, fluctuations*

1 ÚVOD

Hĺbková analýza príčin Veľkej hospodárskej krízy z 30. rokov 20. storočia formulovala významné ekonomické prístupy pre nasledujúce desaťročia. Uvoľnenie predpokladu klasickej dichotómie a neutrality peňazí reprezentovanej klasickou a neskôr neoklasickou ekonómiou znamenalo vznik nových prístupov k analýze makroekonomickej rovnováhy, ktorej základy položil John Maynard Keynes. Rigidita cien a miezd v krátkom období sa stala v nasledujúcich päťdesiatich rokoch predmetom výskumu množstva autorov. Významný prínos k ekonomickej teórii znamenal empirický výskum Alana S. Blindera *On Sticky Prices: Academic Theories Meet the Real World* (Blinder, 1994). Blinder v priebehu dvoch rokov

realizoval výskum o rigidite cien na vzorke 200 náhodne vybraných amerických spoločností, ktorými obsiahol 85 % súkromného, nepoľnohospodárskeho a neregulovaného HDP USA. Na základe empirických dát z dotazníkov Blinder zistil, že až 78 % HDP je preceňované raz za štvrťrok alebo menej ako štvrťročne (tabuľka 1).

Tabuľka 1: Frekvencia cenového prispôsobovania sa (počet zmien za rok)

Frekvencia	Percento firiem
Menej ako raz	10,2%
Jedenkrát	39,3%
1,01 - 2	15,6%
2,01 - 4	12,9%
4,01 - 12	7,5%
12,01 - 52	4,3%
52,01 - 365	8,6%
Viac ako 365-krát	1,6%

Zdroj: BLINDER, A. S. *On Sticky Prices: Academic Theories Meet the Real World*. Monetary Policy. NBER Chapters : Monetary Policy, pages 117-154 National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1994.; vlastné spracovanie

Výskum sa okrem toho zameral aj na vysvetlenie príčin rigidy, a to na základe otestovania formulovaných teórií strnulosti cien a miezd, ktoré boli v stručnej verzii ponúknuté manažérom jednotlivých spoločností. Za jednu z najviac relevantných manažéri považovali teóriu Coordination failure (Ball-Romer, 1991), prístup vysvetľujúci oneskorenia zmeny cien vo vyčkávaní vzhľadom na konkurenciu, ku ktorej sa priklonilo 60,6 % opýtaných. Druhou najvýznamnejšou príčinou (55,5 %) je oneskorenie rastu nominálnych cien ako vyčkávanie na rast nákladov (Gordon, 1981; Blanchard 1983) ako súčasť teórie oneskorených cien založených na nákladoch. Ďalšie teórie, ktoré budú rozobraté v nasledujúcej časti zachytáva tabuľka 2.

Tabuľka 2: Najvýznamnejšie teórie strnulosti cien a miezd podľa jednotlivých firiem

Teória	Percento firiem
Zlyhanie koordinácie	60,6%
Oneskorenie cien založené na nákladoch	55,5%
Oneskorenia dodávok, služieb a pod.	54,8%
Implicitné kontrakty	50,5%
Nominálne kontrakty	35,7%
Náklady cenového prispôsobenia sa	30,0%
Procyklická elasticita	29,7%
Cenové body	24,0 %

Zdroj: BLINDER, A. S. *On Sticky Prices: Academic Theories Meet the Real World*. Monetary Policy. NBER Chapters : Monetary Policy, pages 117-154 National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1994.; vlastné spracovanie

2 TEÓRIE STRNULÝCH CIEN A MIEZD

Teória Coordination failure stojí na mikroekonomických základoch a prepája zlyhanie koordinácie s tzv. menu nákladmi firiem, ktoré boli dovtedy vnímané ako protichodné.

Prístup Balla a Romera (1991) vychádza z predpokladu cenového vodcovstva – lídra na trhu, ktorého ostatné firmy nasledujú v prípade flexibility cien, ale aj v prípade jej rigidity. Toto je teória, ktorú firmy v prieskume (Blinder, 1994) vnímali aj najviac prítomnú pri rozhodovaní sa o flexibilite svojich cien. Model navrhuje pre elimináciu rigidity vládnu intervenciu s cieľom zlepšiť koordináciu cenového prispôsobenia sa alebo offsetovať efekty rigidity prostredníctvom monetárnej politiky. Ball a Romer (1991) poukazujú na fakt, že medzi firmami existuje v rámci cenotvorby vzájomná interakcia – väčšia flexibilita cien jednej z firiem motivuje ostatné firmy rovnako flexibilne reagovať v rámci cenotvorby. Výraznú variabilitu v stupni nominálnej rigidity a z toho vyplývajúce fluktuácie reálnych premenných je tak možné pozorovať aj medzi jednotlivými krajinami. Ako uvádzajú autori, potvrdzuje sa predpoklad, že verejná politika v oblasti pracovno-právnych vzťahov môže byť efektívna – osobitne v prípade koordinácie prispôsobovania sa a podpore rokovaní medzi zamestnávateľmi a zástupcami zamestnancov. Rovnako dočasné regulácie dokážu permanentne formovať stupeň nominálnej rigidity posúvaním ekonomiky do novej úrovne rovnováhy, zatiaľ čo multiplikátor vyplývajúci z interakcie nominálnych zmien a menu nákladov posilňuje efekty vládnej politiky. V prípade, že koordinácia cien a miezd zlyháva, je možné podľa Balla a Romera (1991) aktívne využiť nástroje monetárnej politiky.

Teória cien založená na nákladoch (Gordon, 1981) stojí na testovaní piatich pozorovaniach: (1) niektoré trhy majú ceny nastavené na rovnakej úrovni týždne, mesiace alebo roky; (2) niektoré ceny sa menia každý deň, iné sú významne fixované; (3) rozdelenie zmien nominálneho HDP medzi ceny a množstvá sa v USA v priebehu času menilo; (4) rozdelenie zmien nominálneho HDP medzi ceny a množstvá sa menilo v rámci krajín; (5) ceny dohodnuté vopred alebo stanovené na cenovkách majú potenciál rýchle sa prispôsobiť hyperinflácii. Výsledky výskumu poukazujú na úlohu vstupných nákladov pri rigidite cien a miezd. Vstupné náklady v podobe nákladov práce sú vnímané ako náklady, ktoré nereagujú dostatočne na šoky v agregátnom dopyte. Dôvodom je, že kým jednotlivý pracovník môže vnímať pokles miezd ako nevyhnutné opatrenie na zastavenie poklesu outputu, nie je možné presvedčiť všetkých pracovníkov, aby na pokles miezd pristúpili. Gordon (1981) rovnako argumentuje, že trhy s dohodnutými kontraktmi sa z historického hľadiska javia flexibilnejšie ako aukčné trhy.

Teória rigidity cien založenej na oneskorených dodávkach a službách (Carlton, 1987) vysvetľuje, že cenový vývoj je nekonzistentný s teóriami o čistení trhu. Do rozhodovania sa o cenách a ich zmene vstupujú aj ďalšie necenové faktory ako je marketing, ktorý je nákladnou aktivitou. Cenové a necenové metódy vystupujú v koherencii pri alokácii produktov na trhu. To je podľa Cartlona (1987) motívom a príležitosťou zaoberať sa vyčisťovaním trhu aj pre makroekonómiu, nielen industriálnych ekonómov.

Okunov (Bodkin, 1982) prístup k analýze strnulosti cien je založený na modeli, ktorý pozostáva z dvoch sektorov – menšieho odvetvia aukčných trhov s flexibilnými cenami, ktoré sú determinované dopytom a ponukou a dominantného trhu cenoviek a zákazníkov, ktorý je charakteristický strnulými cenami a pomalým prispôsobovacím mechanizmom. V takomto modeli sa cenotvorba stáva nákladovo orientovanou v dominantnom sektore ekonomiky a rast nákladov si v podobne formovanom systéme vyžaduje dostatok času, čo vedie k zníženiu flexibility. Analýzou trhu práce Okun poukázal na to, že firmy musia platiť zamestnancom tzv. „mýtne“ pri najímaní nových pracovníkov. To formalizuje prístup, ktorý na pracovných trhoch, s výnimkou tých najnepríjemnejších, rozoznáva vysoké implicitné investície, ktoré získavajú podobu implicitných kontraktov. Tento model podľa neho reálne popisuje štruktúru mzdy pracovníkov, pričom odchody z práce majú na trhu procyklický, nie proticyklický charakter.

Teória nákladov cenového prispôsobenia sa (Mankiw, 1985) vychádza z princípu súkromných podnetov, ktoré v prípade rastu agregátneho dopytu (AD) prinášajú príliš veľa cenových prispôsobení sa, zatiaľ čo v prípade poklesu agregátneho dopytu je týchto podnetov málo. Z toho vyplýva, že ceny sú rigidné primárne smerom nadol, nie nahor. V Mankiwovom rozšírenom modeli by zlyhanie firmy v znížení cien za predpokladu poklesu AD zabránilo poklesu nákladov ostatných firiem, čo by malo za následok redukciu motívov týchto firiem znižovať svoje ceny. Ekonomika tohto typu si na základe teórie nákladov cenového prispôsobenia sa (Mankiw, 1985) vyžaduje v prípade ekonomickej kontrakcie aktívnu úlohu centrálnej banky, ktorá obmedzí výrazné a neefektívne fluktuácie v outpute a zamestnanosti.

Jednou z významných štúdií zaoberajúcich sa rigiditou cien a miezd je aj procyklická elasticita (Bils, 1989), ktorá sa zaoberá otázkou, či optimálny rozdiel ceny a hraničných nákladov firmy (markup) fungujúcej v štruktúre monopolistickej konkurencie rastie alebo klesá v situácii kontrakcie a expanzie ekonomiky. Ak by dochádzalo k poklesu tohto rozdielu, ceny sa hýbu proticyklicky zatiaľ čo hraničné náklady by smerovali opačným smerom a pôsobili by procyklicky. Z výsledkov vyplýva, že v prípade netrvanlivých produktov je tento rozdiel procyklický, pri trvanlivých produktoch naopak pôsobí proticyklicky. Ak sú na trhu zákazníci rozdelení do skupiny nových a existujúcich a predpokladáme, že cenová elasticita nových zákazníkov je vyššia, elasticita dopytu bude pôsobiť viac procyklicky, zatiaľ čo optimálny markup sa naopak prejaví proticyklicky. Markup cien a hraničných nákladov firiem podľa Bilsa (1989) spôsobuje výraznejšie fluktuácie ekonomickej aktivity v prípade zmien v produktivite trvanlivých statkov.

Jednou z posledných charakterizovaných teórií rigidity cien a miezd je empirický výskum, ktorý publikoval Kashyap (1994). Výsledky tohto analyzovali veľkosti, frekvencie a synchronizácie cenových zmien 12 vybraných tovarov v priebehu 35 rokov. Výsledky poukazujú na to, že ak dochádza k zmenám cien, tieto zmeny sú výrazne odlišné – častejšie sa realizujú malé zmeny cien. Navyše počas určitých období sa nominálne ceny nemenia niekoľko rokov, zatiaľ čo v iných obdobiach dochádza k ich zmenám v priebehu mesiacov. Kombinácia týchto dvoch trendov naznačuje, že ak dochádza k zmenám cien a tieto zmeny sú malé, náklady zmeny cien musia byť rovnako nízke. V iných časoch musia preto náklady na zmeny cien rásť a benefity naopak klesajú.

3 ZÁVER

Kombinácia teoretických prístupov a empirického výskumu ukazuje, že cenová a mzdová rigidita je výrazným prvkom trhovej ekonomiky. Ako uvádzajú štúdie (Ball-Romer, 1991; Mankiw, 1985), rigidita necháva priestor pre aktívnejšiu vládnu politiku v prípade ofsetovania šokov v agregátnom dopyte – buď na trhu práce alebo v oblasti monetárnej politiky s cieľom zmierniť negatívne a neefektívne fluktuácie v reálnych premenných. Teória zlyhania koordinácie (Ball-Romer, 1991), ktorá pojednáva o cenovom vodcovstve a vyčkávaní na správanie sa konkurentov, sa prejavila ako najvýznamnejšia z pohľadu jednotlivých firiem. Firmy všeobecne totiž pripúšťajú, že v prípade rastúceho agregátneho dopytu majú záujem zvyšovať ceny, ale obávajú sa byť prvými v poradí. Zaujímavým z výskumu (Blinder, 1994) sa javí aj fakt, že všeobecne rozšírená predstava, že firmy majú obavy zo znižovania cien v prípade poklesu agregátneho dopytu, aby spotrebitelia nevnímali tento postup ako znižovanie kvality produktov, je podľa dotazovaných firiem neplatná a v praxi sa neprejavuje.

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FAKTORY DEZINVESTÍCIÍ: STRUČNÝ PREHĽAD

FACTORS OF DISINVESTMENT: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Ľubomír Darmo

Abstrakt

Priame zahraničné investície sú považované za stabilnú zložku investícií. Prílev investícií do krajiny prináša pozitívne efekty, vyjadrené najmä v raste produktu, poklese nezamestnanosti, raste exportu a používaní nových technológií. Avšak, po globálnej finančnej kríze sme svedkami čoraz častejšieho javu – dezinvestícií. Odchod investora z hostiteľskej krajiny tak ovplyvňuje krajinu negatívnym spôsobom, vedúc ku spomaleniu ekonomického rastu, dokonca ku stagnácii ekonomiky. Faktormi, ktoré vedú k takémuto rozhodnutiu zahraničnej afiliácie sú hlavne mikroekonomické determinanty, ako ziskovosť, efektívnosť výroby a pod. Existujú však aj makroekonomické determinanty presun investície akými sú napr. politická a ekonomická nestabilita. Príspevok sa venuje pohľadom na problematiku dezinvestícií a makroekonomických determinantov podnecujúcich presun investícií do iných krajín.

Kľúčová slova: *priame zahraničné investície, dezinvestície, determinanty presunu investícií*

Abstract

Foreign direct investment is considered as the stable part of investment. Inflow of foreign direct investment to the host country brings positive effects, seen mainly in growth of product, reducing unemployment rate, growth of export and use of new technologies. However, after the global financial crisis, disinvestment became more common. Leaving of investor from the host country has negative effect on the economy causing lower economic growth, or even stagnation. Factors leading to such decision of foreign affiliation are mainly microeconomic determinants as profitability or investment efficiency and the like. There are also macroeconomic determinants motivating the shift of investments, such as political and economic instability. The paper deals with the overview on the issue of disinvestment and macroeconomic determinants inducing shift of investments to other countries.

Key words: *foreign direct investment, disinvestment, determinants of investment shift*

1 ÚVOD

Rozvoj a rastúci význam medzinárodného obchodu so sebou priniesol nielen nárast obchodu s tovarmi a službami. Jeho významnou zložkou sa stal je aj presun kapitálu medzi krajinami. Presun kapitálu s dlhodobým zámerom jeho pôsobenia v hostiteľskej krajine vo forme priamych zahraničných investícií (PZI) dovili spoločnostiam využívať dodatočné prírodné zdroje, pracovnú silu, vytvárať produkt za nižšiu cenu ako v materskej krajine investora a získať prístup na nové trhy zabezpečujúce dopyt po vyrobených statkoch. Výsledkom je efektívnejšia a lacnejšia výroba prinášajúca vyšší zisk, resp. príjem spoločností. To následne vedie k rozvoju a rastu národnej ekonomiky. Prílev PZI sa spája najmä s pozitívnymi efektmi, ktoré pre hostiteľskú ekonomiku prináša. Nesmieme však zabudnúť aj na negatíva, ktorú sú spojené s prílevom kapitálu do ekonomiky. Nesporne ale môžeme tvrdiť, že rastúci prílev PZI do rozvojových a tranzitívnych krajín stimuloval ekonomický rast, nárast produkcie, rast zamestnanosti a exportu takýchto krajín. To znamená, že v prípade tranzitívnych ekonomík napomohli PZI k transformácii ekonomík zo systému centrálneho plánovania na trhové

hospodárstvo a pomáhajú krajinám dobiehať vyspelé ekonomiky. Samozrejme, cieľom investorov nie je pomáhať hostiteľskej ekonomike, ale na základe „egoistického“ cieľa dosahovania čo najvyšších ziskov prípadne tržieb tak pomáhajú hostiteľskej krajine v ekonomickom raste a v rozvoji národného hospodárstva. Transnacionálnu korporácia (TNK) môže mať viacero stimulov alebo podnetov na podnikanie v hostiteľskej krajine. Sumarizácia týchto stimulov je vyjadrená v Dunningovej OLI paradigme prostredníctvom troch výhod z podnikania v hostiteľskej krajine – výhoda vlastníctva, výhoda lokality a výhoda internalizácie (ownership, location and internalization advantages), (Dunning, 1988). Investície teda môžeme rozdeliť na tri základné typy podľa toho, akú vlastnosť sa investor snaží nájsť – investície hľadajúce efektívnosť, zdroje alebo trh (efficiency, resource or market seeking). Presnejšie vyjadrené, hlavnými faktormi motivujúcimi umiestniť investíciu v konkrétnej hostiteľskej krajine sú najmä nižšie nálady produkcie (napr. mzdové náklady), prírodné zdroje (napr. ropa, zemný plyn, železná ruda a pod.), kvalifikovaná pracovná sila a prístup na nové trhy zahrňujúc okrem samotnej hostiteľskej krajiny aj susedské krajiny kam má investor relatívne dostupný a lacný prístup. V mnohých prípadoch so vlády krajín uvedomujúc si tieto výhody ochotné podporiť akúkoľvek zahraničnú investíciu, aj za podmienky, že vytvára len nízku pridanú hodnotu a motiváciou investora bolo hľadanie efektívnosti výroby súvisiaceho s nízkymi nákladmi na výrobu, a to hlavne relatívne nízkymi nákladmi práce. Mnohokrát sa ale zabúda na skutočnosť, že takto realizované investície majú vysokú mieru volatility a dokážu pružne a rýchlo reagovať na zmeny v podnikateľskom prostredí hostiteľskej ekonomiky, rastúce náklady produkcie a mzdové náklady, rastúcu mieru zdanenia, ukončenie daňových prázdnin alebo na zmeny v daňovom systéme. Likvidácie pobočky zahraničnej spoločnosti, vybratie hodnoty investície alebo odchod investora z hostiteľskej krajiny a presun produkcie naspäť do krajiny pôvodu investície alebo inej hostiteľskej krajiny sa po globálnej finančnej kríze stalo čoraz bežnejšou praxou v jednotlivých ekonomikách. Tak deklarovaná stabilita PZI oproti iným typom investícií sa začala narúšať a stabilita pôsobenia dlhodobého kapitálu v hostiteľskej krajine je otázna presne tak ako v prípade portfóliových investícií. Postupne, ako sa rozvíjajúce a transformujúce krajiny stávajú vyspelejšie a bohatšie, náklady na produkciu a mzdy narastajú. Takto sa produkcia stáva menej efektívnou, resp. iným vyjadrením – drahšou. Podobne je to v prípade vyčerpania, resp. dočerpávania prírodných zdrojov, kde je ich ťažba čoraz náročnejšia a pri daných technológiách drahšia. V oboch prípadoch takáto situácia povedie k odchodu investora z krajiny, keďže sa výroba stáva nerentabilnou. Investor je náchylný opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu rovnako v prípade poklesu dopytu/záujmu o jeho produkciu. Pre rozvojové a tranzitívne ekonomiky platí, že prílev PZI je práve hľadajúci efektívnosť a nové trhy (efficiency and market seeking), teda motivovaný investovať v danej krajine alebo regióne z dôvodu relatívne nízkych nákladov na produkciu, ktorá sa exportuje do susedných krajín. Susedné krajiny hostiteľskej krajiny sú obvykle vyspelejšie ekonomiky, kde by boli náklady na produkciu vyššie a tak investor využije geografickú blízkosť týchto krajín. V prípade investície orientovanej na hľadanie nových odbytísk, ktoré sme popísali, nemôže hostiteľská krajina žiadnym spôsobom ovplyvniť rozhodnutie investora, nakoľko nevie ovplyvniť dopyt po produkcii na zahraničných trhoch. Rozhodnutie investora opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu a v mnohých prípadoch zanechať opustené nevyužité výrobné haly je zložitý problém súvisiaci so strategickými a dlhodobými plánmi TNK. Spoločnosť resp. investor musí komplexne zhodnotiť všetky faktory súvisiace s odchodom podnikania spoločnosti z hostiteľskej ekonomiky, porovnať výhody a nevýhody odchodu, ako aj výhody a nevýhody ponechania prevádzky v krajine a v neposlednom rade posúdiť a dopady takéhoto kroku na celú štruktúru TNK. Otázka, ktorá vystáva v súvislosti s dezivnestíciami je, aké faktory/determinanty motivujú alebo podnecujú rozhodnutie investora uskutočniť tento krok. Predpokladáme, že determinanty prílevu PZI sú zároveň faktormi odchodu investície

z krajiny. Jediným rozdielom je samozrejme opačný smerom pôsobenia. Avšak, konečné rozhodnutie investora záleží taktiež od mikroekonomických faktorov konkrétnej spoločnosti. Faktory, ktoré musí TNK komplexne posúdiť sú teda tak makroekonomické ako aj mikroekonomické. Príspevok sumarizuje teoretický pohľad na dezinvestície, zaoberá sa faktormi determinujúcimi rozhodnutie investora opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu a stručne poukazuje na vývoj dezinvestícií v rámci štatistiky prílevu PZI na vzorke krajín OECD.

2 PREHĽAD LITERATÚRY

Problematika prílevu zahraničných investícií je záujmom výskumu mnohých autorov. Oblasťou výskumu týchto autorov sú rôzne aspekty a pohľady na rozmanité otázky týkajúce sa prílevu PZI ako napr. analýza determinantov prílevu PZI, efekty PZI na hostiteľskú krajinu ako aj materskú krajinu investora (dopady na zamestnanosť, ekonomický rast, export a pod.), spill-over efekty zahraničných investícií a transfer technológií, poskytovanie investičných stimulov alebo podpora priemyselných parkov. Medzi najvýznamnejšie publikácie zaoberajúce sa problematikou PZI komplexne sú diela od autorov Lipsey (Lipsey, 2004), Borensztein, De Gregorio a Lee (Borensztein, De Gregorio & Lee, 1995) alebo Graham a Krugman (Graham & Krugman, 1989).

Napriek rozsiahlej analýze otázky PZI je oblasť dezinvestícií doposiaľ teoreticky spracovaná len sporadicky a doteraz nebola veľkým predmetom záujmu ekonómov. Dôvodom môže byť fakt, že s dezinvestíciami sa vo väčšej miere stretávame len od vypuknutia globálnej finančnej krízy na prelome rokov 2007 a 2008, kde došlo k prudkému nárastu bilaterálnych dezinvestícií (teda záporným tokom prílevu PZI) medzi krajinami ako aj k celkovým dezinvestíciám v hostiteľských krajinách. Práve táto skutočnosť je dôvodom, prečo je analýza dezinvestícií len v začiatkoch skúmania tak z teoretického ako aj empirického pohľadu. Navyše, takmer celá pozornosť analýzy dezinvestícií je venovaná manažérskemu, teda mikroekonomického aspektu realizácie dezinvestície alebo manažérskemu pohľadu na proces rozhodovania sa spoločnosti o zachovaní alebo premiestnení výroby z hostiteľskej krajiny. Ako príklad uvádzame autorov Hoskisson a Hitt (Hoskisson & Hitt, 1994) alebo Harrigan (Harrigan, 1981). Z makroekonomického pohľadu, Boddewyn (Boddewyn, 1983) a Chen a Wu (Chen & Wu, 1996) dospeli k záveru, že determinanty prílevu PZI sú taktiež determinanty dezinvestícií s ohľadom na opačný efekt ich pôsobenia. Za makroekonomické determinanty považujeme volatitilitu makroekonomických veličín, riziká a príležitosti súvisiace s technologickými zmenami, geopolitickou nestabilitou a správaním sa akcionárov a účastníkov trhu. Dezinvestícia predstavuje strategické rozhodnutie kombinujúce mikroekonomické ako ja makroekonomické faktory, inak vyjadrené, externé a interné faktory ovplyvňujúce podnikanie v hostiteľskej krajine. Rozhodnutie o dezinvestícií so sebou prináša viacero nákladov a je často nákladné. Investori prestanú vykonávať časť podnikateľských aktivít alebo opustia výrobné haly a iné nehnuteľnosti, ponechajú ich nevyužité a uzatvoria zahraničné pobočky v hostiteľských krajinách. Aktivity TNK sú presunuté do iných krajín alebo naspäť do krajiny pôvodu investora. Dôvodom môžu byť najmä rastúce náklady produkcie v hostiteľských krajinách alebo nájdenie lacnejšej produkcie v iných krajinách, zmeny v štruktúre hospodárstva, vyčerpanie prírodných zdrojov, klesajúci dopyt po produkcii alebo presun dopytu, resp. nový dopyt v iných vzdialenejších regiónoch alebo krajinách, alebo rozhodnutím manažérov/vlastníkov opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu z dôvodu mikroekonomických aspektov objavujúcich sa vo vnútri zahraničnej afilácie. Vo všeobecnosti tak môžeme konštatovať, že existujú dva typy faktorov motivujúcich dezinvestície – trhové faktory a podnikové faktory. Z mikroekonomického pohľadu je významným determinantom odchodu investície z krajiny nízka produktivita alebo výkonnosť podniku v hostiteľskej krajine (Montgomery & Thomas, 1998). Nemenej významným je ukazovateľ ziskovosti (Ravenscraft & Scherer, 2011). Platí, že čím je nižšia ziskovosť zahraničnej afilácie, tým je

vyššie riziko odchodu investície z krajiny. Ukazovateľ ziskovosti avšak vyjadruje, resp. je ovplyvnený mikroekonomickými a makroekonomickými zmenami súvisiacimi s podnikateľskou činnosťou zahraničnej pobočky. Inými slovami, zisk a tržby podniku len reflektujú zmeny niektorých z faktorov súvisiacimi s podnikaním. Na záver sa zameriame na článok od autorov Gómez-Plana a Latorre (Gómez-Plana & Latorre, 2013). Článok identifikuje tri typy dezinvestícií. Prvý, najviac viditeľný typ dezinvestície je uzatvorenie výrobných hál v hostiteľskej krajine a odchod investora z krajiny. Takýto prípade dezinvestície je extrémnym prípadom a je mnohokrát sprevádzaný prepúšťaním a poklesom miery zamestnanosti v regióne, dokonca krajine. Výsledkom je narastajúca nezamestnanosť a s ňou súvisiace zvýšené výdavky štátu. Ďalším typom dezinvestície je prebratie zahraničnej afilácie podnikom, ktorý má sídlo v hostiteľskej krajine. Zahraničný podnik (podnik so zahraničnou účasťou) sa tak začne považovať za domáci podnik (z pohľadu hostiteľskej krajiny) a produkcia pokračuje bez výraznejších zmien len so zmenou vlastníctva podniku. Posledným typom dezinvestícií, ktorý nie je navonok viditeľný a nespráva sa ako reálna dezinvestícia sú reverzné vnútropodnikové pôžičky (smerujúce od dcérskej spoločnosti v hostiteľskej krajine do materskej spoločnosti v krajine pôvodu investície) alebo splátky dlhu dcérskej spoločnosti svojej materskej korporácii. Takéto toky kapitálu vznikajú, ak dcérska spoločnosť poskytne pôžičku materskej firme alebo jej spláca záväzky z vnútropodnikových úverov, ktoré jej v minulosti materská spoločnosť poskytla. V oboch prípadoch smeruje tok kapitálu z hostiteľskej krajiny do krajiny pôvodu investora a spĺňa definíciu dezinvestície.

3 VÝVOJ DEZINVESTÍCIÍ V KRAJINÁCH OECD

Svetová ekonomika prežila v poslednom desaťročí turbulentné obdobie a čelila viacerým výzvam. Od roku 2001, teda po dot.com kríze globálne hospodárstvo rástlo a svetový HDP sa zvyšoval. Toto relatívne dlhé obdobie rastu bolo prerušené vypuknutím hypotekárnej krízy v USA, ktorá bola neskôr rozšírená takmer do celého sveta a spôsobila globálnu finančnú krízu. Navyše, európske krajiny čelili dlhovej kríze, v mnohých krajinách spojenou tiež s bankovou krízou. V súčasnosti sa krajiny nachádzajú v procese obnovovania národných ekonomík. Hospodárstvo krajín začalo opätovne narastať a niektoré krajiny dosiahli vyrovnaný, dokonca prebytkový štátny rozpočet. Napriek tomu krajiny okrem ekonomických problémov čelia aj výzvam a problémom v oblasti starnutia, migrácie, vzostupu nacionálnych strán – extrémnej pravice, alebo rastúcemu strachu občanov súvisiacemu s terorizmom. Fenomén dezinvestícií sa objavil spoločne s vypuknutím globálnej finančnej krízy. Dezinvestície existovali síce aj pred týmto obdobím, ale objem a počet dezinvestícií bol omnoho nižší. Po roku 2007 sa dezinvestície stali bežnou súčasťou ekonomického systému a doposiaľ predpokladaná výhody PZI ako stabilný zdroj kapitálu (v porovnaní s portfóliovými investíciami) začal byť spochybňovaný. Stále väčší počet investícií sa vracalo naspäť z hostiteľskej krajiny do materskej krajiny alebo bolo presunutých do inej hostiteľskej krajiny. Táto situácia otvorila otázku presunu kapitálu a faktorov, ktoré motivujú investorov presunúť investíciu do inej krajiny. Prehľad dezinvestícií je uvedený v Tabuľke 1. Tabuľka poukazuje na počet bilaterálnych tokov PZI pre krajiny OECD, kde je krajina OECD ponímaná ako prijímateľ investície, teda reportujúca krajina. Inými slovami, ide o toky PZI do krajín OECD, ktoré sú hostiteľskými krajinami investície z krajín celého sveta. Údaje potvrdili narastajúci trend počtu dezinvestícií, ale tiež prudký nárast bilaterálnej spolupráce medzi krajinami vo forme kapitálových tokov. Počet pozorovaní o tokoch PZI v roku 2016 je viac ako 7 krát vyšší ako v roku 2006. Analyzované roky 2006, 2011 a 2016 zahŕňajú turbulentné makroekonomické prostredie. Rok 2006 reprezentuje nárast výkonnosti ekonomík pred vypuknutím globálnej finančnej krízy, kde je tento rok vrcholom ekonomického rastu predošlého obdobia. Rok 2011 vyjadruje globálnu finančnú krízu, dlhovú krízu a bankovú krízu. Posledný rok 2016 symbolizuje obdobie obnovy národných ekonomík a súčasné

pokrízové obdobie. Aby sme si vedeli predstaviť údaje o počte dezinvestícií, tieto predstavovali 9% celkových bilaterálnych tokov PZI a 12% celkových nenulových pozorovaní tokov PZI v roku 2006, 10% a 11% v roku 2011, a 12% a 15% pozorovaní v roku 2016.

Tabuľka 1: Počet bilaterálnych prílevov PZI do krajín OECD

Rok	Počet bilaterálnych prílevov PZI - pozitívny tok (bez ohľadu na reportujúcu krajinu)	Počet bilaterálnych dezinvestícií (negatívny tok, bez ohľadu na reportujúcu krajinu)	Počet nulových / nedostupných pozorovaní	Celkový počet pozitívnych a negatívnych pozorovaní (pozitívny toky PZI + dezinvestície)	Celkový počet pozorovaní
2006	673	88	182	761	943
2011	1930	250	407	2180	2587
2016	4632	789	1404	5421	6825

Zdroj: OECDStat

Ďalším indikátorom vývoja prílevu PZI je objem bilaterálneho prílevu PZI (pozitívny ako aj negatívny tok prílevu PZI). Tabuľka 2 vyjadruje objem pozitívnych tokov prílevu PZI ako aj objem dezinvestícií. Údaje opätovne potvrdili rastúci trend prílevu PZI do krajín OECD s tokom bilaterálnych pozitívnych PZI v roku 2016 vyšším oproti roku 2006 takmer 15 násobne. V prípade, ak berieme do úvahy len dezinvestície, tento pomer je ešte väčší s hodnotou vyššou ako 26. To znamená, že v roku 2016 sme pozorovali 26 krát viac dezinvestícií ako v roku 2006. Ak berieme do úvahy absolútnu hodnotu dezinvestícií, dezinvestície predstavujú 16% pozitívnych prílevov PZI v roku 2006, 13% v roku 2011 a 30% v roku 2016. Je zrejmé, že pomer negatívnych k pozitívnym prílevom PZI sa zvýšil v období uzdravovania sa ekonomík v porovnaní s predkrízovým a krízovým obdobím.

Tabuľka 2: Objem bilaterálnych prílevov PZI do krajín OECD (mil. USD)

Rok	Objem bilaterálnych prílevov PZI – pozitívny tok (bez ohľadu na reportujúcu krajinu)	Počet bilaterálnych dezinvestícií (negatívny tok, bez ohľadu na reportujúcu krajinu)
2006	99 902,63	16 149,34
2011	519 230,39	67 057,09
2016	1 449 444,58	420 220,09

Zdroj: OECDStat

4 FAKTORY DEZINVESTÍCIÍ

Súčasný stav rozpracovanosti problematiky dezinvestícií a súčasný výskum v danej oblasti nedáva odpovede a komplexne neanalyzuje determinanty, resp. faktory dezinvestícií a re-alokáciu investícií z hostiteľskej krajiny. Z prehľadu literatúry ale môžeme zosumarizovať hlavné faktory, ktoré motivujú investorov opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu. Ako prvé uvádzame makroekonomické indikátory, ktorými sú napr. reálny HDP, miera nezamestnanosti resp. zamestnanosť, inflácia a saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie. Ďalšie významné faktory sú ekonomická a politická stabilita, ako aj kvalita podnikateľského prostredia. Indikátory reprezentujúce tieto faktory sú hlavne index vymožiteľnosti práva, index korupcie, index vnímania korupcie a index konkurencieschopnosti. Všetky uvedené indikátory sú veľmi podobné tým, ktoré sú zahrnuté v ukazovateli Doing Business ale pri analýze dezinvestícií je

vhodné ich používať samostatne a nie v agregátnej podobe jedného spoločného indexu. Iné ukazovatele, ktoré môžu byť z pohľadu zahraničného investora dôležité sú daň z príjmu právnických osôb a daňový systém hostiteľskej krajiny, priemerná a minimálna mzda, politická stabilita, a rešpektovanie ľudských práv, resp. absencia/nárast/vznik násilia, protestov a vzbúr v hostiteľskej krajine. Z takto uvedených faktorov je zrejmé, že faktory ovplyvňujúce investora alokovať investíciu v konkrétnej hostiteľskej krajine sú zároveň faktormi determinujúce dezinvestície a presun investície do inej krajiny. Pozitívny vývoj týchto faktorov motivuje investorov vstúpiť a realizovať podnikateľskú činnosť v hostiteľskej krajine. Naopak, negatívny vývoj faktorov alebo ich zhoršovanie vedie k zrušeniu alebo obmedzeniu podnikania, dokonca až k presunu celej investície. Nadovšetko, stimul na presun investície z hostiteľskej krajiny predstavujú aj mikroekonomické faktory podnikateľskej aktivity v konkrétnej pobočke/prevádzke zahraničnej spoločnosti. Domnievame sa, že práve v prípade dezinvestícií sú mikroekonomické faktory oveľa dôležitejšie ako makroekonomické faktory. Tie sú naopak dôležitejšie pri príleve PZI do hostiteľskej krajiny. Analýza mikroekonomických faktorov ovplyvňujúcich rozhodovanie sa o ponechaní alebo odchode investície z krajiny je nesmerne náročná a vyžaduje prístup k mikroekonomickým údajom firiem so zahraničnou účasťou. Tieto sú však v mnohých prípadoch chránené obchodným tajomstvom a uvedené v nedostupných dokumentoch spoločností. Na presnú analýzu mikroekonomických faktorov dezinvestícií budeme teda do budúcnosti potrebovať najmä prieskumy a dotazníky medzi investormi, ktorí sa rozhodli svoju investíciu a podnikateľskú činnosť ponechať v hostiteľskej krajine ako medzi tými, ktorí svoju investíciu presunuli do inej krajiny.

5 ZÁVER

Priame zahraničné investície boli považované za stabilný zdroj kapitálu vytvárajúci viaceré pozitívne spill-over efekty v hostiteľskej ekonomike. Súčasný vývoj však poukazuje na to, že PZI relatívne rýchlo reagujú na podmienky v hostiteľskej krajine a investor relatívne pružne dokáže opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu a presunúť investíciu do inej hostiteľskej krajiny alebo vrátiť podnikateľskú aktivitu späť do krajiny pôvodu investície. Dezinvestície sa tak stali súčasťou hospodárskeho života a oblasťou, ktorej musia jednotlivé krajiny čeliť. Súčasná literatúra venujúca sa dezinvestíciám je nedostatočná, vo väčšine prípadov orientovaná na konkrétnu oblasť dezinvestícií. Komplexná analýza faktorov, ktoré determinujú investorov presunúť investíciu do inej krajiny stále chýba. Hlavným dôvodom je zložitosť vzťahov medzi týmito faktormi a samotným rozhodnutím, ale najmä mikroekonomický základ, resp. pozadie presunu investície do inej krajiny. Vývoj dezinvestícií poukázal na narastajúci počet a objem dezinvestícií v krajinách OECD, pričom pomer negatívnych (dezinvestície) k pozitívnym prílevom PZI taktiež narastá. Faktory, ktoré motivujú investorov opustiť hostiteľskú krajinu sú prakticky tie isté determinanty, ktoré motivujú ich prílev do krajiny. Jediným rozdielom je len vyššia dôležitosť mikroekonomických faktorov spojených s podnikateľskou činnosťou akými sú daň z príjmu právnických osôb, index korupcie, vymožiteľnosť práva alebo index konkurencieschopnosti. Príspevok predstavuje vstup do analýzy dezinvestícií v krajinách OECD vystupujúcich ako hostiteľské/reportujúce krajiny prílevu PZI a teda aj ako potenciálne krajiny so vznikom dezinvestícií. Pokračovaním príspevku by mala byť analýza údajov a hľadanie relevantných determinantov, ktoré motivujú investorov presunúť resp. re-alokovať investíciu do inej hostiteľskej krajiny. Motiváciou je, že mnoho otázok v oblasti dezinvestícií stále nie je zodpovedaných a je potrebné problematiku dezinvestícií kvôli záujmu výskumu a realizácii hospodárskej politiky riešiť na úrovni jednotlivých národných hospodárstiev ako aj integračných zoskupení.

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BANKING UNION – PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

Marcel Novák

Abstract

The paper focuses on the origins of the creation of the banking union, the processes related to its origins, the formation as well as the acute situation in the studied issue. The author approaches the historical overview of the major events that led to the establishment of a banking union in the EU. In the closing part, the contribution will focus on subjective assessment of the organization and functioning of the Bank Union. Using the SWOT analysis, it will evaluate the benefits and disadvantages of the Bank Union. The results of the work show that for the complete introduction of the banking union it is necessary to complete the work on the 3rd Pillar as well as to ensure the specificity of the banking systems called "Host countries" to be taken into account in the implementation and construction of the 3rd Pillar.

Keywords: *banking union, single supervisory mechanism, single resolution mechanism, European deposit insurance scheme*

1 INTRODUCTION

Over the last years, the European Union (EU) has decided to respond to the economic and financial crisis. Significant improvements have been made in the Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) and an extensive agenda for financial reforms has been implemented to meet the commitments made in response to the financial crisis so that financial institutions and markets are more stable and competitive and more resilient.

The completion of all reforms of the EU regulatory framework was and is necessary but not sufficient to successfully address the major threats to financial stability in the entire Economic and Monetary Union. Further steps were needed to address the specific risks within the euro area, which would prevent, despite close economic and financial integration, the overflow of side effects in the event of a bank crisis and would disrupt the sovereign debt and bank debt, thus preventing re-entry into a vicious circle past has led to the necessary intervention in the form of rescue of EU banks for more than 4.5 trillion euros. The financial crisis has unequivocally demonstrated that simple coordination is insufficient, especially in the context of a single currency, and that joint decision-making and better coordination at Union level is needed. It was important to limit the growing risk of fragmentation of the EU banking markets, which greatly undermined the single market in financial services and disrupted the effective transmission of monetary policy to the real economy throughout the euro area. That is why the Commission has called for the establishment of a banking union [5] in order to heal the banking sector and restore confidence in the euro as part of a long-term vision of economic and fiscal integration.

Banking supervision at European level has become a key part of this process, which was then combined with other steps, such as the Joint Deposit Guarantee Scheme and Integrated Crisis Management of Banks. This vision was clearly endorsed by the Presidents of the European Council, the Commission, the Eurogroup and the European Central Bank (ECB) of 26 June 2012 [4] and the European Parliament in its July 2010 report on cross-border crisis management in the banking sector recommended steps in the same direction.

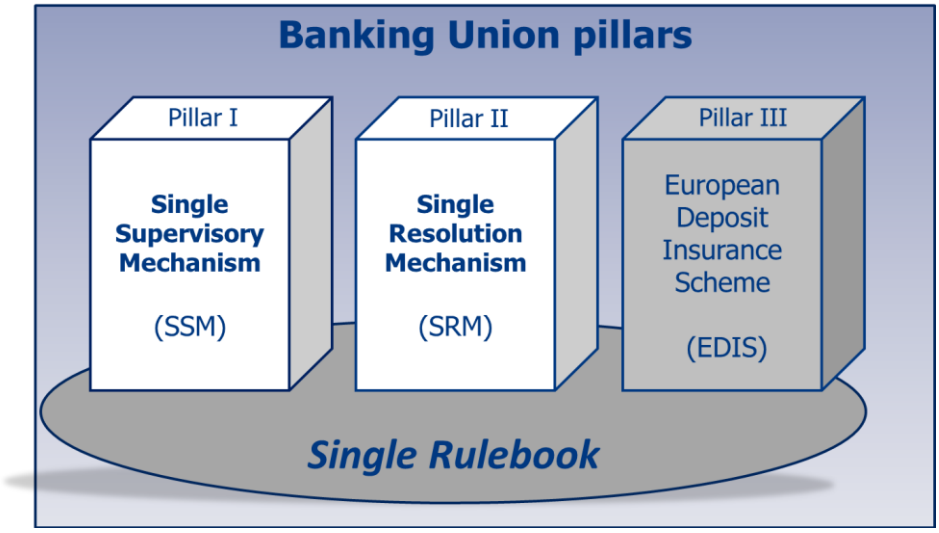
The aim of the Bank Union is to break the negative feedback between banking systems and public budgets that arose between 2010 and 2012 when the public-sector crisis contributed to

a reduction in the rating of rescuing countries, which subsequently made it difficult for banks to access finance from these countries. The means to achieve this was to create independent centralized oversight for the euro area and a number of tools to address the crisis situation without the use of public resources, the use of which was entrusted to a newly created resolution body in the euro area coordinated by the SRB.

The European Union's Banking Union is based on three pillars: a single supervisory mechanism, a single resolution mechanism for resolving crisis situations, and a european deposit insurance scheme.

2 PILLARS OF BANKING UNION

Figure 1 –Banking Union pillars



Source: www.nbs.sk

2.1 Single supervisory mechanism

The Single Supervision Mechanism (SSM) consists of the European Central Bank and the national central banks of euro area countries. The SSM officially became operational in November 2014, when the ECB took over the banks in the euro area. The introduction of a single surveillance mechanism can be seen as a further step towards even greater European harmonization. The main objective of SSM is to ensure prudential supervision of all banks and other credit institutions in the Member States. Ensures the implementation of EU policy on bank supervision in a consistent, efficient and high-quality manner.
The main objectives of the single supervisory mechanism are:

- guaranteeing the health and safety of the banking system in the EU,
- Increase financial integration and stability,
- Ensure continuous supervision.

Regulation ECB / 2014/17 of 16 April 2006 on the framework for cooperation under the single supervisory mechanism between the ECB and the relevant national banks, together with the Single Supervisory Mechanisms Regulation, defines the basic legal framework for the procedures and tasks of the single supervisory mechanism. According to these rules, the ECB is obliged to act with regard to the unity and integrity of the common market in order to avoid regulatory arbitrage, ie on the basis of equivalent treatment of banks. SSM is constantly

striving to maintain consistency and highest standards of supervision. In doing so, it is based on the principles of the Banking Supervision of the Basel Committee and the rules laid down by the European Banking Authority (EBA).

A single survisory mechanism is responsible for about 4,700 supervised entities in the member countries. In order for the supervision to be carried out effectively, the individual tasks and the responsibility for supervision are divided according to the significance of the subjects subject to supervision. In order to make clear which credit institutions are significant, SSM performs regular assessments using materiality criteria. The total asset value, the significance of the credit institution established in that country, shall be assessed. For the institution to be classified as significant, one of the following conditions shall be considered:

- "if the total value of the institution's assets exceeds 30 billion €. Or (if the total value of its assets is not less than EUR 5 billion €) and exceeds 20% of national GDP;
- where it is one of the three most important credit institutions domiciled in that Member State;
- if he is the beneficiary of direct assistance from the European Stability Mechanism;
- if the total value of its assets exceeds 5 billion €; And the ratio of its cross-border assets / liabilities in more than one other participating Member State to its total assets / liabilities exceeds 20%. "[3]

Based on the distribution of banks, respectively. groups of banks, the ECB, with the assistance of the national central banks, exercises direct supervision over all these institutions. There are approximately 1 200 subjects. National central banks, respectively. but national supervisors continue to supervise even the less important institutions, which are around 3 500.

2.2 Single resolution mechanism

The establishment of an effective mechanism to deal with crisis situations was an indispensable tool to avoid the risk and damage caused by the failure of banks and financial institutions. For this reason, the European Parliament also approved a directive laying down the rules for the rehabilitation and resolution of banks' crisis situations (BRRD) [2], followed by 15.7.2014 a regulation setting out uniform rules and a common procedure for dealing with crisis situations of banks and financial institutions and a single crisis management bank situations (SRM - Single Resolution Mechanism). [7] Since January 1, 2015, the Single Resolution Board (SRB) has taken on crisis resolution planning (6 permanent members), and then a year since 1 January 2016 took over the crisis management solution. Within the framework of a single resolution mechanism, the Single Resolution Board was established as a centralized power to resolve the crisis situation. In carrying out its work, this Council is working closely with national crisis resolution bodies to ensure that effective decisions are taken within the Union to implement solutions to possible bank failures. The SRB is based in Brussels and its main objective is to prevent the crisis situations of selected institutions and groups in the financial sector and to effectively address the crisis situation with a view to preserving financial stability and safeguarding the assets of the clients of the institution and the group. The SRB acts in a neutral manner and its role is to ensure that national financial stability, the financial stability of the EU and the internal single market are taken into account. The Council draws up and approves, in coordination with the national crisis management authorities, a solution plan that takes into account significant failure scenarios, either at a time of financial instability or when the whole system is hit. Crisis plans do not deal with any extraordinary public financial support (with the exception of single fund support), respectively. with the emergency assistance of the central bank to secure, respectively. increasing liquidity. The Council reminds the recovery plans drawn up by the banking

institutions or, groups, shall assess the feasibility of the crisis situation of these institutions. In addition, the Council sets the Minimum Requirements for Own Funds and Eligible Liabilities (MREL) Significant banks and banks that are part of cross-border groups with more than two subsidiaries in the euro area are subject to SRB which, through internal (IRT) is working with national authorities - National Resolution Boards. Less important banks are within the competence of the national resolution board, the Nationl SRB, was created on 1.1.2015 and currently has 10 members and its performance is professionally and organizationally provided by the NBS. Main objectives of II. the pillar of the Banking Union clearly remains the central application of the bank crisis resolution rules set out in the BRRD Directive; strengthening the single market in banking and preserving uniform conditions; focusing on financial stability and boosting confidence in the banking system and, last but not least, minimizing adverse effects in the event of a major bank crash as well as reducing moral hazard (minimizing the need for bail-out).

2.3 European deposit and insurance scheme

Another pillar of the EU Banking Union is the European Deposit Insurance Scheme (EDIS), whose role is to improve EU rules on deposit protection in the event of bank failure. The draft regulation establishing the EDIS is based on the five Presidents' report of 22 June 2015, according to which EDIS should address the problems of national Deposit Guarantee Schemes (DGSs), notably the lack of resilience to local economic shocks. It unifies the protection of depositors throughout the European Union, the main mission being to prevent a "run" on banks, massive collection of deposits in the event of a bank failure, through the protection of depositors against the consequences of bank insolvency. 24 November The European Commission published a draft EDIS regulation through an amendment to the SRM Regulation with effect from 2017, which eventually proved to be unrealistic. Early in 2016, a working group was set up in which all EU Member States are represented, regardless of whether or not they want to participate in preparations for the 3rd pillar of the CA. At present, Member States' views differ on the scope of the proposal for a regulation for the need to establish an international agreement, the regulation of government debt exposures, the various insurance phases and the basic principles of the European Deposit Guarantee Fund (DIF). According to information from the NBS, the Nordic Member States and southern Member States that prefer rapid progress on EDIS differ.

The proposal foresees the introduction of EDIS in three successive phases, which will subsequently provide the DGSs with the Deposit Guarantee Fund (DIF) to be managed by the Single Resolution Boardl (SRB).

Proposed EDIS phases:

- the reinsurance phase (reinsurance, from 2017-2020), initially the coverage will be limited; provision of 20% coverage of EDIS financial deposits (the remaining 80% will be funded under national Deposit Guarantee Schemes);
- the co-insurance phase (co-insurance, from 2020 to 2020), the coverage ratio of financial deposits will increase by 20% each year up to 80% of the coverage of financial deposits in 2024;
- a full insurance phase (full insurance, from 2024), providing 100% coverage of EDIS financial deposits. [6]

The Deposit Guarantee Scheme Directive introduces the following changes:

- the deadline for the payment of the depositor will be gradually reduced, up to 7 days at the latest by 2024;

- The information should be provided to the depositor in a clear and timely manner, which will improve his / her awareness
- application of ex ante funding schemes, which will be set at 0,8% of covered deposits by 2025. [1]

The Directive requires Member States to ensure a coverage level for the depositor's deposits at the level of EUR 100 000 in the event of unavailability of deposits. This limit will apply to all deposits with a bank institution, not dealing with the number of deposits, the currency and the place of deposit within the Union. Banks and credit institutions are required to become members of the Deposit Guarantee Scheme and pay membership fees. The amount of contributions is determined on the basis of their risk rating and other factors. EDIS collects these contributions and creates a fund to be used to pay depositors in case of bank failure and unavailability of its deposits. The Directive furthermore mandates Member States to carry out stress tests in EDIS to check the functionality and compliance of the obligations of all participating country systems and to demonstrate reliable and transparent management and management practices for these systems.

The Deposit Guarantee Scheme Directive also regulates the deadline for the depositor to pay out, so that from the middle of 2015 the depositor should be paid up to 20 business days in case of unavailability of his deposits. By 2024, the payout period for depositors will be shortened gradually, up to 7 business days.

The unprecedented increase in coverage within the European Union during the financial crisis has led some depositors to transfer their money to banks in member countries that have guaranteed higher deposit protection, thereby reducing the liquidity of banks. It is possible that, in the event of a non-uniform procedure, depositors instead of a matching deposit product would decide on a higher deposit protection, which could distort competition in the internal market. It was therefore necessary, through a uniform Deposit Guarantee Scheme, to harmonize all Deposit Guarantee Schemes in the EU Member States so as to ensure uniform and transparent protection for all depositors.

2.4 Historical Overview of the major Events of the EU banking union

Table 1 – Timeframe for creating a bank union in the EU.

26. june 2012	European leaders have asked the European Commission at the European Council summit to propose a single banking supervision mechanism.
12. september 2012	Commission President José Manuel Barroso proposed the system in his speech on the state of the Union.
18.–19. october 2012	Autumn European Council summit.
year 2013	Implementation of the system
13. december 2012	Ministers of Finance adopted an opinion on single banking supervision.
13. – 14. december 2012	European leaders have agreed on the Single Banking Agreement, supported the continuation of further pillars of the Bank Union
19. march 2013	Reaching agreement on single banking supervision after trialogue negotiations.
20. may 2013	The European Parliament's Committee on Economic and Monetary Affairs has adopted a negotiating position on the framework for the recovery and resolution of banks in crisis.
26. june 2013	Ministers of Finance approved a directive on crisis management in the banking sector.

10. july 2013	The European Commission has put forward a proposal for a mechanism for resolving crisis situations.
12. september 2013	The European Parliament has approved a unified banking supervision mechanism.
15. october 2013	Ministers of Finance gave final approval to single banking supervision.
16. december 2013	The first head of banking supervision within the ECB was Danièle Nouy for five years.
18. december 2013	Ministers of Finance have reached a compromise on the resolution mechanism.
15. april 2014	Parliament has agreed a resolution mechanism
21. may 2014	26 Member States signed an Intergovernmental Agreement on Contributions to the Resolution Mechanism Fund, which is an essential part of the Mechanism itself.
4. november 2014	The ECB has taken over the banks of the Member States that are participating in the Banking Union.

Source: authors´ research based on materials from ECB, NBS. EC.

3 SUBJECTIVE ASSESSMENT OF BANK UNION BENEFITS

3.1 Benefits of bank union

The first pillar

- setting up joint supervisory teams,
- better understanding of the situation in the entire banking group, more complex perception of the local bank in the banking group, coordination and harmonization of procedures, supervisory and planning activities within the consolidated group,
- regular annual rating of banks, Supervisory review and evaluation process - the result of establishing a minimum capital and liquidity requirement, the harmonization of joint decisions on the capital and liquidity of the bank,
- Unified evaluation processes greatly help to better understand the bank's risk profile, coordinate local activities with group-level activities.

The second pillar

- Establishment of internal resolution teams coordinated by SRB,
- Creating crisis resolution plans for each banking group - Determine the Minimum Requirement for Own Resources and Mandatory Obligations (MREL),
- Harmonizing the methodology for preparing plans and linking crisis resolution tools to the national legal environment - business and bankruptcy law,
- in the case of Slovak banks, the ability to absorb losses due to excellent capital assets - the key cooperation between the SRB and the national resolution bodies.

The Third Pillar

- Harmonization of the common rules for Deposit Guarantee Scheme in the event of failure of the first pillar of the CA, harmonization of bankruptcy law, completion of transposition of the BRDD Directive and DGSs,
- concluding an intergovernmental agreement on the transfer and mutualisation of contributions to SRF by all participating States,Coordination of activities and processes that help to increase financial stability in the context of introducing additional regulatory measures - Harmonizing some aspects of MREL and TLAC - Total Loss Absorbing Capacity.

3.1 SWOT analysis of bank union

Strengths

Establishment of joint supervisory teams, coordination and harmonization of procedures, regular annual evaluation of banks, harmonization of joint decisions on bank capital and liquidity, establishment of internal resolution teams, harmonization of the planning methodology, preparation of crisis plans for each banking group, cooperation of SRB and national harmonizing the common rules of the Deposit Guarantee Scheme, harmonizing bankruptcy law, aligning some aspects of MREL and TLAC, increasing the overall stability of financial systems and stabilizing the European financial sector.

Weaknesses

Complex (decision-making) mechanisms (proposal at the level of the national supervisor, decision at the level of the ECB's non-objection procedure), the need to harmonize national legislation, especially with regard to the CRR / CRD national elections in accordance with national legislation, a variety of cultures, supervisory arrangements and supervisory practices in 19 countries, language - working language in SSM and SRM is English, working language at local level is local (internal regulations of banks, contracts with clients, business conditions, etc. are mostly in Slovak),

Opportunities

working in joint supervisory and research teams is of interest to young people, increasing the efficiency of the ECB's monetary policy performance, preventing bank and financial crises, managing bail out of the banking group, protecting deposits across the eurozone and the EU, harmonizing differences in national legislations, monitoring and resolving crisis situations, the opportunity to transpose the BRDD Directive, changes to the CRD and CRD Directives, effective macro-prudential policy performance to enhance the stability of the financial sector, aligning some aspects of MREL and TLAC, completing the real essence of Economic and Monetary Union.

Threats

the area of regulation remains relatively heterogeneous within the euro area, the divergence of regulations and directives in national legislation - late transposition into national legislation reduces efficiency and increases costs, complete work on 3 pillars - ensure the specificity of banking systems so- The "host countries" that need to be taken into account in the implementation and construction of the 3rd pillar, the need for the completion of the Union's Capital Market Union (CMU), the need to increase the EU's bottom-up competitiveness by identifying and removing barriers, improving the regulation of crowdfunding, removing the national barriers to the free movement of capital, the need to thoroughly transpose the Prevention of Money Laundering and Terrorist Financing (AML IV).

4 CONCLUSION

The Financial crisis in 2008 and then the debt crisis have shown that the creation of a banking union in the European Union is a necessity. A close link between public finance and the banking sector in the countries of the European Union can very easily cause problems across borders across the country in the turbulent period and thus further spread financial difficulties.

The Common Market for Financial Services is based on uniform rules ensuring equivalent rules and proper oversight of banks and other financial institutions that exercise the right to freedom of establishment and freedom to provide services throughout the EU. The completion

of the banking union does not jeopardize the integrity and compactness of the single market but is the completion of the ongoing program of a major regulatory reform of the single market, single set of rules. The European Union's Banking Union is based on three pillars: a unified supervisory mechanism, a uniform mechanism for resolving crisis situations, and a unified deposit protection scheme.

Through its unified supervision, the Bank Union creates a contrasting contrast to stability in the banking system. Where the bank is looking for returns, supervision looks at the risks; where banking is a major gain for banking institutions, supervision ensures stability. Harmonization of surveillance has ensured transnational coverage, which makes it easy and timely to observe the risk of infection and to be able to cope with it and prevent its re-expansion. The aim is to prevent banks from taking too much risk, thus protecting not only the economy as a whole, but also investors, taxpayers and consumers. The independence of single banking supervision from partial national well-being ensures uncompromising and objective-making for all banking institutions in the euro area and thus creates real, uniform, harmonized ratios for the benefit of the whole economy.

There are a lot of problems in introducing new systemic changes in the financial sector, but that is precisely why the idea of creating a bank union in the EU is essentially the completion of the economic substance of the EU project, the real economic and monetary union.

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AUDIT POLITICKÝCH STRAN A POLITICKÝCH HNUTÍ V PODMÍNKÁCH ČESKÉ REPUBLIKY[1]

AUDIT OF POLITICAL PARTIES AND POLITICAL MOVEMENTS IN THE CONDITIONS OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Marek Jošt

Abstrakt

České politické strany a politická hnutí mají povinnost ověřit svou roční účetní závěrku auditorem. Pro tyto účely využívají spíše služeb ostatních auditorských společností nepatřících do skupiny tzv. velké čtyřky a auditorů osob samostatně výdělečně činných. Všem politickým stranám a hnutím byl ve zprávě auditora k účetní závěrce za rok 2017 udělen výrok bez výhrad, čímž splnily zákonnou povinnost. Část politických stran a hnutí vykazuje zápornou výši vlastních zdrojů, což může narušit účetní předpoklad „going concern", avšak auditoři na tuto skutečnost ve svých zprávách mnohdy nereagují. V přílohách k účetní závěrce velmi často chybí informace o odměně přijaté auditorem za provedený audit. Problematická se zdá být příloha k účetní závěrce jako taková, jelikož mnohdy nesplňuje zákonné požadavky.

Klíčová slova: *audit, politické hnutí, politická strana*

Abstract

Czech political parties and political movements are obligated to verify their financial statements by the auditor. For these purposes they use the services of other audit firms, which do not belong to the so-called Big Four group, and also of self-employed auditors. All political parties and political movements have been given unqualified opinion in the auditor´s report to financial statements for the year 2017 to fulfill the legal obligation. Some political parties and political movements present a negative amount of own resources, which may affect going concern assumption. However, the auditors often do not mention this fact in their reports. There is often no disclosure information about the remuneration received by the auditor for the audit in the notes to the financial statements. The notes to the financial statements very often do not fulfill the legal requirements.

Key words: *audit, political movement, political party*

1 ÚVOD

Politické strany a politická hnutí se spolu s dalšími subjekty řadí mezi nestátní neziskové organizace, které vyhovují definici neziskovosti podle Salamona a Anheiera (1992), tj. měly by splňovat tato kritéria: formálnost, soukromý charakter, nerozdělování zisku pro potřeby zakladatelů, samostatné řízení a dobrovolnost.

Pro každý typ neziskové organizace platí zvláštní podmínky pro povinnost ověření účetní závěrky (popř. výroční zprávy) nezávislým auditorem. Například nadace mají povinnost ověření účetní závěrky auditorem, pokud nadační kapitál nebo obrat nadace dosáhl za

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uplynulé účetní období částky 5 mil. Kč (§ 341 z. č. 89/2012 Sb., občanský zákoník). U těchto neziskových organizací došlo k uvolnění legislativních požadavků přijetím nového občanského zákoníku č. 89/2012 Sb., a to s účinností od 1. 1. 2014. Před jeho účinností se povinnost auditu vztahovala automaticky na všechny nadace podle dnes již neexistujícího zákona o nadacích a nadačních fondech č. 227/1997 Sb.

Ústav má povinnost nechat ověřit účetní závěrku auditorem tehdy, pokud mu to ukládá zakladatelské právní jednání nebo statut, anebo pokud výše čistého obratu ústavu překročí 10 mil. Kč. V takovém případě podléhá ověření auditorem rovněž výroční zpráva (§ 415 nového občanského zákoníku).

Účetní závěrka obecně prospěšné společnosti podléhá ověření auditorem podle § 19 zákona č. 248/1995 Sb., o obecně prospěšných společnostech a o změně a doplnění některých zákonů, tehdy, je-li příjemcem dotací nebo jiných příjmů ze státního rozpočtu, z rozpočtu obce, případně z rozpočtu jiného územního orgánu nebo od státního fondu, jejichž celkový objem přesáhne v roce, za nějž je účetní závěrka sestavována, jeden milion korun, nebo výše čistého obratu překročila deset milionů korun.

Církvím a náboženským společnostem nařizuje ověření účetní závěrky auditorem zákon č. 3/2002 Sb., o svobodě náboženského vyznání a postavení církví a náboženských společností a o změně některých zákonů (zákon o církvích a náboženských společnostech ve znění pozdějších předpisů) v § 16a, pokud výše čistého obratu účelových zařízení překročí 10 mil. Kč (Pelikánová, 2016).

Za zmínku stojí také veřejné výzkumné instituce upravené zákonem č. 341/2005 Sb., o veřejných výzkumných institucích, jenž v § 29 odst. 4 ukládá povinnost auditu účetní závěrky všem těmto institucím.

Stejně tak politické strany a politická hnutí musí každoročně nechat ověřit účetní závěrku auditorem podle § 19h zákona č. 424/1991 Sb., o sdružování v politických stranách a v politických hnutích, která je součástí výroční finanční zprávy, jíž musí předložit vždy do 1. dubna Úřadu pro dohled nad hospodařením politických stran a politických hnutí (dále také „Úřad“) poprvé za rok 2017 (dříve se výroční finanční zpráva předkládala Poslanecké sněmovně – ta kontrolovala pouze formální úplnost výročních zpráv, z nichž se mnohdy nedalo zjistit, zda byly výdaje stran či hnutí, například na volební kampaně, skutečně zaneseny do účetnictví; Lérová, 2015). Výroční finanční zprávy následně Úřad podrobněji prověří, případně vyzve strany a hnutí k nápravě zjištěných nedostatků a nakonec je zveřejní na svých webových stránkách.

Některým neziskovým organizacím může povinnost auditu účetní závěrky a výroční zprávy vzniknout na základě zákona o účetnictví č. 563/1991 Sb., v platném znění, pokud za dvě po sobě jdoucí účetní období překročí dvě z následujících kritérií: aktiva netto vyšší než 40 mil. Kč, roční úhrn čistého obratu vyšší než 80 mil. Kč a průměrný počet zaměstnanců vyšší než 50. Mezi takové subjekty mohou patřit větší nadační fondy, spolky aj.

Právní úprava politických stran a politických hnutí je výjimečná tím, že navíc dlouhá léta požaduje, aby zpráva auditora obsahovala výrok bez výhrad – dříve výrok bez závad (§ 19h odst. 1 písm. b). To u žádné jiné neziskové organizace příslušná legislativa nepožaduje.
U žádné jiné neziskové organizace není stanoven požadavek na maximální dobu, po kterou může tentýž auditor ověřovat její účetní závěrku. V současné době je lhůta stanovena pro

politické strany a politická hnutí nejvýše po dobu pěti po sobě jdoucích kalendářních let a začíná se počítat od 1. ledna 2017. Požadavek se vztahuje také na obchodní korporace založené stranou nebo hnutím nebo obchodní korporace, na níž se strana nebo hnutí účastní jako společník nebo člen. Jejich účetní závěrky musí být také ověřeny auditorem, který může provádět audit maximálně pět po sobě jdoucích kalendářních let. Poté musí nejvyšší orgán určit jiného auditora.

Stejně tak jako tomu je v případě jiných účetních jednotek, smí statutární orgán politické strany nebo politického hnutí uzavřít smlouvu o provedení auditu pouze s auditorem určeným nejvyšším orgánem. K tomu zákon o auditorech č. 93/2009 Sb. dodává, že pokud účetní jednotka takový orgán nemá, určí auditora kontrolní orgán za podmínky, že jeho členové nejsou členy řídicího orgánu. Zákon o politických stranách a politických hnutích nevyjmenovává orgány, které povinně tyto organizace zřizují, to ponechává na nich samotných, pouze v § 6 odst. 2 písm. b) hovoří o stanovách jako o povinném dokumentu tvořícího přílohu návrhu na registraci strany nebo hnutí a předkládaného Ministerstvu vnitra. Součástí stanov je výčet ustavených orgánů vč. orgánů statutárních, rozhodčích a revizních vč. způsobu jejich ustavování a vymezení oprávnění. Ve stanovách nesmí chybět způsob, jakým statutární orgány jednají a podepisují a také to, zda a v jakém rozsahu mohou činit právní jednání jménem strany a hnutí i jiní členové či pracovníci. Organizační struktura bývá u velkých politických stran a hnutí členěna do čtyř úrovní: místní úroveň, oblastní úroveň, regionální (krajská) úroveň a celostátní úroveň. Nevyššími orgány stran a hnutí zastoupených aktuálně v Poslanecké sněmovně Parlamentu České republiky jsou tyto: Sjezd (ČSSD, KDU-ČSL, KSČM), Kongres (ODS), Celostátní sněm (ANO 2011, TOP 09, STAN), Celostátní fórum (Česká pirátská strana) a Konference (SPD). Statutárními orgány jsou Předsednictvo (ČSSD, ODS, TOP 09, KDU-ČSL, STAN), Výbor (ANO 2011), Republikové předsednictvo (Česká pirátská strana), Ústřední výbor (KSČM) a Předseda (SPD), jež spravují stranu nebo hnutí mezi schůzemi nejvyššího orgánu. Nejvyšší orgán, který určil statutárního auditora pro účely ověření účetní závěrky, je také příjemcem jeho zprávy.

2 SPECIFIKA AUDITU POLITICKÝCH STRAN A HNUTÍ

V posledních letech dochází k výrazným změnám na úrovni legislativní úpravy jednotlivých neziskových organizací, přičemž směr vývoje je u některých z nich zcela protichůdný. Například u nadací došlo přijetím nového občanského zákoníku ke značnému uvolňování (liberalizaci) nadačního práva (stejně tak na evropské úrovni), naproti tomu u politických stran a hnutí dochází spíše ke zpřísnění legislativy prostřednictvím novel zákona z roků 2016 a 2017. To je možné pozorovat na změnách, které s sebou tyto novely přinesly a také na dále uvedených základních legislativních znacích zákona o politických stranách a politických hnutích:

- povinnost předložit každoročně výroční finanční zprávu Úřadu (§ 19 h), v níž organizace uvedou přehled o celkových příjmech a přehled o celkových výdajích v předepsané struktuře,
- zákon přesně definuje, co může být příjmem strany či hnutí (§ 17 odst. 8),
- zákon přesně uvádí, od koho strana nebo hnutí nesmějí přijmout dar nebo jiné bezúplatné plnění (§ 18 odst. 1),
- každý dárce musí být identifikován údaji podle § 19h odst. 1 písm. h),
- dar nebo jiné bezúplatné plnění, jehož výše nebo obvyklá cena přesahuje částku 1 tis. Kč, může strana nebo hnutí přijmout pouze na základě písemné smlouvy,
- zvláštní dohled vykonává Úřad pro dohled nad hospodařením politických stran a politických hnutí,

- strany a hnutí mají povinnost vést oddělené účty pro přesně vymezené příjmy a výdaje,
- zákon ukládá povinnost nechat ověřit účetní závěrku auditorem s výrokem bez výhrad,
- zákon dovoluje jmenovat téhož auditora účetní závěrky po dobu maximálně pěti po sobě jdoucích kalendářních let,
- strany a hnutí mají, za podmínek stanovených zákonem, nárok na státní příspěvky (příspěvek na činnost – stálý příspěvek a příspěvek na mandát; příspěvek na podporu činnosti politického institutu),
- zákon upravuje v § 19i až § 19k přestupky a také sankce za porušení zákona,
- zákon nedovoluje stranám a hnutím vlastním jménem podnikat,
- zákon dovoluje stranám a hnutím založit obchodní společnost nebo družstvo nebo se účastnit jako společník nebo člen na podnikání již založené obchodní společnosti nebo družstva jen pokud se věnují zákonem přesně vymezenému předmětu činnosti,
- strany a hnutí musí zajistit bezplatný nepřetržitý přístup třetím osobám ke svému zvláštnímu účtu pro účely zobrazování platebních transakcí, k nimž na účtu došlo,
- zvláštní důraz klade zákon na finanční transakce (příchozí i odchozí), které se uskutečnily na zvláštním účtu - v souvislosti s tím požaduje, aby každá transakce byla označena účelem; v opačném případě hrozí za takový přestupek pokuta až 2 mil. Kč.

Nejvýznamnější změnou je bezesporu zřízení zvláštního dohledu nad hospodařením stran a hnutí a také povinné zřízení zvláštních bankovních účtů pro vymezené skupiny transakcí. V současné době legislativa vyžaduje vedení čtyř zvláštních účtů: pro příspěvky ze státního rozpočtu, příjmy z darů a jiných bezúplatných plnění (tzv. zvláštní účet); pro plnění plynoucí z pracovněprávních vztahů ke straně a hnutí; pro financování volebních kampaní za podmínek stanovených volebními zákony a pro ostatní příjmy a výdaje (tzv. provozní účet). Zvláštní účet musí být přístupný bezplatně a nepřetržitě třetím osobám pro účely zobrazování platebních transakcí, k nimž na účtu došlo. Adresu internetové stránky musí strany a hnutí oznámit Úřadu a ten ji zveřejní na svých webových stránkách společně s výroční finanční zprávou. Poskytovatel platebních služeb, u něhož je veden zvláštní účet, je povinen umožnit třetím osobám nahlížet do historie platebních transakcí zpětně za období posledních tří let. Počet zřízených účtů závisí na tom, jaké příjmy a výdaje strana nebo hnutí realizuje. Pokud nezaměstnávají žádné zaměstnance a nepořádají samostatně žádné volební kampaně, pak povinně zřizují pouze dva účty (zvláštní a provozní).
Novela zákona č. 302/2016 Sb., zákon, který se mění zákon č. 424/1991 Sb., o sdružování v politických stranách a v politických hnutích, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, a další související zákony, také nově dovoluje stranám a hnutím zakládat nebo se stát členy jednoho politického institutu. Ten je definován jako právnická osoba, jejímž hlavním předmětem činnosti je výzkumná, publikační, vzdělávací nebo kulturní činnost v zákonem vymezených oblastech. V současné době tedy navíc může vznikat třetí typ politických institucí vedle tradičních stran a hnutí.

Výše zmíněné lze označit také jako specifika auditu politických stran a hnutí a auditor by je měl brát v úvahu při ověřování účetní závěrky.

3 CÍLE, METODIKA, HYPOTÉZY

Cílem tohoto příspěvku je analyzovat problémy, které se vyskytují na úrovni auditu účetní závěrky politických stran a hnutí v České republice.

Zřízením nového Úřadu pro dohled nad hospodařením politických stran a hnutí vznikly také webové stránky zveřejňující výroční finanční zprávy a pohyby na zvláštních účtech těchto

organizací (poprvé za rok 2017). Za krok vpřed lze považovat zprůhlednění jejich hospodaření a vznik nové databáze poskytující celou řadu užitečných informací, které nebyly v minulosti tak dobře dostupné, a umožňující provádět různé analýzy. Data o politických stranách a hnutích zveřejňovaná na webu Úřadu (výroční finanční zprávy, jejichž součástí jsou i účetní závěrky) se stala zdrojem pro tento příspěvek.

Příspěvek se zaměřuje především na to, zda politické strany a hnutí dodržují požadavek na předložení výroční finanční zprávy Úřadu v řádném termínu; zda je součástí výroční finanční zprávy také kompletní účetní závěrka; zda auditor udělil výrok bez výhrad; zda je zveřejňována v příloze k účetní závěrce odměna auditora za provedený audit, tak jak to požaduje vyhláška č. 504/2002 Sb., kterou se provádějí některá ustanovení zákona č. 563/1991 Sb., o účetnictví, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, pro účetní jednotky, u kterých hlavním předmětem činnosti není podnikání, pokud účtují v soustavě podvojného účetnictví; a zda auditor reaguje na případná rizika či významné (materiální) nesprávnosti.

Příspěvek rovněž analyzuje rozložení auditorských zakázek zaměřených na audit účetní závěrky politických stran a hnutí mezi jednotlivé auditory a auditorské společnosti. Protože výzkumy u jiných typů neziskových organizací poukazují na to, že neziskové organizace jsou spíše doménou menších auditorských společností a auditorů osob samostatně výdělečně činných (např. Jošt, 2016), byly tyto závěry použity jako východisko při stanovení Hypotézy 1.

Hypotéza 1: Auditorské zakázky zaměřené na ověření účetní závěrky politických stran a politických hnutí jsou rozloženy primárně mezi auditory osoby samostatně výdělečně činné (OSVČ) a ostatní auditorské společnosti.

Hypotéza 2: Míra koncentrace auditních zakázek týkajících se ověření roční účetní závěrky politických stran a hnutí se pohybuje z hlediska jednotlivých auditorů a auditorských společností na poměrně vysoké úrovni.

4 ANALÝZA, OVĚŘENÍ PLATNOSTI HYPOTÉZ

Veškerá data se vztahují k 31. květnu 2018 a vycházejí z výročních finančních zpráv a účetních závěrek sestavených za rok 2017 aktivních politických stran a hnutí zveřejněných na webových stránkách Úřadu. Celkem bylo k tomuto datu aktivních 206 subjektů ve složení, které uvádí následující tabulka:

Tabulka 1: Počet aktivních politických stran a hnutí

Subjekt	Počet	Podíl
Politická strana	88	42,72 %
Politické hnutí	118	57,28 %
Celkem	**206**	**100,00 %**

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování, Úřad (2018), MVČR (2018)

Dalších 27 politických stran a hnutí evidoval Úřad ve stavu „činnost pozastavena“ – ty proto nebyly zařazeny do statistického souboru. U nich totiž nejsou výroční finanční zprávy zveřejněny.

Celkem tedy fakticky existovalo k výše uvedenému datu 233 politických stran a hnutí, což představovalo s ohledem na celkový počet nestátních neziskových organizací působících na území České republiky zhruba pouhý 0,2 % podíl.

Z dostupných dat vyplynulo, že v zákonné lhůtě předložilo Úřadu svou výroční finanční zprávu pouze 102 aktivních organizací (49,51 %) z celkového počtu 206, což je poměrně neuspokojivé zjištění.

K datu 31. května 2018 se počet stran a hnutí, které předložily výroční finanční zprávu Úřadu, zvýšil na 154 aktivních organizací (74,76 %) z celkového počtu 206. Statistický soubor použitý pro analýzy tvoří pouze tyto organizace.

Auditor

Závěry uvedené v následující tabulce potvrdily Hypotézu 1, jelikož 98 % stran a hnutí zkoumaného statistického souboru uzavírá smlouvu o provedení auditu s auditory osobami samostatně výdělečně činnými (OSVČ) a ostatními auditorskými společnostmi nepatřícími do skupiny tzv. velké čtyřky (angl. Big Four). Do ní spadají společnosti Pwc, KPMG, Deloitte a Ernst & Young. Pouze politické hnutí ANO 2011 využívá služeb auditorské společnosti Ernst & Young Audit, s. r. o. Pravděpodobně proto, že zakladatel hnutí vlastní holding AGROFERT, a. s. a je zakladatelem Nadace AGROFERT, jejichž účetní závěrky ověřuje právě tato auditorská společnost. Hnutí "Žít Brno" a Pévéčko pak využívají služeb mezinárodní auditorské společnosti BDO C.A. s. r. o.

Tabulka 2: Rozdělení politických stran a hnutí mezi auditory

Auditor	Počet	Podíl
Auditorské společnosti ostatní	79	51,30 %
BDO C.A. s. r. o.	2	1,30 %
Ernst & Young Audit, s. r. o.	1	0,65 %
OSVČ	72	46,75 %
Celkem	**154**	**100,00 %**

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování, Úřad (2018)

Skupina OSVČ zahrnuje také politickou stranu HRADEČTÍ PATRIOTI strana pro sport, zdraví a kulturu, která pravděpodobně nezadala zakázku na provedení statutárního auditu, jelikož výstupem auditorské zakázky je Zpráva o věcných zjištěních, v níž se auditorka vyjadřuje pouze k tomu, kdo je poskytovatelem daru 200 Kč a zda byla uzavřena darovací smlouva, jak byly prostředky poskytnuty a jak byly prostředky použity v průběhu období. To je v rozporu se zákonem o politických stranách a politických hnutích, který vyžaduje provedení statutárního auditu.

Koncentrace auditorských zakázek

Z celkového počtu 1559 aktivních auditorů a auditorských společností (stav k 31. květnu 2018; resp. 1225 auditorů a 353 auditorských společností k 31. prosinci 2017, Mikyna, Šnajdrová, 2018) ověřovalo účetní závěrku politických stran a hnutí za rok 2017 106 z nich (tj. zhruba 6,7 %).

Z níže uvedené tabulky vyplývá, že 73 auditorů a auditorských společností (tj. 47,40 %) ověřovalo účetní závěrku za rok 2017 pouze jedné politické strany nebo jednoho politického hnutí. V ostatních případech auditoři a auditorské společnosti ověřovali za rok 2017 účetní

závěrku dvou až pěti stran či hnutí (tj. 52,60 %). Pouze jeden auditor osoba samostatně výdělečně činná ověřoval účetní závěrku za rok 2017 u 5 politických hnutí. Hypotéza 2 tak byla potvrzena. Z hlediska transparentnosti a posílení nezávislosti auditorů na auditovaných účetních jednotkách by bylo vhodné tyto auditorské zakázky rozptýlit mezi více auditorů a auditorských společností. V některých zemích řeší nezávislost auditorů např. výběrem formou losování ze členů profesní organizace, rotací auditorů nebo kontrolou dvěma nezávislými auditory.

Tabulka 3: Koncentrace auditorských zakázek v rámci jednotlivých auditorů a auditorských společností

Počet politických stran a hnutí	Počet auditorů OSVČ a auditorských společností	Přepočtený stav PSH na počet auditorů	Podíl
5 subjektů	1	5	3,25 %
4 subjekty	3	12	7,79 %
3 subjekty	6	18	11,69 %
2 subjekty	23	46	29,87 %
1 subjekt	73	73	47,40 %
Celkem	**106**	**154**	**100,00 %**

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování, Úřad (2018); Pozn.: PSH – politické strany a hnutí

Výrok auditora

Co se týká výroku auditora, tak s výjimkou politické strany HRADEČTÍ PATRIOTI strana pro sport, zdraví a kulturu (viz výše), byl všem stranám a hnutím udělen výrok bez výhrad, což je v souladu se zákonem o politických stranách a hnutích. V několika případech se také ve zprávách auditora stále vyskytuje „výrok bez závad“, který nahradil již před řadou let „výrok bez výhrad“.

Tabulka 4: Výrok auditora

Výrok	Počet	Podíl
Výrok bez výhrad	153	99,35 %
Zpráva o věcných zjištěních	1	0,65 %
Celkem	**154**	**100,00 %**

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování, Úřad (2018)

Zpráva auditora

Od roku 2016 platí nový formát zprávy auditora, avšak u 20 stran a hnutí byla vydána zpráva auditora k účetní závěrce za rok 2017 v původním formátu nebo ve formátu, který neobsahoval požadované náležitosti.

Ve zprávách auditora politických hnutí Doktoři (za uzdravení společnosti), Hnutí O co jim jde?!, Sdružení nezávislých kandidátů 1 a VOK - Volba pro Karlovarský kraj uvádí auditoři odstavec zdůrazňující skutečnost z důvodu neotevření nového bankovního účtu dle nové legislativy.

Ve sledovaném roce 2017 vykázalo 26 stran a hnutí (17 %) zápornou výši vlastních zdrojů, což je skutečnost, která může v budoucnu ohrozit účetní předpoklad „going concern“. Pouze u těchto stran a hnutí na ni auditoři ve svých zprávách reagují:

Alternativa pro občany: *„Aniž vyjadřuji výrok s výhradou, upozorňuji předsednictvo hnutí na zápornou hodnotu vlastních zdrojů vzniklou ztrátami dosaženými v předchozích letech. Nedostatek vlastních finančních zdrojů může vést k ohrožení dalšího fungování účetní jednotky. Předpokladem k aktivnímu pokračování v činnosti je navýšení vlastních zdrojů zakladateli politického hnutí a pevně stanovými příspěvky jejich členů v souladu se stanovami.“*

REALISTÉ: *„Upozorňujeme na odstavec Výsledek hospodaření přílohy účetní závěrky, kde je vyčíslena ztráta, která má dopad do vlastních zdrojů. Náš výrok není v souvislosti s touto záležitostí modifikován.“*

Ze stran a hnutí aktuálně zastoupených v Poslanecké sněmovně vykázala zápornou výši vlastních zdrojů ODS (-55 549 tis. Kč), ale ani v jejím případě se auditor ve své zprávě tomuto problému nevěnuje.

Ve zprávě politického hnutí Změna auditor uvedl toto doporučení: *"Doporučená opatření auditora: Účetní jednotka zajistí účtování předpisu pohledávek členských příspěvků pro členy politického hnutí Změna v souladu se Stanovami společnosti."*

"Významné skutečnosti: V roce 2017 byly poskytnuty účetní jednotce půjčky od fyzických osob v celkové výši 725 000 Kč. Dále byly poskytnuty dary Straně zelených ve výši 150 000 Kč a ve výši 3 605 Kč straně Česká pirátská strana. Účetní jednotka obdržela Státní příspěvek ve výši 500 000 Kč a ve výši 500 000 Kč od Strany zelených na základě Koaliční smlouvy."

Republikánská strana zemědělského a malorolnického lidu má ve zprávě auditora uvedeno následující zdůraznění skutečnosti: *"Upozorňujeme na bod 8. přílohy účetní závěrky popisující skutečnost, že v ověřovaném období společnost nevykazovala žádnou činnost a neevidovala žádné náklady ani výnosy. Náš výrok není v souvislosti s touto záležitostí modifikován."*

Zpráva auditora hnutí Svoboda a přímá demokracie - Tomio Okamura obsahuje odstavec upozorňující na: *„Jiné skutečnosti: Účetní závěrka k 31. prosinci 2016 byla ověřena jiným auditorem, který ve své zprávě ze dne 9. března 2017 vydal k této účetní závěrce výrok bez výhrad. Výrok není v této souvislosti modifikován.“*

Auditorka hnutí JsmePRO! Kraj 2016 uvedla ve své zprávě: *„Zdůraznění skutečnosti: Aniž vyslovuji výrok s výhradou, dovoluji si upozornit na dílčí nepřesnost v účetnictví. Jedná se o částku příspěvku na činnost politického hnutí, která byla zaúčtována jako přijatý příspěvek na činnost politického hnutí zúčtovaný mezi organizačními složkami. Podle mého názoru bylo vhodnější použít účet provozní dotace. Vzhledem k tomu, že nedošlo k chybě v celkové výši vykázaného výsledku hospodaření, nebyla tato záměna výnosového druhu hodnocena výrokem s výhradou, ale pouze zdůrazněním skutečnosti. Záměna byla podrobně popsána v dopise určeném vedení politického hnutí.“*

Odměna auditora
Vyhláška č. 504/2002 Sb. ukládá v § 30 odst. 1 písm. i) neziskovým organizacím povinnost zveřejnit v příloze k účetní závěrce informaci o celkové odměně přijaté auditorem za povinný audit roční účetní závěrky a celkové odměně přijaté auditorem za jiné ověřovací služby, za daňové poradenství a jiné neauditorské služby.

Z níže uvedené tabulky vyplývá, že tuto povinnost nesplňuje drtivá většina politických stran a hnutí, což nepřispívá k jejich transparentnosti a zároveň tím dochází k porušení zákonných požadavků na zveřejnění informací v účetní závěrce.

Tabulka 5: Zveřejňování odměny auditora

Zveřejňuje	25	16,23 %
Nezveřejňuje	129	83,77 %
Celkem	**154**	**100 %**

Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování, Úřad (2018)

Problémy na úrovni účetní závěrky
V souvislosti s auditem účetní závěrky je třeba zmínit, že příloha k účetní závěrce 116 (75 %) politických stran a hnutí plně nevyhovuje požadavkům vyhlášky č. 504/2002 Sb. U 12 organizací (8 %) příloha nebyla zveřejněna vůbec a u jednoho politického hnutí byl zveřejněn jen výkaz zisku a ztráty bez rozvahy a přílohy k účetní závěrce.

5 ZÁVĚR
Politické strany a politická hnutí jsou neziskovými organizacemi, které přijímají v mnoha případech příspěvky z veřejných zdrojů v řádech desítek či stovek milionů korun, a proto je namístě dohlížet na jejich činnost. Zejména jde-li o subjekty, které ovlivňují celkový vývoj země a společnosti skrze zastupitelstva měst, obcí a krajů, Poslaneckou sněmovnu a Senát, v nichž mají strany a hnutí své zastoupení, je namístě přijímat zákonná opatření vedoucí k posílení jejich transparentnosti a nezávislosti a zamezovat tak vzniku finančních (a dalších) vazeb na některé zájmové skupiny.

Auditorské zakázky zaměřené na ověření účetních závěrek politických stran a hnutí jsou výhradě záležitostí ostatních auditorských společností a auditorů osob samostatně výdělečně činných. Pouze v případě politického hnutí ANO 2011 provádí statutární audit společnost Ernst & Young Audit, s. r. o., jež je součástí skupiny tzv. velké čtyřky (angl. Big Four).

Mezi hlavní problémy na úrovni auditu účetní závěrky politických stran a hnutí patří nereagování na potenciální rizika plynoucí z možného ohrožení předpokladu „going concern“ (zejména vlivem záporné výše vlastních zdrojů) pravděpodobně v důsledku potřeby naplnit požadavek zákona o sdružování v politických stranách a hnutích, jenž vyžaduje, aby byl těmto účetním jednotkám udělen ve zprávě auditora výrok bez výhrad. Jen někteří auditoři zdůrazňují zjištěné skutečnosti v samostatném odstavci, čímž však nedochází k modifikaci výroku. Tento požadavek zákona o politických stranách vytváří tlak na auditory, kteří jsou na jedné straně povinni dodržovat auditorské předpisy, a na straně druhé po nich klient a zmíněný zákon vyžadují výrok bez výhrad. Problematickou se může stát situace, kdy účetní závěrka obsahuje významné (materiální) nesprávnosti a není možné reagovat pouhým odstavcem zdůrazňujícím zjištěné skutečnosti a je nutné přistoupit k modifikaci výroku. Otázkou zůstává, jaký postih hrozí straně či hnutí, pokud jejich zpráva auditora obsahuje jiný výrok než bez výhrad. Zákon o politických stranách v § 19j odst. 2 písm. d) pouze uvádí, že strana či hnutí se dopustí přestupku tím, že v rozporu s § 19h odst. 1 nepředloží v zákonné

lhůtě výroční finanční zprávu. Dále § 19j odst. 2 písm. e) konstatuje, že přestupkem je také to, když neodstraní ve stanovené lhůtě nedostatky výroční finanční zprávy podle § 19h odst. 5. Z toho tedy plyne, že k problému modifikace výroku se zákon přímo nevyjadřuje. Stojí za zvážení, zda má požadavek na výrok bez výhrad své opodstatnění v legislativě a zda by v ní měl zůstat, když u žádné jiné neziskové organizace se nevyskytuje. Samozřejmě je nutné reflektovat specifikum politických stran a hnutí ve srovnání s jiným typy neziskových organizací, které plní jinou funkci ve společnosti a nejsou příjemci příspěvků z veřejných zdrojů.

S výjimkou jedné politické strany splnily všechny organizace zákonnou podmínku výroku bez výhrad ve zprávě auditora.

Někteří auditoři vydávají zprávy nezávislého auditora ve formátu, který již dávno neplatí, nebo neobsahují všechny požadované náležitosti. Dále se ve zprávách objevuje zastaralá terminologie, kdy namísto „výroku bez výhrad“ uvádí „výrok bez závad“.

Méně než polovina auditorů a auditorských společností ověřovala účetní závěrku za rok 2017 jedné politické strany nebo jednoho hnutí. V ostatních případech ověřoval jeden auditor nebo jedna auditorská společnost účetní závěrku dvou a více politických stran či hnutí. Dá se tedy říci, že míra koncentrace je poměrně značná.

Jen necelá polovina z celkového počtu aktivních politických stran a hnutí splnila svou povinnost a předložila výroční finanční zprávu Úřadu v zákonné lhůtě, čímž se vystavují riziku pokuty až do výše 200 tis. Kč.

Velmi problematická se zdá být příloha k účetní závěrce, která plně nevyhovuje požadavkům vyhlášky upravující účetnictví neziskových organizací. Zároveň v drtivé většině případů postrádá informaci o odměně poskytnuté auditorovi za provedený audit a v některých případech není příloha vůbec zveřejněna. Tento problém se vyskytuje i u ostatních typů neziskových organizací.

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THE CREATIVE NODE

András Lévai

Abstract

The creative nodes are a new developing force in the economy, parallel the land, capital, labor, innovation and knowledge. The creative node causes concentration in space. The digitalization, internet made the distances shorter, the digital space made the physical space less matter. However, the new kind of space usage makes nodes more important than before. The space becomes a center of innovation, they influencing the people. In this paper I give a short overview about my theoretical model and the operationalization of it using coworking offices.

Keywords: *creative node model, creative industries, creative class, coworking*

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Széchenyi [1], the most valuable asset is the human mind. Bradley [2] thinks that creating new idea is the key to the real wealth. Nowadays the value of companies are based not only the fixed assets, immaterial assets, like brands and intellectual properties are the keys to the global competiveness. Companies like Alphabet (Google's owner) can be always successful, because they constantly improving their products, are innovative, implementing new ideas and they not limiting themselves to one industry. The globalization removed the borders between countries, the internet reduced the distance. The key to success is a new and creative way of thinking. It is important to distinguish the creative economy and industries from the knowledge economy, where the innovation is part of the traditional manufacturing industries. The products of the creative industries are consumed because of cultural aspects [3] and not because of utility. There are countless approaches, governmental institutes used statistical codes and mixed cultural industries with high-tech industries, Richard Florida focused on the people and created the creative class based Marx working class theory.

I had the opportunity to work as a researcher at University of Amsterdam, where we collected job advertisements with web crawlers, to gain knowledge about jobs and skills. I used these datasets and methods to research creativity, to compare the different creative industries and class models. My main idea is that the creative economy is affected by space, so I started to research which factors affects that some of the cities are creative, what creates this kind of creativity, which people are creative. The main goal of my publication is to bring the focus on a smaller scale than a city, with the *creative node model* I tried to explore the level of neighborhoods. The paper from the next section comprises the following structure. Section 2 explains the method used in this paper. Section 3 describes the creative node model. Section 4 summarizes the discussion, presents the significance of this paper, and suggests future research issues.

2. METHOD

I think for the economy like the knowledge based economy or the creative nodes need new methods, new kind of analyzing techniques, so I will use creative methods. In the years of 2010's the storage cost of the information technology became very low and the computing capacity very high [4], so the issues of data processing [5] are not existing anymore. This allowed me to use text mining and datamining [6].

2.1. Data mining

I used information technology to collect and analyze data about spatial factors [7]. Nowadays you do not need super computers to store and process, even a mobile phone has this kind of capacity. There is no need for sampling, a home computer, a laptop is enough to these tasks. Amazon started as online bookshop and they were the first who made a big commercial success with data mining. In that time data mining algorithm was used on data warehouses to get some deeper knowledge about datasets. Amazon developed a recommendation tools, which used data mining and machine learning to analyze user's behavior and recommend a product immediately, which lead increasing the sales volume. Before this innovation Amazon used experts to write reviews and recommendations about the books. Data mining allowed them to make much better segmentation of their customers. I used data mining on the dataset that I collected.

2.2. Web mining

Any content that can be viewed on a webpage can be scraped, so the dataset used in this paper is based on data obtained from coworking spaces using web crawlers. Scrapy is an open source Python framework made for large scale web scraping. Websites are diverse so there was no ready to use solution, so it needed time and ad hoc approaches how to create the dataset for the research. To gain knowledge about the creative labor market I used web crawlers to collect data from coworking spaces. This method named as web mining [8]. I have built a database after I made some data cleaning and parsing. In the everyday life we can find examples for web mining at price collector webpages, which are aggregating different webshops product pages and prices.

2.3. Text mining

The goal of the text mining is to find hidden information in unstructured text files [9]. I used this method to map coworking offices in cities neighborhoods. I could collect 1213 unique name for neighborhood. If it contained the string:

- centre, center, centar, centrum, sentrum,
- downtown, old, alt,
- midtown,
- CBD, a central business disctrict, financial center, financial district,
- design district,
- shopping streets,
- chinatown,
- city square,
- central stations,
- fashion disctrict,
- „the city",

then I classified as a central part.

I did not count as central area:

- transformed industrial areas,
- suburban disctricts,
- beach districts.

I used not found when:

- I had trouble with Chinese letters,
- hospitals,
- the expression was too general.

The rest was no data.

The data collecting spiders ran in 2015 for two days long, because there was an artificial delay in each request to avoid banning from the Sharedesk.net servers. The collected data dump was useless, so I created some parsing script that made possible to load them into structural databases like MySQL. Python has a data analysis library called pandas, which provides an easy-to-use function and high-performance.

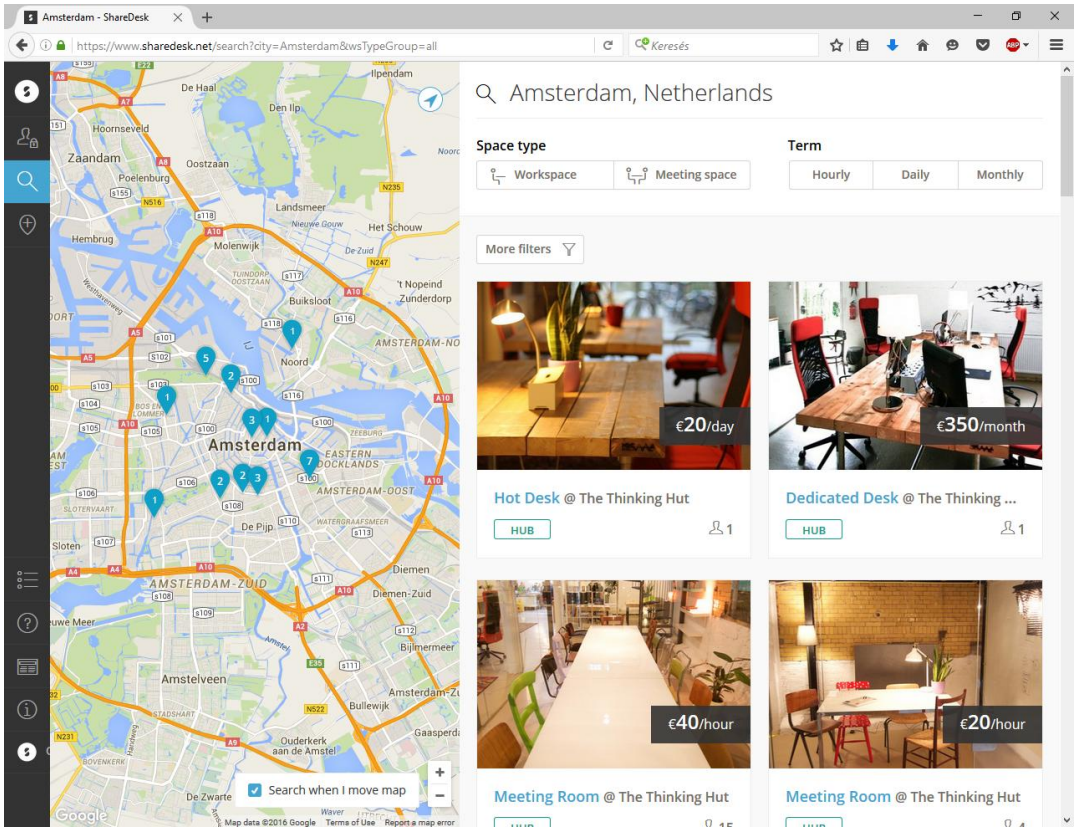

Figure 1.: Sharedesk main screen

The main idea was to create two web spiders: one that extracts the urls for the crawling and another for the invidual webpages. However, the main screen of Sharedesk.net (Figure 1.) contains all the coworking offices in the area, but the area is limited isn't possible to zoom out to see the whole world. So I needed to think differently to get the individual webpages. In the url is www.sharedesk.net/search?city= so there will be possible to add city names from a dictionary but it sounded complicated.

If I clicked on an item I saw that the url changed like this: https://www.sharedesk.net/search/space/6983-the-thinking-hut?city=amsterdam&wsTypeGroup=all and this gave me the idea, why not to check is there an unique ID for the venues. It worked so I created a url generator script instead the first web crawler, which created the url with growing id number from 0 to 10000 in a csv file. According the computer processing capacity, it was no issue to have this number and it was quicker, if an ID is no longer used there will be a 404 page, which I removed during the processing from the extract file.

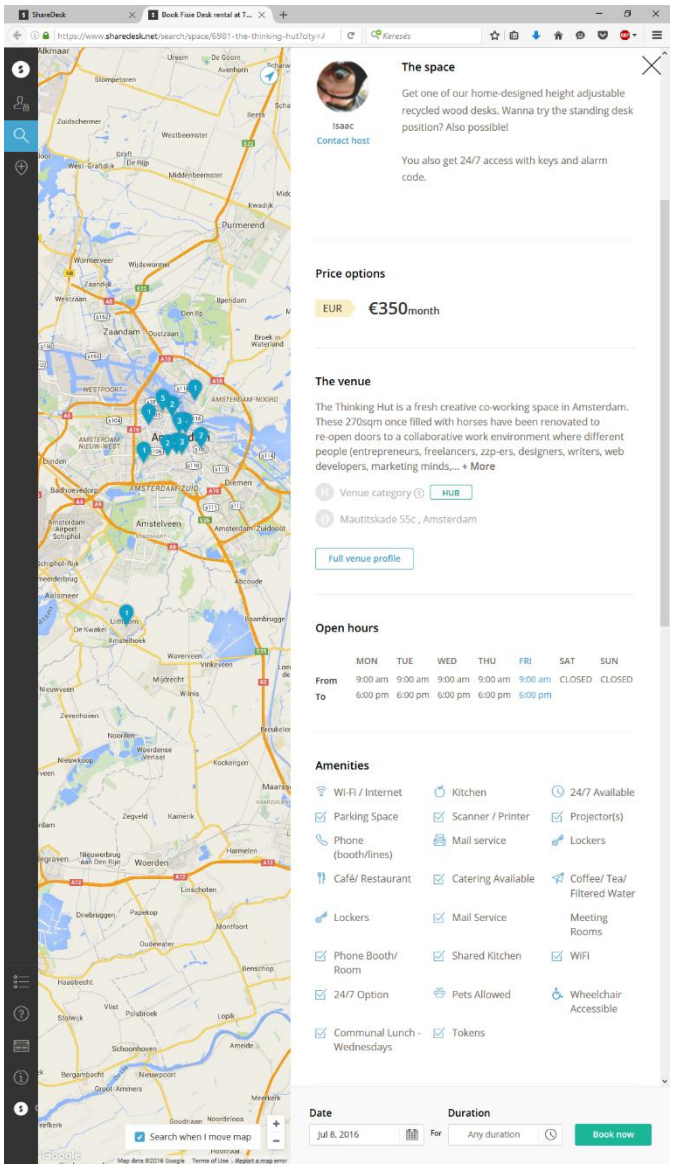

Figure 2: Webpage of a coworking office on the Sharedesk.net site

I made the real web crawler really simply, it red the csv file with the urls and extracted a JSON code from the webpages. The web crawling was conducted in 2015 summer. It took two days to finished, because I used artificial delay between two webpage requests, to avoid IP address banning for Denial of Service (DoS) attack.
The crawled data was heavily processed. First I created a script to change a JSON to CSV, the header of the table was the keys of the JSON file. It was too big to handle so I used SQLite instead Open Office to store the data in preferred structure and format.
To explore the dataset I used Pandas[1], which is a popular Python package for data science and IPython Notebook[2]. It is so effective, to load the data from the database and create a correlation matrix on the data needs only 5 lines of coding.

3. THE CREATIVE NODE MODEL

During the creation of the creative node model my focus was to give spatial description to the creativity. Florida [10,11,12] often cite Jane Jacobs, who was focusing on the small things

[1] https://github.com/pandas-dev/pandas
[2] https://ipython.org

like the sidewalks, the streets, however he never focuses in these smaller parts. Florida measures the creativity of countries, cities, but my opinion is that we should look deeper.
The creative node model is a new theoretical approach to describe the spatial effect of the creative economy. The creative node is a city quarter where people like to live, work. The creative node is a mixture of:

- creative people,
- creative workplaces,
- and creative places.

Figure 3: The creative node model

There are already existing such kind of terminologies:

- *„science city”* [13],
- *„creative city”* [13],
- *„culture city”* [13],
- *„creative space”* [14],
- *„space of flows”* [14].

My approach is different I focus on the smaller parts like quarters, districts of a city. Of course there are places where not all the elements are existing, so if one of the elements are missing then I call that places:

- startup centers,
- gentrification,
- creative city quarter.

To describe the creative node as a new entity, the best way is to use creative methods and the attributes of creative people, workplaces and spaces. To prove this I examined the physical distribution of the coworking offices. According to Deskmag’s data that between the coworking space members the creative class is overrepresented and the creative professions are overrepresented. This dataset also included data about the industries of the members it was also creativity oriented. The last dimension of the creative node model is the creative places, creative offices are places to socialize, and according to Oldenburg third place theory I believe that coworking offices can represent the creative nodes.

4. RESULTS

The world is not flat, no matter of the new technologies like high speed internet and wireless networks, people do not like working alone, they want to be part of a community. Critics of Florida the main argument against the creative class and the creative cities that we cannot decided that creative cities attract creative people or creative people transforms cities to

creative cities. However, we can say that creative people looking for the company of creative people, this leads to creative transactions with the usage of physical space.
The distribution of the coworking spaces in the physical space and the result is that the distribution is not evenly. The second finding is that there is no connection between Richard Florida's [10] global creative index and the number of coworking spaces in a country (Table 1.).

Country	**Number of coworking spaces**	**The number of coworking spaces per million inhabitants**	**Global creative index**
Australia	163	6.71	0.97
USA	1255	3.87	0.95
New-Zealand	11	2.41	0.949
Canada	212	5.84	0.92
Denmark	6	1.05	0.917
Finland	5	0.91	0.917
Sweden	16	1.62	0.915
Iceland	2	6.03	0.913
Singapore	46	8.08	0.896
Netherland	39	2.30	0.889
Norway	4	0.76	0.883
U.K.	243	3.73	0.881
Ireland	6	1.27	0.845
Germany	274	3.40	0.837
Switzerland	20	2.39	0.822
France	87	1.35	0.822
Slovenia	1	0.48	0.822
Belgium	32	2.81	0.817
Spain	131	2.84	0.811
Austria	30	3.50	0.788
Hong Kong	29	3.95	0.715
Italy	115	1.92	0.715
Portugal	34	3.30	0.71
Japan	26	0.21	0.708
Luxembourg	5	8.68	0.696

Table 1: Distribution of coworking

After this I looked on step deeper in the dataset, I focused on a city level. On the table 2. I made a list from the top 30 cities with coworking spaces. New York has 288, this number is even more than the second biggest country Germany has. However, the second city was Berlin, the third was London. According to the hipsters of Tumblr [15], Berlin is the new London.
My founding was that all of the city had access to water. According to Adam Smith [16] cities near to waterways developed faster according to trading, the cheap way of transport allowed them to reach bigger markets. I think this developed the local culture and milieu. The result of the neighborhood analysis was that 70% of the coworking offices were in the central part of the cities. This reinforces the previous findings, that creative people looking for places with history, creative nodes forming in the environment of rich local culture.

City	Continent	Country	Number of coworking spaces
New York	America	USA	288
Berlin	Europe	Germany	184
London	Europe	UK	173
San Francisco	America	USA	84
Los Angeles	America	USA	71
Vancouver	America	Canada	55
Barcelona	Europe	Spain	53
Toronto	America	Canada	52
Singapore	Asia	Singapore	45
Paris	Europe	France	41
Chicago	America	USA	37
Montreal	America	Canada	36
Sydney	Australia	Australia	34
Miami	America	USA	29
Sao Paulo	America	Brasil	28
Melbourne	Australia	Australia	26
Amsterdam	Europe	Netherland	24
Milan	Europe	Italy	24
Hong Kong	Asia	Hong Kong	21
Boston	America	USA	20
Cape Town	Africa	South-Africa	20
Madrid	Europe	Spain	20
Portland	America	USA	18
Shanghai	Asia	China	18
Vienna	Europe	Austria	18
Istanbul	Europe	Turkey	17
Seattle	America	USA	17
Washington	America	USA	17
München	Europe	Germany	16

Table 2: Distribution of coworking

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PROBLEMS OF FORMING SECURITIES MARKET IN GEORGIA AND WAYS TO OVERCOME IT

George Abuselidze, Mzia Surmanidze

Abstract

The purpose of the work is to analyze the characteristics of the formation and functioning of the Securities Market in Georgia, to identify existing problems and develop ways to solve it. The paper deals with current trends in the Georgian Securities Market and the link between the implemented legislative infrastructural and institutional reforms has been revealed. In the paper the answer is given on the following questions: whether or not the Securities Market development reforms in Georgia is in the right direction; What is the importance of improving the Securities Market for developing the right policy for the country's economy. The final part of the work describes the planned reforms for the development of the Georgian Securities Market and their possible outcomes, taking into consideration the European experience, the author's recommendations are presented in terms of effectiveness of these measures.

Keywords: *Securities Market, investments, regulation*

1. INTRODUCTION

The development of the Securities Market plays an important role in the economy of the country. For Georgia as an open economy, the Securities Market is the best way to attract investments. Georgia in the current economic situation and its development is highly dependent on the functioning of the Securities Market and the sustainable existence of modern political-economic situation unconditionally requires entrepreneurial and corporate financing activities diversified approach, which the bank-lending segment alternatives Establishment Will contribute. This will have a greater likelihood of creating a synergistic economic effect in the state, which will greatly benefit the country's economic evolution and directly reflects the welfare of society.

Two parallel processes for the long-term development of the economy are underway in the past 20 years: on the one hand, the model of Georgian capitalism and on the other hand is a functioning Georgian financial market.[1] Unfortunately, these two interconnected phenomena are distinguished by its sequence and obvious mutual contradiction, which ultimately puts the country’s economic development under question. In 1858, British Prime Minister William Gladstone pointed to the importance of the financial sector to the economy: "Finance is, as it were, the stomach of the country, from which all other organs take their tone." The financial sector is particularly important for the restructuring of capital and therefore for the creation of a permanent restructuring base of the economy. In the term "capital" we generally mean property that gives profits, income. The income of the property may be in the form of money, securities, material assets, especially land ownership or enterprise. The property of money is called money or financial capital, in contrast to the property of material goods called subject or real capital. The term "Capital Market" refers only to financial capital. That is why Capital Markets are always financial markets, not subjective markets.[2]

Modern scientific or Practitioners have long been discussing the development of the Securities Market, but the low level of awareness of the masses of the society in this area is

[1]https://idfi.ge/public/migrated/uploadedFiles/files/Capital%20Market%20in%20Georgia%20and%20its%20Enemies.pdf - Page2

[2] Juurikkala O.,The Behavioural Paradox: Why Investor Irrationality calls for Lighter and Simpler Financial Regulation, Fordham Journal of Corporate & Financial Law, Vol. XVIII, 2012, 33-93, 88

the nihilistic attitude of the population and the business. It adds to the fact that the state does not take sharp and principled steps in this direction due to various objective and subjective reasons, which, in the end, still affect our country's economic situation. In the latter case, the existing monetary credit policy, which has been adjusted to the agenda, underscores the fact that the necessity of improving the economic situation of the country and the creation of alternatives to corporate financing and capitalization sources should not be questioned. The economic power of the state depends on the successful and successful activities of private entrepreneurs. In turn, private business needs a "source of energy" and it should not be any way dependent on bank financing. Finding the capital necessary for business development in Georgia is quite difficult and business is not growing rapidly, accordingly, the budget loses income source as taxpayers.[3]

Figure 1: Georgia cotuption rank

Source: https://tradingeconomics.com/georgia/corruption-rank (online)

Unfortunately, the absence of a functioning Securities Market in Georgia is clearly visible, and it is absolutely clear that the low level of trade with its main instruments on the Georgian stock exchange. The World Economic Forum, which is a major factor in hampering the competitiveness of the Georgian economy, is named after the World Economic Forum, "Global Competitiveness" (Global Economics Forum) Report 2017-2018).[4]

The Georgian banking system could be a hindering factor and suggested that its monopoly is one of the main reasons for the low market capitalization of the Georgian financial market. Also Corruption, which has a negative impact on the growth of the country's economy, the value of enterprises, capital expenditure and the quality of corporate governance.[5]

As a rule, banks hampered further development of the financial system due to the threat of expected competition. Although empirically strengthening the problem of cross-border movement of goods and capital as a means of solving this problem (slowing down the financial market), these conditions on the paper are exemplary in Georgia, but it is not possible to overcome the above resistance. The reason for this may be the weak institutional organizing of the state of Georgia (non-existent transparency, weak legal protection of

[3] Half of the surveyed Georgian small and medium companies name the market as the main challenge, The remaining 40% consider the funding to be the main problem, and only 10% considers access to knowledge as the main problem. (World SME Forum)
http://forbes.ge/news/2896/bazris-finansebisa-da-codnis-xelmisawvdomoba

[4] Financial market development rank 63/137, score 4.06
https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-competitiveness-report-2017-2018

[5] http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGEORGIA/Resources/Georgia_Book_Georgian.pdf

investors).[6] In institutionally weak countries, investors prefer to finance already existing local credit institutions and implement direct foreign investments (FDI) than the so-called Portfolio investments. It is fact that in institutional investors' portfolio share of alternative investments is not extensional what could be recommended by optimization based on historic data. Such observation and approach is not new (Abuselidze, G., Beridze, L., 2018, p. 30). Many authors, such as Brown, Goetzmann and Park [1999] Swensen [2000], and Asness, Krail, and Liew [2001] criticized historic income and risk parameters, which were used during such analysis (Terhaar, et al., 2003, p.102). The way out of the situation is the development and development of the Securities Market. One of the real leverage of the country's economy is to attract investments, the most accepted and practical form of investing in securities through the stock market. For example, the degree of execution of Georgian tax law should be sharply increased, which is empirically, as a rule, increasing the value of enterprises and improving the quality of corporate governance.

2. THE IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH AND THE PROBLEM

2.1 Securities Market formation retrospective

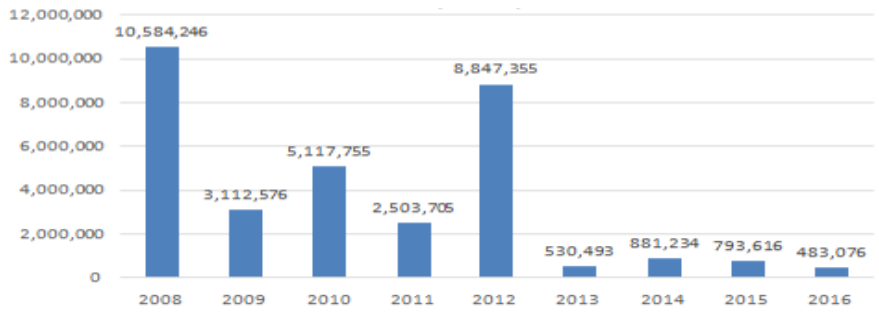
In the 1990s, the Georgian financial market has been at least two serious attempts at establishing a strong Securities Market. Prior to 2007, the securities market supervision was carried out with the norm that was created in the early 90s with the help of various international organizations, and largely united in the United States in the early 1990s to the Securities Markets. In the same period, the Georgian Stock Exchange was established with the assistance of USAID and it counts its existence from 12 January 1999.[7] About one year after the establishment of the IBSB was licensed and granted status of the first self-regulated organization in Georgia. Since March 2000, Georgian Stock Exchange is underway with securities trading operations. It offers an effective investment mechanism both local and foreign investors. Mobilization of investments is one of the actual leverages for progress of national economy. The preference is given to the securities instead of the practical means of investing (Abuselidze, 2013). Generally, mixed investment policy analysis is based on historic data (Gaurav, et al., 2003). Such approach is acceptable for ordinary assets that are frequently traded and observation on their prices may be carried out based on historic data. "At first glance, the organized market was created which brought together all the financial instruments of the enterprise and allowed investors to provide them with favorable transactions through a more or less organized system"[8]. However, the Securities Market, which was similar to the system, showed that the activity that was fixed on it was due to legislative requirements and not the market demand. As soon as this demand was abolished, the market turnover was also reduced. Transactions made by the issuers on the IPSB are distinguished by years of variable information. As of 2007, there is a tendency to increase the number of transactions that we can not say for later years when the number of transactions decreases sharply and only 246 in 2014.

[6]Empirically proven that under the weak protection of small shareholders, capital market development process is getting more difficult (Modigliani/Perotti, 1997) and groups of interested people prefer to lend money from bank. (Modigliani/Perotti, 2000).

[7] http://www.gse.ge/about-gse

[8] Geradze,R., 2016, 15 April, Georgia, Stock Exchange Forbes Georgia, retrieved 23 February 2018

Figure 2: Collective data of transactions recorded by the issuers



Source: https://bfm.ge/ganuvitarebeli-kapitalis-bazari-araswori-regulirebis-shedegia/

2007-2014 was hard for Georgia's corporate securities market. In 2007-2008, there were three events that prevented the possibility of realizing the possibility that this market was already in the process of construction. In our opinion, the following three events are: a) Global financial crisis, b) a war with short-term but long-term effect of the August 2008 Russia-Georgia and c) "third event", which took place before 2007, a short period before the Securities Market About the Law of Radical Changes Package. Despite the fact that the changes were made in the context of "liberalization", the adoption adopted a dramatic decline in trade transparency.
The aim of the amendment was to improve existing legislation, abolish the requirements of inactive and overly obligations and propose liberal legislation relative to the market and its participants at the lower stage of development.
Before the changes were possible only trading on the market, the investor had no opportunity to run a deal with a public-stock paper outside the platform. New edition of the legislation introduced the concept of non-transactional transaction. The investor was given the opportunity to use a brokerage company as a mediator or to direct a direct transaction. At the same time, in order to prevent price transparency and any possible inaccuracy, the legislation was defined by the legislation. Fixing obligation that ensures systematization of information on transactions made with public securities and avoiding attempts to "double bargains".
It was important that the steps towards liberalization in the market were important: there was only one stock exchange and a central depository that was allowed. The amendments made it possible to become all stakeholders in the case of the abovementioned financial institutions (Exchange and Depository) license and to meet the established requirements, to carry out relevant activities.[9]
The seemingly limitations of many developing countries are no longer a hindrance to market development, it refers to investors 'access to various segments and instruments, including non-residents, as well as financial intermediaries' rights to offer a variety of products and services to their clients Nuts. However, it was necessary but not enough to make the market grow and develop.

2.2 Securities Market Formation and Regulation Issues

The Law on Securities Market establishes reporting requirements for enterprises, which in accordance with international accounting standards and regulatory body established by the forms should be drawn up, company's financial situation in order to ensure access to information for all interested parties, as shares Nations as well as potential investors. Supervision over the respective reporting requirements is the prerogative of the Securities Market Regulatory Authority, but it is not clear what measures or responsibilities can be taken

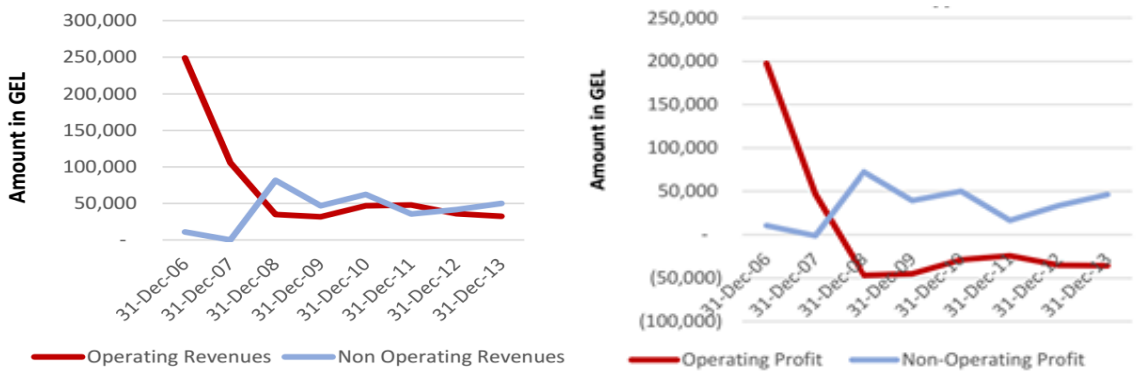
[9] The ministry of Economic Development , Ministry of Finance of Georgia, National Bank of Georgia, Capital Market Development Strategy 2016

when identifying or breaking these requirements is not clear after the legislative amendment adopted by the regulatory body under the so-called "liberalization" of 2007. 1999-2007 years, the independent regulatory body - the National Securities Commission, was equipped with an administration proceeding and imposition of administrative sanctions authorized in 2007, But also for the emission of securities, as well as for transactions related to transactions and for the manipulation of the securities market was removed from the "Administrative Code of the offenders." Is there a so-called "liberalization" of legislation that will protect the investor from the actions or inactivity of the violators of the law?

Also, as a result of the amendment of 2007, the demand for trading through the stock exchange of all transactions on the stock exchange was withdrawn. The problem was not so much in motivating the changes, as far as its lack of implementation. The amendments did not result in the obligation to perform the best of the transaction imposed on brokers, and the stock exchange was not authorized to accept the transaction from the members on the "stock exchange" only. Brokerage companies involved in the transaction, the investors' behalf, or raised their own funds involved in the transaction, providing counseling investors, brokers will examine investor interest securities and the attractiveness of investing in funds, correct, and the potential benefits, risks and minimizing their opportunities Blob and an investor in most cases, based on the opinion of qualified and experienced professionals. According to Article 18, paragraph 1 of the Law of Georgia on Securities, a second transaction of public securities can be concluded both on the stock exchange and outside the stock market, according to paragraph 4 of the same article: "Public securities transactions can be concluded by brokerage companies With or without participation ".[10]

The first reports of the "liberalization of the legislation" indicate the 2010 Annual Report of the National Bank of Georgia, as of December 31, 2010, allocated 128 issuer's securities in the Georgian stock exchange system. The total amount of securities transactions amounted to 101.2 million lari for the reporting period. Out of this, the trading session was concluded with a 5.1 million GEL transaction and a transaction of 96.1 million lari out of the market. [11]During the year 2015, the central deficit decreased by 10.2 million lari in cash flow, as for the number of transactions compared to 2014, 78% decrease.[12]

Figure 3: Income and profit of central depository securities of Georgia (2006-2013)



Source: Capital Market of Georgia, diagnostic study and recommendations (online) http://www.economy.ge/uploads/meniu_publikaciebi/ouer/CMWG_Diagnostic_Report_12_May_2015._GEO.pdf

[10] Low of Georgia of Securities Market Article 18, Paragraph 4.

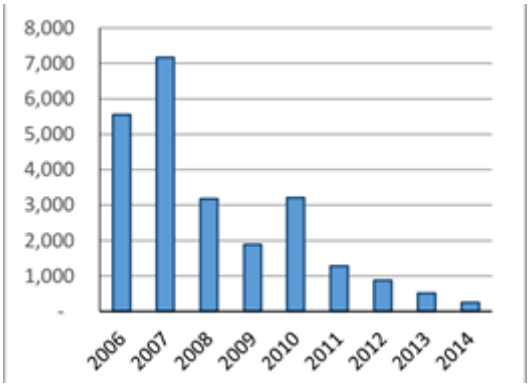
[11] National Bank of Georgia. https://www.nbg.gov.ge/uploads/publications/annualreport/2010/annual_2010_web. pdf)

[12] National Bank of Georgia https://www.nbg.gov.ge/uploads/publications/annualreport/2015/annual_report_2015. pdf pages .118-126)

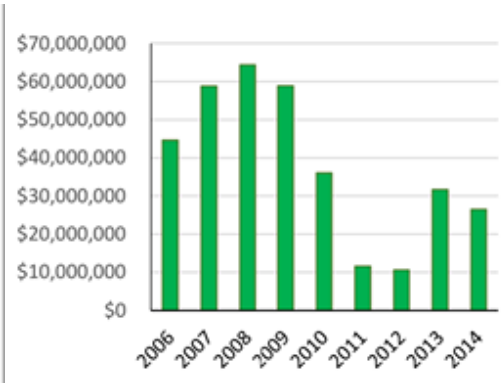
It should be noted that "Improving Mobilization of Internal Resources" The working group of the Capital Market, organized by the authoritative international experts invited by the Government of Georgia within the framework of technical assistance, conducted the diagnostic study of the Capital Market of Georgia and established the trends in the project dated May 12, 2015 Was identified during 2007-2014 years and resulted in the legislative amendments made in 2007.

Figure 4: Local Corporate Securities Trading Trends (2006-2014)

Number of trading transactions



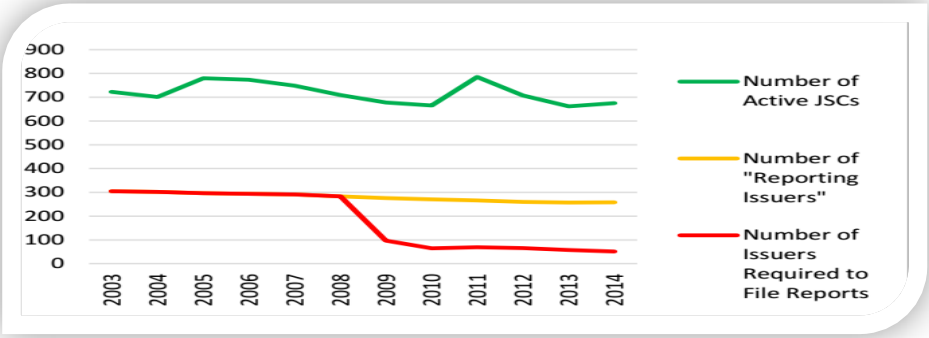
Cost of transactions



Source: Capital Market of Georgia, diagnostic study and recommendations (online) http://www.economy.ge/uploads/meniu_publikaciebi/ouer/CMWG_Diagnostic_Report_12_May_2015._GEO.pdf

In 2007, the amendments to the Capital Market Act also significantly reduced the number of companies that were required to submit their reports publicly. As a result, transparency of the Georgian joint stock companies was no progress, but regress. In 2014, the number of accounts that is 675 active joint-stock companies, only 258 was the "accountable enterprise". 207 out of this quantity were used by the National Bank of Georgia, and only 51 enterprises were reporting annual and periodic reports. Such transparency was just negatively affecting investors' participation.

Figure 5: Transparency of Issuers



Source: Capital Market of Georgia, diagnostic study and recommendations (online) http://www.economy.ge/uploads/meniu_publikaciebi/ouer/CMWG_Diagnostic_Report_12_May_2015._GEO.pdf

Decree N170 / 01 of December 28, 2010 of the President of the National Bank of Georgia approved the "Procedure for Implementing Public Offers of Securities in Georgia by the Securities and Issuer of Securities Accredited by Foreign Securities" [13]and "List of Foreign Countries Recognized Stock Exchanges". According to the above rule, public offer of securities in Georgia may be valid for approval of the emission prospectus: 1. Securities approved for one of the recognized stock exchange of foreign countries (Article 3, P1); 2. Securities which may not be permitted on a foreign exchange market, but provided that the other securities of its issuer are permitted on the Exchange (Article 3, Pillar 2). In the first case, if the investor can see the information about securities in place of its emissions, the risk is that it will not be possible for the investor to receive information on securities, as there is no possibility to have them at all. The so-called "list of recognized stock exchanges", which is approved by the NBG and is listed in the list of 111 countries. The criterion of "recognition" is not given and the only way to build trust for the investor is to share the opinion of NBG or not share it. For public offer of securities, if it concerns the issuance of new class securities, there should be a single regime for all issuers - whether it is a resident or not. It is also confirmed that by April 1, 2013 the N170 / 01 of the President of the National Bank of Georgia made amendments to the order and the list of the recognized exchanges remained in the list of 111 countries.[14]

By the amendment to the Law on Capital Market[15] of September 24, 2009, enforcement of this Law and supervision of the Capital market went to the National Bank of Georgia. NBG became the financial sector magnate. Under the Organic Law of Georgia on the National Bank of Georgia,[16] one of the functions of NBG is supervision of the financial sector (Article 3, P3, subparagraph "b"). The goals and objectives of the financial sector supervision are given in Chapter 8 of the Law "Supervision of Financial Sector". Here is the task of investors' rights protection (Article 47) and the norms specifically to be implemented on the Capital market (Article 52). In addition, the amendments implemented in 2009-2010 increased the sanctions envisaged by the Law on Securities. According to Article 55 § 1 of the Law, the types of violations of securities legislation shall be determined by this Law and the amount of penalties and the rule of their imposition in accordance with the rules established by the National Bank of Georgia. It was desirable that the rule and amount of imposition of funds was to be specified in the law.

3. RESEARCH RESULTS

The work is innovative in terms of its approaches and recommendations, as well as in a new perspective of researching topics. The issues raised in it and these provisions may be used to consider the existing theoretical positions regarding the peculiarities and shortcomings of Securities Market development. In addition, the theoretical significance of the thesis is that the issues discussed in it and the expressed opinions are polemic and requires further depth research. Consequently, it can become a motif and a major base for further studies in the given direction.

Practical realization of the conclusions, recommendations and proposals received as a result of the research will support the country's financial stability and sustainability of economic growth, increase population revenues, create adequate economic strategy, attract investments, and complement the process of formation of alternative sources of financing.

[13] https://matsne.gov.ge/ka/document/view/1161109.
[14] https://matsne.gov.ge/ka/document/view/1885162
[15] https://matsne.gov.ge/ka/document/view/90400
[16] https://www.nbg.gov.ge/uploads/legalacts/nbglow/new/organic_low_nbg.pdf

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The importance of the European reforms to Georgia stipulates the country's aspiration to enter into European legal and economic sphere and commitments undertaken by the Association Agreement with Europe. Under Article 320 of the Association Agreement concluded between Georgia and the European Union, the obligation of the Partnership for the purpose of ensuring effective and adequate protection of investors and other financial services in financial services is determined. In addition, under Article 417 of the Agreement, Georgia is committed to gradual approximation of its legislation with EU law. Implementation of norms in compliance with European standards in national law, in turn, is an important precondition for the development of a developed financial system.

There are important arguments in favor of the fact that development of investor protection legislation will contribute to the development of the securities market. The general level of legal / institutional development related to financing countries with emerging markets increases the trading of the securities market.

In the context of the importance of European reforms for Georgia, the Swiss example should be mentioned. It is not a member of the European Union and it is not obliged to harmonize its own legislation with the European Union's reforms. Nevertheless, Switzerland has initiated significant reforms in financial regulation, in order to harmonize national divisions with European regulations, namely MiFID's requirements.[17] The new Swiss law of financial services (hereinafter FIDLEG) is widely based on European Union legislation and reforms. The main objective of the amendment is to maintain the international competitiveness and attractiveness of the Swiss financial center by approximating the laws of the European legislation. FIDLEG is acknowledging that national banks and the financial system can not compete with competitiveness and efficient functioning without harmonizing with the European Law of Justice.

Based on the above mentioned, it is important that Georgia begin to implement its own legislation in the Securities Market. Prevention is better than treatment.

The Georgian legislation should be improved despite the level of Securities Market development, so that it is ready to increase the role of Securities Market. Georgian legislation should be introduced into the Securities Market for small investors category and norms for the protection of investors that are tailored to this category. It is important that national regulation should not be limited to regulating the securities market and spreading trade outside the stock market, especially as the "gray market".[18]

The Georgian Securities Regulator should become a member of IOSCO. The fact that this has not happened yet has caused some negative consequences for Georgia: at least in the Securities Market, it depreciates Georgia's reputation (factor whose numbers are difficult to convey);

This also means that the National Bank of Georgia does not have access to the IOSCO's very important resource base for capacity development and accumulation of knowledge;

It also implies that such infrastructural institutions, such as the Georgian Stock Exchange and the Central Deposit of Securities of Georgia, are not able to become associated members, which are still repeat the chances of reputation and reinforcement.

Reinstatement of the National Stock Exchange of Georgia by the necessary attributes of the stock market;

The National Bank of Georgia, as the regulator of commercial banks and the institution of their interests, shall be deprived of exclusive right to control the stock market;

Should be abolished The rule of sale of "fixing", or outside of the stock exchanges, resulting from which resulted in the creation of a non-transparent financial market;

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[17] Markets in Financial Instruments Directive

[18] An unofficial market for any kind of trade can not be traded within the traditional regulated market.

The strict policy towards brokerage companies should also be mitigated, as a result, in Georgia, in fact, there is no intermediary link between the commercial bank - the brokerage company. The development of the Securities Market ensures the promotion of liquidity market capital in Georgia, diversification of the financial system, increasing access to long-term investment resources, downtroding the economy and increasing sustainability toward financial sector shocks.

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THE ROLE OF INSTITUTIONS IN ECONOMIC DIPLOMACY

Jana Marková

Abstract

Economic diplomacy is a fairly young discipline in foreign economic relations. In the world, we can see the development of economic diplomacy for about 50 years. To describe the management of economic diplomacy, we can observe three basic models, a unified model, dual model and model of a shared agency. Within these models we monitor different uses of national and international institutions. Economic diplomacy solves a variety of topical issues, always within the competence of the institutions. Within the Czech Republic, which is governed by the dual model in economic diplomacy, the influence of other ministries is noticeable. For example, the Czech Republic is preparing new activity for improving the economic diplomacy. It is called "Czech Team". For the needs of economic diplomacy, the European Union has many specific institutions where the most important is the Directorate-General for Internal Market, Industry, Entrepreneurship and SMEs (DG GROW).

Key words: *economic diplomacy, institutions, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, DG GROW, European Parliament, EU*

1 ECONOMIC DIPLOMACY

Economic diplomacy deals with international economic issues. Economic diplomacy is mainly concerned with what governments do in economy, in the broadest definition. Diplomacy is a relatively elastic term and it has a wide interpretation.

Economic diplomacy can be defined in a number of different ways. The definition mostly includes three strands - facilitating access to foreign markets for national businesses, attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) to a national territory and influencing international rules to serve the national interest.
I describe mainly institutions, state and non-state actors, in this paper. I choose some examples from the actual situation in the Czech Republic for a better illustration. I use actual problems in monetary policy and also show some examples from the EU, where many problems within economic diplomacy are solved.

Woolcock[1] defines institutional framework within which actors operate. Economic diplomacy in recent years has meant more economic negotiations between countries and more interest groups are affected by.

Economic diplomacy is attached to an extraordinary importance in the context of the intensifying economics of international relations within the EU. Economic diplomacy and its individual systems are fully dealt with by the member states. Thus, economic diplomacy is not a direct instrument of the EU's common trade policy and is an exclusive policy of individual member states by holding national economic interests[2].

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[1] BAYNE, N., WOOLCOK, J. The New Economic Diplomacy : decision-making and negotiation in international economic relations. 3rd ed., rev. and updated. Burlington, VT: Ashgate Publishing Limited, England. 2011. 314 p. ISBN 9781409425410.

[2] ŠTOURAČOVÁ, J. A KOL. Proměny ekonomické diplomacie – v ČR a ve světě. Praha: Professional Publishing, 2012. 254 p. 978-80-7431-081-2.

1.1 Models of economic diplomacy

From a global perspective, three basic models of economic diplomacy can be traced. Due to the significant differences between economies, due to the historical development and the economic focus of the countries, we can describe the differences in functioning of the individual institutions that deal with the economic diplomacy. Just like the system of a state and public administration, the system of institutional security for economic diplomacy is not uniform within the European Union. The application and use of economic diplomacy tools is entirely within the competence of national states. At the same time, none of the models is used in its pure form. Different specifics of national states and economies are always included[3].

The unified model is the first type of organizational and competence model of economic diplomacy that creates a unified approach to addressing economic diplomacy issues. In this case, all competencies associated with securing and implementing economic diplomacy at the governmental level concentrate on one ministry (foreign affairs), which in most cases cooperates in very closely with governmental agencies specialized in the economic agenda. These agencies have very wide powers. An example of how to use a single model is Canada, where this is provided by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Foreign Trade.

The structured model or dual model is the second way of organizing economic diplomacy. The dual model can be labelled as a competitive model due to the nature of the institutions. In this case, competencies in the field of economic diplomacy are divided between two basic ministries: the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Such model is applied in the Czech Republic and in Slovakia.

The model of a shared agency is the third type of division of competences in the area of economic diplomacy. The precise competencies are delegated to a relatively broad extent to the government, sometimes to another public institution within this model. As a typical example of this model is Singapore, in somewhat modified form of Germany model, in another form is this type applied in the Great Britain.

1.2 European Union economic diplomacy

Economic diplomacy includes state actors - government employees and officials - with international organizations such as the World Bank, United Nations, World Trade Organization, European Union, ASEAN, NAFTA etc., as well as bilateral negotiations with individual countries when concluding bilateral economic agreements such as the Agreement on Avoidance of Double Taxation, Agreement on Promotion and Protection of Investment, Agreement on Cooperation in Tourism, etc. Economic diplomacy is not engaged in the promotion of specific entities (companies, firms, corporations etc.)[4].

The decision-making and negotiation has general typology in the European Union. There are many factors and independent variables that shape the role of the European Union in the economic diplomacy. These factors mean the EU competence, decision-making regimes, external drivers, systemic factors and the EU's relative economic or market power. EU has its own normative power related to economic negotiations. The breakdown of the phases in any negotiation process is very important. The EU's role and possibly effectiveness in

[3] ŠTOURAČOVÁ, J. Ekonomická diplomacie České republiky. Praha: Professional Publishing, 2008. 249 p. 978-80-86946-71-9.

[4] ZIROVCIC, D., D. Theoretical Principles of Economic Diplomacy. 2016. Available at SSRN. ON LINE: < https://ssrn.com/abstract=2710671>.

international economic relations will be greater the larger the EU's relative economic or market power[5].

2 INSTITUTIONAL ASPECTS OF ECONOMIC DIPLOMACY

To describe the importance of an institution in the sphere of economic diplomacy it is necessary to describe the hierarchy of institutions. Each of the following institutions plays an important role within the EU in promoting the interests of the Czech Republic in the world. Economic diplomacy is currently interfering with many economic life activities.

2.1 Institutions for the economic diplomacy in the Czech Republic

From the institutional point of view, economic diplomacy in the Czech Republic is shared between two ministries - the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic and the Ministry of Industry and Trade of the Czech Republic. The definition of their competencies is determined by Competence Act, which defines the basic framework of their mutual cooperation and synergy within economic diplomacy. For the division of competences, specific agreements are also being drafted, which will surely bridge any conflicts between the ministries.

The role of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is significant thanks to an extensive network of embassies working to support and protect Czech economic interests in the world. Economic diplomacy is devoted to diplomats with an exclusively economic agenda, as well as the heads of embassies and honorary consuls, who play an active role in promoting Czech economic interests abroad. New sector business missions focus on the sector in which Czech companies have a chance to succeed.

Relatively new activities of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs are active instruments such as the Export Client Centre, which offers companies one place to enter the state export service and the United Foreign Service Catalogue. The MFA annually updates the Map of Global Industry Opportunities, bringing an overview of export and investment opportunities around the world by industry and sector.

A key document of the Ministry of Industry and Trade of the Czech Republic is the Export Strategy of the Czech Republic for the period 2012-2020, which focuses not only on the procedures and activities having a direct and exclusive relation to the export processes but also on the related state policies to be used in the Export Strategy. These apply synergies resulting from various activities carried out by public institutions in order to support and develop Czech exports.

This export strategy is based on the current state of the Czech economy and the situation on European and world markets. It defines a strategic framework for export policies by 2020 and summarizes the overall vision of the state's export activities, their objectives and the measures through which they should be fulfilled[6].

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[5] WOOLCOCK, S. European Union economic diplomacy: the role of the EU in external economic relations. Burlington, VT: Ashgate. 2012. 205 p. ISBN 9780754679301.

[6] Ministerstvo průmyslu a obchodu ČR. Exportní strategie České republiky pro období 2012 - 2020 [online]. Praha: Ministerstvo průmyslu a obchodu České republiky. 2012. [cit. 2018-03-03]. ON LINE: <https://www.mpo.cz/assets/dokumenty/45705/51548/587267/priloha001.pdf>.

In addition to the ministerial background, significant government agencies and institutions have emerged in the 1990s in the Czech Republic. These are also key elements of the model. These companies complement their activities with the activities of the above ministries.

Individual institutions have a different character according to their predominant activity in the sphere of economic diplomacy. Following table shows the hierarchy of the institutions of the economic diplomacy in the Czech Republic.

These institutions - mentioned in the table - support export activities and also support activities for the inflow of foreign investments and investments of domestic entrepreneurs abroad. These institutions are both state and non-state.

Agencies belonging to the Ministry of Industry and Trade of the Czech Republic, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic, Ministry for Regional Development of the Czech Republic - CzechTrade, CzechInvest, Czech Centers and CzechTourism. Mutual cooperation of individual subjects is not fully solved in the Czech Republic.

Two main agencies were developed to improve the conditions for the creation of economic diplomacy. These institutions are Czech Trade and Czech Invest and were founded at the end of the last century.

KEY INSITITUTIONS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC			
MINISTRIES	MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND TRADE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS *EMBASSIES*	MINISTRY OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT MINISTRY OF FINANCE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT MINISTRY OF INTERIOR MINISTRY OF DEFENSE OFFICE OF THE GOVERNMENT	*Only the competencies of the MFA and the MIT are defined by Competence Act.* *The involvement of other ministries is primarily based on individual framework arrangements.*
INSURANCE AND FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS	EGAP Export Guarantee and Insurance Corporation CEB Czech Export Bank		*These two financial institutions are currently undergoing organizational changes - managed by MF.*
SUBORDINATED ORGANIZATIONS	CzechTrade CzechInvest CZECH CENTRES CzechTourism Czech Development Agency	MIT MIT MFA MRD MFA	*These subordinated organizations have many foreign offices.*
NON-GOVERNMENTAL INSTITUTIONS BUSINESS UNIONS CHAMBERS ASSOCIATION	Czech Chamber of Commerce Confederation of Industry of the Czech Republic Agrarian Chamber of the Czech Republic		*The involvement of non-governmental institutions is not officially established.*

Since 1997, CzechTrade has been a governmental pro-export organization as part of a state export support system and has the largest capacity for professional and practical implementation of economic diplomacy. The aim of the agency is to support the export activities of domestic entities and to help decision-makers in selecting suitable territories, shorten the time of entry to the market and support activities aimed at further development of the company abroad.

Since 1992, CzechInvest has been a governmental agency for business support and foreign investment. CzechInvest aims to strengthen the competitiveness of the Czech economy by supporting small and medium-sized entrepreneurs of business infrastructure, innovation and foreign investment in manufacturing, strategic services and technology centres.

CzechInvest mediates the whole range of business support in the manufacturing industry, both from EU funds and from the state budget. Another task of this agency is to promote the Czech Republic abroad as suitable locations for mobile investment placement. CzechInvest then has the exclusive right to submit applications for investment incentives. Among other things, it supports Czech companies interested in joining the supply chains of multinationals.

The Czech Centres contribute to economic diplomacy not only within the EU. The management of the Czech Centres dates back to 1949 and has been in operation since 1994. It focuses on three main areas - culture and education, support for tourism and support for external economic relations, in particular by promoting Czech businessmen abroad, especially in offices Czech Centres, or in the form of the transmission of the economic information obtained. Since 1993, there has existed an important institution of CzechTourism, the agency for promoting the Czech Republic as a destination for tourism both abroad and in the Czech Republic. The main tasks of CzechTourism are coordination of tourism activities, destination marketing, media presentation of the Czech Republic and information support for tourism.

In the area of financing and insurance of export relations, EGAP and CEB operate. EGAP - Export Guarantee and Insurance Company has been a state-owned joint stock company since 1992. EGAP is a credit insurance company focusing on market-uninsurable political and commercial risks associated with the financing of exports of goods, services and investments from the Czech Republic. EGAP mainly insures bank loans with a maturity of more than two years. EGAP is an integral part of the state support system for export of the Czech Republic and thus helps Czech exporters and investors.

Czech Export Bank has been part of the Export Promotion Scheme since 1995 and provides exporters with export financing for export credits. It is a specialized banking institution with the task of supporting Czech exports and awareness of the Czech Republic in the world, which should lead to the overall competitiveness of the Czech Republic. CEB's total volume of credits predominates in the engineering and energy sector. There are clearly supported sectors, which not only have a significant impact on employment in the Czech Republic but also have a great innovative potential.

These two financial institutions are currently undergoing organizational changes. The government approved the transfer of shares of the Ministry of Industry and Trade, Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Ministry of Finance so that CEB and EGAP would only fall under the Ministry of Finance. The dual model of economic diplomacy, despite its undeniable advantages, is causing some institutional fragmentation. An agreement on representation in these institutions is foreseen so that the ministries will have

representatives in the supervisory boards of these companies, however the sole shareholder will be the Ministry of Finance.

The Czech Republic participates and strengthens its position on the EU market not only through state institutions and agencies, but also through business associations and chambers. The Czech Business Representation to the EU in Brussels (CEBRE) was founded by three most important cross-sectoral Czech entrepreneurial and employers organizations – Confederation of Employers' and Entrepreneurs' Associations of the Czech Republic, Confederation of Industry of the Czech Republic and Czech Chamber of Commerce. Ministry of Industry and Trade of the Czech Republic together with its trade promotion agency CzechTrade provided support to this joint effort. CEBRE operates in Brussels in cooperation with the Embassy of the Czech Republic to Belgium.

2.2 State and Non-State Actors in the EU

For the needs of economic diplomacy, the European Union has many specific institutions, the most important of which is the Directorate-General for Internal Market, Industry, Entrepreneurship and SMEs (DG GROW).

European Economic Diplomacy is promoted by DG GROWTH and refers to the use of political influence and policy measures to support European economic interests abroad, advocating for the European interest and improving the visibility or image of the EU. Then it helps reduce barriers to trade and negotiate bilateral and multilateral trade agreements and support European companies in internationalising to third countries. The concept therefore includes all aspects of business support, from trade policy to trade promotion.

Foreign policy becomes more effective and impactful if diplomats receive inputs and feedback from the business community. In turn, the European economy benefits when businesses can accompany high-level political delegations to non-EU markets and when diplomats as well as trade negotiators can reduce market access obstacles to open-up new opportunities. In order to forge a greater synergy and systematic cooperation between private and public actors in foreign policy, European diplomacy needs to involve the business community on a permanent basis and actively support it.

The EP could be associated to the inter-service group. The Commission and EEAS should issue the joint communication so that the EP can debate it. The EP can put forward more issues to be included within the scope of economic diplomacy. The EP can bring to bear its experience of parliamentary diplomacy and its networks and contacts.

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The EEAS is the European Union's diplomatic service. It helps the EU's foreign affairs chief – the High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy – carry out the Union's Common Foreign and Security Policy. For the next long-term EU budget 2021-2027, the European Commission is proposing to increase the external action budget of 30%, to significantly simplify its structure, and make it much more flexible and effective to address today's global challenges. The external action budget will be the EU's main tool to support its

partner countries in their political and economic transformations towards sustainable development, stability, consolidation of democracy, socio-economic development and the eradication of poverty.

The issue of internationalising SMEs is mainly followed by the international trade (INTA), economic and monetary affairs (ECON) and budgets (BUDG) committees. A network was set up a few years ago in Parliament's DG for External Policies to support the committees following the issue but it is no longer operational. Generally speaking, MEPs are supportive of initiatives to promote the internationalisation of European SMEs but they also question their effectiveness and possible overlaps with action by Member States. MEPs repeatedly call for closer monitoring of the financing of these tools.

Two years ago, as the concept of economic diplomacy emerged, Parliament's INTA committee prepared a technical briefing bringing together representatives of the different institutions involved in the inter-service group (Secretary General of the Commission, DG GROW and EEAS). The European Parliament expressed concerns about the EU's measures. It has two main problems. There is a relatively high degree of duplication of instruments that are already in place, which results in inefficiency. The line between the Common Commercial Policy (EU competence) and trade promotion (Member States' competence) is very fine.[7].

The European Parliament's participation should be increased in order to provide better coordination and effective monitoring of complementarity and subsidiarity, ensuring that action at EU level does add value to action at Member State level.

3 CONCLUSION

Economic diplomacy is created in the Czech Republic within the framework of a dual model, where competencies are divided between two major ministries, and consequently specific competencies are delegated to other institutions and agencies.

In terms of economic diplomacy, the Czech Republic has an important role within the European Union. The mentioned state and non-governmental institutions significantly strengthen the position of the Czech Republic in the relevant international organizations and within the framework of multilateral agreements and also support the activities of business entities in the economic sphere. An irreplaceable role in economic diplomacy is the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic, the Ministry of Industry and Trade and the Ministry of Finance as a trusted service organization that provides high quality services to businesses and government agencies to help Czech achievements in foreign markets.

The Czech Republic is preparing new activity for improving the economic diplomacy. It is called "Czech Team". CzechInvest, CzechTrade, the Czech Export Bank, the Czech-Moravian Guarantee and Development Bank, the Export Guarantee and Insurance Company and the Technology Agency of the Czech Republic, in cooperation with the Ministry of Industry and Trade, will offer joint support to companies. Thanks to the "Czech Team" created, entrepreneurs should be better oriented in the services of individual organizations and thus easier to gain access to public support.

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The Czech Team created should provide comprehensive support from financing and insurance through research, innovation and development to investment and export. According to the MIT, it is enough to contact any of the institutions involved. Similar teams, according to the ministry, work in Scandinavia and many other economically advanced countries.

Topical issues in economic diplomacy include the conclusion of international agreements. An example of a successful agreement is the Comprehensive Economic and Trade Agreement (CETA), which came into force in the autumn of 2017. The complicated economic relations are currently being monitored between the EU and the US when negotiations on the forthcoming Transatlantic Trade and Investment Agreement (TTIP) have been discontinued and the European Union at the same time faces US customs barriers.

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FUTURE FORMS OF ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

Tatiana Hajniková

Abstract

The development of each economic system is closely related to the development of society. A company evolves in a certain time and space, with some use of energy and information. Economic systems of the future development are based on syntropic economic theories, morality and ethics. The future of human civilization is to return to values, to respect natural and human laws. The future of the economic system lies in ethics and scriptural thinking.

Keywords: *Living Earth System Model, ethics, syntropic economic theory*

1. INTRODUCTION

The need for economics and the subject of economics are based on the law of scarcity. Economics is to be construed as the science of systems and contexts. Klinec (2013) explains the importance of looking at economics as one science consisting of individual partial economic theories, which complement each other, creating a map of economic theories.

Slovak analyst Ižip (2009) notes that economy and investment markets respond to natural laws, not to human laws. This was also the idea of an excellent businessman W. D. Gann: "Every moment on the market is the result of natural laws and causes that existed long before their consequences emerged." He was a staunch supporter of the idea of cycles, which he brought almost to perfection: *„Everything has been working on the basis of previous cycles and history repeats itself in the lives of people, nations and markets."*However, Gann never published his more profound results. He attributed importance to cycles based on repetitions after 100, 50, 20 and 10 years.

According to Jonáš et al. (2009), the economic cycle in essence can be tracked through the market mechanism, which reflects the interaction of aggregate (summary) market demand and aggregate (summary) market supply, reflecting the aggregate independent decisions of individual economic entities. Naturally, the development of economy can not only have a growing tendency; growing tendency of economy can only be considered in the long term. In the short term, the phases of growth and decline alternate. Thus, the frequency of recurrent growth and decline can be considered a general economic rule, characteristic for the conditions of market mechanisms. Such regular rotation of the stages of rise and descent can be called cyclical development and a single wave can be defined as an economic cycle.

What does the system approach allow us to? The approach is encountered in almost each scientific sector. Mečiar (2006) sees the system as a set of elements in a mutual interaction, forming a certain unity. In this system, it is necessary to clarify the relationships between its elements, and to know the structure, functions and the system hierarchy. Therefore, economic systems are related to the development of civilization, they are constantly changing and taking many different forms. The driving force behind this development is a change.

The system approach allows us to predict the behavior of the system in question and the further development of the investigated system. This requires knowledge of inputs, outputs, internal structure, status, and the complexity of the whole system. However, knowing all of the above to the extent enabling us to derive right conclusions is often very difficult. And it is not different in economic systems that have arisen as a response to human needs.

Ethics and thinking in scenarios are the key and essential elements of any future economic systems. Each system, however, is related to a particular stage of development, time and

space. There are many issues to be considered when thinking about the structure of future economic systems. What is the essence of economic development? What is a threat to economic development? Do we understand the purpose of our own existence, the purpose and usefulness of transmitted information? Is the imbalance of economic systems important? What leads to the destruction of a system? What are the most important prediction tools available for the current economics? What are the indicators available for the prediction of the future development of economic systems? What are the starting points used for building the structure of the future economic systems?

1.1 Examination of economic systems and theories in Slovakia and in the world

Each economic theory has its limits of time and scope, each one has its purpose, place and time, and no economic theory can be absolutised.

Scientific examination of the future of economic systems is the preserve of academics Staněk, Klinec, Volner, but also others.

When examining development of the global world, Staňek (2011) comes with a new theory defined as the theory of asymmetries. This view has not yet been processed in the world or in Slovakia. It points to five fundamental asymmetries that it is necessary to dissect in relation to the development of the global economy; it is necessary to perceive the context and to draw conclusions for the future economic development and construction of the future system. These asymmetries were divided into five basic categories: (1) asymmetry of global warming (2) asymmetry of demographic change, (3) asymmetry of wealth and poverty, (4) asymmetry of the financial sector, (5) asymmetry of information technologies.

Klinec (2013) develops the idea of the paradigmatic framework of syntropic economic theory as a response to the failure of economic entropic theories. He draws attention to the importance of information as a structure-forming factor shaping profile and structure of economy. It is necessary that we understand economy and its subsystems as living organisms. Creative design of economic theory and economic systems is essential for designing economic solutions for the global civilization. Klinec (2015) expanded the syntropic theory by the idea of the sixth Kondratiev wave. Kondratiev waves can be regarded as an important instrument of economic forecasting. Opposite to Gann cycles, Kondratiev cycles are elastic and not exactly time specific. Each Kondratiev cycle lasts approximately 60 years, as long as a human life. We are now in the fourth Kondratiev cycle, the first one governed by the flat monetary system. Kondratiev waves of the information age are associated with a change in economic theory, as the 6th Kondratiev wave should be associated with the onset of syntropic economic theory, or economic theories that are created based on the emerging paradigm of syntropy.

Kondratiev's ideas were developed by Schumpeter (2014). Schumpeter analyzed internal and external factors causing the cyclical development of the capitalist economic system and defined the apparatus able to interpret and measure the course of a cycle. He associated cycles with innovation waves, which rely mainly on technical progress, but are not limited to it. This includes, for example, changes in needs, demand and cultural atmosphere. The Schumpeter model of multicyclical development connects long Kondratiev cycles (an average interval of 57 years), medium Juglar cycles (an average of 9.5 years), and short Kitchin cycles (an average of 3.2 years). The connection with innovation is unclear in the short cycles, but in medium-sized cycles, Schumpeter mentions links to innovation in industry and trade.

Neither Kondratiev nor Schumpeter paid enough attention to cycles influencing the transformations of workforce. These are pointed out by e.g. Ch. Freeman et al. (1982).

Kondratiev (1991) named all six cycles, which include the period from 1803 to 2060. The fourth cycle lasted from about the end of the World War II until the first half of the 1980s. Now, we have been experiencing the fifth cycle which is to be completed in 2018, according

to the Kondratiev theory. This theory closely connects each economic cycle with its characteristic technological level. The current era is characterized by the development of IT, telecommunications and robotics. Then, the sixth cycle is expected to bring up breakthroughs in nano-, bio- and information technologies.

Kondratiev (1991) also paid attention to irreversibility and reversibility of economic processes. He came to the conclusion that irreversibility of economic processes is characteristic for the dynamics of economy, and reversibility of economic processes is related to economic statics.

Bačišin (2017) concerns himself with the work of Kondratiev. He draws attention to the fact that the patterns of long economic cycles were confirmed by the economic crisis during the Great Depression and also the oil shock of the early 1970s. The Kondratiev theory of prediction and the methodology of perspective planning can be, among other things, the foundations of long-term economic forecasts. It is a very valuable tool for understanding the broader context.

The methodological bases of the future economic systems are perceived by Volner (2011, pp. 17-25) in: (1) the mathematical work by B. Mandelbrot, the founder of fractal geometry, (2) in the chaos theory, (3) in the theory of thermodynamic equilibrium, (4) in the second law of thermodynamics (5), and in the fourth law of thermodynamics.

In the world literature, we can meet the ideas of a new economic system in the works by Korten (2016). In 2016, Korten presented a new economic system, based on the following three fundamental pillars: (1) health and balance of ecosystems: you need to support individuals and communities in increasing the generative capacity of the Earth's biosphere and to meet the needs of people within the capacity at the same time; (2) common prosperity: this new economic system must promote sharing of resources in order to meet the basic needs of all people by ensuring their right to access the environment; (3) living democracy: the system must give all people active voice in decisions affecting their lives, and promote just and peaceful solutions to conflicts through inclusive and transparent processes.

Korten called such economy a systemic one, a living one, because its basic design principles come from our understanding of healthy living systems. He calls the current, existing economic system "suicidal" economy as it systematically destroys the foundations of its own existence. It is also known as capitalism. Terminal and devastating consequences of the suicidal economy are not natural acts. They are the results of human decisions. We can make different decisions, but we need to understand what we corrupted, and why.

"Suicidal" economy destroys the ecosystem for financial gain and wealth creation: it appreciates life only in its market value. The depletion of the Earth's capacity to support life is considered wealth creation. It provides systematic increase in control of what remains of this capacity to a limited oligarchy.

The idea of the iron oligarchic law was developed by the Czech academic Bělohradský (2016) in his long-term study of different forms of government. In his public lectures, he divided the forms of government based on the number of the decision-making people into monarchy (rule of one), oligarchy (rule of some), and democracy (rule of all). In fact, all forms of government are oligarchic; in a monarchy as well as in a democracy, the government is in the hands of the "political class", a group of people specialized in the control of power. The difference between the governing minority and the governed majority is given by an anthropological constant, which it is not possible to overcome. According to the iron oligarchic law, any organization leads to oligarchization, the rule of minority specialized in governing the organization. And this principle is valid for the management of states and corporations.

The syntropic economic model is provided in works of Fuller (1981), Schrödinger (1992), Prigogine et al. (1984), Capra (1988), Toffler (1984), and many others. Capra (1988) argues that in systemic perspective, economy is a living system, composed of living beings and

social organizations in constant interaction, as well as in interaction with surrounding ecosystems, which they depend on.
The concept of entropy in economic theory was first introduced by Georgescu-Roegen (1971). The American scientist came to the conclusion that economic theory and economics must respect the laws of thermodynamics, and cannot pretend that these laws do not exist, and that economy does not run on the Earth.
Economics should be transformed into an anticipatory system as understood by the terminology of Robert Rosen (1999). Economics as an evolving system should be understood as a living system with a permanent transformation of its structure, organization, principles, etc.
The idea of a Czech astrophysicist Kulhánek (2014) is also interesting; namely, in The Good Soldier Švejk by Hašek, the main protagonist Švejk claims that in the middle of the Earth there is another planet Earth, bigger than the outer one. Some current Czech physicists are inclined to the opinion that Hašek used to personally know Einstein. In 1911-1912, Einstein was a lecturer at the German University of Prague, today's Faculty of Mathematics and Physics at the CU in Prague. It is quite possible that in his routes from the lectures he also visited the nearby pub U Kalicha. This was the place frequently visited by Jaroslav Hašek. The Einstein's theory of general relativity was published four years after his departure from Prague. Already back then, he could wonder about the distortions of time and space. Through the development of this idea, we get to the links between macrocosm and microcosm, between matter and antimatter. The theoretical research of the final fate of the universe was enabled by the Einstein's theory of general relativity from 1916. There are many solutions to the equations of general relativity, and each represents a possible solution to the fate of the universe. On the basis of the Einstein's general equation of relativity, Friedmann (1922) noted that the universe could not be stationary, could not stagnate, but on the contrary, it moved, and thus either expanded or shrank.
In the contribution of Taud (2017) there is even a thought that the works of the Czech writer Čapek are visions. For example, among other things, Čapek attended the lectures by František Wald, professor of theoretical and physical chemistry and metallurgy. The Czech astronomer and astrophysicist Grygar (Taud, 2017) is of the opinion that Čapek was a visionary. His novels and plays pictured what is happening today, for example, in his novel R.U.R. (Rossum´s Universal Robots). Robots already belong to this world and soon, they will be smarter than humans. They know how to lie and have their own intuition. In his next work, The White Disease, Čapek predicted current epidemics, HIV, or the failure of antibiotics. On the contrary, in The Makropulos Affair, he drew attention to where the modern extension of life could lead. And finally, in the War with the Newts, he pointed out that we are able to destroy the Earth due to the desire for profits. We are not able to stop our longing for a growing GDP and rising profits. Though we are talking about sustainable development, the development now ceases to be sustainable. Is there any Čapek's vision that did not work?

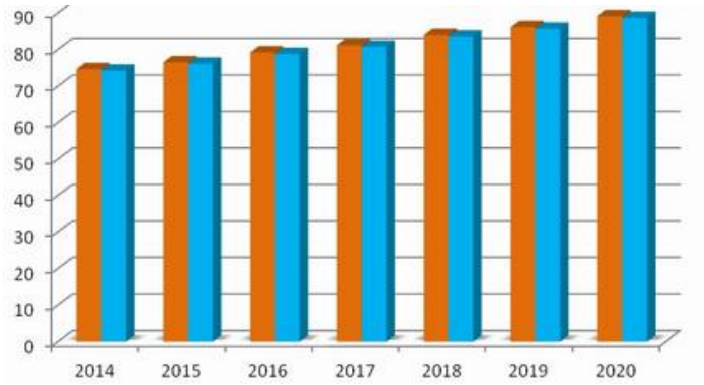
1.1.1 Methodology

The research was based on the basis of hermeneutics and the study of published expert and scientific works of domestic and foreign authors.
In examining economic systems, there were used pairwise methods of logic - induction and deduction. Statistical analysis was used in the verification of economic data.
The examination was concluded by a synthesis. I attempted to eliminate subjectivism by being open to information.
The examined economic phenomena were addressed by methods of positive as well as normative economics.
When predicting the economy as a whole, the question of the place of economy within the cycle is the crucial one. It is necessary to carry out a wide collection of information, and to

make estimates. I focused on the collection of information, and in addition, I also used surveys of various organizations and composite indicators of the Composite Leading Indicator.

Economic cycle is composed of two main phases: the phase of expansion (increase in economic activity) and the phase of recession (decrease in economic activity). The expansion phase is inevitably concluded with the peak. At this stage of the economic cycle it is usual to discuss overheated economy, characteristic with the real GDP being frequently located behind the potential GDP (which is the GDP achieved by natural unemployment rate), low unemployment rate, and emerging problems with high inflation (the inflation spiral begins to set in motion, if the real GDP is behind the potential one). The boom period is followed by the recession phase, closely connected with efforts to reduce the unemployment rate and inflation pressures.

Figure 1. Gross domestic product in Slovakia in 2014-2020 - forecast in billion EUR

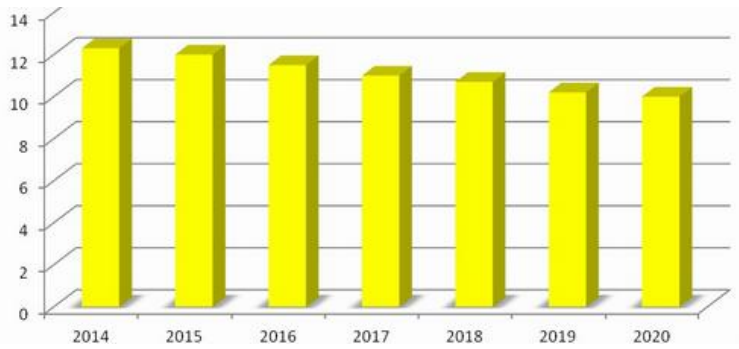


Source: EuroEkonóm.sk (2015): Ekonomika Slovenska 2020 – prognóza. http://www.euroekonom.sk/ekonomika/ekonomika-sr/ekonomika-slovenska-2020/ accessed 2.2.2015

Note: When calculating gross domestic product (ŠÚSR) there were used quarterly GDP data for 2020 in constant prices calculated by chain linking volumes. Red column: GDP at current prices, Blue column: GDP at constant prices of the previous year

Figure 2. Unemployment in Slovakia in 2020 – forecast in %

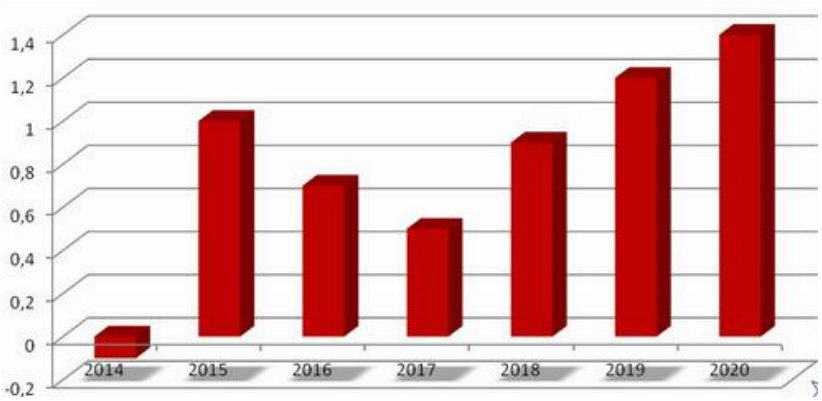
Figure showing the development of unemployment rate in the Slovak Republic from 2014 to 2020 in %



Source: EuroEkonóm.sk (2015): Ekonomika Slovenska 2020 – prognóza. http://www.euroekonom.sk/-sr/ekonomika-ekonomika/ekonomikaslovenska-2020/ . accessed 2.2.2015

Note: When calculating the unemployment indicator (ŠÚSR) there was used the document The Unemployment Rate according to the Labour Force Sample Survey in 2020.

Figure 3. Inflation in Slovakia in 2020- forecast in %
Figure showing the evolution of inflation in the Slovak Republic from 2014 by 2020 in %



Source: EuroEkonóm.sk (2015): Ekonomika Slovenska 2020 – prognóza. http://www.euroekonom.sk/-sr/ekonomika-ekonomika/ekonomikaslovenska-2020/ accessed 2.2.2015
Note: When calculating inflation (HICP) (ŠÚSR), there have been used consumer price indices in 2020 compared to the same period of the previous year.

Figures 1-3 display the relationship between the GDP growth, inflation and unemployment rate predicted for 2014-2020 in the Slovak Republic. The decline in GDP tends to be associated with the decrease in inflation and the growth of unemployment rate and, vice versa, growing GDP means growing inflation and falling unemployment rate. Obviously, the goal of each economy is to achieve a low level of unemployment rate at a low inflation rate and high economic growth
In 2015, thanks to the Millenium project, there was created the State of the Future Index in response to the warning by Bill Gates and Steven Hawking that the AI (Artificial Intelligence) is out of human control.

2. THE DESIGN OF ECONOMIC SYSTEMS FOR THE 21st

The discrepancy between global economic, social and civilizational reality and fragmentary local perspective of economic, social and civilizational problems is undoubtedly one of the main sources of the global humanity crisis.
Staněk (2017) puts emphasis on logic of the economic system and calls this concept ”new architecture". The concept is rooted in the basic construction of the world around us. It identifies the four basic, underlying assumptions applicable to economy as well as human society, and the planet Earth. Energy, information, space and time should be the bases of the new architecture of human society. The issues of profit, productivity, consumption, income - everything basically comes from a combination of these essential elements. A failure in one part of the system is transferred to the system as a whole. Not the formally reported growth of wealth should become the fundamental criterion for the new architecture of human society, but minimizing entropy, which affects its own natural environment, as well as society itself. Substantially increased logic in the system functioning should be the main presumption.
Volner (2011) carried out a study of methodological assumptions of future economic systems, in which he stated that all complicated and complex systems are networked; there are all sorts of multilevel links in them, and more precisely, network links and nodes, providing for

communication with internal structural elements and processes and with the external environment. Economic system will be increasingly networked with all sorts of processes, elements and megaworld networks (gravity, sunlight, the Sun, the Moon), macroworld (network of hydrosphere, fauna and flora), mesoworld - human society (mankind and all approaches to its organization and communication), and microworld (protons, atoms, molecules, DNA, viruses).

Korten (2016) called his thirty years long research the Living Earth System Model. "Suicidal" economy strengthens the global ruling class: it encourages more and more excessive, uneconomical consumption of a few reigning ones, while the majority has limited consumption and is excluded from the access to elementary resources of life - including the right for clean air, drinking water, fertile soil for growing food and a place to live. The majority is also limited in its access to the formation of rules: a political system dominated by businesses that own money gives power to shift decision making to those benefiting from the destruction of the environment and economy, thus creating a positive feedback to strengthening of political decisions, which will ensure the final collapse of the system. Multinational corporations have a leading position in the global economy, whether in manufacturing or services. They have a great influence on economic development and, as given by Harumová (2016), through its own integration structure, they operate globally, without major obstacles in terms of politics, ethnicity or economic problems. They have a huge economic power.

Modern corporations are such large and complex internal systems, so strong and self-realizing, that they largely operate above human responsibility. Corporate rules are becoming more and more out of control, without any internal correction mechanism to stop the systematic social, environmental and political destruction that is left behind.

We are getting closer to the end of a great social experiment. This experiment was regulated by mathematical models of economics based on a wrong value meter and a wrong organizational unit.

Unfortunately, what the ruling classes consume is not a true surplus because economic "excess" of a system cannot be a surplus if it depends on using the generative capacity of the Earth’s natural capital and its ability to support life.

3. CONCLUSION

Economy evolves in cycles; after a fall there is a growth and then the rate of growth slows down or economy falls. It is a healing process with which we were confronted in the past and we will be in the future. Crises have always checked health of sectors; inefficient players leave and are replaced by new and more effective ones. The past has shown that despite adopting various measures mitigating crises, governments have often contributed to deepening of their consequences at prices that seemed to be ineffective, and well-meant interventions have often just prolonged the effects of crises.

The new syntropic paradigm of economic theory is linked to the reorientation of economic systems toward the future and to overcoming the current division of economic theories by means of a unified economic theory.

Important recommendations resulting from the above-mentioned approaches are:

- to understand economy as a living system and to understand all its subsystems. It is associated with the transition from the mechanistic paradigm to the holistic one in economic theory;
- to return to ethics and morality. It is inevitable to change thinking and perspective of the world. Let us add ethics to our freedoms. Freedom without morality is false because all crises have one single common basis, and that is the crisis of values;
- to use thinking in scenarios as a part of anticipatory economic systems;

- to re-align economic theory and systems towards the future. The syntropic concept should be implemented into economic models and theories. Long-term perspective should be implemented to political decision making, with the consequent positive impact on economic reality;
- to perceive economic theory as a map of economic reality. It is necessary to understand this theory as a kind of a mental map, limited in space and time;
- to understand economy as an open subsystem or a component of higher systems such as society, nature, or the universe.

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EMISSION ALLOWANCES AND THEIR IMPACT ON INNOVATION

Petr Hukal, Ladislav Rozenský, Fernanda Lutz, Tereza Šrámková

Abstract

Forests in the Czech Republic are currently struggling with the consequences of abiotic and biotic damage, which are to a large extent caused by the negative effects of greenhouse gases (GHG). One of the instruments to reduce greenhouse gas emissions is the Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS). The Emissions Trading Scheme is one of the economic instruments of environmental policy. The goal of this instrument is to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Emission allowances are a common instrument of the European Union, which is mandatory for all member countries. However, the key issue is the environmental effectiveness of this measure. The aim of this article is to assess whether this system is environmentally effective in the Czech Republic and whether the funds saved for free of charge allowances contribute to innovation in enterprises. The results show that the emission allowance is currently low and is likely to fail to fulfill its regulatory function, but it can also be said that funds back into environmentally beneficial technologies have a positive impact on innovation in under the sub-schemes incorporated into the EU ETS.

Keywords: *Market, emission allowances, Environmental policy, Economic instruments, Carbon dioxide, Innovation*

1. CARBON ALLOWANCES

The aim of this article is to assess the efficiency of system emission allowances in the Czech Republic by using regression analysis and assessing the contribution rate of reimbursed funds to environmentally friendly technologies for enterprise innovations. Year 2016 is considered globally the warmest year in the history of climate measurement since 1880. It is the third record temperature in the series. According to the World Meteorological Organization, the Second Stage is in 2015 and the third in 2014. One of the causes was the continuing El Niño effect, however, from a long-term perspective, global warming is strongly supported by human activities, burning fossil fuels (Green, 1992). Šrámek and Novotný further state that the abiotic causes of damage always dominated the wind. Its share of abiotic mining has generally fluctuated in the past years from two-thirds to three quarters of total abiotic extraction. In 2016, the situation changed and for the first time in this millennium, according to incoming reports, the dominant abiotic factor causing damage to the forest was drought (55.4%). The total reported volume of timber harvest due to drought / damage caused by drought was 1.38 million m3 in 2016. This is the three-volume volume reported in 2015, and it is certainly true that the harvesting of the trees after the dry and warm years of 2015 and 2016 is evident. (Šrámek, Novotný, 2016). Adapting forestry to climate change today is the main task we face today (Schoene at all, 2012). Nowadays most of the expert work agrees that global warming and drought associated with vegetation is caused by human activity. This is especially the high level of greenhouse gases contained in the atmosphere of the country. GHGs arise as a result of human activity, especially the burning of solid fuels. For environmental protection purposes, environmental policy uses various instruments. Economic instruments work in synergy with other greenhouse gas reduction instruments, such as the relevant legislation (Sorrell, 2003). The individual instruments are selected by the states according to the priorities of their environmental policy. One of the basic instruments of this mix is the so-called environmental taxes (Hahn et al., 1992, OECD 2007). These allowances

can also include emission allowances that work similarly. In the European area, emission allowances have become the cornerstone of the design of European environmental policy (Braun, 2009). The purpose of emission allowances is above all to limit greenhouse gas emissions and integrate the costs of removing their negative environmental impacts into the costs of the companies that produce them. This is the so-called internalization of negative externalities. The European Carbon Emissions Trading Scheme introduced in 2005 has led to both spot and futures trading of carbon emissions. However, despite 10 years of trading, we have no knowledge of how profitable carbon emissions trading is (Paresh at all, 2015). Therefore, scientific publishing in this field is very important and research on this subject is more than up-to-date.

1.1 Literature overview

An important study in this area is the study by Professor Nordhause (2005, 2011). He focused his research mainly on comparing the effectiveness of environmental taxes and tradable emission allowances, their advantages and disadvantages.

At present, European countries use emission allowance trading within the EU ETS as the main CO2 abatement tool, but some of them also use carbon taxes. (Leu and Betz, 2016)

The main supporter of emission trading is for example Mansur (2013), which states that in relation to tax, a tradable permit can increase prosperity in the market with imperfect competition. Moreover, based on his model of strategic and competitive behavior of traders in the Central Atlantic Market, he notes that when regulators charge tax instead of an allowance, the loss caused by deadweight costs in imperfect competition is higher.

The price of emission allowances in the EU ETS also deals with Brink, Vollebergh and Van Der Werf in the article *Carbon pricing in the EU: Evaluation of different EU ETS reform options*. They point, in particular, to the current emission allowance market price, which at the current price is relatively far from the projected price of 20 euros in 2020 and thus does not seem to meet the desired effect.

The cost-saving of the use of renewable energy sources, which are also represented in our model, is dealt with by Palmer and Burtaw. A renewable energy tax credit reduces the electricity price to the cost of taxpayers, which limits its effectiveness in reducing carbon emissions, and is less cost-effective at increasing renewable energy than a portfolio standard. Neither is a cost-effective policy and a cap-and-trade policy for achieving carbon emission reductions (Palmer and Burtraw, 2005)

1.2 Innovation to environmentally friendly technologies and processes

Innovation is also considered as an instrument that improves the competitiveness of forestry products. They foster the development of forestry and wood processing, help to succeed in challenging challenges, and are also driving the further development of the forestry sector (Posavec et al., 2011).

It must be remembered that the main source for the development of innovation is the people, the employees of the given enterprise, who carry the knowledge on which the innovations are built. Posavec et al. (2011) maps the situation in Croatian forestry enterprises. He notes that people are not very active in this area in practice. In particular, there are missing incentives and bureaucratic obstacles. Only 2-4% (n = 54) of respondents believe that their work is valued and their level of income depends on the quality of the work done. On the other hand, employees perceive a great potential for innovation and process improvement, including a functioning process for evaluating ideas. The solution is seen in the setting of a legislative framework that provides a system for stimulating, evaluating and rewarding individuals. In this way, innovators will be encouraged to further develop their ideas without fear of failing to secure funding for further research.

In practice, innovation initiators are negatively affected by the risks of uncertainty in demand, changes in technology in new technology, or a rapid rise in technological advances that devalues traditional results in the past. Unless the innovator is able to use the new technology in practice in particular due to a lack of finance or qualified workforce, it may be a good idea to sell this innovation further. As a result, it may mean that in certain moments, the first implementers - innovators, but later incoming - may be more successful on the market, not the imitators (Synek 2011).

Given the existence of global processes and the opening of the market, forestry must necessarily provide high value-added production and services (Posavec et al., 2011).

The incentive to innovate in environmentally friendly technologies and processes can be an effort to minimize the cost of purchasing emission allowances if the business does not use environmentally-friendly technology or, on the contrary, part of the proceeds of the sale of unused emission allowances can be reinvested.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

This chapter contains a description of the materials used and the methods of exploring the research objectives.

2.1 The main target

In line with the fact that the main objective of the article is to assess whether the EU-ETS system is environmentally effective in the Czech Republic and relevant. Up-to-date literature, including scientific articles from the Web of Science database, has been studied and evaluated. Theories and data needed were applied in the descriptive part of the article. Another objective was to assess the usefulness of reinvested innovations in the EU ETS system to environmentally friendly processes and technologies. For both of these purposes, data was created to create time series, from which the charts were then compiled for a more comprehensive understanding of the problem, and a comparative analysis was performed that tried to assess the first of the targets.

2.2 Data

Greenhouse gas emissions are a basic dependent variable. The data source is data from the European Statistical Office (Eurostat). GHG emissions are expressed in tonnes per year of CO2 per inhabitant.

The emission allowance price is an explanatory variable. The data was obtained from the EEX Energy Exchange and the Energy Regulatory Office. Unit is the average annual emission allowance in euro per 1 allowance. The theoretical expectation for this variable is that emission allowance price increases should reduce GHG emissions.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is another basic explanatory change. The data was obtained from the database of the Czech Statistical Office (CSO), as a source of respect. GDP is expressed as a percentage of year-on-year growth for the Czech Republic and a year. Expectations for this variable are that greenhouse gas emissions increase with GDP growth.

3 RESULTS

This chapter contains calculations and research results.

3.1 Data lines and comparative analysis

The following section of the article contains time series of data. Table 1 shows the average price of the emission allowance in the time series from 2005 to 2015. Expectations of the

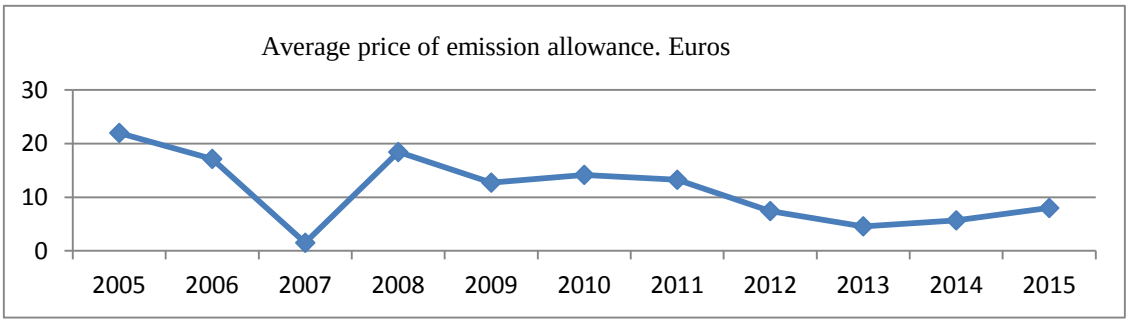
impact of the carbon emission price are that the increase in its price would lead to a decrease in CO2 production. Graph 1 shows these data clearly.

Table 1: Average price of emission allowance. euro / 1 allowance (data 2015)

2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
21,99	17,14	1,50	18,43	12,72	14,17	13,25	7,42	4,57	5,68	7,99

Source: ERÚ ČR, own modification
Note: is based on the average price of an emission permit set by the Energy Regulatory Office of the Czech Republic (this fixed price is converted to the Euro at an average annual rate)

Figure 1



Source: Own work

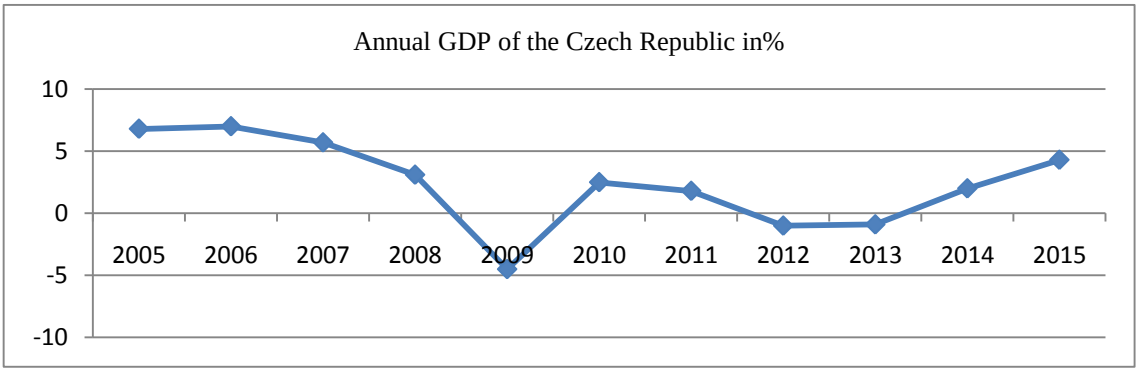
Table 2 shows the annual GDP figures of the Czech Republic in the years 2005 to 2015. This indicator was obtained from the CZSO database and the expectations are that GDP growth will increase greenhouse gas emissions. Figure 2 illustrates these data.

Table 2: GDP Czech republic v %

2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
6,8	7,00	5,70	3,10	-4,5	2,5	1,8	-1,0	-0,9	2,0	4,3

Source: ČSÚ, customized

Graf 2



Source: Own work

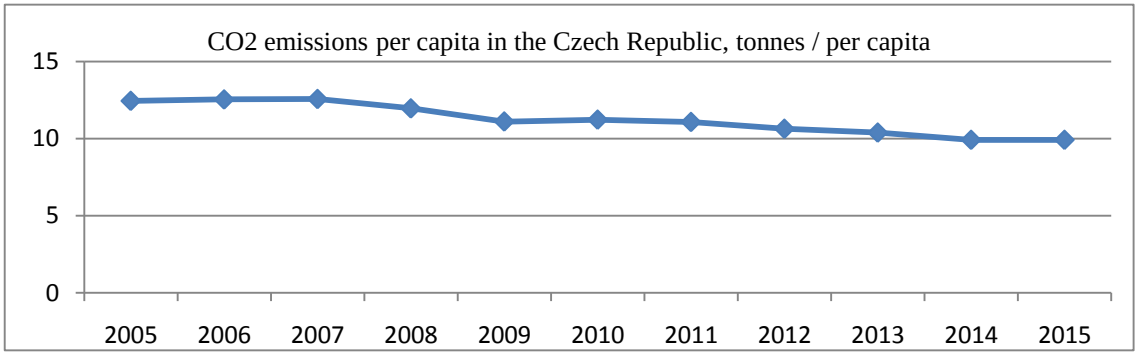
Table 3 contains the data on the amount of emissions produced in tonnes per capita in the Czech Republic. The series is compiled from the data for the years 2005 to 2015. It is a basic analysis variable, the movement of which, depending on the remaining factors, will be examined. Graph 3 clearly shows these data.

Table 3: CO2 emissions per capita in the Czech Republic, tones / per capita

2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
12,45	12,54	12,57	11,96	11,11	11,23	11,08	10,64	10,39	9,92	9,92

Source: Eurostat EU, customized

Figure 3



Source: Own work

4 DISCUSSION

The overall CO2 emissions in each country are affected by various factors. In particular, it is necessary to interpret the data in terms of climatic conditions and GDP growth or also the population of that country. It is also necessary to take into account the export and import of fuels, energy and electricity. Here, in terms of CO2 emissions, it is preferable for a Member State to import more than its part from the production of imported fossil fuels. Long-term data from the Statistical Office show that, despite all the measures adopted, the Czech Republic together with Estonia, the Netherlands and Luxembourg are among the four countries with the highest CO2-per capita production. (Eurostat, 2016). This is apparently influenced by several factors, namely the position of the Czech Republic, the mountainous border regions of the Czech Republic and the industrial orientation of the Czech economy, focused on exports. The comparative analysis shows that, despite the above mentioned facts, the Czech Republic is able to reduce CO2 production in the long term. Furthermore, it is quite significant that the amount of GDP affects the amount of greenhouse gas emissions. See increase in emissions from 2005-2007, coupled with GDP growth and a significant drop in 2009 emissions, coupled with a sharp fall in GDP due to the ongoing economic crisis. The function of the economic regulatory action - emission allowances is quite prominent in the data for 2007, when the decrease in GDP has led to an increase in CO2 emissions, which was probably influenced by the too low average emission allowance price on the European market. This price was probably influenced by the economic crisis that began in the western EU countries before the Czech Republic. It also follows from the data that during the economic recession, from 2015, there was no year-on-year increase in CO2 emissions. According to Eurostat, there was no year-on-year increase from the EU member states only for Germany and the Czech Republic. Among other things, this is probably due to a small, renewed increase in the price of emission allowances. The increase in emissions from other Member States shows that this price is probably unnecessarily low and does not fulfill its regulatory role well, and that the Czech Republic appears to be in line with the theory outlined above still reserving greenhouse gas emission reductions. So you can agree with Bring at. all in the article "Carbon pricing in the EU": the projected price of 20e emission allowance for 2020 is far away from the real price

and that this current price probably does not perform well. An overview of current knowledge also shows that reinvested funds into environmentally friendly production technologies and processes positively influence the degree of innovation of the businesses concerned.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Long-term scientific studies in the EU show that the introduction of a system of tradable emission allowances has led to a drop in CO2 emissions for large polluters, while emissions from small stationary pollutants, transport and households have increased. These data signal the need for regulatory intervention by the EU institutions to ensure that greenhouse gas emissions are further reduced. Another option is the introduction of a carbon tax as a further tool to reduce greenhouse gas emissions across the EU. The functionality of this tool mix is proven, for example, by the experiences of the Nordic countries, which have been in place since the 1990s. The Tradable Energy Quotas (TEQs) appears to be an innovative and possible direction for the positive trend of reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the European area. This system, as stated in the work, regulates citizens and small businesses and organizations and leads them to energy management. It also has a sophisticated evaluation and review system. Another capable system - Cap and Share - enables the global aspect and the involvement of developing and expanding countries in the system. In the case of these countries, it is about freezing the greenhouse gas production to the current state. However, future developments in the EU territory can be predicted by increasing the importance and involvement of environmental taxes in the mix of instruments designed to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. In particular, so-called carbon taxes. The Czech Republic also has a study on the introduction of carbon tax, including an impact study. The statistical comparative analysis shows the dependence of the growth of GHG production on GDP development. Which has a negative impact on this analysis. Its growth in the Czech Republic is accompanied by an increase in greenhouse gas emissions. The model may be partly distorted by the economic crisis and the subsequent recession in 2009 and 2013. On the other hand, the positive impact of the price of the emission allowance is not entirely apparent from the model, due to the crisis, respectively the recession and the consequent low price of emission allowance on the market. There seems to be room for EU regulatory action and price regulation, and the addition of an economic tool mix to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by carbon tax could also have a positive effect. A further research in this area and the ongoing evaluation of data and data will be required for the correct composition of the economic tool mix to reduce CO2 emissions in the Czech Republic. New research will be launched in the future, where synergies between other instruments, such as excise duty on solid fuels, energy tax and regulatory fees, will be considered. The most appropriate research method could be multi-channel regression analysis, which is able to take into account the synergic effects of instruments and factors. Similarly, the idea of incentives to invest in environmentally friendly technologies and production processes appears to be correct and it is most appropriate to continue with this environmental policy. The results study of scientific articles also show that in this way innovation in manufacturing plants is most desirable and correct.

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DÔCHODKOVÁ REFORMA V TALIANSKU

PENSION REFORM IN ITALY

Karol Trnovský, Ján Toma

Abstrakt

Taliansko je zakladajúcim členom Európskej únie a zároveň treťou najväčšou ekonomikou eurozóny. Ekonomická sila je vyše 15 percent HDP celej eurozóny. Napriek tomu je ekonomika druhou najzadlženejšou hneď po Grécku s dlhom okolo 132 percent HDP. Situácia je zložitá. Bankrot, tak veľkej krajiny, by mal ničivý dopad na celú eurozónu. Zachraňovanie formou „Európskej pomoci“ sa javí príliš nákladné. Štrukturálne reformy a úsporné opatrenia sa zdajú nevyhnutné, avšak realita po nedávnych voľbách tomu nenasvedčuje. Ohrozená je dokonca existujúca reforma dôchodkového systému. V článku si priblížime existujúcu dôchodkovú reformu a jej význam pre Taliansko a celú eurozónu.

Kľúčová slova: *Migrácia, dôchodková reforma, Taliansko*

Abstract

Italy is one of the founding states of European Union and the third largest eurozone economy. Economic strength exceeds 15 percent of the EU GDP. Nevertheless, the economy is the second most indebt right after Greece, with about 132 percent of GDP in debt. The situation is complicated. Bankruptcy of such a large country would have a devastating impact on the entire euro area. Rescue in the form of "European aid" seems too costly. Structural reforms and austerity measures appear to be necessary, but the reality after the recent elections is not in their favor. Even the existing reform of the pension system is jeopardized. In this article, we will examine the existing pension reform and its importance for Italy and the whole euro area.

Key words: *Migration, Pension Reform, Italy.*

1 ÚVOD

Po druhej svetovej vojne sa v Taliansku uplatňoval klasický dávkovo definovaný PAYG systém. Podobne ako v mnohých ostatných krajinách sa časom tento systém začal javiť ako neudržateľný, a preto sa na prelome osemdesiatych a deväťdesiatych rokoch začalo na talianskej politicko-ekonomickej pôde diskutovať o reforme talianskeho dôchodkového systému. Táto reforma bola zacielená najmä na zabezpečenie fiškálnej konsolidácie a dlhodobej fiškálnej udržateľnosti, no taktiež bola zameraná na zlepšenie fungovania trhu práce. Reforma sa začala v roku 1992 a ďalšie veľké úpravy systému sa udiali v roku 1995, ale ani tie neboli zďaleka posledné. Taliansky dôchodkový systém prešiel úpravami aj v novom tisícročí a mnohé zmeny podstúpil v posledných rokoch. Preto keď sa na súbor týchto opatrení pozrieme ako na jeden celok, môže sa nám reforma javiť ako nekonečná (Never-Ending Reform), ako je označovaná mnohými odborníkmi zaoberajúcimi sa touto problematikou, napríklad talianskym ekonómom Daniele Francom.

2 PRÍČINY REFORMY

Prvou významnou príčinou bol negatívny trend vo výdavkoch na dôchodky. V roku 1960 predstavovali 5 % HDP, ale 13,2 % v roku 1992. V roku 2030 by to predstavovalo 25 %

HDP. Podľa vtedajších prepočtov by miera príspevku zamestnancov v privátnom sektore zabezpečujúca rovnováhu systému znamenala nárast na 60 % v roku 2025. Ďalšou príčinou boli podmienky na pracovných trhoch. Nedostatok aktuárnej korelácie medzi veľkosťou dávky a vekom odchodu do dôchodku podnecoval k skoršiemu odchodu do dôchodku, teda existovalo vysoké implicitné zdanenie tých, ktorí pracovali dlhšie. Za poslednú neopomenuteľnú príčinu môžeme považovať deficitnú mieru návratnosti voči príspevkom (dôchodky > príspevky). „*Napríklad v dôsledku štruktúry vzorca pre výpočet dôchodku – ceteris paribus – kúpna sila dôchodku zamestnancov v privátnom sektore bola inverzne proporčná k miere inflácie v roku predchádzajúcom roku odchodu do dôchodku, dôchodky stredno-príjmových a vysoko príjmových skupín strácali kúpnu silu vo vzťahu k inflácii*“[1]

3 PODSTATA REFORMY

Jednou z hlavných čŕt reformy v roku 1992 bolo zvýšenie odchodu do dôchodku pre pracujúcich v súkromnom sektore z 55 na 60 rokov pre ženy a zo 60 nad 65 pre mužov. Referenčné obdobie pre kalkuláciu zárobku započítavaného pre dôchodok bolo predĺžené z 5 na 10 rokov. Pre mladších zamestnancov, ktorí prispievali menej ako 15 rokov do systému k roku 1992, sa obdobie predĺžilo na celý čas ich pracovnej aktivity. Staršie zárobky sa prepočítali sadzbou zodpovedajúcou životným nákladom plus 1 % za rok. Minimálny počet rokov príspevkov do systému oprávňujúcich poberanie dôchodku sa zvýšilo z 15 na 20. Referenčný index pre indexáciu dôchodkov za zmenil z miezd na ceny a vláde bolo umožnené zaviesť diskrečné dodatkové úpravy prostredníctvom rozpočtu. Minimálny počet rokov príspevku vyžadoval od zamestnancov v privátnom sektore, aby odpracovali aspoň 35 rokov.
Túto reformu môžeme označiť ako parametrickú[2] a jej uplatnením sa zrušila až štvrtina pohľadávok dôchodkového systému voči obyvateľom Talianska. Reforma začala ako graduálna harmonizácia dôchodkových pravidiel a zaviedla sa väzba medzi úrovňou dôchodku voči príspevkom. Rovnako stanovila podmienky pre lepšie plánovanie a budúce systematickejšie zmeny. Nasledujúce reformné opatrenia sa uskutočnili v roku 1995. Projekcia výdavkov dôchodkového systému bola v tomto období v Taliansku stále znepokojujúca a vysoká úroveň miery príspevkov zabezpečujúcich konsolidáciu systému viedli k ďalším zmenám. Zatiaľ čo reforma z roku 1992 hľadela tunelovou optikou najmä na cieľ zníženia dôchodkov, druhá z roku 1995 sa už zamerala celú sústavu cieľov, ktorými boli:

- „Stabilizácia podiel výdavkov na dôchodku voči HDP;
- Redukcia deformácií na trhu práce;
- Vytvorenie spravodlivejšieho systému;
- Zavedenie tesnejšej väzby medzi dôchodkami a príspevkami jednotlivca do systému“[3]

Dôchodky sa vzťahovali k príspevkom do systému zaplateným za celé obdobie pracovnej aktivity. Každý zamestnanec bol držiteľom virtuálneho účtu sociálneho zabezpečenia. Pri

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[1]FRANCO, D.: *Italy – A Never –Ending Pension Reform.* In: Social Security Pension Reform in Europe, edited by Fledstein, M. – Siebert, H. ISBN 0-226-24108-4, s.218.

[2] Parametrický typ reformy sa snaží znižovať hodnotu vyplácaných dávok a zvyšovať príjmovú stránku dôchodkového systému zmenou parametrov v rámci existujúceho systému.. Medzi základné opatrenia v rámci parametrických reforiem sa zaraďujú:
• zmena spôsobu indexácie dávok (zvyčajne z indexácie podľa miezd na indexáciu podľa inflácie)
• predlžovanie dôchodkového veku a zrušenie niektorých nesystémových dávok
• predlžovanie doby povinných platieb odvodov do systému a pritvrdzovanie podmienok výplaty dávok
• zlepšenie výberu odvodov a efektívnejšia administrácia.
Prevzaté z: THOMAY, M.: *Koncepcia reformy dôchodkového systému.* Dostupné na internete: http://www.ineko.sk/reformy2003/menu_dochodky_koncepcia_fahayek.pdf.

[3]FRANCO, D.: *Italy – A Never –Ending Pension Reform.* In: Social Security Pension reform in Europe, edited by Fledstein, M. – Siebert, H. ISBN 0-226-24108-4.

odchode do dôchodku sa dôchodok určoval ako násobok bilancie účtu a konverzného koeficientu zohľadňujúceho vek odchodu do dôchodku. Koeficienty, ktoré vyrovnávajú súčasnú hodnotu budúcich dôchodkov kapitalizovaným príspevkom, sa môžu revidovať každých 10 rokov na základe zmien v očakávanej strednej dĺžke života a porovnanie sadzieb rastu HDP a zárobkov odhadnutých pre príspevky sociálneho zabezpečenia. Zamestnanci si môžu vybrať odchod do dôchodku medzi 57 a 65 rokom života. Dôchodky sa vzťahujú k priemernej dĺžke života a očakávanej dĺžke života, veku odchodu do dôchodku prostredníctvom konverzných koeficientov na základe aktuárneho diskontovania. Minimálny počet rokov prispievania vyžadovaných pre starobný dôchodok sa redukuje na 5. Garantovaná minimálna výška penzie sa rušila.
Táto reforma bola značne inšpirovaná švédskou reformou a znamenala prechod od dávkovo definovaného systému na príspevkovo definovaný systém s virtuálnymi akumulovanými príspevkami transformovanými na anuitu v čase odchodu do dôchodku.
Vzorec na výpočet dôchodku sa zaviedol v tejto podobe: :[4]

$$P_t = \beta c W_0 \sum_{k=1}^{a=1} (1+g)^k (1+w)^{a-k}$$

Kde:
β je konverzný koeficient[5]
c je miera príspevku
W_0 je vstupná mzda
a je počet rokov prispievania
g je ročný nárast zárobku počas celej kariéry
w je priemerný rast HDP.

V poslednom období boli v Taliansku prijaté zákony, ktoré zvyšujú vek odchodu do dôchodku a majú v snahe tento vek harmonizovať naprieč verejným a súkromným sektorom ako aj naprieč mužským a ženským pohlavím.
Uskutočnené reformné opatrenia sa týkali nielen prvého piliera, ale reforma obsahovala aj zmeny v rámci druhého a tretieho piliera.

I. Pilier – Verejne spravovaný, s priebežným PAYG financovaním, založený na princípe virtuálnych individuálnych účtoch NDC.
II. Pilier – Súkromného, dobrovoľného a kolektívneho sociálneho zabezpečenia na príspevkovo definovanom princípe financovania. Tento pilier obsahuje súbor zamestnaneckých fondov a otvorených fondov bankových inštitúcií a poisťovní.
III. Pilier – Dobrovoľného individuálneho sociálneho zabezpečenia. Tento pilier je štandardnou formou tretieho piliera podľa klasifikácie OECD, a preto funguje na veľmi podobnom princípe ako napríklad tretí pilier v Nemecku alebo na Slovensku.

Už v deväťdesiatych rokoch bol dosiahnutý konsenzus o potrebe rozvíjať doplnkové dôchodkové fondy. Považovalo sa to nielen za prostriedok ako vyhovieť rozličných požiadavkám rozličných sociálnych skupín na dôchodok, ale aj ako doplnkový prostriedok k redukcii miery náhrady vyplývajúcej z reformy PAYG schémy. Tiež ako posilnenie inštitucionálnych investorov na kapitálových trhov. V dôsledku legislatívnych zmien v roku 1993 a 1995 mohli zamestnávatelia a zamestnanci unilaterálne alebo spoločne založiť uzavreté zamestnanecké fondy. Banky a poisťovacie spoločnosti mohli vytvárať otvorené fondy, do ktorých sa ale zamestnanci mohli zaregistrovať len v prípade zániku podniku,

[4]FRANCO, D.: *Italy – A Never –Ending Pension Reform.* In: SocialS ecurity Pension r form in Europe, edited by Fledstein, M. – Siebert, H. ISBN 0-226-24108-4.
[5]Konverzný koeficient je v škále od 4.7 % pre vek odchodu do dôchodku 57 a 6.1% pre 65.

alebo ak neexistoval pre dané odvetvie uzavretý fond. Fondy samozrejme pracujú na príspevkovo definovanej schéme. Od roku 2007 sa zaznamenal rozvoj druhého piliera v dôsledku možného transferu odstupného do penzijných fondov. Od júla 2008 penzijné fondy musia poskytovať štandardný penzijný plán a tak si jednotlivci môžu porovnať odhadovaný budúci dôchodok s predpokladanými vlastnými potrebami. Je umožnené, aby jednotlivci modifikovali v týchto štandardných plánoch premenné tak, aby si vytvorili vlastný individuálny penzijný plán zohľadňujúci mieru príspevku. rizikový profil investícií, vek odchodu do dôchodku a pod. Penzijné fondy musia dodať jednotlivcov ich osobný penzijný plán zohľadňujúci hypotézy a predpoklady poskytované Úradom pre dohľad nad penzijnými fondmi.

4 ZÁVER

V roku 2011 sa v Taliansku zaviedli významné zmeny vo fiškálnej legislatíve vo vzťahu k dôchodkovým fondom, individuálnym dôchodkovým plánom vrátane otvorených penzijných fondov a individuálnych životných poistiek. Tieto zmeny spočívali najmä v zvyšovaní daňových výhod, úľav a rôznych aplikovaných výnimiek v rámci fiškálnych a daňových pravidlách. Ich hlavným cieľom bolo podporiť a rozšíriť II a III. pilier. Taliansky systém neustále prebieha úpravami a zmenami vo svojom „Never Ending“ koncepte a je typickým príkladom rozdielneho ponímania trojpilierovej schémy. Na záver môžeme preto spomenúť, že tento systém sa vďaka niektorým svojim špecifikám nedá stopercentne prirovnať k základným trojpilierovým. Aj napriek tomu ide o pomerne efektívny nástroj, ktoré zadlžené Taliansko potrebuje. Nová populistická vláda avizuje možné zmeny práve v existujúcej dôchodkovej reforme. Odchod veku do dôchodku by mohol vyť vypočítaný ako číslo sto mínus počet odpracovaných rokov. Demografický vývoj však tuto formulu nepodporuje. Takáto zmena by mohla stáť Taliansko podľa odhadov viac ako 125 miliárd eur. Zrušenie štrukturálnych reforiem spolu s populistickými opatreniami a sociálnymi balíčkami by mohlo vážne ohroziť zadlženosť Talianska a vážne narušiť fungovanie eurozóny.

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EVALUATION OF TRANSPORT AND FORWARDING COMPANIES BY MEANS NEURAL NETWORKS

Jakub Horák, Marek Vochozka, Veronika Machová

Abstract

The aim of the contribution is to put forward a model of a neural structure that is able to evaluate whether a transport and forwarding company is creditworthy or whether it is potentially at risk of going bankrupt. The contribution utilizes a data-mining tool – neural networks of DELL Statistica software, classification analysis and two groups of neural networks, a multilayer perceptron network (MLP) and a radial basic function neural network (RBF), for the analyses. The obtained neural networks were able to predict the correct result with a probability of 99.5%, but were not able to identify companies potentially at risk of going bankrupt.

Key words: *neural network, bankruptcy prediction, financial statements, transport and forwarding companies*

1 INTRODUCTION

By evaluating the creditworthiness of transport companies it is thought possible to minimize the loan risk and improve the decision making process in terms of whether to instigate a business relation at the economic, legal and social level (Yongly et al., 2013). The level of creditworthiness not only indicates the ability of transport companies to continue their activities, but it also reflects the level of risk the company poses (Brooks, 2014). The evaluation process depends on what options there are for data processing and on developments in communication (Klieštik et al., 2018). According to Vochozka, Rowland and Vrbka (2016), the evaluation of creditworthiness is a very complicated goal and requires the application of systemic thinking in the form of multi-criteria decision making methods.

1.1 Literature review

Numerous models for the evaluation of transport companies, as well as companies in other sectors, exist (Vochozka, Rowland and Vrbka, 2016). However, there is not one single methodology that has been identified as the best for doing so. According to Brooks (2014), the main goal of current research is to improve their diagnostic and prognostic abilities. Methodologies are being developed in institutions as well as in banking, insurance and other financial institutions (Knez-Riedl and Mulej., 2004). According to Balcaen and Ooghe (2004), some of the models used for measuring the creditworthiness of transport companies include: survival analysis; decision trees; fuzzy rules based on a classification model; multi-logit models; CUSM models (cumulative sum model), DEHA (dynamic event history analysis); chaos theory model; MDS (multidimensional scaling); LGP (linear programming); MCDA (multiple-criteria decision analysis); fuzzy set analysis; expert systems; SOM (self-organizing maps) and in particular the method of artificial neural networks (ANN). Financial information on the level of stability of a company is often used for the estimation of the creditworthiness of a transport company (Brooks, 2014). The addition of non-financial ratios ensures the qualitative improvement of such models (Novak and Crnković, 2007).

According to Brooks (2014), a transport company with a higher level of creditworthiness is exposed to lower risk, which leads to the better availability of funds and lower costs of funding. Information on the creditworthiness of transport companies is primarily used by

banks and suppliers to estimate the level of credit risk (Balcaen and Ooghe, 2004). It can however also be used by a customer as a tool for estimating the future stability and accessibility of the goods, and in particular with regards to transport companies, the services a customer buys (Yongly et al., 2013). This information is also used by auditors responsible for the quality of a company´s financial statements (Novak and Crnković, 2007).

The provision of credit is not and should not be the only reason for transport companies to measure their creditworthiness. The level of creditworthiness also has an impact on investment decisions, the emission of bonds, supplies, sales, leasing, public opinion, as well as on the initiation and development of relations or partnerships with other companies (Yongly et al., 2013). A transport company that is aware of its own credibility, as well as the solvency of its partners, can control its decisions in a more proactive manner (Aworemi and Ilori, 2008).

A system of ANN based on biological structures, is one of the calculation methods for determining the level of creditworthiness of transport companies (Mohamad, Ibrahim and Massoud, 2014). ANN system is an efficient method for solving a number of economic classification and regression problems and it represents a modern, widely used computational tool especially where it is impossible or too difficult to use traditional approaches (Stehel, Vrbka and Rowland, 2016). ANNs are inspired by biological neural networks, particularly by the behaviour of neurons. The ANNs represent a group of intelligent technologies for data analysis which differs from the other classical techniques, especially by the so-called adaptation phase when the neural network learns from the appropriately identified training examples representing the given problem (Hogenboom et al., 2015). Learning can be conducted in two ways, with or without supervision. In the second phase (active phase), the ANN performs the learned activity, i.e. it retrieves the information. A single neuron is not able to perform a very complex function. Therefore, the power of system using an artificial neuron lies in the structure and in the large number of neurons. The first layer is called the input or separating layer and is designed to receive the values that are to be processed from the environment. Then, it processes them for the input of each neuron of the subsequent inner layer(s). The inner layers are called hidden layers. Their number depends on the complexity of the functions that the network is designed to solve and on the type of the network (Vochozka et al., 2016). The final layer is known as the output layer and it offers output values that represent the response of the whole system to the input samples. The topology of stratified neural network is marked down in a coded form. For example: 32-23-2 means that the network has 32 input neurons, one hidden layer with 23 neurons and 2 neurons in the output layer (Stehel, Vrbka and Rowland, 2016).
Some of the main advantages of the artificial neural network method for the evaluation of the creditworthiness of transport companies are as follows (Vochozka et al., 2016):

- ability to learn;
- ability to generalize;
- approximate nonlinear functions;
- flexibility and adaptability.

Like with any other available model, the use of artificial neural networks has its drawbacks (Vochozka et al., 2016):

- variables must be carefully selected and prioritized (requires high quality data);
- risk of over-fitting;

- requires definition of architecture;
- possibility of illogical network behaviour.

Artificial neural networks of the back-propagation type are often used Wu et al. (2011) for the evaluation of company credibility because the results indicate that this method is effective and achieves high levels of accuracy. García, Giménez and Guijarro (2013) claim that logistic regression and discrimination analysis are the most frequently used statistical method for the determination of the creditworthiness of transport companies. However, both methods suffer from the need for a high number of companies and their classification into two groups (solvent companies and insolvent companies). New applied methods utilize neural networks and multi-criteria methods instead. The aim is therefore to design a model that would not segment a sample into two groups, but that would be able to distinguish continuously between solvency and insolvency (García, Giménez and Guijarro, 2013).

Martins and Da Silva (2001) confirm that artificial neural networks are frequently used in financial applications nowadays. Boolean neural networks, which are low in cost and easy to implement in terms of hardware, are particularly applied. Their successors, Goal Seeking Neuron networks or Probabilistic Logic Neuron networks, can be used for the assessment of the viability of transport companies. The Goal Seeking Neuron networks are similar to the back-propagation networks. They are characterized by their simplicity, quick training and one-shot learning.

The aim of this contribution is to put forward a model of a neural structure that will be able to evaluate whether a transport and forwarding company is creditworthy or whether it is heading towards bankruptcy.

2 METHODOLOGY

The data used for the analysis came from the Albertina database. The data covers transport and forwarding companies corresponding to the CZ – NACE codes 49410 and 49420. The final sample includes the characteristics of those companies that were operating on the Czech market in the period 2005-2016. Each individual year and company is considered to be a separate data line for the analysis. The data therefore consists of 12,928 data lines.

The Intelligent Solver tool, a data-mining tool for neural networks, which is a part of the Statistica software (version 12) by DELL, was used for the analysis. Classification analysis was utilized for the division of the companies into creditworthy ones and those at risk of bankruptcy.

Continuous as well as discrete values were used for the analysis. The information on whether a company was at risk of going bankrupt or not, served as the final discrete value. The data was distributed to the training, testing and verification data sets in the ratio of 70:15:15. The seed for the random selection was left at the default value i.e. 1,000.

Two groups of neural networks, the multiple perceptron network (MLP) and the radial basic function neural network (RBF), were utilized for the analysis The MLP only utilized one hidden layer. The number of neurons in the hidden layer was between 8 and 50. The RBF worked with 21 to 50 neurons in a hidden layer. We expected 1,000 neural networks to be trained (randomly generated), of which the 5 best were to be retained. At the same time, we also monitored the error function, whereby if the error significantly decreased the training continued. If the error remained unchanged, the training of the networks was discontinued

before 1,000 neural structures had been generated. The sum of squares and cross entropy were utilized for the error functions.

It was subsequently necessary to determine the possible functions of the neurons in a hidden layer and the neurons on the output. In both instances the following were utilized:

- identity;
- logistic function;
- atanh;
- exponential;
- sinus.

The weight distribution and initialization were left at the default values. After the generation of the neural networks, a statistic description of the individual data sets was created i.e. for the training, testing and validation data sets. A description of the whole data set was subsequently created. The basic characteristics – minimum, maximum, average and standard deviation were used. The best generated neural networks were subsequently described. We were particularly interested in the network type, network structure, the training, testing and validation performance, training algorithm, error function, the hidden layer activation function and the output activation function.

A confusion matrix was then used to summarize the numbers of correct and faulty predictions (the performed classifications), on the basis of which sensitivity analysis was carried out. The sensitivity analysis should provide the answer to the question of how important the particular variable was for the achievement of a particular result. On the basis of the results of the sensitivity analysis, the so-called receiver operating characteristic (ROC curve) was determined, which examines the relation between the sensitivity and specificity. Finally, the relationship was examined between the selected value (profit in this instance) and its impact on the performed classification (in the form of gains charts).

3 RESULTS

Data analyses were performed by the Intelligent Solver tool in relation to the methodology. As previously mentioned, the companies were classified into the training, testing and validation sets in the ratio of 70:15:15. This means that the statistical characteristics of the companies may differ substantially. This may therefore cause a significant deviation in the prediction ability of at least one of the three sets. The overall characteristics are almost solely represented by the limit values in this set. Also the standard deviation of the training set closely approximates the standard deviation of the whole set. If we look at the obtained values through the eyes of an economist we can state that no big deviation occurs among the three sets. This reason for this is the size of the examined number of companies i.e. almost 13,000 data lines.

Neural networks were then generated according to set parameters. 1,000 neural structures were created and the five best were retained. These are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The five best neural networks

Index	Network name	Training performance	Testing performance	Validation performance	Training algorithm	Error function	Hid. layer activation	Input act. function
1	MLP 32-23-2	92.61143	93.43750	91.25000	BFGS (Quasi-Newton) 21	Sum sqr.	Logistic	Identity
2	MLP	92.43742	93.06250	91.37500	BFGS (Quasi-	Entropy	Logistic	Softmax

	32-10-2				Newton) 0			
3	MLP 32-40-2	92.77205	93.75000	91.37500	BFGS (Quasi-Newton) 41	Sum sqr.	Tanh	Logistic
4	MLP 32-23-2	92.67836	93.43750	91.37500	BFGS (Quasi-Newton) 55	Sum sqr.	Identity	Tanh
5	MLP 32-23-2	92.67836	93.81250	91.37500	BFGS (Quasi-Newton) 34	Sum sqr.	Tanh	Logistic

Source: Authors

All the retained neural networks are multiple perceptron networks with one hidden layer of neurons. Three of them (1, 4, and 5) do not even differ in the number of used neurons, but only by the training algorithm, the hidden layer activation and the output activation function. The highest performance was to be expected from the neural network whose performance was the highest for the three sets, whereby the performance in the individual data sets did not differ significantly. At first sight it is not obvious which neural network is the best at predicting the creditworthiness of a company or predicting which company is potentially at risk of future bankruptcy.

A confusion matrix was therefore created to aid this process. On basis of the confusion matrix we sought to determine the ideal ratio of the most accurately predicted results. A network verifies by means of the testing and validating sets what it first trained. If the assignment was to find the best model for the prediction of company creditworthiness then network 1 – MLP 32-23-2 (hidden layer activation: logistic; output activation function: identity) or network 5 – MLP 32-23-2 (hidden layer activation: hyperbolic tangent; output activation function: logistic) are appropriate. They both predicted (classified) correctly that 9,856 companies would survive i.e. the companies may therefore be considered creditworthy. If the assignment was to determine which network was able to predict those companies potentially at risk of bankruptcy, then network 3 (MLP 32-40-2) would be appropriate.

The models, in terms of the overall evaluation of their prediction power, can be ordered as follows:

1. network 3: MLP 32-40-2 (hidden layer activation: hyperbolic tangent; output activation function: logistic);
2. network 5: MLP 32-23-2 (hidden layer activation: hyperbolic tangent; output activation function: logistic);
3. network 4: MLP 32-23-2 (hidden layer activation: identity; output activation function: hyperbolic tangent);
4. network 1: MLP 32-23-2 (hidden layer activation: logistic; output activation function: identity);
5. network 2: MLP 32-10-2 (hidden layer activation: logistic; output activation function: softmax).

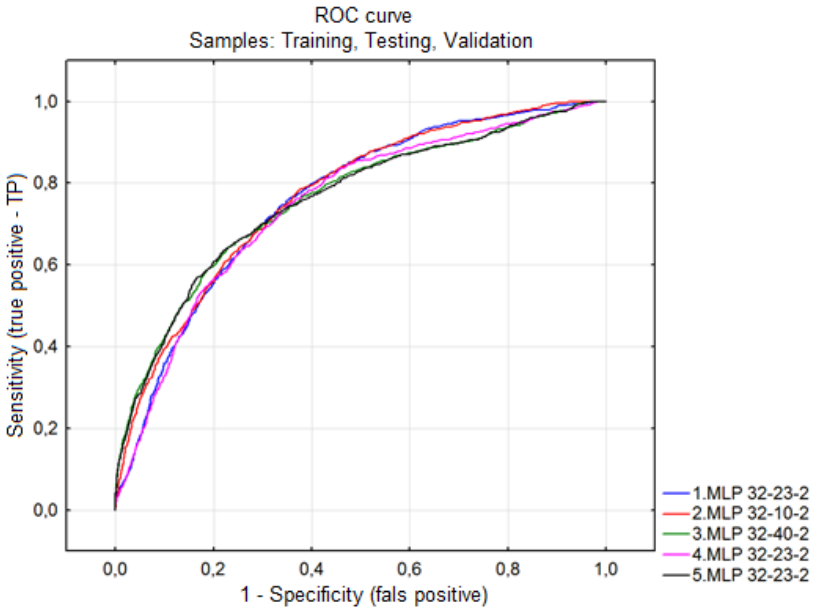
In terms of the inputs (32 inputs were used for the generation of the networks) it was of interest to examine which input values were the most important to the model and therefore the prediction.

It is clear from the performed sensitivity analysis that among the input values there is none with a significant impact on company evaluation. The values fluctuate around one with a small interval range. On the one hand, the model has become slightly complicated (input must always be 32 company data). On the other hand, we may consider the analysis to be

comprehensive and capable of providing a better insight into the real situation in a company. The company will be resistant to fluctuation (at least in short-term) of the input variables.

Figure 1 shows the so-called ROC curve (receiver operating characteristic). It examines the relationship between two values, sensitivity (real positive prediction) and specificity (false positive prediction). All the obtained models of neural networks produce the ideal shape for the ROC curve. The model, which ideally approximates point [0.0 ; 1.0] i.e. we only require correct predictions, is evaluated as the best one. The point we are looking for in Figure 1 is paradoxically at the point where the ROC curves of all the obtained models intersect. Optically it is only one point.

Figure 1: ROC curve



Source: Authors

In fact (if we compare the individual numeric values) we find that neural network 2: MLP 32-10-2 (hidden layer activation: logistic; output activation function: softmax) is the closest one. This is confirmed by the results presented in Table 2.

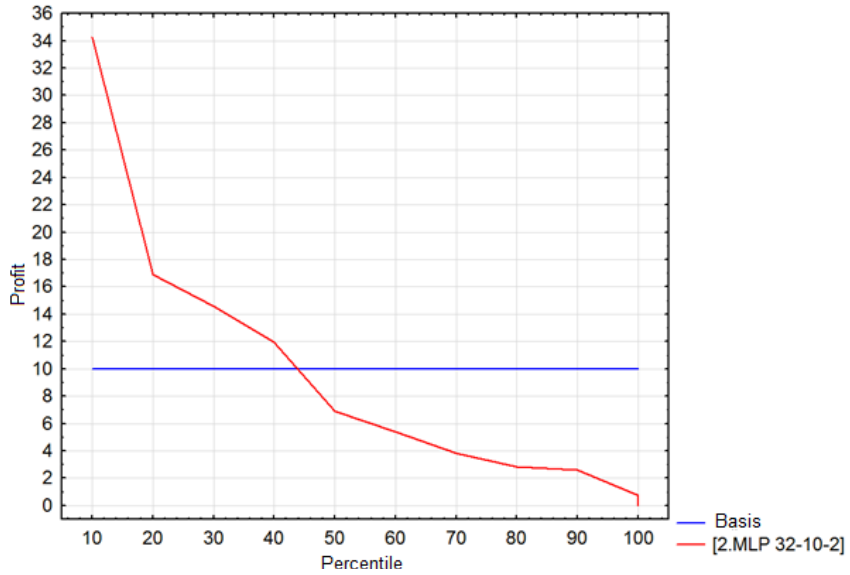
Table 2: ROC curve area and threshold

	1. MLP 32-23-2	2. MLP 32-10-2	3. MLP 32-40-2	4. MLP 32-23-2	5. MLP 32-23-2
ROC area	0.760394	0.769150	0.759981	0.746610	0.759189
ROC threshold	0.069742	0.071948	0.068311	0.074544	0.066314

Source: Authors

So-called gains charts (an example see Fig. 2) were subsequently produced of the performed analyses for the obtained neural network models.

Figure 2: Gains chart (2. MLP 32-10-2)



Source: Authors

Gains charts examine a relationship between two values, of which one is the required resulting value. The stroke curve, non-cumulative in the figure, examines the mutual relationship between profit and the potential risk of a company going bankrupt. The x-axis shows the percentile of bankrupt companies, the y-axis (the dependent variable) shows the profit. In principle, the graphs show the ability to predict bankruptcy on the basis of one chosen value, in this case profit. The curve in the graph, called the base, defines the interval of profit for the individual networks when a company is creditworthy, or the interval of profit when the company is potentially ate risk of going bankrupt. It is clear that the distribution of the profit value, from the point of view of possible bankruptcy or creditworthiness, is not the same for the individual networks. The question is, which one is more accurate, because the single value (profit) limitation is a big simplification (even with regard to the performed sensitivity analysis).

4 CONCLUSION

The aim of this contribution was to put forward a model of a neural structure that would be able to evaluate whether a transport and forwarding company is creditworthy or potentially at risk of going bankrupt.

Even though all the obtained neural networks are able to predict the correct result with a probability higher than 99.5 per cent, the result is not totally satisfactory. We obtained models of neural networks which are able to identify the creditworthiness of a company relatively well. However, they are not able to satisfactorily identify those companies that are potentially at risk of going bankrupt. In addition, there is the issue of how to interpret a faulty prediction i.e. a situation when a network predicts the creditworthiness of a company, which in fact goes bankrupt, and a situation when a neural network predicts a company is at risk of going bankrupt, which in fact is creditworthy. Numerous authors (Altman, the Neumaiers) have solved this problem by the inclusion of a third group of companies, the so called grey zone. Even though they used this interpretation for models based on multiple discrimination analysis (Altman's indices and IN indices), the grey zone logics is also applicable to models based on neural networks. If there was a need to more exactly determine the boundary between a creditworthy company and a company at risk of going bankrupt, we would need to

perform a cluster analysis. We could successfully utilize the Kohonen network for this purpose i.e. a network without training, which forms clusters based on the input variables. A graphic output of such an analysis, the so-called Kohonen Map, is also very good. The map reveals at first sight how many clusters we can identify, how clear (exactly definable) these clusters are, etc. Unfortunately, in this study we can assume (in part due to the results achieved) that a large number of the clusters and therefore also the samples would be identifiable. This would not solve the situation with regards to inaccurate predictions. We would therefore have to seek ways in which to define the clusters in more detail, etc. There are several options for how to proceed. All of them however, abandon the sole application of neural networks.

In conclusion, the aim of the study was only partially fulfilled because of the drawbacks associated with the obtained models. The best model is applicable for the evaluation of the creditworthiness of transport and forwarding companies. It could therefore be used for example by a bank for the evaluation of the creditworthiness of a potential debtor (from the bank's point of view). It may also serve as the first criterion for a decision to grant or turn down credit. It may also help investors and managers to quickly assess the future performance of transport and forwarding companies.

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HODNOTENIE VÝKONNOSTI ŠTÁTOV VYŠEHRADSKEJ SKUPINY MAGICKÝM ŠTVORUHOLNÍKOM

EVALUATION OF VISEGRAD GROUP ECONOMIES PERFORMANCE BY MAGIC SQUARE

Jana Masárová, Eva Ivanová

Abstrakt

Cieľom väčšiny vyspelých štátov sveta je zvyšovanie ekonomickej výkonnosti, ktorá je výrazom ich hospodárskej úspešnosti. Ekonomická výkonnosť štátov a plnenie základných ekonomických cieľov sa v odbornej ekonomickej literatúre hodnotí pomocou magického štvoruholníka, ktorého princíp sformuloval Nicolas Kaldor, pričom sa využívajú ukazovatele ekonomický rast, nezamestnanosť, inflácia a vonkajšia rovnováha. V článku skúmame vývoj týchto ukazovateľov v rokoch 2004-2016 a hodnotíme výkonnosť štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny magickým štvoruholníkom v rokoch 2004, 2009 a 2016.

Kľúčové slová: *výkonnosť, Vyšehradská skupina, magický štvoruholník*

Abstract

The goal of most advanced countries of the world is to increase their economic performance, which is an expression of their economic success. The economic performance of the states and the achievement of the basic economic objectives are evaluated in the economic literature by the magic square, it formulated by Nicolas Kaldor. He used economic growth, unemployment, inflation and external balance. We examine the development of these indicators in 2004-2016 and we evaluate the performance of Visegrad Group countries by the magic square in 2004, 2009 and 2016.

Key words: *performance, Visegrad Group, magic square*

ÚVOD

V súčasnej spoločnosti je meraniu výkonnosti ekonomiky a ekonomického rozvoja venovaná veľká pozornosť, keďže je veľmi dôležité nielen pre teóriu, ale aj pre hospodársku politiku a prax. Odrazom hospodárskej úspešnosti štátov sú ukazovatele hodnotiace ich ekonomickú výkonnosť. Pomocou vývoja týchto ukazovateľov sa v ekonomickej teórii hodnotí plnenie makroekonomických cieľov. Jedným zo spôsobov toho hodnotenia je princíp magického štvoruholníka.

Cieľom príspevku je prostredníctvom magického štvoruholníka zhodnotiť a porovnať výkonnosť ekonomík štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny, t.j. Slovenskej republiky (SR), Českej republiky (ČR), Maďarska a Poľska. Pre splnenie tohto cieľa je nevyhnutné uskutočniť analýzu časového radu ukazovateľov: tempo rastu hrubého domáceho produktu (HDP), miera nezamestnanosti, miera inflácie, podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v %. Ďalej využívame metódu komparácie a syntézy. Údaje čerpáme z databázy Eurostatu.

1 TEORETICKÉ VÝCHODISKÁ HODNOTENIA VÝKONNOSTI EKONOMÍK MAGICKÝM ŠTVORUHOLNÍKOM

Ekonomická výkonnosť podľa Drakovej (2012) odzrkadľuje stav a vývoj ekonomickej situácie štátu, definovať ju možno ako trendy vo vývoji kľúčových makroekonomických

indikátorov štátu, respektíve ako výsledky fungovania ekonomiky ako celku dosahované za určité časové obdobie a vo všeobecnosti zaznamenávané a hodnotené využitím vybraných ukazovateľov.

V odbornej literatúre sa meraním výkonnosti zaoberá značný počet autorov a inštitúcií, ktorí výkonnosť ekonomík hodnotia buď tradičnými makroekonomickými ukazovateľmi, alternatívnymi ukazovateľmi (indexmi) alebo ich kombináciou. Za tradičné makroekonomické ukazovatele sa považujú hrubý domáci produkt, inflácia, zamestnanosť, nezamestnanosť, saldo platobnej bilancie a ďalšie. Výsledky, ktoré ekonomika určitého štátu v týchto ukazovateľoch dosiahla, sa graficky znázorňujú prostredníctvom magického štvoruholníka. Princíp magického štvoruholníka rozpracoval a graficky popísal ekonóm Nicholas Kaldor (1908-1986), zakladateľ postkeynesovstva. Štvoruholník nazval magickým z dôvodu rozpornosti štyroch základných hospodárskych cieľov, ktoré podľa neho nemožno naraz dosiahnuť.

V magickom štvoruholníku je znázornené plnenie týchto štyroch základných ekonomických cieľoch (na základe stanovených ukazovateľov):

- udržateľné tempo ekonomického rastu (tempo ekonomického rastu v % - g),
- nízka nezamestnanosť (miera nezamestnanosti v % - U),
- stabilná cenová hladina (miera inflácie v % - P),
- vonkajšia rovnováha (podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v % - B).

Sledované makroekonomické výsledky a ich hodnoty dosiahnuté v danom období (za príslušný kalendárny rok) sa nanesú na príslušné osi magického štvoruholníka. Úspešnosť v plnení jednotlivých cieľov makroekonómie a hospodárskej politiky reprezentujú celkový obsah štvoruholníka a dĺžka hrotu na príslušnej osi. Zhodnotenie úspešnosti plnenia týchto cieľov je možné uskutočniť veľmi jednoducho na základe vizuálnej podoby štvoruholníka. Čím viac je vrchol príslušného cieľa vzdialený od stredu grafu (priesečníka osí), tým je ekonomika štátu v tomto cieli úspešnejšia. Čím je plocha štvoruholníka väčšia, tým sa stanovené ciele lepšie plnia.

Ako uvádza Picek (2017), štvorec typicky slúži ako ukážka pre dôkladnú diskusiu o jednotlivých cieľoch a ich vzájomnej interakcii. Zatiaľ čo niektoré sa navzájom dopĺňajú (vysoký rast HDP a nízka nezamestnanosť), iné môžu byť náchylné k nepriaznivým kompromisom (nezamestnanosť a inflácia prostredníctvom Phillipsovej krivky, vysoký rast HDP a vyvážený bežný účet platobnej bilancie).

Firme a Teixeira (2014) prostredníctvom magického štvoruholníka hodnotili makroekonomickú výkonnosť Brazílie a ďalších vybraných štátov v rokoch 1997-2012, pričom na základe magického štvoruholníka vyčíslili Index ekonomického blahobytu (vytvorený v roku 2013 Medranom a Teixeirom). Nehme (2014) pri skúmaní efektívnosti ekonomiky a monetárnej politiky v Libanone využil magický štvoruholník, Hicksov IS-LM model a Mundellov trojuholník nekompatibility.

Draková (2012) využila magický štvoruholník na hodnotenie ekonomickej výkonnosti štátov sveta s dôrazom na štáty BRICS (Brazília, Rusko, India a Čína). Brokešová a Vachálková (2016) skúmali vývoj odvetvia poisťovníctva v závislosti od vývoja makroekonomického prostredia na základe vývoja ukazovateľov magického štvoruholníka. Sivák a Staněk (2011) skúmali vývoj slovenskej ekonomiky v kontexte globálnej finančnej krízy, pričom zostrojili magický štvoruholník pre roky 2008-2010.

Ekonomický vývoj v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny pomocou ukazovateľov magického štvoruholníka hodnotila Kiss (2018), pričom na základe metódy poradia dospela k názoru, že

najlepšiu výkonnosť spomedzi štátov V4 má Česká republika, nasleduje Poľsko, Maďarsko a posledná je Slovenská republika.

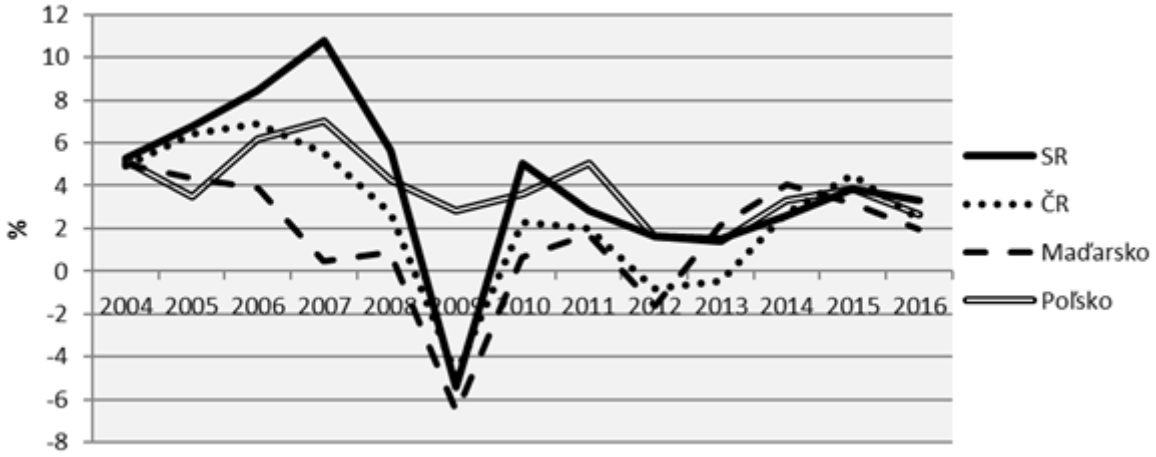
2 ANALÝZA VÝKONNOSTI ŠTÁTOV VYŠEHRADSKEJ SKUPINY

V nasledujúcom texte preskúmame a vyhodnotíme výkonnosť Slovenskej republiky, Českej republiky, Maďarska a Poľska ukazovateľmi tempo rastu HDP, miera nezamestnanosti, miera inflácie a podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v rokoch 2004-2016.

2.1 Ekonomický rast v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny

Základom pre zistenie **tempa rastu HDP** (tempa ekonomického rastu), je reálny hrubý domáci produkt, t. j. HDP vyjadrený v stálych cenách východiskového obdobia. Habánik (2005, s. 54) tvrdí, že kým úroveň HDP je základným parametrom prosperity ekonomiky, rast HDP je indikátorom ekonomického vývoja. V grafe 1 uvádzame vývoj tempa ekonomického rastu v štátoch V4.

Graf 1: Vývoj tempa rastu HDP v štátoch V4 (%)



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa údajov Eurostatu (2017)

V rokoch 2004-2016 sa tempo rastu HDP v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny vyvíjalo kolísavo. V SR možno pozorovať do roku 2007 výraznejší rast, až 10,8% v roku 2007, čo je súčasne najvyššie dosiahnuté tempo rastu HDP v celom sledovanom období vo všetkých štátoch V4. Ako uvádzajú Sivák, Staněk (2011), externý dopytový šok sa v roku 2009 najvýraznejšie prejavil výrazným poklesom reálneho HDP a začatím procesu cyklického rastu miery nezamestnanosti. V roku 2009 sa HDP znížil oproti predchádzajúcemu roku až o 5,4%. Hoci v nasledujúcich rokoch bolo tempo rastu HDP v SR kladné, oproti predkrízovým rokom bol dosahovaný výrazne nižší rast HDP.

Vývoj tempa rastu HDP v ČR bol podobný ako v SR s tým rozdielom, že neboli dosahované také vysoké hodnoty ekonomického rastu, najvyšší rast bol v ČR zaznamenaný v roku 2006, a to 6,9%. Aj ekonomika ČR bola krízou zasiahnutá pomerne výrazne, HDP sa v roku 2009 znížil o 4,8%. V ďalších dvoch rokoch bolo dosiahnuté kladné tempo rastu HDP, avšak v rokoch 2012 a 2013 sa HDP zasa mierne znižoval, teda tempo rastu HDP dosiahlo záporné hodnoty.

V Maďarsku sa tempo rastu HDP vyvíjalo odlišne. Transformácia ekonomiky spojená s liberalizáciou, privatizáciou a daňovými reformami naštartovala ekonomický rast, ktorý dopomohol vstupu Maďarska do Európskej únie. Avšak neustále zadlžovanie vlády a zastavenie niektorých reforiem postupne viedlo k ekonomickým problémom a od roku 2005 tu dochádzalo k spomaľovaniu ekonomického rastu. Ekonomické problémy sa naplno

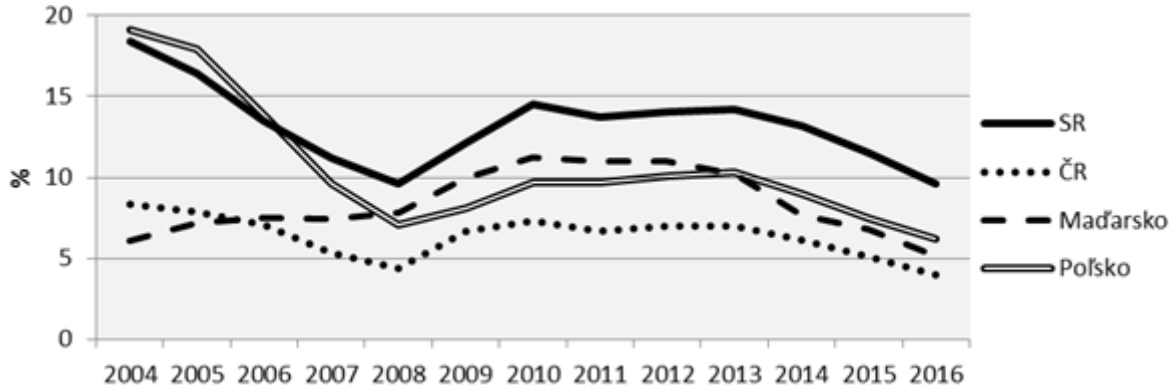
prejavili počas finančnej a hospodárskej krízy, keď sa HDP v roku 2009 znížil až o 6,6%. Hoci v nasledujúcich dvoch rokoch Maďarsko dosiahlo mierne oživenie, v roku 2012 nastal ďalší pokles HDP (o 1,6%). Odvtedy Maďarsko dosahuje mierny rast HDP, v roku 2014 sa reálny HDP zvýšil od 4%, v roku 2016 o 2%,

V Poľsku možno sledovať každoročný rast reálneho HDP (najviac v roku 2007: 7%). Poľsko ako jediná ekonomika spomedzi štátov V4 nebola recesiou tak výrazne zasiahnutá, a hospodárska kríza spôsobila iba spomalenie reálneho rastu HDP. V roku 2016 sa HDP reálne zvýšil o 2,7%.

2.2 Vývoj nezamestnanosti v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny

Miera nezamestnanosti vyjadruje situáciu na trhu práce, interpretuje, aká časť ekonomicky aktívneho obyvateľstva nemá zamestnanie. Vývoj miery nezamestnanosti v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny je znázornený v grafe 2.

Graf 2: Vývoj miery nezamestnanosti v štátoch V4



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa údajov Eurostatu (2017)

Na základe grafického znázornenia možno konštatovať, že v sledovanom období sa nezamestnanosť vyvíjala kolísavo, s klesajúcou tendenciou v predkrízových rokoch a po roku 2013. Najvyššia nezamestnanosť je v Slovenskej republike, s výnimkou rokov 2004-2006, kedy bola miera nezamestnanosti v Poľsku vyššia ako na Slovensku. Na situáciu na trhu práce Slovenskej republiky mali v prvom rade zásadné zmeny v štruktúre národného hospodárstva, ktoré sa odohrali v procese transformácie centrálne riadenej ekonomiky na trhovú ekonomiku. Významne tento stav ovplyvnila skutočnosť, že došlo k zastaveniu relatívne technologicky pokročilých priemyselných oblastí spojených s výrobou vojenskej munície, čo bolo spôsobené politickými rozhodnutiami bez akéhokoľvek ekonomického zdôvodnenia (Vojtovič, Krajňáková, 2015). Najvyššia nezamestnanosť v SR bola dosiahnutá v roku 2004 (18,4%). Odvtedy sa síce situácia mierne zlepšovala, avšak hospodárska recesia zastavila tento priaznivý vývoj a ovplyvnila úroveň všetkých ukazovateľov trhu práce a nezamestnanosť sa zvýšila na 14,5% v roku 2010. K zlepšeniu situácie na trhu práce došlo až v posledných troch rokoch.

Česká republika je nezamestnanosťou najmenej postihnutá, od roku 2006 je tu nezamestnanosť najnižšia spomedzi štátov V4. Hoci v období po nástupe hospodárskej krízy nezamestnanosť narástla, len mierne prekročila 7% (2010: 7,3%). V celom sledovanom období miera nezamestnanosti v ČR nedosiahla úroveň 9%, v rokoch 2008 a 2016 bola dokonca pod hranicou 5%. V Maďarsku bola na začiatku sledovaného obdobia miera nezamestnanosti najnižšia spomedzi štátov V4 a dosahovala hodnoty okolo 6%. Od roku 2005 došlo k pozvoľnému zvyšovaniu miery nezamestnanosti, pričom rýchlejší rast

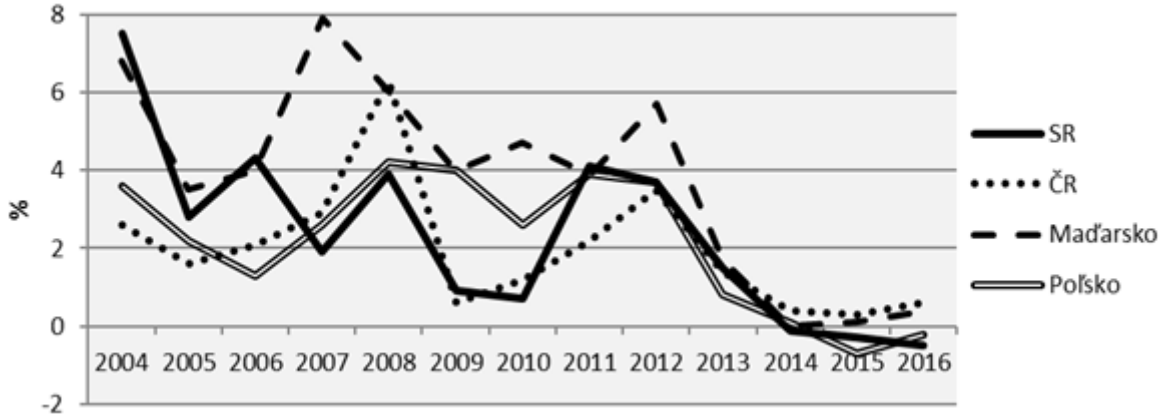
nezamestnanosti nastal po roku 2008, kedy sa miera nezamestnanosti zvýšila nad 11%. Ako uvádza Potužáková (2012), hospodárska recesia sa prejavila v štátoch Vyšehradskej štvorky kvôli značnej otvorenosti ich ekonomík ako externý šok, ktorému nebolo možné zabrániť. V posledných rokoch aj v Maďarsku nezamestnanosť klesala, až na 5,1% v roku 2016.

V Poľsku bola nezamestnanosť v roku 2004 najvyššia, až 19,1%. Ekonomická situácia v štáte sa však postupne zlepšovala a nezamestnanosť poklesla na 7,1% v roku 2008. To bolo spôsobené aj skutočnosťou, že v štátoch Európskej únie došlo k postupnému otváraniu trhov práce, kde našli uplatnenie mnohí Poliaci hľadajúci prácu. Podľa Spišákovej a Pétrovej (2011, s. 243) bolo zníženie nezamestnanosti spôsobené aj prílevom priamych zahraničných investícií do krajiny, ktoré predstavovali vytváranie nových pracovných príležitostí pre obyvateľov. Zlepšenie situácie na trhu práce súviselo tiež s investíciami spojenými s využívaním finančných prostriedkov z fondov EÚ Hoci v nasledujúcich rokoch došlo k zvýšeniu nezamestnanosti (na 10,3% v roku 2013), situácia sa stabilizovala a v posledných rokoch sa nezamestnanosť znížila, na 6,2% v roku 2016.

2.3 Vývoj inflácie v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny

Cenová stabilita je jedným z hlavných ekonomických cieľov a jej udržiavanie je dôležité pre stabilitu celého národného hospodárstva. Odborníci uvádzajú, že optimálna miera inflácie by sa mala pohybovať okolo 2%. Vývoj miery inflácie meranej harmonizovaným indexom spotrebiteľských cien v štátoch V4 zobrazuje graf 3.

Graf 3: Vývoj miery inflácie v štátoch V4



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa údajov Eurostatu (2017)

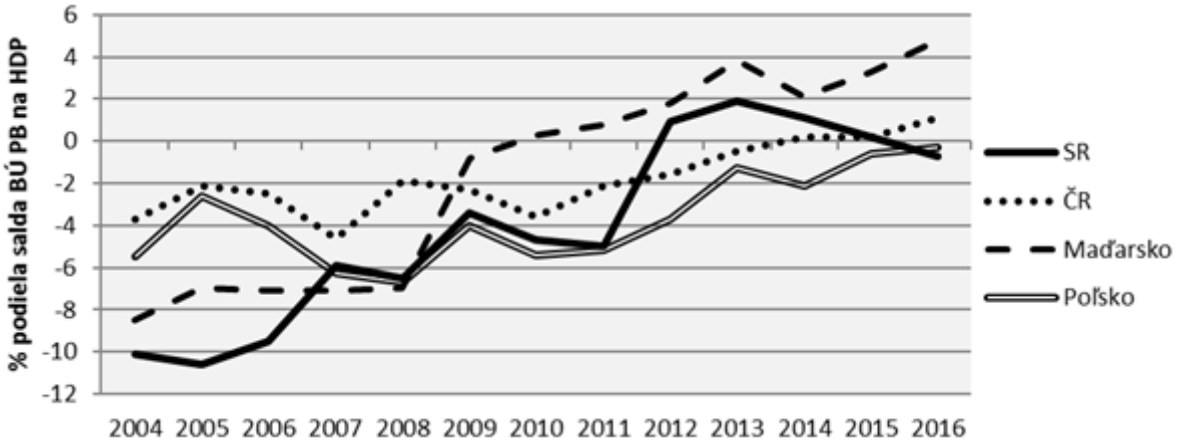
Miera inflácie sa v rokoch 2004-2016 vyvíjala kolísavo, s klesajúcou tendenciou a v posledných rokoch klesla do záporných hodnôt. V Slovenskej republike v roku 2004 miera inflácie dosiahla 7,5%, vysoká inflácia bola aj v roku 2003 a 2004 (okolo 8%), v ďalších rokoch sa však pohybovala do 4,1% (2011). Po roku 2012 spotrebiteľské ceny zaznamenali pomalší rast a v rokoch 2014-2016 dokonca mierne klesali.

V Českej republike bolo kolísanie inflácie miernejšie, najvyššia miera inflácie bola v roku 2008, a to 6,3%. Naopak veľmi nízka inflácia bola v rokoch 2009 a 2013-2016. Aj v Maďarsku bol vývoj inflácie kolísavý, najvyššia inflácia bola v roku 2007, kedy dosiahla 7,9%. Po roku 2012 bola cenová hladina v Maďarsku takmer stabilná, rast cien bol len minimálny. Poľsko zaznamenalo podobný vývoj inflácie ako Slovensko s tým rozdielom, že najvyššia inflácia bola v roku 2008, kedy dosiahla 4,2%. Po roku 2012 možno pozorovať spomaľovanie inflácie, v posledných dvoch rokoch sa Poľsko ocitlo v deflácii.

2.4 Vývoj vonkajšej rovnováhy v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny

Vonkajšia rovnováha ako jeden z cieľov hospodárskej politiky sa hodnotí pomocou ukazovateľa *podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v %.* V prípade kladného salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie dosahuje tento ukazovateľ kladné hodnoty, naopak pri deficite nadobúda záporné hodnoty. Vývoj vonkajšej rovnováhy štátov V4 sledujeme v rokoch 2004-2016, znázornený je v grafe 4.

Graf 4: Vývoj vonkajšej rovnováhy v štátoch V4



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa údajov Eurostatu (2017)

Najhoršia hodnota ukazovateľa vonkajšia rovnováha bola dosiahnutá v SR v roku 2005, kedy podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP dosiahol -10,6%. Následne sa tento ukazovateľ v SR zlepšoval, a od roku 2012 do roku 2015 dosahoval kladné hodnoty, keďže bežný účet platobnej bilancie vykazoval prebytok. K zhoršeniu došlo v roku 2016, na -0,7%.

ČR dosahovala do roku 2008 najlepšie hodnoty (hoci stále negatívne) spomedzi štátov V4. Kladné saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie bolo dosiahnuté až v rokoch 2014-2016, v poslednom roku 1,1%. V prípade Maďarska možno pozorovať výrazné zlepšenie hodnôt vonkajšej rovnováhy. Kým v rokoch 2004-2008 boli hodnoty tohto ukazovateľa veľmi nepriaznivé (2004: -8,5%), od roku 2009 sa výrazne zlepšili a v roku 2016 podiel salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP dosiahol 4,8%. V Poľsku možno sledovať značne kolísavý vývoj podielu salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v %. V celom hodnotenom období dosahuje tento ukazovateľ záporné hodnoty, avšak od roku 2011 možno pozorovať jeho zlepšovanie, a v roku 2016 dosiahol hodnotu -0,3%.

3 ZHODNOTENIE VÝKONNOSTI ŠTÁTOV VYŠEHRADSKEJ SKUPINY MAGICKÝM ŠTVORUHOLNÍKOM

V nasledujúcej časti hodnotíme výkonnosť štátov V4 magickým štvoruholníkom, ktorý zostrojíme za tri roky: rok 2004, t.j. prvý rok sledovaného obdobia, ďalej krízový rok 2009 a posledný skúmaný rok 2016.

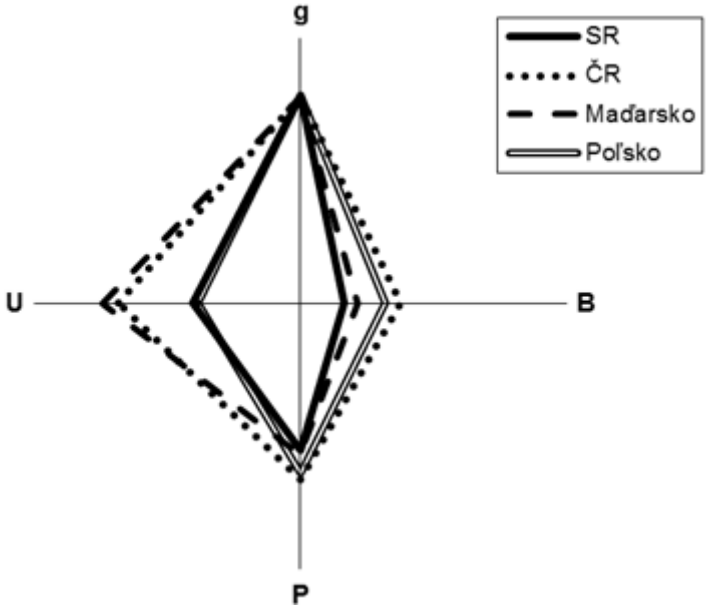
3.1 Magický štvoruholník štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny za rok 2004

V roku 2004 štáty V4 vstúpili do Európskej únie. Ekonomiky štátov V4 dosahovali priaznivý ekonomický rast, avšak v SR a Poľsku bola problémom vysoká nezamestnanosť. V grafe 5 je zobrazené plnenie základných makroekonomických cieľov v štátoch V4 v roku 2004.

SR dosiahla v roku 2004 pomerne priaznivý ekonomický rast na úrovni 5,3%, svoju rastovú dynamiku posilnila predovšetkým vďaka domácemu dopytu. Inflácia na úrovni 7,5% bola

najvyššou spomedzi štátov V4, nezamestnanosť ku koncu roka dosiahla 18,4%. Veľmi nepriaznivé boli výsledky v oblasti vonkajšej rovnováhy, keďže saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v % dosiahlo -10,1%.

Graf 5: Magický štvoruholník za rok 2004



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Česká republika dosahovala v roku 2004 najlepšie výsledky zo štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny v dvoch ukazovateľoch: inflácia (2,6%) a vonkajšia rovnováha (-3,7%). Aj ostatné ukazovatele dosahovali priaznivé hodnoty: reálny hrubý domáci produkt sa zvýšil o 4,9% a nezamestnanosť dosiahla 8,3%.

Maďarsko dosiahlo v roku 2004 rast HDP na úrovni 5%, nezamestnanosť bola na úrovni 6,1% a inflácia dosiahla druhú najvyššiu úroveň spomedzi štátov V4, 6,8%. Aj saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP v % bolo v roku 2004 druhé najhoršie spomedzi štátov V4, a to -8,5%.

Ekonomika Poľskej republiky v roku 2004 rástla 5,1% tempom, cenová hladina bola pomerne stabilná, keďže inflácia dosahovala 3,6%. Miera nezamestnanosti však bola najvyššia spomedzi štátov V4, dosiahla 19,1%, a v oblasti vonkajšej rovnováhy bolo Poľsko druhé najlepšie, keď saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie predstavovalo -5,5% z HDP.

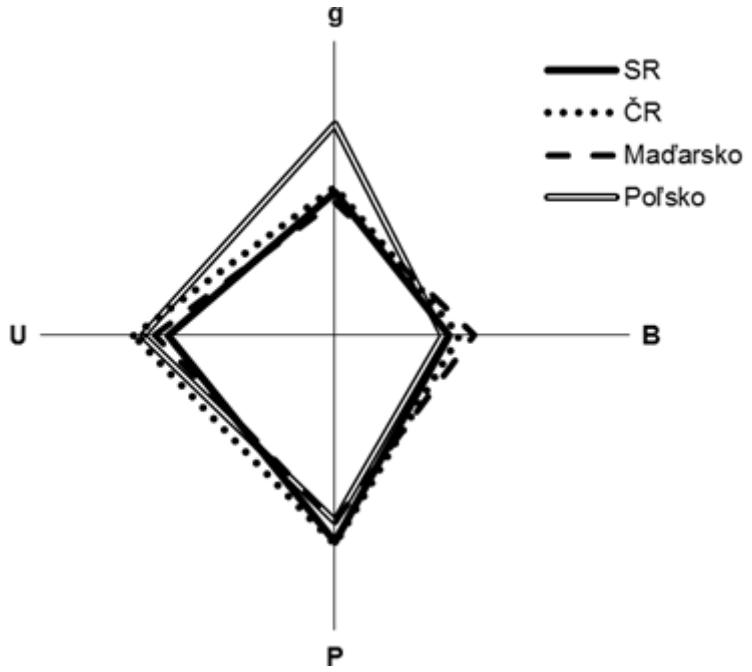
3.2 Výkonnosť ekonomík štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny v roku 2009

Koncom roka 2008 a najmä v rokoch 2009 a 2010 sa aj v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny prejavila hospodárska recesia, ktorá do ich ekonomík prišla ako neočakávaný vonkajší šok a spôsobila výrazné zhoršenie ekonomickej výkonnosti a výsledkov dosiahnutých v predchádzajúcich rokoch. Slovenská republika, Česká republika a Maďarsko zaznamenali pokles hrubého domáceho produktu, čo sa prejavilo v negatívnej hodnote ekonomického rastu. Najväčší pokles HDP, o 6,56% bol vykázaný v Maďarsku, v SR sa HDP znížil o 5,42% a v Českej republike bol pokles reálneho HDP o 4,84%. Iba Poľsko bolo touto recesiou zasiahnuté miernejšie, HDP nepoklesol, iba sa spomalil jeho rast na 2,8% (graf 6).

Zhoršenie ekonomickej výkonnosti bolo sprevádzané spomalením miery inflácie, v Maďarsku a Poľsku dosiahla miera inflácie 4%, v SR a ČR inflácia poklesla pod 1%. Vplyvom zníženia produkcie a s tým súvisiacim poklesom dopytu na trhu práce došlo vplyvom prepúšťania k zvýšeniu miery nezamestnanosti. Najvyššia nezamestnanosť (12,1%) bola naďalej

v Slovenskej republike, na 10% sa miera nezamestnanosti zvýšila aj v Maďarsku. V Českej republike miera nezamestnanosti vystúpila na 6,7%. V Poľsku sa miera nezamestnanosti znížila na 8,1%.

Graf 6: Magický štvoruholník za rok 2009



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

V oblasti vonkajšej rovnováhy sa výsledky všetkých štátov V4 zlepšili, avšak saldá bežného účtu ich platobných bilancií boli naďalej negatívne. Najpriaznivejšiu hodnotu salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP dosiahlo Maďarsko (-0,8%), Česká republika zaznamenala hodnotu -2,3%, Slovenská republika -3,4%. Poľsko bolo v tomto ukazovateli najhoršie, s podielom -4%.

Ako vyplýva z grafu 24, najväčší rozdiel medzi štátmi V4 je v ukazovateli tempo ekonomického rastu, v ktorom jedine Poľsko dosiahlo kladné hodnoty. Každý zo štátov získal prvenstvo v jednom z ukazovateľov: Poľsko za tempo rastu HDP, Česká republika za mieru nezamestnanosti, Slovenská republika za mieru inflácie a Maďarsko za vonkajšiu rovnováhu.

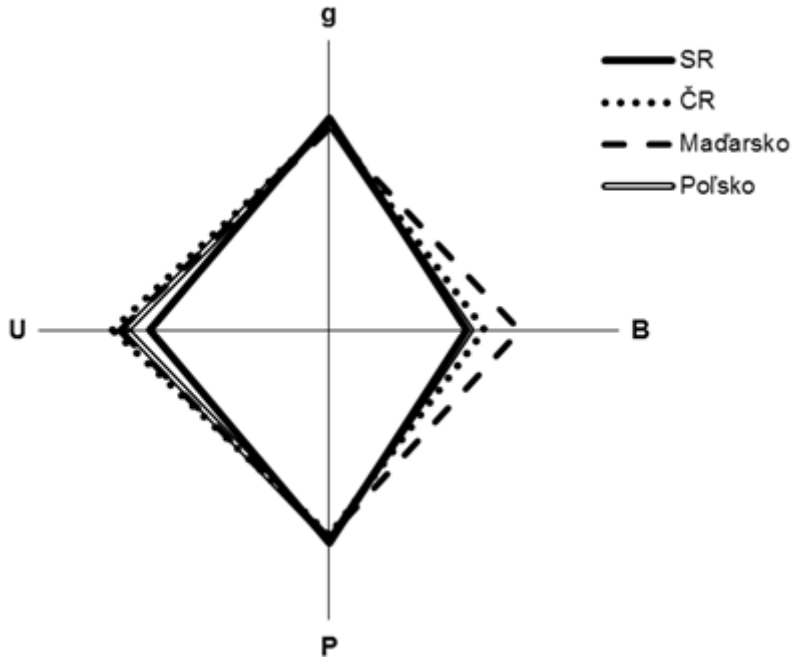
3.3 Výkonnosť ekonomík štátov Vyšehradskej skupiny v roku 2016

V poslednom roku sledovaného obdobia sa výsledky štátov V4 oproti predchádzajúcim rokom, najmä roku 2009, výrazne zmenili. Hoci ekonomikám štátov sa podarilo s recesiou vysporiadať, výsledky ich ekonomického rastu nedosahovali také veľké hodnoty ako v predkrízovom období. Nezamestnanosť sa znížila, avšak problémom sa stala nízka inflácia, resp. deflácia. V oblasti vonkajšej rovnováhy sa výsledky týchto štátov podstatne zlepšili.
Ako ukazuje graf 7, takmer identické výsledky štáty Vyšehradskej skupiny dosiahli v hodnotách miery inflácie: Slovenská republika -0,5%; Poľsko -0,2%; Maďarsko 0,4%; Česká republika 0,6%. Veľmi podobné hodnoty boli zaznamenané aj v tempe ekonomického rastu, ktoré bolo najvyššie v Slovenskej republike (3,29%). Nasledovalo Poľsko s 2,68% rastom, Česká republika s 2,43% rastom a najnižší rast (1,95%) dosiahlo v roku 2016 Maďarsko.

Miera nezamestnanosti bola aj naďalej najnižšia v Českej republike (4%), aj v ostatných štátoch sa nezamestnanosť znížila (Maďarsko: 5,1%, Poľsko: 6,2%), najvyššia nezamestnanosť bola aj v tomto roku v Slovenskej republike, na úrovni 9,6%. Čo sa týka

vonkajšej rovnováhy, Maďarsko a Česká republika dosiahli kladné saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie, čím podiel na HDP dosiahol kladné hodnoty, v Českej republike 1,1%, v Maďarsku dokonca 4,8%. Slovenská republika a Poľsko mali mierne pasívne saldo bežného účtu platobnej bilancie a jeho podiel na HDP predstavoval -0,7%, resp. -0,3%.

Graf 7: Magický štvoruholník za rok 2016



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

ZÁVER

Na hodnotenie ekonomickej výkonnosti štátov V4 sme využili tradičné makroekonomické ukazovatele: tempo rastu HDP, miera inflácie, miera nezamestnanosti a vonkajšia rovnováha. Tempo rastu HDP sa v štátoch Vyšehradskej skupiny v rokoch 2004-2016 vyvíjalo kolísavo, s výrazným poklesom v roku 2009. Miera nezamestnanosti mala klesajúcu tendenciu v predkrízových rokoch a po roku 2013. Vo väčšine rokov bola najvyššia nezamestnanosť v Slovenskej republike, v posledných rokoch sa situácia na trhu práce vo všetkých štátoch V4 výrazne zlepšila.

Aj inflácia mala v krajinách V4 v sledovanom období kolísavý vývoj, dokonca dosahovala záporné hodnoty (v SR v rokoch 2014-2016, v Poľsku v rokoch 2015 a 2016.).

Hodnoty podielu salda bežného účtu platobnej bilancie na HDP sa v štátoch V4 v sledovanom období v priemere zlepšujú. Najlepší vývoj vonkajšej ekonomickej rovnováhy do roku 2008 dosahovala ČR, odvtedy Maďarsko. Najhoršie priemerné hodnoty od roku 2009 má Poľsko.

Zostrojené magické štvoruholníky za roky 2004, 2009 a 2016 ukazujú, že žiadny štát nemá ani v jednom z týchto rokov najlepšie plnené všetky ciele. V roku 2004 boli najväčšie rozdiely medzi štátmi V4 v miere nezamestnanosti. V roku 2009 iba Poľsko zaznamenalo priaznivý vývoj HDP. V roku 2016 Maďarsko dosahuje najlepšie výsledky v ukazovateli vonkajšia rovnováha, rozdiely v plnení ostatných cieľov nie sú veľmi veľké. Na základe priaznivého ekonomického vývoja možno aj v najbližších rokoch očakávať pozitívne plnenie základných ekonomických cieľov a zväčšovanie plochy magického štvoruholníka.

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VÝKONNOST BURZOVNĚ OBCHODOVANÝCH FONDŮ INVESTUJÍCÍCH DO REIT

PERFORMANCE OF THE EXCHNAGE-TRADED FUNDS INVESTING IN REIT

Zuzana Janková

Abstrakt

Předložený příspěvek se zaobírá hodnocením výkonnosti burzovně obchodovaných fondů (ETF) investujících do realitních investičních trustu (REIT). Testování vybraných ETF je provedeno z hlediska výnosnosti, rizikovosti i nákladovosti v dlouhodobém časovém horizontu. Tyto ETF jsou následně komparovány z hlediska výkonnosti s ETF investujícími do akcií stavebních a developerských společností nesplňující podmínky pro REIT. Mezi těmito fondy nebyl shledány podstatné rozdíly ve výkonnosti.

Klíčová slova: *burzovně obchodované fondy, ETF, REIT, realitní investiční trusty*

Abstract

This paper deal with performance evaluation of ETFs investing in real estate investment trusts (REIT). Testing of selected ETFs is done in terms of return, risk and TER over the long term. These ETFs are subsequently compared in terms of performance with ETFs investing in shares of construction and development companies that do not meet REIT conditions. No significant differences in performance were found between these funds.

Key words: *ETF, exchange-traded funds, REIT, real-estate investment trust*

1 ÚVOD

Fenomén burzovně obchodovaných fondů (angl. Exchnage-Traded Funds, ETF) je ve středu pozornosti mnoha investorů a získává si stále větší oblibu zejména kvůli transparentnosti, nízké nákladovosti a daňové efektivitě. Většina ETF je založena na sledování a kopírování akciového indexu, nicméně s jejich postupující rozvojem je zaváděno mnoho ETF zaměřených na alternativní aktiva. Jednou z nich je podkategorie ETF zaměřených na realitní investiční trusty (angl. Real Estate Investment Trust, REIT). Cílem příspěvku je zhodnocení výkonnosti REIT ETF s ETF investujícími do akcií developerských a stavebních společností, které nesplňují podmínky REIT.

2 SOUČASNÝ STAV POZNÁNÍ

Výkonnost podílových fondů byla tématem mnoha akademických studií, přičemž většina výzkumníků, se soustředila převážně na akciové či dluhopisové fondy. Nicméně za posledních dvacet let byl okrajově projednávána i výkonnost investice do nemovitostí, avšak stále existuje poměrně málo akademických studií věnovaných výhradně nemovitostním podílových či burzovně obchodovaným fondům. Lze konstatovat, že doposud jsou empirické důkazy značně smíšené. Tyto nesrovnalosti se týkají zejména vynikající výkonnosti těchto fondů.

Kalberg a spol. (2000) konstatují, že fondy založené na realitních společnostech (REIT) mohou být pro investora přínosem jak z hlediska návratnosti, tak diverzifikace. Autoři dospěli k závěru, že výkonnost podílových fondů, v jehož portfoliu figurují akcie REIT, vykazuje pozitivní výsledky i abnormální návratnosti a domnívají se, že abnormální výkonnost je způsobena vynikající schopností manažerů fondu a jejich znalostmi. Lin a Yung (2004) tvrdí, že nemovitostní fondy nepřekračují ani akciový trh, ani indexy trhu s nemovitostmi.

Harpera, Maduraba a Schnusenberg (2006) na základě výzkumu měsíčních dat v období 1996 do 2001 konstatují, že ETF replikují podkladové indexy téměř přesně. Světové ETF téměř vždy sledují jistý podkladový index, poněkud nepříznivé výsledky jsou spatřeny u tuzemských podílových fondů, které si sestavují vlastní portfolio dle uvážení manažera fondu.

Shen a kol. (2012) zkoumali podílové fondy zaměřené na sektor nemovitostí ze tří rozměrů. Jednak zda mohou mít investoři prospěch z investice do mezinárodních nemovitostních fondů, ať již z hlediska znalosti trhu manažera fondu či schopností časovat trhu. A jednak zda jsou investoři motivováni výnosem nebo diverzifikací svého portfolia. Jejich výsledky naznačují, že mezinárodní fondy fungují lépe a jsou méně riskantní než domácí podílové fondy. Za druhé, ani správci mezinárodních fondů natož domácích fondů nedisponují schopností časovat trh. Poslední poznatek z jejich výzkumu značí, že investoři jsou motivováni výnosem, a nikoliv diverzifikací.

Odlišné stanovisko zastává Kaushik a Pennathur (2013), kteří zjistili, že správci fondu mohou časovat trh, neboť disponují infomační výhodou, která jim navíc umožňuje předpovídat tržní cykly a rychle reorganizovat portfolio. Poněkud zajímavé zjištění poskytuje Redding (2006), neboť ve svém výzkumu dospěl k závěru, že správci nemovitostních fondů čelí výzvě ohledně výpočtu denních čistých aktiv fondu, což není příliš praktické. Někteří investoři dokonce utrpěli ztrátu z důvodu nepřesně vypočítaných hodnot portfolia.

3 BURZOVNĚ OBCHODOVANÉ FONDY

Burzovně obchodované fondy, jak již plyne z jejich názvu, jsou obchodovány na burze obdobně jako akcie, z čehož také vyplývá, že jsou oceňovány průběžným způsobem během burzovního obchodního dne, což z nich činí velice flexibilní a průlomový instrument. Veselá (2011) neopomíná také skutečnost, že ETF umožňují investorům nakupovat či prodávat bez zpoždění.

3.1 Podstata ETF

Podstatou ETF je co nejvěrnější replikace podkladového benchmarku, k tomu využívají pasivní správu portfolia, na rozdíl od klasických fondů kolektivního investování, které se snaží daný benchmark překonat aktivní správou portfolia. Nicméně v současných podmínkách se již lze setkat i s ETF využívající aktivní investiční strategii. Rovněž způsob vzniku je poněkud odlišný než u klasických podílových fondů. ETF nejprve vybere prostředky a až teprve potom založí fond. Gastineau (2010) dodává, že investorovi je tím umožněno investovat do celého portfolia investičních instrumentů pomocí jediné akcie.

3.2 Konstrukce portfolia ETF

Investor se může v praxi setkat se třemi způsoby replikace portfolia fondu, které se liší zejména ve velikosti odchylky fondu od benchmarku i úrovní rizika. Prvním způsobem je úplná fyzická replikace navázaného indexu. Dle Lermana (2001) je tato metoda považován za nejjednodušší, neboť je založena na co nejpřesnější replikaci podkladového indexu, nicméně je zřejmé, že tento způsob je i velmi nákladný, ale i velice transparentní, neboť investor je detailně obeznámen s košem podkladovým aktiv. Nicméně úplná fyzická replikace je vhodná

vzhledem ke své nákladovosti zejména pro užší oborové či regionální indexy. V případě širokých a obsáhlých indexů je vhodnějším způsobem částečná fyzická replikace portfolia ETF. Sponzor fondu rozhodne o složení portfolia pouze z vybraných investičních instrumentů, které jsou obecně největší, nejlikvidnější a s vysokou tržní kapitalizací. Poslední formou replikace portfolia ETF je syntetická replikace, v rámci které, autorizovaní účastníci neinvestují přímo, ale vytváří tzv. „náhradní koše“ za pomoci finančních derivátů, do kterých ukládají hotovost, za kterou je posléze obdrží jednotky ETF.

3.3 Pozitiva a negativa ETF

Mezi zásadní pozitiva ETF lze zařadit především nízké náklady, neboť tento typ fondu využívá pasivní investiční strategii s cílem co nejvěrnější replikace podkladového indexu, na rozdíl od klasických fondů, které se daný benchmark snaží překonat, k čemuž využívá aktivní činnost manažerů fondu. Obdobně jako u kteréhokoli fondu lze za silnou stránku považovat diverzifikaci portfolia, která úzce souvisí se širokou nabídkou těchto fondů. Další přednostní je vysoká transparentnost i likvidita, neboť investor přesně zná složení portfolia fondu a smí ho obchodovat intra-denně na trhu.

Negativem je zejména pro českého investora skutečnost, že prozatím žádný ETF není denominován v českých korunách, tudíž je nezbytné počítat s devizovým rizikem, kterému český investor čelí. Často ovšem může u ETF dojít k odchýlení výkonnost fondu od referenčního indexu.

4 REIT

Realitní investiční společnosti vznikly již v roce 1960, aby umožnili investorům, včetně těch drobných, investovat do nemovitostí, které byly dříve dostupné pouze institucionálním investorům. Velice populární jsou zejména v anglosaských zemích, nicméně postupem času si REIT získávají oblibu i v Evropě.

4.1 Podstata REIT

Block (2012) kvalifikuje REIT jako zvláštní akciové společnosti, které se zaměřují na investice do komerčních a bytových nemovitostní a jejich následné provozování, správu i samotnou výstavbu. REIT mají jedinečnou daňovou výhodu, správcovské společnosti totiž neplatí daně z příjmů právnických osob za podmínek dodržení přísných pravidel. Mnozí investoři nakupují společnosti REIT jako součást vyváženého portfolia z důvodu atraktivního dividendového výnosu, které tyto společnosti nabízejí ve srovnání s jinými investičními nástroji.

4.2 Specifika REIT

Společnosti, které vlastní nebo financují nemovitosti, musí splňovat řadu požadavků, ať již co se týče organizace, provozu, distribuce, dodržování stanovených předpisů, ale také rozdělení dividend svým akcionářům a složení majetku společnosti, aby se mohli označit jako REIT, jak je uvedeno v souboru zákonů v USA (angl. *Internal Revenue Code).*

Aby společnost mohla být kvalifikovaná jako REIT, musí mít většinu svých aktiv a příjmů spojených s nemovitostmi a nejméně 90 % svých příjmů musí rozdělit akcionářům ve formě dividend. Většina těchto společnost vyplácí 100 % svých zdanitelných příjmů, z toho důvodu nenese žádné daňové zatížení. Z hlediska provozních náležitostí je nezbytné, aby nejméně 75 % ročního hrubého příjmu společnosti REIT pocházelo z příjmů z nemovitostí, jako je nájemné, prodejní cena a úroků ze závazků zajištěných hypotékami. Další nezbytností je skutečnost, že čtvrtletně musí REIT alespoň 75 % aktiv složeno z nemovitého majetku. Přímo

nebo nepřímo nemůže REIT vlastnit více než 10 % cenných papírů s hlasovacím právem jiné společnosti typu REIT. Z hlediska organizačního je REIT povinna splnit dva testy vlastnictví po prvním roku fungování, a to minimálně 100 akcionářů a pět nebo méně investorů nesmí vlastnit více než 50 % hodnoty akcií společnosti v průběhu poslední poloviny svého zdaňovacího období (test 5/50).

4.3 Pozitiv a negativa REIT

Ve prospěch těchto realitních investičních společností, dle Krewson-Kellyho (2016), hovoří skutečnost, že společnosti REIT obvykle dosahují výnosů, které přesahují výnosy indexu S&P 500 a jejich dividendy se zvyšují rychleji než inflace, což činí REIT efektivním zajišťovacím nástrojem. Třetím a stejně důležitým důvodem je, že REIT jsou diverzifikačním nástrojem, bohatý výzkum prokázal, že investice do REIT pomáhají snížit riziko a zvyšovat výnosy z portfolia akcií a dluhopisů. Investovat lze nejen do tradičních nemovitostí, jako jsou bytové jednotky, kanceláře či hotelové domy, nýbrž i do méně tradičních realit jako jsou golfová hřiště, zábavní parky nebo věznice. Investice je také likvidní, neboť akcie REIT lze prodávat, popřípadě nakupovat bez zpoždění.

Brueggeman s Fisherem (2011) považují za nevýhodu vyšší volatilitu oproti podkladovému aktivům. Rovněž REIT společnosti nemají dostatečnou pákovou výhodu, kterou nabízí financování nemovitostí. Vzhledem k tomu, že společnost REIT vyžaduje ze zákona distribuci 90 % svých zisků ve formě dividend, ponechává si společnost pouze 10 % pro další rozvoj nemovitostí. Další nevýhodou je také silná závislost na vývoji ekonomického cyklu.

5 EMPIRICKÝ VÝZKUM

5.1 Zkoumaná data

Testováno je celkem šest ETF zaměřených na sektor nemovitostí, které disponují dostatečně dlouhou historií s využitím závěrečných měsíčních kurzů. Datová sada je získána z finančního portálu YAHOO Finance. Důraz je kladen zejména na komparaci analyzovaného ETF s podkladovým benchmarkem. Preferovány jsou ETF zaměřené na fyzickou replikaci portfolia. Testované období je reprezentován desetiletou časovou periodou, tj. 2008-2017.

Vybrány jsou tři ETF zaměřené na akcie nemovitostního trhu nesplňující požadavky REIT:

- Vanguard Real Estate ETF (VNQ)
- iShares U.S. Real Estate ETF (IYR)
- Cohen & Steers Global Realty Majors ETF (GRI)

A stejný počet RET ETF:

- SPDR Dow Jones REIT ETF (RWR)
- iShares Core U.S. REIT ETF (USRT)
- iShares Cohen & Steers REIT ETF (ICF)

5.2 Výsledky testování

Nejvyššího výnosu dosahuje ETF s tickerem VNQ, který dokázal za desetiletou periody zhodnotit vložené prostředky o téměř 106 %. Ale i ostatní ETF dosahují výnosu nad 80 %. Na druhou stranu lze konstatovat, že GRI a USRT vykazují nižší výnos, konkrétně pod 40 % za deset let.

Vzhledem k tomu, že u nemovitostí nelze povětšinou očekávat překonání tržního výnosu, je vhodné využít bezrizikový výnos, jehož překonání by mělo být cílem každého investora. Z toho důvodu lze ze stejné souhrnné tabulky také vyčíst, jakého výnosy nad bezrizikovou sazbu dosáhly vybrané fondy. Jako reprezentant bezrizikové sazby je zvolena americká státní

tří měsíční pokladniční poukázka. Lze si povšimnout, že čtyři ze šesti ETF jsou schopny překonat bezrizikovou sazbu. ETF s tickerem USRT za bezrizikovým výnosem zaostává jen nepatrně.

Všechny analyzované ETF zaměřené na sektor nemovitostí vykazují celkové riziko měřené směrodatnou odchylkou nad 20 % p. a. Lze si povšimnout, že fondy, se kterými je spojen nižší výnos (GRI a USRT) vykazují i nižší riziko.

Tabulka 1: Výkonnost ETF

Ticker	Výnos	Výnos nad bezrizikovou sazbu	Směrodatná odchylka výnosů	Sharpeho poměr
VNQ	105,59 %	3,71 %	25,13 %	0,15
IYR	86,63 %	2,70 %	24,04 %	0,11
GRI	32,44 %	-0,82 %	21,27 %	-0,04
ICF	85,97 %	2,66 %	26,16 %	0,10
RWR	95,34 %	3,17 %	25,63 %	0,12
USRT	39,58 %	-0,27 %	23,03 %	-0,01

Dalším ukazatelem z dané tabulky je Sharpeho poměr, jenž zachycuje dodatečný výnos fondu nad bezrizikovou míru vzhledem k podstupovanému celkovému riziku. V podstatě tedy udává výkonnost fondu při zohlednění výnosnosti i rizikovosti. Tento indikátor vykazuje záporné hodnoty u těch fondů, které realizovaly i záporný výnos. Takové výsledky lze shledat u fondů GRI a USRT. Nejvyšší výkonnost vzhledem k podstupovanému riziku vykazuje fond VNQ. Hodnota Sharpeho poměru 0,15 udává, že za jeden procentní bod anualizované směrodatné odchylky výnosů dokázal fond zhodnotit prostředky o 0,15 % p. a.

Podstatou ETF, jak je již zmíněno výše, je dokonalá replikace referenčního indexu. Správnost zvoleného benchmarku je otestována pomocí koeficientu determinace, který udává, jak moc daný benchmark reflektuje pohyby výnosů fondů. Uvedené výsledky naznačují, že veškeré analyzované fondy mají vhodně zvolený index potřebný pro následnou analýzu.

Tabulka 2: Srovnání s benchmarkem

Ticker	Koeficient determinace	Výnos nad benchmark	Tracking error
VNQ	0,98	3,18 %	3,18 %
IYR	0,76	-0,91 %	13,24 %
GRI	0,81	-3,65 %	12,47 %
ICF	0,98	-0,29 %	3,44 %
RWR	0,98	-0,18 %	3,48 %
USRT	0,98	-0,22 %	4,22 %

Zásadním ukazatelem u burzovně obchodovaných fondů je indikátor tracking error, který vyjadřuje volatilitu rozdílů mezi výkonností ETF a referenčního indexu s využitím směrodatné odchylky. Velice vysokou odchylku vykazují ETF GRI a IYR, což může naznačovat skutečnost, že složení portfolia či váhové zastoupení aktiv těchto fondů se odchyluje od aktiv obsažených v benchmarku. Rovněž lze podotknout, že pouze fond s nejvyšším výnosem VNQ, dokázal porazit z hlediska výnosu svůj referenční index, který se snaží napodobit. Na druhou stranu, tři testované REIT ETF, nejsou benchmark schopny překonat, nicméně toto zaostává je nepatrné, tudíž lze sumarizovat, že REIT ETF dosahují téměř stejného výnosu jako podkladový index.

Dalším nezbytným indikátorem pro hodnocení výkonnosti analyzovaných fondů je jejich nákladovost. K tomu účelu poslouží ukazatel celkové nákladovosti fondu (angl. *Total Expense Ratio*, TER). TER vyjadřuje veškeré náklady fondu na procentuální bázi za jeden rok, přičemž zahrnuje manažerské poplatky, poplatky obhospodařovateli fondu i správní poplatky. Nejnižší TER je u ETF s tickerem USRT s hodnotou 0,08 %, avšak i ostatní ETF vykazují nákladovost pod 0,50 %. Burzovně obchodované fondy tedy dodržují velice nízkou nákladovou politiku, což bylo předesíláno jako jejich silná výhoda.

V rámci ETF se pohybuje roční dividendový výnos v rozmezí 3 % až 5 % z realizovaného výnosů konkrétního fondu, přičemž dividendy jsou vypláceny u všech fondů čtvrtletně. ETF investorům nabízejí pravidelný fixní příjem ve formě relativně vysokých dividend. Nejvyšší dividendu nabízí ETF VNQ ve výši téměř 5 %. Jak bylo dříve předesláno, REIT většinu svých zisků dále postupují svým investorům, nicméně dle výše uvedené tabulky dividendový výnos REIT ETF není vyšší, než dividendový výnos ETF investujících do stavebních společností nesplňují přísné legislativní požadavky pro REIT.

Tabulka 3: Srovnání nákladovosti a dividend

Ticker	TER	Dividendy
VNQ	0,12	4,83 %
IYR	0,44	2,89 %
GRI	0,55	4,35 %
ICF	0,34	3,38 %
RWR	0,25	3,23 %
USRT	0,08	3,77 %

Na základě provedených výpočtů z předcházejícího výkladu následuje jejich sumarizace za pomocí bodovací metody s využitím diferencovaných vah pro určení pořadí analyzovaných ETF se zaměřením na sektor nemovitostí. Podstata této metody tkví v tom, že fondu, který dosáhl u daného indikátoru nejlepšího výsledku je přidělena bodová hranice 100, která je následně vynásobena váhou, která je ukazateli přidělena. Autorem příspěvku je nejvyšší váha přisouzena základním investičním ukazatelům, tj. výnosnost, rizikovost a nákladovost. Přidělení vah je subjektivní stránkou této metody, přičemž je umožněno reflektovat osobní preference každého individuálního investora.

Srovnávací matice poskytuje tedy pohled na konečného pořadí jednotlivých nemovitostních fondů v dlouhém časovém horizontu. Na první příčce se umístil ETF s tickerem VNQ, který již v průběhu celé analýzy dosahoval vynikajících výsledků a značně předčil i ostatní fondy. Jedná zároveň o největší fond, z hlediska aktiv pod správou, vstupující do analýzy. Stal se absolutním vítězem ve více než polovině zkoumaných kritérií. Dominuje zejména ve výši výnosu vzhledem k jednotce rizika, o čemž svědčí i Sharpeho poměr. Tento fond velice dokonale kopíruje srovnávací základnu a vykazuje mizivé odchylky od indexu. Za tímto fondem se umístily všechny tři REIT ETF.

Tabulka 4: Matice konečného pořadí ETF

Ticker	**Výnos**	**Směrodatná odchylka**	**Sharpeho poměr**	**TER**	**Tracking error**	**Dividendy**	**Suma bodů**	**Pořadí**
Váha	**5**	**5**	**4**	**5**	**3**	**4**		
Charakter ukazatele	**1**	**-1**	**1**	**-1**	**-1**	**1**		
VNQ	500	423	400	333	300	400	2356	**1**

IYR	410	442	304	91	72	239	1559	**5**
GRI	154	500	-104	73	77	360	1059	**6**
ICF	407	406	275	118	277	280	1764	**3**
RWR	451	415	335	160	274	267	1903	**2**
USRT	187	462	-32	500	226	312	1655	**4**

6 ZÁVĚR

Příspěvek se zabýval hodnocením výkonnosti celkem šesti fondů, a sice REIT ETF a ETF investujících do akcií stavebných společností nesplňující kritéria pro status REIT. ETF dokázaly předčit dva nemovitostí ETF zejména v nižší odchylce od benchmarku a nákladovosti, nicméně zaostávaly v dividendové politice. Závěrem lze konstatovat, že mezi těmito fondy nebyly shledány podstatné rozdíly v jejich výkonnosti. Vzhledem k vynikajícím výsledkům ETF s tickerem VNQ, který je absolutně největší z hlediska aktiv pod správou, by v rámci další vědecké práce měla být pozornost zaměřena i na velikost ETF z hlediska aktiv pod správou jako indikátoru výkonnosti fondu.

Poděkování

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ÚČEL A METODY OCEŇOVÁNÍ DŘEVIN ROSTOUCÍCH MIMO LES

THE PURPOSE AND METHODS OF VALUING TREES OUTSIDE THE FOREST

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Abstrakt

Stromy v krajině mají nezastupitelný význam a jsou základem pro vytvoření optimálního životního prostředí a zároveň jsou rovněž i důležitým prvkem trvale udržitelného rozvoje. Stromy formují prostředí, v němž žijeme a plní mnoho důležitých funkcí a pomáhají utvářet prostorovou strukturu krajiny. V souvislosti se zvyšujícími požadavky společnosti na plnění mimoprodukčních funkcí dřevin rostoucích mimo les vznikají nové postupy, jak tyto funkce ohodnotit a vyjádřit tak jejich hodnotu, kterou společnosti z ekologického hlediska poskytují. Přes velké množství oceňovacích metod nebyl zpracován objektivní postup hodnocení dřevin, a ten je tak do značné míry ovlivněn subjektivním názorem a výší hmotného užitku pro společnost. V tomto příspěvku jsou uvedeny, jaké mohou vzniknout důvody pro ohodnocení dřevin rostoucích mimo les a dále jsou představeny popisy několika metod, kterými je možné dřeviny rostoucí mimo les ohodnotit.

Klíčová slova: *dřeviny rostoucí mimo les, oceňování, ekosystém*

Abstract

The trees outside the forest have the irreplaceable significance and they are the core for creating an optimal environment and also important element of sustainable development. The trees shape our environment we live in and fulfil many important functions. In connection with the increasing demands of the humane society to meet the non-production functions of trees outside the forest new approaches are emerging to evaluate these functions to express their value. Despite the fact that there are a large number of valuations methods an objective approach has not been created so far and therefore the subjective point of view has still a significant influence as well as the amount of material benefit for the society. This paper presents some reasons for evaluating trees outside the forest and describe several methods for evaluating this part of nature.

Key words**:** *trees outside the forest, valuating, ecosystem*

1. ÚČEL OCEŇOVÁNÍ DŘEVIN ROSTOUCÍCH MIMO LES

Nastává mnoho situací, kdy je důležité znát cenu dřeviny, ať už se jedná o koupi školkařského výpěstku, nebo je-li součást pořizovaného pozemku, kdy dřevina zvyšuje jeho hodnotu, nebo když jej někdo poškodí, zničí a vlastník požaduje náhradu vzniklé škody při vyčíslení ekologické újmy, která vznikla poškozením nebo zničením daného jedince. Je jasné, že z důvodu rozmanitosti těchto situací jsou také rozdílné možnosti zjištění hodnoty či ceny stromu.

U jediného stromu můžeme rozlišit hodnotu ekonomickou, estetickou, morální aj. Cenou se pak rozumí zpravidla peněžní ekvivalent té jednotlivé hodnoty.

Jak uvádí Kolařík (2013), je oceňování dřevin rostoucí mimo les úkonem, který využíváme z těchto tří základních důvodů:

- Při převodu nemovitosti - jedná se o řízení, které je spojeno s dědictvím převodem apod.
- Při výpočtu kompenzace ekologické újmy -, která vznikla v souvislosti s pokácením dřeviny
- Při výpočtu újmy vzniklé při poškození dřeviny

1.1. Oceňování stromů z důvodu převodu nemovitostí

Tento způsob oceňování je vázán na zákon č. 151/1997 Sb. o oceňování majetku. Důvodem pro cenění je zjištění ceny za účelem vyměření daně. Tato daňová problematika navazuje na právo vlastnické, zejména na převod vlastnického práva, které se týká povinnosti placení daní, což plyne ze zákona č. 357/1992 Sb., o dani darovací, dani z převodů nemovitostí a dani dědické.

Tyto uvedené daně se nevztahují na strom, ale na pozemek, na kterém strom vyrůstá. Do ceny pozemky je započítána cena veškerých jeho součástí - tedy i dřevin. Dle téhož zákona § 120 odst. 1 o součásti věci je vše, co podle povahy náleží a nelze být odděleno, aniž by došlo k poškození, nebo k znehodnocení - věc tedy není samostatným předmětem vztahů občanskoprávních. Na základě tohoto práva a povinností, jejichž předmětem je určitá věc, vztahuje se práva i na její součást. Ve smyslu tohoto zákona jsou trvalé porosty (keře, stromy) součást pozemku, neboť jejich povahou náleží a nelze je oddělit, aniž by došlo ke znehodnocení věci. Znehodnocení znamená zničení, snížení hodnoty, nebo výrazné poškození. Trvalé porosty a jejich cena jako součásti pozemku jsou zahrnuty v základu dědické, darovací daně a daně z převodu nemovitostí. Základ této daně je stanoven v souladu s § 10 odst. 1 písm. a) jmenovaného zákona. Je jím cena, která je zjišťována dle zvláštního právního předpisu, zákon č.151/1997 Sb., o oceňování majetku, ve znění pozdějších předpisů. Využívá se cena, která je platná v den nabytí nemovitosti a to v případě, kdy je cena nemovitosti sjednána dohodou nižší, než je cena zjištěná. V případě že cena sjednaná je vyšší než cena zjištěná, tvoří základ daně cena, která je sjednaná.

V ustanovení § 2 odst. 1 zákona č. 151/1997 Sb. o oceňování majetku, ve znění pozdějších předpisů jsou uvedeny způsoby, kterými je daný majetek oceňován. Dřeviny jsou oceněny tzv. výnosovým způsobem, který je založen na principu výnosu z předmětu ocenění skutečně dosahovaného a z výnosu, který lze z předmětu, který je oceňován za konkrétních podmínek, získat. Zohledněn je při tomto ocenění druh, tvar, věk dřeviny i způsob, kterým byl porost založen. Vychází se přitom ze základní ceny a vliv na ni má i zdravotní stav, stupeň poškození a ekonomická životnost porostu.

1.2. Oceňování z důvodu výpočtu kompenzace ekologické újmy za kácené dřeviny

Při tomto způsobu oceňování nelze vycházet ze zákona č. 151/1997 Sb. o oceňování majetku. V jeho použití brání § 1 uvedeného zákona (Kolařík, 2013). V případě kácení dřevin na základě vydaného rozhodnutí o povolení kácení dřevin rostoucí mimo les, má právo orgán ochrany přírody požadovat náhradní výsadbu. Jedná se o satisfakci, kterou zákon reaguje na skutečnost, že pokácením dřeviny došlo k ekologické újmě ve smyslu ustanovení § 27 zákona č. 17/1992 Sb., o životním prostředí. Ekologická újma lze vypočítat dle metodiky AOPK ČR a v její dané výši uložit náhradní výsadbu (Kolařík 2013).

1.3. Oceňování z důvodu výpočtu újmy vzniklé při poškození dřevin

V zákoně č. 114/1992Sb § 86 je jasně uvedeno, kdo poškodí, zničí či nedovoleně změní část přírody a krajiny, která je chráněna podle tohoto zákona, má povinnost navrátit ji do půdního stavu, pokud je to tedy možné. Tato možnost uvedení do stavu původního však ve věcech ochrany přírody není ve většině případů reálná. Pokud dojde k nevratnému poškození dřevin má možnost orgán ochrany přírody dle § 86 odst. 2 zákona č.

114/1992 Sb. uložit osobě, která poškození svým nedovoleným jednáním spáchala přiměřené kompenzační opatření, které má vést k nápravě. Jedná se o kompenzační opatření, které má za cíl byť zmírnit následky nedovoleného jednání. Orgán v rozhodnutí uloží formu, způsob i časovou lhůtu k uskutečnění takového nápravného opatření (Kolařík, 2013). V potaz jsou brány i otázky přiměřenosti daného rozsahu nápravných opatření ve vztahu k velikosti způsobené újmy (Pekárek a kol., 2000). Takto způsobená újma, která vznikla v souvislosti s poškozením dřeviny, lze vypočítat pomocí metodiky AOPK ČR, která udává dva možné způsob výpočtu (Kolařík 2013):

- Poškození dřeviny bylo způsobeno nevhodným řezem - je součástí tohoto výpočtu hodnoty dřeviny přímo krok, v kterém je zjišťována snížená hodnota dřeviny, celková výše újmy se poté rovná vypočítané srážce hodnoty.
- Jestliže k poškození dřeviny došlo jiným typem zásahu než je ořez – např. poškození kmene, je možné újmu vypočítat jako rozdíl hodnoty dřeviny před a po nedovoleném zásahu (Pekárek a kol., 2000).

2. METODY OCEŇOVÁNÍ DŘEVIN ROSTOUCÍCH MIMO LES

2.1. Metody oceňování dřevin využívané v České republice

Metodika AOPK

Tato metodika byla představena v roce 2006 a od té doby byla několikrát novelizována až do dnešní podoby, která byla představena v roce 2018. Metodika je využívána pro potřeby zákona o ochraně přírody a krajiny, který umožňuje příslušnému orgánu ochrany přírody uložit kompenzační opatření za újmu, která vznikla pokácením nebo poškozením dřeviny. A právě ke stanovení kompenzační újmy slouží tato metodika.

Touto metodou lze oceňovat jak solitérní stromy, tak i skupiny stromů. Při posuzování stromu je nutné znát různé parametry daných dřevin, jako je například průměr kmene, druh dřeviny, nasazení koruny, fyziologická vitalita, zdravotní stav apod. Pro hodnocení skupin stromů je postup takový, že jsou sečteny ohodnocení všech stromů ve skupině a následně vynásobeny koeficientem pokryvnosti. Po zohlednění všech faktorů se získá bodové ohodnocení dané dřeviny, které je následně přepočítáno inflačním koeficientem, který zveřejňuje Český statistický úřad pro daný rok.

Jedním z významných kladů této metodiky je fakt, že došlo k vytvoření internetové kalkulačky, kterou lze zdarma využívat na stránkách AOPK ČR (Kolařík a kol., 2018).

Vyhláška MF č. 441/2013 Sb.

Tato vyhláška zákona č. 441/2013 o oceňování majetku stanovuje ceny, přirážky, srážky, koeficienty k cenám a jednotlivé postupy při uplatňování jednotlivých způsobů oceňování práv věcí a jiných majetkových hodnot. Výpočet je proveden za pomocí jednotlivých příloh vyhlášky. Vstupními parametry v tomto případě je věk a taxon stromu. Zjištěná základní cena dle těchto parametrů je upravena srážkami a přirážkami za polohový koeficient a stav stromu.

Hlavním rozdílem mezi zákonem o oceňování majetku je v tom, že zákon chápe strom jako pozemek, na kterém dřevina roste, a tím ho i zhodnocuje. Tento typ oceňování dřevin je vhodný pro majetkové převody. Strom tedy zůstává na svém místě a plní všechny své funkce ve vztahu k životnímu prostředí. Naopak metodika AOPK ČR oceňuje ekologickou újmu, která vnikne společnosti odstraněním dřeviny, neoprávněným poškozením, nebo nedovoleným zásahem (Kolařík 2013).

Kochova metoda

Kochova metoda je určena pro zjištění hodnoty okrasných dřevin. V Německu je tato metoda všeobecně uznávaná a používaná. Využívána je v případě poškození, zničení nebo vyvlastnění dřeviny. Tato metoda je založena na principu nákladů investovaných do konkrétní dřeviny na

jeho dopěstování do dospělosti. Výsledná hodnota snižují srážky za defekty či věk (Buliř, 2012).
Tato metodika úročí potencionální vynaložené náklady na stejnou dřevinu. K odpisování dochází až v bodu, kdy dojde ke snížení vitality jedince. Strom po dosažení tohoto bodu stále přibývá na hodnotě, a to exponenciálně. Tato metoda je založena na dvou hlavních faktorech, úrokové míře a velikosti vysazené dřeviny. Kladem i záporem této metody je závislost vypočtené ceny na velikosti vysazeného jedince. Velkým plusem je ale fakt, že tato metoda pokrývá širokou škálu situačních kontextů od výsadby ve větrolamu až po strom situovaný na náměstí, mínusem může být, že ne vždy se na situačním kontextu hodnotitelé shodnou a výsledná hodnota se může lišit i o několik řádů (Pilař, 2003).

Metodika dle Machovce a Grulicha
U metodiky dle Machovce a Grulicha je hlavní parametr pro ocenění stromu jeden m3 objemu koruny s listových aparátem. Hodnota objemu koruna je závislá na definovaném tvaru koruny. Následně je tato hodnota upravována podle objemu míry poškození a vitální části koruny. Následně je hodnota násobena ukazatelem základní bodové hodnoty. Takto zjištěná základní bodová hodnota dřeviny je upravena přirážkami a srážkami dle nynějšího kvalitativního stavu, popřípadě dalších faktorů. Výsledná hodnota stromu je na závěr převedena na aktuální cenu za jeden bod (Bulíř, 2012).

2.2. Metody oceňování dřevin využívané ve světě
V různých zemích se během doby vyvinuly různé metody pro oceňování dřevin. Pro všechny metody lze zmínit, že nikdy nelze s přesností určit jedno dané peněžní ohodnocení stromu a konstatovat o něm, že je jediné správné. Pro každého hodnotitele má jeden totožný strom jinou subjektivní hodnotu, a i jednotlivé metody přistupují k ohodnocení rozdílnými způsoby, je tedy nutné se bavit pouze o odhadu hodnoty stromu. Níže jsou představeny některé z nich (Watson, 2002).

The Amenity Valuation of Trees and Woodlands (Velká Británie)
Tato metoda byla prvně publikována v roce 1967. Je široce používaná v soudních sporech nebo pojistných událostech pro určení hodnoty solitérních stromů, v menší míře pak i pro určení hodnoty lesích porostů. Základní myšlenkou tohoto přístupu je přidělování bodů k různým faktorům, charakterizující strom. Tato ohodnocení jsou potom mezi sebou vynásobena, tak je získán srovnávací výsledek pro strom. Tímto způsobem se, jinými slovy, stromy s různými charakteristikami se imaginárně seřadí tak, že ty nejméně hodnotné jsou nejníže, a ty nejkvalitnější na vrcholu (Helliwell, 2008).

Revised Burnley Method (Austrálie)
Metoda byla publikována na Victorian College of Agriculture and Horticulture Limited, Burnley Campus v roce 1988 (Moore, 1991). Tento přístup vychází ze dvou kroků. První je založen na stanovení velikosti stromu. Původně byla velikost určována pomocí vzorečku pro objem válce, což tedy v tomto případě znamenalo jednoduché změření výšky a velikosti zápoje. Druhým krokem je definování dolarové základní hodnoty pro strom. Této hodnoty je dosahováno maloobchodní cenou získanou z vhodných lesnických školek za materiál o objemu větší než 1 m^3. Základní hodnota je pak vyjádřena v dolarech na m^3. Pro větší přesnost je výpočet prováděn průměrnou hodnotou pro alespoň tři vzorky z různých školek.
U této metody bylo zamýšleno, že by základní hodnota stromu byla ustanovena vynásobením velikosti a hodnotových prvků, což by pak ještě bylo modifikováno zahrnutím zvláštností nebo lokalitou stromu.

Guide for Plant Appraisal (USA)
Jedná se o metodu, která je v USA značně používána již od roku 1951, kdy jí poprvé představil ústav Council of Tree and Landscape Appraisers (CTLA). Základem této metody je změření průměru kmene ve výšce 1,4m ve dvou na sebe kolmých měření. Tato vypočtená plocha je poté násobena základní peněžní jednotkou na čtvereční palec. Tímto způsobem získáme maximální hodnotu, kterou posléze násobíme koeficienty zohledňující kondici, umístění v krajině a kvalitu druhu stromu. Tyto koeficienty jsou menší než 1, tudíž maximální hodnotu snižují. Tyto koeficienty používané v Texasu zmiňuje Dreesen (2005).
Tato metoda lze využívat pro určení zdravotního stavu stromu, kdy bylo určeno 6 faktorů ovlivňující stav, a ty se hodnotí od jedné do pěti. Následně součet hodnocení všech šesti faktorů popisuje hodnocení kvality daného stromu (Watson, 2002).

Standard Tree Evaluation Method – STEM – New Zealand
Tato metoda byla představena v roce 1996 Ronem Flookem. Podobně jako Helliwellova metoda, která je popsána výše, je i tento přístup založen na bodovém systému, kdy se hodnotí 20 vlastností ve třech oblastech, a každá vlastnost je ohodnocena 3 a 27 body. Hodnotí se takové vlastnosti dřeviny jako je kondice, užitečné vlastnosti, důležitost atd. Bodový součet je pak vynásoben velkoobchodní cenou pěti-letého stromku, bez konkrétního určení druhu. K tomu jsou poté připočteny náklady na výsadbu a následné péče až do stejného věku jako je strom, který je pokácen. Tato cena je pak převedena na cenu maloobchodní (Watson, 2002).

Norma Granada (Španělsko)
Metoda byla poprvé zveřejněna v roce 1990, v roce 1999 pak byla revidována. Při hodnocení se zde využívají řady tabulek, které popisují druh stromu (rychlost růstu, dlouhověkosti) a faktory velikosti, které následně určí hodnotový faktor. Tento zjištěný faktor je následně vynásoben velkoobchodní cenou stromku a tím je poté získána základní hodnota. V následujícím kroku je tak tato hodnota upravena faktorem kvality stromu a jeho umístěním v krajině. Tyto zmiňované hodnoty mohou kvalitu stromu jak zvýšit, tak i snížit. Na strom, který se nachází v průměrném stavu, tato hodnota nebude mít žádný vliv. Průměrná doba života a vnější faktory mohou hodnotu stromu pouze zvýšit. Maximální teoretická hodnota základní hodnoty 8mi násobek základní hodnoty (Watson, 2002).

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PUBLIKACE CEN DŘÍVÍ STATISTICKÝMI ÚŘADY V ČR A BLÍZKÝCH ZEMÍCH

WOOD PRICES PUBLISHING BY THE CZECH STATISTICAL OFFICE AND STATISTICAL OFFICES IN NEARBY COUNTRIES

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Abstrakt

Statistické úřady přistupují k publikaci cen dříví různými způsoby, a to jak frekvencí publikace, tak formátem. Tyto informace poté uživatelům nabízí pohled do vývoje cen dříví, což je pro ně důležitý orientační údaj při stanovení cen. Největší vliv mají na několikaleté kontrakty, které při úpravě aktuálních cen z těchto údajů vychází. Při porovnání s blízkými zeměmi vychází český statistický úřad velmi obstojně, nabízí ceny i indexy čtvrtletně i ve formátech pro další zpracování a publikuje data jen s nízkým zpožděním. Publikace Zpráva o stavu lesa a lesního hospodářství - Zelená zpráva vydávaná Ministerstvem zemědělství však vychází se značným zpožděním. Komentáře k pohybům cen dříví, kde údaje vycházejí z dat ČSÚ, jsou pak velmi zastaralé pro lesní podniky.

Klíčová slova: *ceny dříví, statistika, publikace dat, sortimenty dříví*

Abstract

Various approaches are used by statistical offices when wood prices publishing is concerned: frequency and form do differ. Statistical offices provide the public with a deep insight into wood prices development which is a significant landmark for wood pricing. The published data are of the greatest influence on long-term contracts as prices of these contracts are determined with taking the current wood prices data into account. The Czech Statistical Office is doing a good job when compared with another statistical offices; without a significant delay the Czech Statistical Office publishes wood prices and indexes not only quarterly but also in electronic forms making further processing very easy. Though, unfortunately, the publication "Forest and forest management report" – "Green report" which is published by the Ministry of Agriculture of the Czech Republic is usually published with delays. As a result, this publication (based on data from the Czech Statistical Office) is usually outdated and user-inconvenient for forestry enterprises.

Keywords: *wood prices, statistics, data publishing, wood assortments*

1 ÚVOD

Tržby za prodeje dříví jsou základní a tou nejdůležitější složkou výnosů lesního podniku. Jsou zde i jiné možnosti zpeněžení stromů – biomasa (Kärkkäinen 2017), nebo lesních plodů, což je ale v ČR trochu problematické (Šišák & Pulkrab 2009), ale objem a cena zmíněných produktů nedosahuje ani zdaleka hodnotu za prodané dříví. Kromě objemu a struktury sortimentů dříví ovlivňují výši tržeb také jednotkové ceny sortimentů dříví. Způsoby stanovení jednotkových cen sortimentů dříví a způsoby možnosti pohybu těchto cen v případě dlouhodobých smluvně-obchodních vztahů lesního podniku tedy významným způsobem ovlivňují úroveň jeho dosahovaných tržeb za prodej dříví.

Statistické úřady v těchto smluvních vztazích hrají nemalou roli. Pokud jde o dlouhodobé smluvní vztahy mezi lesním podnikem a odběratelem, je nutné cenu dříví mezi nimi

dohodnutou upravovat. Jedna z používaných možností je upravovat cenu dříví dle cen nebo indexů uváděných Českým statistickým úřadem. Bez těchto úprav cen při náhlém výkyvu na trhu by byl nucen odběratel dříví nakupovat zboží za mnohem vyšší cenu, než je tržní a tedy velmi nevýhodně. Nebo naopak lesní podnik prodávat své sortimenty ve smluveném množství za nízkou cenu (která by při velkém propadu cen, který je například vidět nyní u některých sortimentů kvůli kůrovcové kalamitě (Silvarium 2018), mohla být i nižší než výrobní).
Proto jsou data, která jsou publikována statistickými úřady, důležitá. Záleží na tom, jaké data publikují, jak často a v jakém formátu. V interpretaci dat, ale pouze z dlouhodobého hlediska, pak mohou sloužit publikace vypracované samotnými statistickými úřady (jako v Polsku), nebo příslušným ministerstvem - v České republice známá Zpráva o stavu lesa a lesního hospodářství - Zelená zpráva (2017).

2 PŘEHLED V JEDNOTLIVÝCH ZEMÍCH

V České Republice mají podíl na všech pozemcích pozemky určené k plnění funkci lesa (PUPFL) Dle Ministerstva zemědělství (2016) 34 %. S lesnatostí se ČR v Evropské unii řadí na 11. místo. Nejvyšší lesnatost v České republice má Liberecký kraj (44,9 %), následovaný Karlovarským krajem (43,8 %). Plocha lesních pozemků se meziročně zvyšuje, v roce 2013 2 663 731 ha, v roce 2014 2 666 376 ha a v roce 2015 již 2 668 392 ha. Lesy mají spoustu funkcí, jak produkčních, tak mimo produkčních. Mezi ty produkční patří dřevoprodukční funkce, která má také největší ekonomický podíl (Schneider et al. 2016). Právě těžba dříví přináší z lesa nejvyšší zisk. Avšak podíl na HDP České republiky je pod 1% (Ministerstvo zemědělství 2017). Lesy a lesní hospodářství i přes malý podíl HDP jsou stále důležitou součástí hospodářství, jelikož na ně navazují i další mimoprodukční funkce – půdoochranné, vodoochranné a také rekreační. (Schneider et al., 2016).

1.1 Česká republika

V České republice jsou Statistickým úřadem uváděna data čtvrtletně, ale aktuální - zpoždění čtvrtletních dat bývá 1-2 měsíce, což je oproti jiným zemím silná stránka. Jsou rozděleny dle jakosti sortimentů, které jsou uvedeny v Doporučených pravidlech pro měření a třídění dříví v ČR (2007). Je tu však problém s nedostatečným počtem respondentů (počet je vždy uveden u daného čtvrtletí a jakosti), což u cen dříví snižuje hodnověrnost uváděných dat, které nemusejí reflektovat aktuální situaci na trhu. Navíc však dochází ke snižování počtu kategorií, které jsou sledovány – u některých kategorií chybí data i dlouhodobě, což je na jednu stranu pochopitelné, pokud se jedná o nejvyšší jakosti, na druhou stranu s těmito jakostmi jistě přicházejí pilařské závody, nebo alespoň specializované pily, do styku. U těchto sortimentů pak dochází, pokud jsou data k dispozici, k velkým výkyvům mezi čtvrtletími.
Údaje z Českého statistického úřadu (2018) jsou na stránkách uvedeny přehledně a to jak ve formátu PDF pro přehled, tak ve formátu XLS pro použití v tabulkových procesorech. To usnadňuje budoucí práci s daty a každý je díky tomu může lehce použít. Nacházejí se zde jak samotné ceny dříví, tak indexy cen a porovnání cen za minulé období. V tabulkách jsou rozděleny nejen na jehličnaté a listnaté, ale také dle druhů sortimentů a druhu dřeviny.
Celkové zprávy i se všemi podrobnostmi a komentáři jsou vydávány v tzv. Zelené zprávě Ministerstva zemědělství souhrnně za každý rok. Tyto publikace jsou však vydávány se značným zpožděním na webových stránkách Ministerstva zemědělství (eagri.cz) a dochází k dalšímu zpožďování jejich vydávání v posledních letech – za rok 2014 byla vydána 3. června 2016 (!), za rok 2015 byla vydána 25. srpna 2016 a za rok 2016 až 27. prosince 2017. Některé roky vyjde i po více jak roce (Zelená zpráva za rok 2008 vyšla 11. ledna 2010). Jelikož Zelené zpráva (2017) shrnuje nejen vývoj cen, ale i těžeb a dalších důležitých informací o trhu s dřívím, koneční uživatelé se nemohou dříve jinak seznámit s komentovanými údaje z Českého statistického úřadu – proč byl vývoj takový, jaké byly

důvody a jaký se předpokládá vývoj do budoucna. Tyto údaje v době publikace jsou již rok staré a pro současný trh přináší nízké poznatky.

1.2 Slovensko

Na Slovensku průměrné ceny dříví do roku 2012 uváděl Štatistický úrad Slovenskej republiky (2018). Od roku 2013 jsou informace na oficiálních stránkách tohoto úřadu (konkrétně v databázi Slovstat – jedné ze tří databází používaných ke zveřejňování a uchovávání informací) k dispozici ve formě pouze indexů cen dříví dle sortimentu. Indexy cen jsou rozděleny na jehličnaté nebo listnaté dříví. Ve stejné kategorii ale zůstávají údaje o průměrných cenách výrobků ze zemědělské výroby.

Údaje o průměrných cenách dříví je možné získat přes Informačný list Spravodajca Národného lesnického centra (2018). V těchto listech je možné najít každé čtvrtletí tabulky s informacemi o cenách a vývoji cen dříví různých druhů sortimentů. Problémem je, že není možné získat tyto údaje volně na internetu ve formě tabulek, které by bylo možné zpracovávat, ale pouze ve formě PDF v podobě těchto Informačních listů. Publikace dat je oproti Českému statistickému úřadu zpožděna i o několik měsíců.

Sortimenty v tabulkách jsou rozděleny podle kvality a v Informačním zpravodaji dále dle účelu. V údajích pro jednotlivé sortimenty se neuvádí počet respondentů – dochází tak k velkým výkyvům průměrů cen u sortimentů, ze kterých je pravděpodobně údajů málo. U některých sortimentů chybí ceny i za celý rok z pravděpodobně stejného důvodu.

1.3 Polsko

V Polsku vydává Polský statistický úřad (Główny Urząd Statystyczny 2017) každoročně obsáhlou zprávu o lesnictví se všemi zjištěnými údaji za minulý rok nazvanou Leśnictwo (2017). Tato publikace je dvojjazyčná, v polštině a angličtině – u obou s kompletními daty, rozdělena na několik kapitol. U kapitoly zabývající se cenami dříví, prodaného množství apod. jsou vysvětleny druhy sortimentů. Bohužel se zde nenachází rozdělení na konkrétní dřeviny (kromě na jehličnaté a listnaté), ale pouze kvalitativní parametry.

Poslední aktuálně dostupné údaje se týkají roku 2016, pozdější nejsou k dispozici, v souhrnné publikaci z listopadu roku 2017 (obdoba zpracovávání Zelené zprávy v České republice.) Velkou výhodou je uvádění informací nejen v publikaci v PDF, ale také v datech, které je možno využít v aplikaci při práci s tabulkami.

1.4 Německo

Německý statistický úřad (Statistische Bundesamt 2018) zveřejňuje místo průměrných cen za jednotlivé dřeviny a sortimenty pouze indexy cen. V publikaci Cenové indexy pro zemědělství a lesnictví - Preisindizes für die Land- und Forstwirtschaft jsou Indexy pro jednotlivé sortimenty. Porovnání s našimi cenami tedy není možné. Indexy stanovují pohyb cen od roku 2010 (pro rok 2012 a dál), ale průměrné ceny za jednotlivé sortimenty se zde nenachází.

V publikaci Preisindizes für die Land- und Forstwirtschaft (Statistische Bundesamt 2018) jsou cenové indexy za každý měsíc, za předchozí měsíc, porovnání mezi těmito dvěma měsíci a porovnání s rokem 2010 (index pro rok 2010 = 100). Jedná se o měsíčník, který ale vychází se značným zpožděním, takže dochází zde ke zpoždění 4 – 5 měsíců. Je škoda, že není možné ani ceny současné dopočítat, protože index je sice stanoven, ale ceny pro rok 2010 dostupné nejsou.

Tyto indexy cen se vztahují k celému Německu. V publikacích je možné zjistit Indexy cen i pro jednotlivé spolkové státy, nikoliv však opět přesné ceny v daném období. Forma publikování dat ve formátu PDF, které není možné použít pro další účely, je ale nešťastná.

1.5 Rakousko

Rakouský statistický úřad (Statistik Austria 2018) vydává ceník pro zemědělské plodiny a dříví. Ceníky rozdělené po měsících se zde nacházejí zpětně do roku 2013, starší ceníky dávají k dispozici informace o ročních průměrech. Webové stránky jsou sice dvoujazyčné, ale zajímavostí je, že anglická verze stránek obsahuje mnohem méně informací.

Tabulky jsou rozděleny na jednotlivé sortimenty, lišící se kvalitou, ale také délkou. Rakouské dělení sortimentů (až na výjimky – Blochholz v Rakousku / Rundholz – v Německu) je stejné jako v Německu. Toto dělení sortimentů úplně neodpovídá dělení v České republice (Wojnar 2008), jednoduché porovnávání cen by pro lesní podnik neměl vypovídající hodnotu – zda by bylo výhodnější zpeněžení v tuzemsku nebo v Rakousku. Bylo by nutné najít nejbližší podobný sortiment, který odpovídá našim sortimentům dle Doporučených pravidel.

Údaje jsou k dispozici nejen v rozsáhlém dokumentu ve formátu PDF ke čtení, ale také v excelovské tabulce, tedy je možné pohodlnějším způsobem údaje získat a pracovat s nimi. Navíc údaje jsou k dispozici poměrně brzy, poslední publikace bývá maximálně 1 – 2 měsíce stará.

3 SHRNUTÍ

V blízkých zemích bylo zjišťováno, jaké sortimenty dříví sledují, jak často a jakým způsobem je publikují. Slovensko publikuje své ceny od roku 2012 prostřednictvím Národného lesnického centra po čtvrtletích a bohužel jen ve formátu PDF, tedy jen ke čtení. Další použití údajů je tedy problematické, stejně jako v Německu, kde je publikují prostřednictvím Preisindizes für Land- & Forstwirtschaft po měsících a zde navíc pouze cenové indexy s téměř půlročním zpožděním. V Polsku publikují jednou ročně obdobu naší Zelené zprávy Ministerstva zemědělství s názvem Lesnictwo (2017), pouze s průměrnou cenou za minulý rok (poslední s daty z roku 2016), ale data jsou dostupná i v excelovské tabulce pro možné další zpracování dat. V Rakousku mají systém podrobný, v cenách za každý měsíc i se shrnutím, vydáváno měsíčně se zpožděním 1 – 2 měsíců a jak v PDF ke čtení, tak v excelovské tabulce pro možné další použití dat.

Dochází i k rozdílům četnosti nebo podrobnosti publikovaných dat v závislosti na vybrané jazykové volbě internetové stránky a nabízených možností. Odkazy jazykové mutace stránek nemusí dávat odkazy na data, popř. zastaralá, nebo dojde pouze k odkazům na obecné a přeložené informace, nikoliv na informace sice nepřeložené, ale potřebné – např. odkaz na ceny dříví v Rakousku v anglické verzi vede pouze ke krátkým materiálům v PDF, zatímco v německém jazyce k podrobným informacím a tabulkám. To poté ztěžuje získávání informací pro zájemce z jiných zemích i když dnes je možné si nechat přeložit celou webovou stránku. Odborné výrazy však dělají stále potíž.

4 ZÁVĚR

Při porovnání České republiky s blízkými zeměmi, dochází zde k několika problémům, které je potřeba vzít v úvahu. Jakostní třídy používané v České republice nemusí korespondovat s těmi používanými v zahraničí. Nejvíce odpovídající jsou samozřejmě na Slovensku a dále také v Polsku. Dále je zde časová různorodost publikace dat, jak ve smyslu časového opakování – publikace po měsících, čtvrtletích nebo po letech, tak i aktuálnost dat – zpoždění se pohybuje v řádech měsíců, v případě Polska i více jak jednoho roku dle vydání publikace Lesnictwo.

Obecně je ale publikace dat Českým statistickým úřadem oproti jiným zemím na vysoké úrovni, jsou publikovány brzy a v podobě, která je použitelná pro další zpracování. Lesní podniky díky tomu mohou svými smlouvami na tyto údaje odkazovat a použít pro dlouhodobé vztahy i při větších výkyvech na trhu.

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LABOUR SHORTAGE: UNDERLYING DRIVER OF INDUSTRY 4.0 IN CZECHIA?

Jan Krejčí

Abstract

This study investigates possible link between labour shortage and current Industry 4.0 related projects across Czech manufacturing industry. In Czechia, historically lowest unemployment rate makes it very hard for the manufacturing sector to hire new employees at the moment. Industry 4.0 is a term with vague definition but is increasingly popular in manufacturing sector. Definition of Industry 4.0 is clarified in first part of this study, it is confirmed that automation is one part of the overall definition of Industry 4.0. Result of the research shows weak or non-existent link between low unemployment and Industry 4.0 projects in manufacturing sector.

Keywords: *automation, Industry 4.0, Czechia, unemployment, labour shortage*

1 INTRODUCTION

The Industry 4.0 is a term that has been coined in 2011 at a Hannover fair, originally called „Industrie 4.0“ in German. Since then, the term has become increasingly popular but also hard to define. Industry 4.0 can involve automation, robotization advanced digitalization, and using innovative technologies in manufacturing process, like additive manufacturing (3D print), artificial intelligence, cloud computing, internet of things, big data, nanotechnology, biotechnology, energy-saving systems and others.

Since part of the definition of Industry 4.0 is automation, which means replacing human labour by machinery, historically lowest unemployment in history of Czechia[1] brings unique opportunity to find out if there is a link between low unemployment and current Industry 4.0 projects in manufacturing sector.

First half of the study is dedicated to finding a suitable definition of Industry 4.0 and therefore clarifying the terminology. Second half presents the results of a questionnaire which was done in Czech manufacturing companies that were recently involved in implementing Industry 4.0 projects.

To find the definition of Industry 4.0, 20 texts coming from companies, public institutions and academia were subjected to content analysis. The list is as follows: PwC [1], McKinsey [2], KPMG [3], Deloitte [4], EY [5], Bosch India [6], ARC Advisory [7], Boston Consulting Group [8], Wavestone [9], VINCI Energies [10], SAP [11], Gartner [12] fall into corporate category and Thouverez [13], Marr [14], i-Scoop [15], Hermann et al. [16], Mařík [17], Brettel et al. [18], European Parliament [19] and Schwab [20] fall into popular-scientific, academic and institutional category. Mařík and Schwab from the second category are book publications.

2 METHODOLOGY

Examined texts for finding a definition of Industry 4.0 were chosen according to their potential impact. The impact assessment assumes that the higher the place in the Internet search engine, the larger the number of people could see the material and the greater the influence on shaping the general public notion of Industry 4.0. The more people share the

[1] 2.3 % according to Czech Statistical Office as for 31st May 2018

same notion, the higher the chance that this notion will become a general definition, a standard.
Choosing the sources for contextual analysis took place based on keywords "Industry 4.0", "Industry 4.0 Definitions" and their translations into Czech and French between days 5-11th of December 2017. The search was carried out by an Internet search engine with the highest market share in the given language area, which was Google in all cases.
The text must meet following criteria to classify:

1) It must be solid and focused on Industry 4.0;
2) must have a clear author or be clearly assigned to an organization;
3) must be original.

During the selection of texts, it was also considered to maintain the relative balance between the profit and the non-profit sector. Hence the distribution of definitions into the group “corporate” on the one hand (total of 12) and the group "popular-scientific, academic and institutional" on the other (total of 8).
Methodology of a survey in the second part of the study is as follows. The survey covers 44 use cases of Industry 4.0 solutions being at least in pilot project phase. More than 250 companies from 10 manufacturing subsectors (based on NACE classification) were targeted during the research, based on their turnover in Magnus Web database.
The final sample contains 34 companies from following fields: automotive (transportation), machinery, fabricated metal products, basic metals, electrical components, electrical equipment, food and beverage, and furniture. It is important to note that due to a strong automotive industry in the Czech Republic and its corresponding technological lead among the manufacturing industry subsectors, companies dependent on automotive market accounted for about half of all companies included in the final study.
Net profit of the sample companies ranged from 4 million EUR to 15 billion EUR and employee count from 40 to 20,400 in 2016, covering local SMEs as well as large multinational corporations.
Inputs for the study were obtained by combination of questionnaires and interviews with company representatives, who were either responsible for company’s digital agenda or had a leading management role. Given the value of information disclosed in the study, no company or solution/supplier names will be quoted or directly referred to.
Questionnaires and interviews were conducted during four months, between September 2017 and February 2018. Topics regarded as falling under Industry 4.0 concept were following: Internet of Things and IT system integration, advanced analytics and virtualization, collaborative robotics, process digitization, advanced automation and 3D print. The questionnaire covered following questions:

- What kind of solution is your company using?
- What are the benefits of the solution?
- What were the main implementation challenges?
- What measures had to be taken for successful implementation?
- How the solution fits into the overall company strategy?

3 RESULTS

3.1 Definition of Industry 4.0

When looking for a definition of Industry 4.0, the existence of another term, “Fourth industrial revolution”, must be taken into account. First question that springs to mind is naturally whether these two terms can be used interchangeably and if not, how these two terms differ.

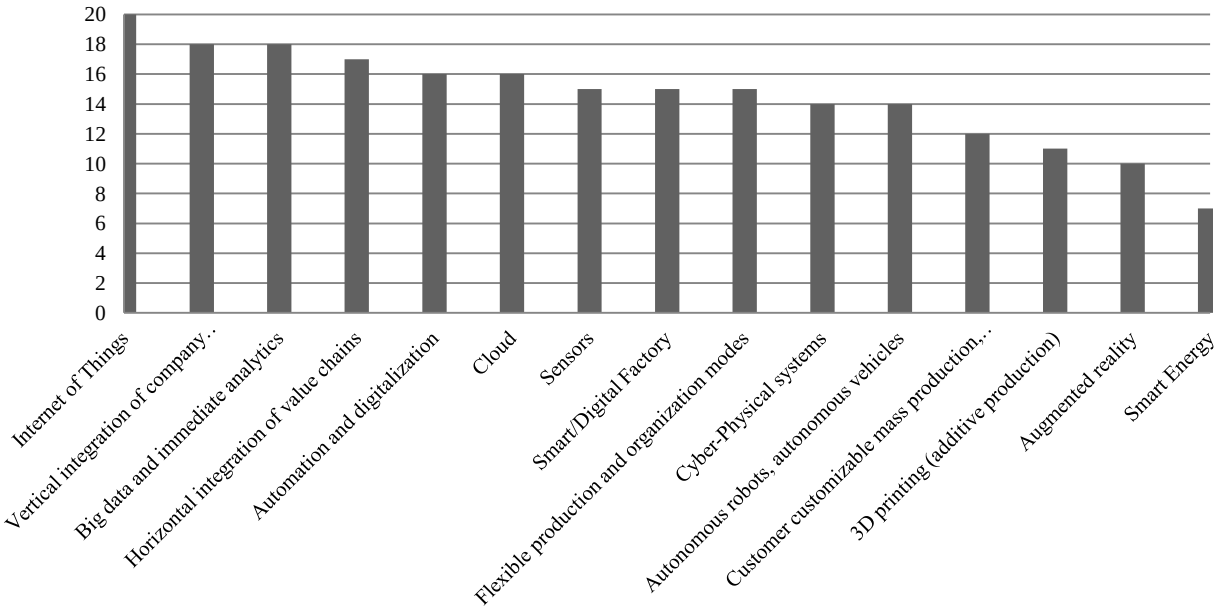
In 16 cases out of 20, it was explicitly said that these two terms are to be used interchangeably or in other cases, the terms were used in such way, namely: “In this report, the term ‘Industry 4.0’ stands for the fourth industrial revolution.” [1 s. 6]; „Unlike prior industrial revolutions, Industry 4.0 is not about […]“ [2 s. 15]; “With the advent of the fourth industrial revolution, known as ‘Industry 4.0’ […]” [3 s. 2]. In three cases, this terminology was not mentioned at all. Finally, in one case it was explicitly stated that Industry 4.0 and the fourth industrial revolution are terms with different meaning: “Industry 4.0 is a term coined at the Hannover Trade Fair in 2011. It describes the revolution in the organization of value chains, while the fourth industrial revolution is not just about smart and interconnected devices, its scope is far broader.” [20 s. 7–8]

In order to assess what is the scope of the Industry 4.0, it is necessary to present the concepts contained in the examined texts. The terms are ranked according to their occurrence from the most common to the least frequent.

Table 1: Ocurence of examined concepts

Concept	Explanation	Occurrence
Internet of Things	A network of interconnected devices that exchange data and information.	20
Vertical integration of company production processes	Connection of production and control systems and enterprise resource planning	18
Big data and immediate analytics	Data recorded with sensors (from production or from customer use) are used to continually make the production process more fluent and more precise.	18
Horizontal integration of value chains	Connection of areas related to the production phases of the product (development, production, logistics, distribution) with customers, suppliers and other partners.	17
Automation and digitalization	Accelerating the production process by giving further autonomy in deciding to smart machines and eliminating need for human decision; Creation of digital prototypes, preservation of the product design in digital files instead of physical forms, etc.	16
Cloud	Saving data in remote datacenters, where it is stored in multiple copies and accessible from any computer via Internet connection.	16
Sensors	Devices that enable products or parts of the product to communicate with the production machines and record their own production history.	15
Smart/Digital Factory	A factory in which machines communicate with each other, with products, with customers and with suppliers.	15
Flexible production and organization modes	Automatic adjustment of production to changing conditions.	15
Cyber-Physical systems	The connection of a physical system and a controlling computational unit that is capable of self-decision in response to changing situations.	14
Autonomous robots, autonomous vehicles	Devices that can make decisions based on information obtained in real time in the framework of sophisticated algorithms.	14
Customer customizable mass production, modularization	Production which allows to produce in large and at the same time produce products tailored to the customer.	12
3D printing (additive production)	Production by gradually adding layers of material on top of each other.	11
Augmented reality	Real world record enhanced by digital elements.	10
Smart Energy	In factories: Automatic increase in production when switching to cheaper energy. Smart cities: regulation of energy flows of consumers and customers.	7

Figure 1: Occurence of examined concepts



The term “Internet of Things” occurred in every definition, followed by the terms “vertical integration of company production processes”, “Big data and immediate analytics” and “Horizontal integration of value chains”. Concepts such as “Smart energy”, “Augmented Reality” and “3D Printing” appeared at the other end of the spectrum.

The image of the Industry 4.0, which arises from these results, emphasizes the ubiquitous interconnectedness of machines, production and management systems and products in the production sphere with the sphere of suppliers, partners and customers. This is the essence of the Industry 4.0. New technologies, however important for the realization of this interconnection, are mere tools, and are likely to be overcome by even modern technologies in the future.

Interconnection as the essence of the 4.0 industry allows to avoid duplication of data and processes and inefficient capacity utilization. The company's production data is provided free of charge or against payment to suppliers or other partners to avoid inefficiencies (inaccurate processes, non-harmonized delivery times, etc.) and at the same time to avoid duplications. This data is generated by sensors and automatically shared within the scope of the Internet of Things.

As for the nature of the examined definitions, it can be said that although they are not identical, they are similar. The similarity is manifested by the fact that they do not contradict each other. The definitions examined have a common basis (the Internet of Things), which is supplemented by additional terms. As a result, some definitions overlap with each other and are supplemented by definitions that emphasize other concepts.

The above-mentioned image of the interconnectedness as the essence and additional characteristics as digitalization, horizontal and vertical integration, cyber-physical systems and big data centered production can be considered as a narrow definition of Industry 4.0.

The broad definition emerges from description of the fourth industrial revolution by Schwab [20], who uses this term to capture changes in economics, entrepreneurship, at the social and individual level as well as at the national and global levels, which are caused by progress in the physical, digital and biological fields, e.g. concept of Smart Cities.

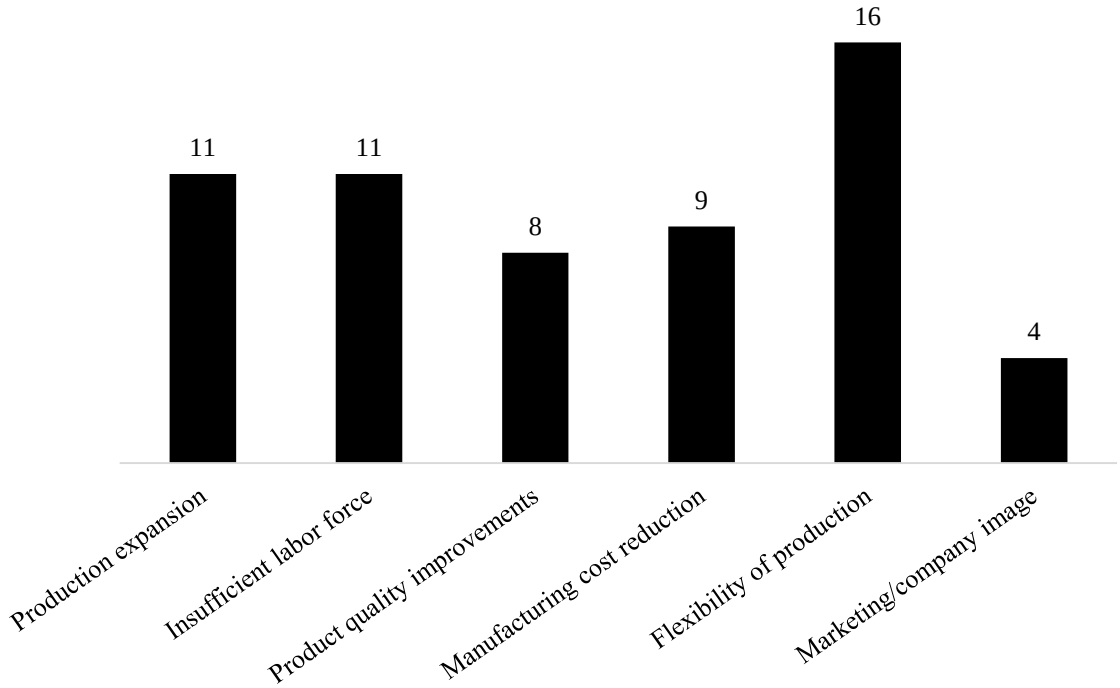
3.2 Result of the questionnaire

Results of the questionnaire and interviews are sorted into categories corresponding to perceived primary driver of implemented Industry 4.0 solutions. Following drivers are chosen based on the outcomes of the question: “How the solution fits into the overall company strategy?”, following drivers were chosen:

- Production expansion - reaction to growing demand
- Insufficient labour force - decrease human labour need
- Product quality improvements - defect reduction
- Manufacturing cost reduction - lower maintenance costs
- Better utilization of means of production - flexibility of production
- Marketing/company image reasons

Maximum 2 drivers were assigned to each use case. Flexibility of production turned out to be the most prevalent reason among companies to adopt Industry 4.0 solution. However, this driver was tied to all “3D print” cases, which effectively decreases the number relevant for aims of this study. Therefore, as seen on Figure 2, it can be stated that (apart from marketing/company image) all drivers have been represented in fairly similar number of cases.

Figure 2: Grouping results



For purpose of this study, relationship between labour force and categories in Figure 2 is of main importance. This relationship is examined by interviews with company representatives and secondarily by questionnaire question: “What are the benefits of the solution?”

The loosest relationship exists between labour force and “3D print“, where no labour force connection was cited by any of the companies. Indirect relationship has been mentioned by “Internet of Things and IT system integration” and “advanced analytics and virtualization”, as both groups included solutions with a strong connection to utilization of means of production and reaction to growing demand. “Process digitization” had a strong connection rather to quality of labour-intensive processes than the amount of labour force used. Notably, “advanced automation” and “collaborative robotics” were tied to insufficient labour force in

all cases. There is a strong sense among companies that continuing automation and robotization is the main component of Industry 4.0.
By contrast, data-driven solutions such as complex IT system integrations and analytics had rarely any labour force driver mentioned. Data-driven solutions are a new territory for traditional production in the automotive industry. Intense competition and pressure from OEMs regarding quality requirements, data standards and development pace leads to every long-term project being carefully assessed by top management over return on investment and strategic priority.
As automotive suppliers in the sample were prevalently foreign-owned, their ability to start projects with ROI over 1 year was very limited by top management interests. For this reason, although not exclusively, these projects were rare in the sample. The logic of ROI is the main challenge in Industry 4.0 project implementation. However, automation and robotization are positively impacted by this, as they are directly connected to savings of labour costs. While generally true, this statement is further amplified by current labour market state in Czechia. On the other hand, data-driven solution projects are impeded by this logic, because their nature is long-term and therefore very hard to predict in costing terms.

4 CONCLUSION

While automation itself may not be the core feature of Industry 4.0 and its importance is up for debate, it have been shown in the outcomes of the questionnaire and interviews that, at least in Czechia, automation and robotization go together with the Industry 4.0 concept.
Other solution areas have been driven by a variety of other reasons and have not been directly connected to labour force shortage. Especially “Internet of Things and IT system integration” and “advanced analytics and virtualization” in their early phases such as pilot projects and proof-of-concepts were much more connected to companies’ strategy of quality, operational effectiveness and flexibility.
Therefore, it cannot be concluded that reasons connected to labour force are the main driver for implementing Industry 4.0 in Czechia. The sharp divide between automation and data-driven projects makes it impossible to support the initial hypothesis. However, given the still existing automation gap of Czech manufacturing industry and short-sighted project requirements, it can be stated that a major part of Industry 4.0 efforts has become closely connected to shortage on the labour market. Supposedly, this specific aspect of manufacturing industry conditions will continue shaping innovation priorities of Czech companies.
Apart from the labour shortage, there is a great potential for further research targeted on skills and capabilities of labour force in Czechia, as Industry 4.0 might place higher requirements on employees’ technical abilities. In connection with general labour shortage, this issue is surely worth examining in a greater detail.

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ZDIEĽANÁ EKONOMIKA AKO FORMA ZVYŠOVANIA PRÍLEŽITOSTÍ PRE OBYVATEĽSTVO NA SLOVENSKU

A SHARED ECONOMY AS A FORM OF GROWING OPPORTUNITIES FOR POPULATION IN SLOVAKIA

Martina Gogolová, Zuzana Štofková, Pavol Ďurana

Abstrakt

Nový hospodársky model - zdieľaná ekonomika - je charakterizovaný nevýhradným vlastníctvom, dočasným prístupom a prerozdeľovaním hmotného alebo nemateriálneho majetku. Okrem toho sa tento model spolieha na silu nových informačných a komunikačných technológií z čoho vyplýva, že táto forma je vysoko dostupná, flexibilná a ľahko využiteľná. Cieľom príspevku je analyzovať zdieľanú ekonomiku na Slovensku a v zahraničí a na základe výsledkov dotazníkového prieskumu poukázať na úroveň znalostí zdieľanej ekonomiky obyvateľstvom na Slovensku.

Kľúčové slová: *zdieľaná ekonomika, platforma, prieskum, prenájom, obyvateľstvo*

Abstract

The new economic model – a shared economy - is characterized by non-exclusive ownership, temporary access and redistribution of tangible fixed assets or intangible fixed assets. In addition, this model relies on the strength of new information and communication technologies, this indicates that this platform is highly available, flexible and easy to use. The aim of the paper is to analyze selected aspects of the shared economy in Slovakia and abroad and to point to the level of knowledge of the shared economy of population in Slovakia on the basis of the results of the questionnaire survey.

Key words*: shared economy, platform, survey, rental, population*

ÚVOD

Zdieľaná ekonomika je nazývaná aj ekonomika platforiem. Platformy skoro vždy spájajú poskytovateľov ako nezávislých dodávateľov bez ochrany a podmienok zamestnanosti. Zdieľaná ekonomika patrí medzi najnovšie formy hospodárenia a spôsoby podnikania. Tejto téme sa vo svojich publikáciách, článkoch venujú mnohí zahraniční aj slovenskí odborníci (Botsman, 2015, Cohen and Kietzmann, 2014, Fremstad et al., 2017, Friedman, 2017, Chovanculiak, 2016, Mauri et al., 2018, Winkler, 2017, Wosskow, 2014)), ktorí skúmajú výhody, nevýhody a dôsledky zdieľanej ekonomiky a jej platforiem na spotrebiteľov, ako aj iných poskytovateľov obdobných služieb

1 ZDIEĽANÁ EKONOMIKA

Pojem zdieľanej ekonomiky je pomerne aktuálny, ale jej počiatky siahajú do čias, keď ľudia začali hľadať možnosť ako zmeniť kočovný spôsob života. Sťahovanie z jedného miesta na druhé bolo nevyhnutné pre nájdenie priaznivejšieho miesta na život. Kočovníci boli nútení vziať so sebou len minimum vecí potrebných pre život, pretože vlastniť veľký majetok nebolo efektívne. Migrovanie viedlo k prepožičiavaniu všetkého, čo mali ľudia k dispozícii a práve preto je toto správanie považované za počiatočnú čistú formu zdieľanej ekonomiky.

Na zvýšenie využitia majetku je potrebné, aby bol ľahko prístupný. Sprístupnenie môže byť docielené využitím rôznych transakčných modelov. Transakčný model je systém, ktorý charakterizuje vlastníctvo aktív a jeho distribúciu od poskytovateľa až ku zákazníkovi (Botsman, 2015). Spotrebitelia na Slovensku majú čoraz väčší záujem zúčastňovať sa na peer-to-peer hospodárstve, obchodovať s cudzími ľuďmi so všetkými zdrojmi, ktoré majú k dispozícií (Liang et al, 2017). Peer-to-peer zdieľanie vyžaduje vysokú úroveň dôvery medzi účastníkmi a zohráva dôležitú úlohu pri dosahovaní dôveryhodnosti a reputácie na internete (Fremstad et al., 2017).

Tabuľka 1: Porovnanie transakčných modelov

Transakčné modely	Charakteristika
Business-to-business (B2B) (Podnik-podnik)	Podniky speňažujú voľné kapacity svojho majetku a obchodujú s nimi.
Business-to-consumer (B2C) (Podnik-zákazník)	Podniky vlastnia aktíva a uľahčujú transakcie medzi používateľmi, ktorí zdieľajú majetok.
Peer-to-peer (P2P) (Užívateľ-užívateľ)	Majetok v osobnom vlastníctve je priamo distribuovaný medzi jednotlivcami alebo skupinami jednotlivcov.
Peer-to-business-to-peer (Užívateľ-podnik-užívateľ)	Aktíva vo vlastníctve jednotlivcov sú poskytované existujúcim podnikom, ktoré ich priamo ponúkajú ďalším jednotlivcom ako súčasť širšej ponuky.

Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie podľa stránky ww.medium.com

1.1 Koncept zdieľanej ekonomiky

Koncept zdieľanej ekonomiky môžeme považovať za fenomén dnešnej doby. S vývojom tejto novej formy hospodárenia sa menili názory odborníkov, ktoré viedli k formulácii definícii z rôznych pohľadov. Stephany (2015, s.9) definuje zdieľanú ekonomiku nasledovne: *„Zdieľaná ekonomika znamená čerpanie hodnoty z nevyužitých aktív, ktoré sú sprístupnené prostredníctvom internetu komunite, čo znižuje potrebu vlastníctva týchto aktív.“* Chovanculiak (2016) konštatuje, že zdieľaná ekonomika a jej online platformy predstavili ľuďom reálnu výšku ich vlastného kapitálu a pracovaných príležitostí, o akých ani doposiaľ neuvažovali. Poukazuje na premenu nevyčerpaných spotrebných statkov na prospešné aktívum, ktoré umožni utíšiť požiadavky iných. *„Z pohľadu ekonómie predstavuje zdieľaná ekonomika priblíženie sa k svätému grálu ekonómov v podobe tzv. Paretovho optima. To je stav, kedy sú uskutočnené všetky vzájomné výhodné výmeny a v spoločnosti neostal žiadny priestor pre zmenu, ktorá by aspoň jednému človeku pomohla a pritom nikomu neuškodila.“* Botsman a Rogers (2010, s.16) sa vo svojej knihe venujú zdieľanej spotrebe, ktorá zahŕňa tradičné zdieľanie, bartering, prenájom, požičiavanie, vymieňanie a obdarovanie cez nové technológie. *„Zdieľaná spotreba umožňuje ľuďom využívať obrovské výhody prístupu k vlastníctvu produktov, služieb a zároveň ušetriť čas, priestor, peniaze, budovať priateľstvá a stávať sa aktívnymi občanmi.“* Botsman (2015) odlišuje pojem zdieľanej spotreby od zdieľanej ekonomiky a definuje ju takto: *„Zdieľaná ekonomika je ekonomický systém, ktorého podstatou je zdieľanie nevyužitých aktív alebo služieb bez finančnej úhrady alebo za poplatok, bezprostredne od jednotlivcov.“* Nevyužité aktíva prirovnáva k nedostatočne využitému majetku, či už je to miesto, zručností alebo vecí a zariadenie. Ako konkrétny príklad uvádza platformu Cohaelo, ktorá umožňuje nemocniciam zdieľať zariadenie, ktoré sa nepoužíva. BlaBlacar umožňuje ľudom cestujúcim na dlhé vzdialenosti podeliť sa o prázdne miesta vo svojom aute. Peerby umožňuje združeniam zdieľať tovar.

1.2 Najznámejšie platformy zdieľanej ekonomiky na Slovensku a v zahraničí

Zdieľaná ekonomika je nazývaná aj ekonomika platforiem. Platformy skoro vždy spájajú poskytovateľov ako nezávislých dodávateľov bez ochrany a podmienok zamestnanosti. Dve najväčšie platformy na Slovensku sú Airbnb a Uber, ktoré ponúkajú ubytovanie a prepravu. Existujú aj platformy, ktoré poskytujú domáce služby, ako je údržba, upratovanie, presun a montáž nábytku. Iné platformy ponúkajú starostlivosť o domáce zvieratá a ostatné špecializované služby. Niektoré platformy poskytujú prenájom tovarov (vozidiel) a priestoru (izby), zatiaľ čo ďalšie organizujú výmenu tovarov v susedstve (pracovné nástroje, záhradný nábytok, fotografické zariadenie a iné) prostredníctvom prenájmu, prepožičania alebo darovania (Schor, Attwood-Charles, 2017). Zdieľaná ekonomika je do značnej miery mobilná, to znamená, že niektoré platformy sú výlučne orientované na používateľov smartfónov (Ganapati, Reddick, 2018).

Vďaka mobilným aplikáciám môžu používatelia kedykoľvek vyhľadať služby zdieľanej ekonomiky z ľubovoľného miesta. Štúdia Svetovej banky v roku 2017 ukázala, že príchod zdieľanej ekonomiky priniesol pre obyvateľov Európskej únie možnosť ako zvýšiť svoje príjmy pomocou poskytovania služieb cez najznámejšie platformy najmä v oblasti prepravy a ubytovania. V krajinách ako Francúzsko, Nemecko či Lotyšsko minimálne jeden z desiatich plnoletých využíva platformy ako spôsob zárobku (Winkler, 2017).

1.3 Regulácia zdieľanej ekonomiky

V prípade pravidiel, ktorými sa upravujú a riadia rôzne výmeny prostredníctvom platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky môžeme hovoriť o súkromných reguláciách. Vlastníctvo znamená slobodu, prevod držiteľských práv a zodpovednosť vo vzťahu k majetku s jasnými hranicami medzi majiteľmi a ostatnými. Vlastník má právo poskytovať alebo brániť prístupu iným osobám k jeho majetku a zároveň môže predávať, používať a uchovávať svoje zisky z používania majetku (Akbar, Tracogna, 2017).

Podnikanie, zdieľanie a regulácia by mali byť základné piliere pri vytváraní zákona, ktorý by mal riadiť túto novú formu ekonomiky (Morgan, Thorpe, 2018). Fungovanie a dodržiavanie súkromných regulácii v zdieľanej ekonomike je zabezpečené regulačnými rámcami, ktoré pôsobia kooperatívne. Medzi najpoužívanejšie podľa Chovanculiaka (2016) patria reputačné systémy a vytvorené big dáta analýzy. Tieto systémy a mechanizmy budujú dôveru, podnecujú dobré správanie, zvyšujú informovanosť, eliminujú hrozby a nebezpečné správanie.

Chovanculiak (2016) tieto regulačné rámce charakterizuje nasledovne:

- Reputačný systém prestavuje posúdenie kvality poskytnutej služby alebo produktu cez internetové stránky využitých platforiem. Svoju spokojnosť, respektíve nespokojnosť môžu vyjadriť aj poskytovatelia, aj spotrebitelia prostredníctvom písomných zverejnených recenzií.
- Big dáta analýzy overujú bezpečnosť internetových transakcií. Počítačové programy pomocou presne stanovených postupov kontrolujú a identifikujú pochybné transakcie, ktoré sú následne dôkladnejšie skúmané expertmi.

2 ZNALOSŤ A VYUŽITIE ZDIEĽANEJ EKONOMIKY A JEJ PLATFORIEM NA SLOVENSKU

2.1 Príprava prieskumu

Výskumným prístupom je prieskum a ako nástroj na získavanie informácií je použitý dotazník vytvorený cez Formuláre Google. Kontaktné metódy využívané pri realizácii prieskumu sú sociálne siete a elektronická pošta. V prípade respondentov, ktorí nevyužívajú prístup na sociálnu sieť alebo elektronickú poštu využívame osobný kontakt. Tieto metódy stanovujeme

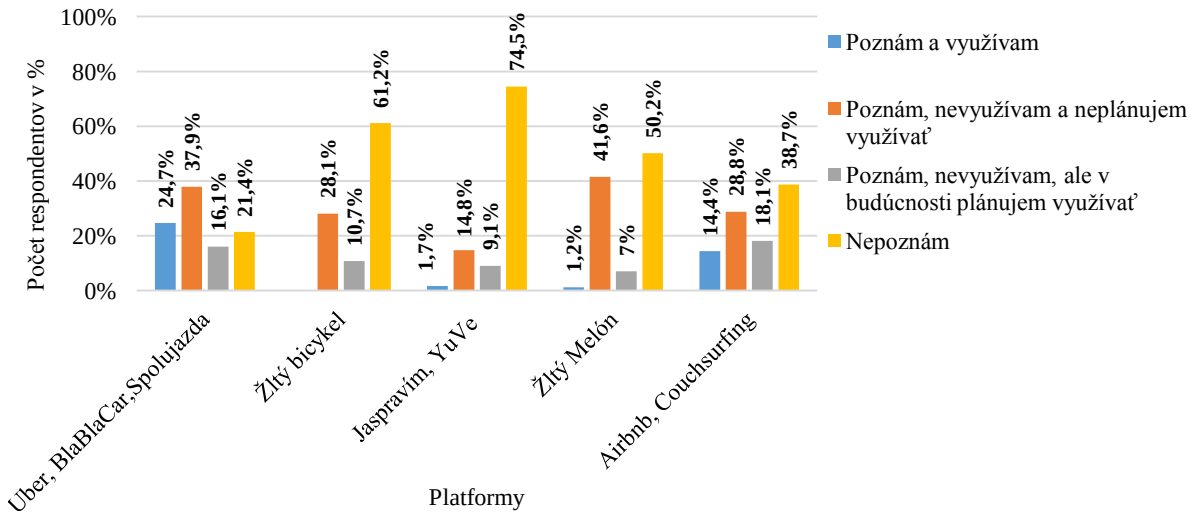
z dôvodu získania informácií od respondentov rôznych vekových skupín a s rôznym sociálnym postavením.

2.2 Spracovanie výsledkov prieskumu

Počas prieskumu, ktorý prebiehal v mesiaci január 2018, bolo rozposlaných 270 dotazníkov, z toho spätne prijatých vyplnených formulárov bolo 243. Prieskumu sa zúčastnilo 139 žien (57,2 %) a 104 mužov (42,8 %). Pri skúmaní vekovej štruktúry máme určený väčší počet kategórii, aby sme získali presnejší prehľad o znalosti zdieľanej ekonomiky a využívaní jej platforiem v závislosti od veku. Najpočetnejšia je kategória 18-24 rokov s podielom 44 %. Pri skúmaní sociálneho postavenia respondentov, je najzastúpenejšia skupina „zamestnaný“, ktorá predstavuje 40,7 % z celkového počtu respondentov.

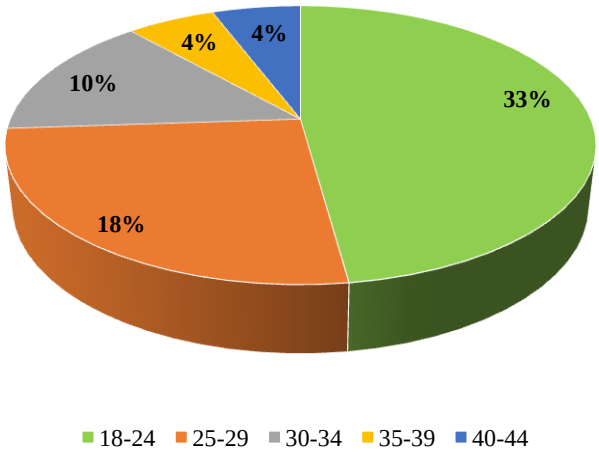
Na základe výsledkov môžeme konštatovať, že zdieľaná ekonomika nie je známa viac ako 53 % obyvateľstva na Slovensku. Pri skúmaní znalosti a využívania platforiem v oblasti dopravy, ubytovania, zdieľania finančných prostriedkov a poskytovania malých domácich prác sme zistili, že aj keď zdieľaná ekonomika nie je povedomá viac ako polovici respondentov, poznajú a využívajú konkrétne platformy. Z celkového počtu respondentov (53,1 %), ktorí v predchádzajúcej otázke označili „nie“, uviedlo 51,9 % respondentov, že tieto platformy pozná a 14,7 % ich aj využíva.

Medzi najvyužívanejšie platformy zdieľanej ekonomiky patria platformy, ktoré umožňujú zdieľanie ubytovania a prepravy. Tieto oblasti sú na Slovensku reprezentované najmä spoločnosťami Uber, BlaBlaCar a Airbnb. Služby zdieľania áut a jázd využíva 24,7 % opýtaných a služby zdieľania ubytovania využíva 14,4 % respondentov. Medzi najmenej známe platformy patria Žltý bicykel (zdieľanie bicyklov), YuVe, Jaspravím (zdieľanie náradia a poskytovanie domácich prác a opráv) a Žltý Melón (zdieľanie finančných prostriedkov) (viď. Obrázok 1).



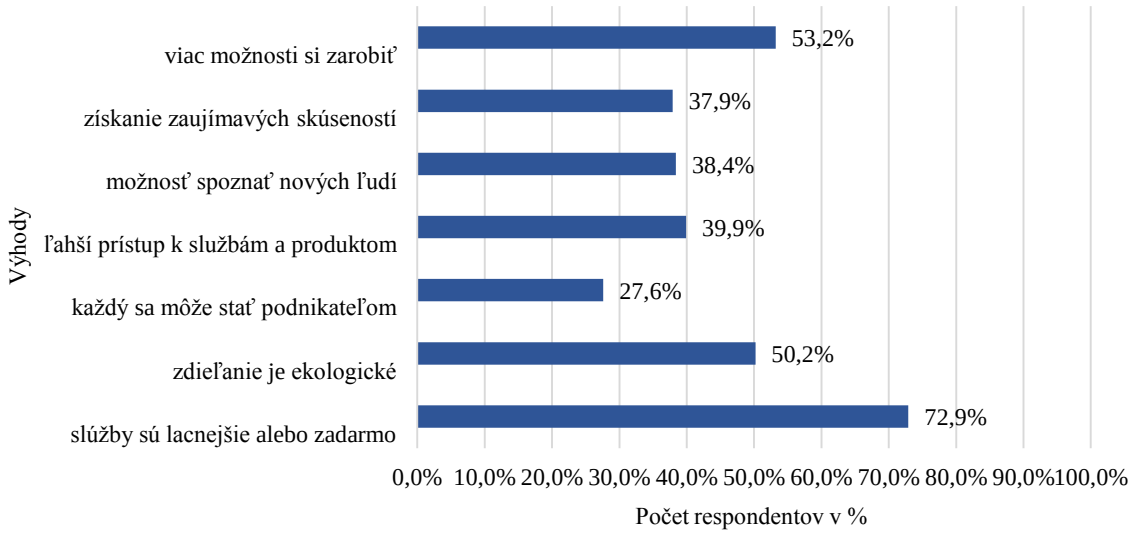
Obr. 1: Znalosť a využívanie platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky

Pri hodnotení využívania vyššie uvedených platforiem, najväčšia skupina respondentov vo veku 18 až 24 rokov (33 %) využíva služby aspoň jednej z daných spoločností. Vo veku 25 až 29 rokov ich pozná a využíva 18 % respondentov. Účastníci prieskumu starší ako 45 rokov nevyužívajú ani jednu platformu (viď. Obrázok 2).



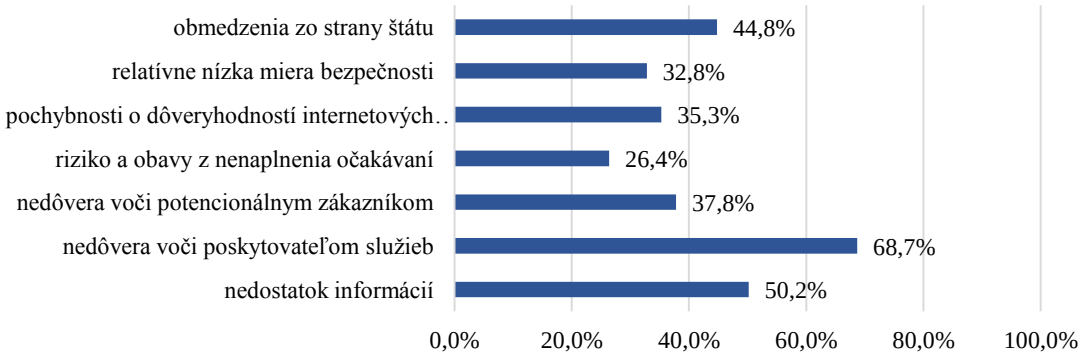
Obr. 2: Využívanie platforiem v závislosti od vekovej štruktúry

Za hlavnú výhodu využívania platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky považuje takmer 73 % respondentov nižšie ceny služieb v porovnaní so službami a produktami, ktoré poskytujú tradiční poskytovatelia. Viac príležitostí získať finančný príjem, ochrana životného prostredia prostredníctvom ekologického zdieľania, získanie zaujímavých skúseností a lepšia prístupnosť k službám a produktom, sú ďalšie významné klady zdieľanej ekonomiky, ktoré vnímajú účastníkmi prieskumu (viď. Obrázok 3).



Obr.3: Výhody platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky

Ako hlavnú prekážku využívania služieb prostredníctvom platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky uviedlo 68,7 % respondentov nízku dôveru voči poskytovateľom, ktorí sú zaregistrovaní na daných internetových portáloch (viď. Obrázok 4).



Obr. 4: Prekážky využívania platforiem zdieľanej ekonomiky

3 ZÁVER

Zdieľaná ekonomika je v súčasnosti často diskutovanou témou. Ľudia sa snažia hľadať alternatívy na uľahčenie života, či už pri cestovaní, ubytovaní alebo v otázkach financií. Zdieľané hospodárstvo naďalej rastie a priťahuje čoraz väčšie množstvo poskytovateľov produktov a služieb. Rovnako stúpa počet záujemcov o túto novú formu prenájmu. Silnie motivácia prepožičiavania, vlastníctvo sa mení na spoluvlastníctvo, znižujú sa transakčné náklady, ľudia získavajú dodatočný príjem a učia sa žiť ekologickejšie. Nielen tieto pozitíva zdieľanej ekonomiky by mali viesť k jej zaradeniu medzi plnohodnotné formy ekonomiky. To však nebude možné kým nedôjde na Slovensku k zmenám štátneho regulovania, aby zdieľaná ekonomika nepredstavovala nepriateľa pre tradičných poskytovateľov, ale stala sa právoplatnou alternatívou.

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ZÁSOBY A NÁKLADY SPOJENÉ S JEJICH EXISTENCÍ Z POHLEDU OBECNÉ EKONOMICKÉ TEORIE

INVENTORIES AND COSTS ASSOCIATED WITH THEIR EXISTENCE IN TERMS OF ECONOMIC THEORY

Čestmír Jarý

Abstrakt

Stať se zabývá problémem existence zásob ve firmě. Jsou nezbytnou součástí firmy. Přináší různé kladné efekty, ale zároveň firmu zatěžují dodatečnými náklady. Ty jsou charakteru přímých nákladů, ale stejně důležité jsou i nepřímé, tzv. náklady obětované příležitosti. I když přímo firmu nezatěžují, z hlediska rozhodování jsou velmi důležité. Ta musí vždy optimalizovat velikost zásob s tím, že ale je nutné udržovat jejich nutnou velikost ve vztahu k funkcím, které mají splňovat. Stanovení jejich špatné výše vždy vede k poklesu ziskovosti firmy, buď snížením výroby a obratu nebo vázáním nadbytečných prostředků, popřípadě i jejich znehodnocením.

Klíčová slova: *zásoby, význam zásob, náklady obětované příležitosti, náklady na zásoby, rizika existence zásob*

Abstract

The article deals with the problem of stock availability in the company. They are an essential part of the company. It brings various positive effects, but at the same time puts the company at extra cost. These are the nature of direct costs, but equally important are the indirect - opportunity cost. Even if they do not burden the business directly, decision making is very important. It must always optimize the size of inventory, but it is necessary to maintain the necessary size in relation to the functions to be fulfilled. Determining their bad amounts always leads to a decline in the company's profitability, either by reducing production and turnover, or by tying redundant resources, or by depreciating them.

Key words: *Inventories, the importance of inventory, opportunity cost, the cost of inventory, the risk of stock availability*

1. Úvod

Ideální situace ve firmě je stav, kdy dopravní prostředek přiváží všechny potřebné komponenty výroby přímo na výrobní linku. Kontinuálně vstupují do výrobního procesu a po něm opět hotovou produkci dopravní prostředek odváží k zákazníkovi. To je však absolutně nereálné. Firmy si musí vytvářet zásoby různých komponentů výroby nebo hotových výrobků. Přinášejí s sebou dodatečné náklady, ale zajišťují stabilitu výroby a dodávek odběratelům, mohou také přinést finanční prospěch v podobě spekulativních nákupů surovin a polotovarů, popřípadě pozdějšího prodeje hotových výrobků, u kterých se očekává vzestup cen.

Cílem předkládané stati je analyzovat důvody existence zásob a následně hledání nákladů vznikajících v souvislosti se zásobami, jak z pohledu podnikové ekonomiky, tak z pohledu obecné ekonomické teorie.

2. Charakteristika zásob

Zásoby je možno chápat jako zdroje, jež se dají okamžitě použít. Tyto zdroje jsou vytvářeny k plynulému průběhu procesu výroby či uspokojování poptávky pomocí systematického vytváření za účelem materiálového zabezpečení (Lukáš, 2012). Za zásoby se považují tedy vyrobené nebo koupené produkty, které ještě nebyly spotřebovány či prodány. Jsou základní součástí oběžného majetku. Každá zásoba může mít formu vstupů a to jako materiál, formu výstupů neboli hotových výrobků a také formu polotovarů, což je označováno za nedokončenou výrobu. Zásoby jsou složky majetku, u kterých dochází k jednorázové spotřebě. Zásoby se také mohou přeměňovat v jiné složky majetku pomocí výroby v podniku (Váchal a Vochozka, 2013).

2.1 Typy zásob

Kritérií rozdělení zásob může být více. My použijeme to, které souvisí s fázemi výroby a následně ho použijeme u analýzy nákladů.

V tomto případě je situace firmy založena na existenci třech typů zásob.

1. Zásoby výrobních komponentů – nakupovaných surovin a polotovarů
2. Zásoby vlastních polotovarů, které přechází z jednoho výrobního procesu do druhého.
3. Zásoby hotové produkce

Do zásob ale můžeme zahrnout i vstupy a výstupy, které jsou v dopravním řetězci, zvláště při dopravě na velké vzdálenosti hrají podstatnou roli v chodu firmy. Další součástí jsou předem zaplacené komponenty výroby, které mohou být i u dodavatele.

2.2 Příčiny existence zásob

Budeme vycházet z předchozího rozdělení a pak můžeme rozdělit důvody do těchto skupin.

Důvody nutnosti existence zásob výrobních komponentů:

1. Nemožnost v přesný moment dopravit jasně definované množství vstupu
2. Nutnost předvýrobní kombinace komponentů od různých dodavatelů
3. Úspora dopravních nákladů při větším objemu dodávky
4. Nižší cena při nákupu většího množství
5. Nutná rezerva jako zajištění proti riziku výpadku dodávek v případě problémů u dodavatele nebo dopravy
6. Spekulace na cenový vývoj

Důvody nutnosti existence zásob vlastních polotovarů:

1. Nesoulad v rychlosti výroby jednotlivých komponentů
2. Skladování jako součást výrobního procesu (např. zrání, sušení)
3. Nutná rezerva jako zajištění proti riziku výpadku výroby jednotlivých komponentů

Důvody nutnosti existence zásob hotové produkce:

1. Nesoulad mezi rychlostí výroby a získávání objednávek
2. Nutnost postupné kumulace výrobků na realizaci jedné objednávky
3. Sezonní výkyvy v odbytu
4. Sezonní výkyvy ve výrobě
5. Spekulace na cenový vývoj
6. Rezerva pro nárůst objednávek

Vidíme, že některé důvody se v jednotlivých fázích výroby opakují, některé jsou jedinečné. Další pohled nám říká, že některé důvody vznikají jako důsledek výrobního procesu a jsou nezbytnou jeho součástí. Příkladem je proces zrání, kvašení apod. U některých technologií je žádoucí tyto fáze zkrátit, ale v některých případech by to mohlo vést poklesu kvality konečné produkce. V jiném případě se jedná o důvody, které mají navýšit zisk firmy jiným způsobem

než vlastní výrobou. Pak tyto zásoby vznikají v souvislosti předpokládanými změnami cen komponentů výroby nebo hotových výrobků.
V odborné literatuře se objevuje i další možnosti prezentace důvodů a s tím i jiné druhy zásob. Rozpojovací zásoby vkládají mezi výstup z procesu a vstup do následného procesu vyrovnávací zásobník a ten se používá k vyrovnání časového či množstevního nesouladu. Do rozpojovacích zásob se řadí běžné zásoby, pojistné zásoby a zásoby pro předzásobení. Za běžné zásoby se považují zásoby, které vznikají doplňováním prodaných zásob nebo zásob spotřebovaných ve výrobě. Pokud lze množství běžných zásob předpovědět daným podnikem, pak se zásoby musí držet v tomto množství z důvodu pokrytí poptávky po zásobách (Cempírek a kol., 2010). Pojistné zásoby se nachází v podniku z důvodu nejistoty budoucího vývoje poptávky, kdy odběratelé neplánovaně zvýší poptávku po výrobku. Dále také z důvodu možných stávek a jiných okolností, které znemožní dopravu běžných zásob do podniku, a tím dojde k neočekávanému výkyvu dodávek (Lambert, Stock a Ellram, 2005). Zásoba pro předzásobení zmírňuje možné výkyvy na vstupu či výstupu. Tato zásoba se tvoří opakovaně, jednorázově nebo pravidelně v souvislosti se sezónními výkyvy poptávky (Cempírek a kol., 2010).

3. Náklady na skladování

S existencí zásob samozřejmě souvisí i existence nákladů na ně. Zásoby přinášejí konkrétní službu, ale ta je oceněna právě těmito náklady. Pak rozhodování o výši zásob je právě porovnávání přínosu této služby a s ní spojené náklady. Je nutné si však uvědomit celou šíři těchto nákladů a ne je úzce spojovat s účetními náklady. Jejich výše je pak někdy nutná určit zprostředkovaně, ale někdy ji není možné určit vůbec a je na citu podnikatele. Příkladem může být ztráta tržby u neuspokojených nových zákazníků.
Můžeme je z pohledu obecné ekonomické teorie rozdělit do dvou skupin:

A) Přímé, nelze úplně ztotožnit s účetními.

1. Náklady na objednávku, dodávku a přejímku
   Náklady na přípravu a umístění objednávky – průzkum a volba dodavatele, vyřízení objednávky
   Doprava
   Přejímka kvalitativní a kvantitativní kontrola, zaskladnění
   Zaúčtování a úhrada faktur

Tyto náklady je v praxi někdy dosti obtížné stanovit. Používáme metody statisticko-odhadové, statisticko-zkušební (snímky a chronometráž při provádění příslušných aktivit) a statisticko-normativní**.**

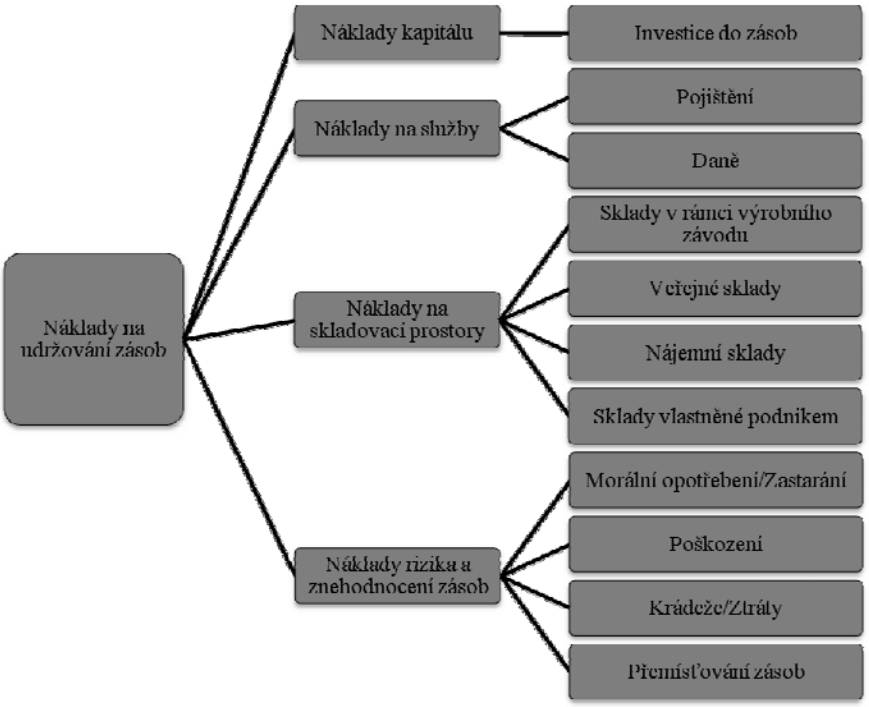
2. Náklady na udržování, skladování a správu zásob
   Náklady vázanosti prostředků v zásobách – úroky z úvěrů na zásoby – u krátkodobých propočtů průměrná úroková míra, u dlouhodobých propočtů se vychází z rentability kapitálu a místo úrokové míry se používá vnitřní výnosové procento, které je stanoveno vedením podniku.
   Náklady na skladování a správu zásob – provoz skladu, evidence zásob (nájem budov, skladová a manipulační zařízení, spotřeba energie, topení, klimatizace, mzdy skladových pracovníků, mzdy na ostrahu, pojištění budov a pojištění zásob)
   Náklady z rizika – náklady související s vyřazením poškozených, zničených, zkažených nebo neprodejných zásob. Odhadují se obvykle jako procento z hodnoty průměrné zásoby
3. Náklady nedostatku
   Vznikají pokud zásoba nestačí k včasnému uspokojení potřeby vnitropodnikových nebo externích odběratelů.

Náklady přímo v nákupu – při urychleném zajišťování rychlého nákupu – mimořádné dodávky s vyššími cenami, cestovné, doprava

Náklady ve výrobě a v provozech – vznikají v důsledku včasného neuspokojení potřeb vnitropodnikových spotřebitelů, nevyužití kapacit, prodlužování průměrné doby výroby a hromadění zásob rozpracované výroby, ale také náklady na mimořádné směny, které mají snížit ztrátu vypadlé produkce.

Náklady z rizika se týkají nebezpečí budoucí neprodejnosti anebo nepoužitelnosti zásob. O neprodejnosti mluvíme u zboží či u hotových výrobků; u výrobních zásob a rozpracované výroby jde spíše o nepoužitelnost. Mohou to být rizika zkažení (potraviny), rizika znehodnocení zestárnutím (pryž, léky, fotografický materiál, laky aj.) či rizika větších změn v programu výroby (suroviny a nakupované díly), rizika vyjití z módy (oděvy, obuv, mobilní telefony) či riziko poklesu poptávky či celkové změny v jejich struktuře. Lze sem započítat i riziko poklesu cen na trhu či riziko nutnosti velké slevy u staršího typu po inovaci výrobku. Tato rizika jsou často závislá na délce skladování. Riziko neprodejnosti se v posledních letech zvyšuje kvůli obecné tendenci zkracování životního cyklu u spousty výrobků. Náklady z rizika se pro jednotlivé skladové položky obvykle odhadují jako určité procento z hodnoty průměrné zásoby. Toto procento je diferencováno podle sortimentu, podle stupně předpovídatelnosti budoucí potřeby a podle průměrné skladovací doby. (Horáková,1999)

Když to úplně zjednodušíme, tak zásoby nás stojí peníze, za které je musíme pořídit a ty jsou v nich vázány. Musíme zásoby někde skladovat, a to znamená pořízení skladových prostor buď formou vlastnictví nebo pronájmu, ale i provoz je spojen s náklady. Vlastní správa také generuje dodatečné náklady.



Zdroj: Lambert, Stock a Ellram: Logistika, 2000

B) Nepřímé, náklady obětované příležitosti

Obecná ekonomická teorie zdůrazňuje, že prakticky vždy existuje alternativa rozhodnutí, využití prostředků, využití času a schopností a podobně. Proto i existence zásob s sebou přináší tyto alternativní náklady, které účetně nemůžeme podchytit, ale ekonomicky hrají významnou roli v rozhodování o jejich velikosti.

1. Použití finančních prostředků.
   První alternativa je financování zásob a jejich správy z vlastních zdrojů. V tomto případě nákladem obětované příležitosti jsou alternativy v jiném možném využití těchto prostředků. Nejnižší výnosnost zvláště v dnešní době je bankovní vklad a s ním související úroková míra, pak tedy tímto nákladem je ušlý úrok.
   Druhou alternativou je použití těchto prostředků ve vlastním podnikání v různé formě. Firma vykazuje nějakou průměrnou míru výnosnosti. Proto i tyto peněžní prostředky vázáné v zásobách by měly přinášet podobnou míru a pak nákladem obětované příležitosti je tato ztráta zisku.
   Náklady obětované příležitosti ale vznikají při použití cizích prostředků, např. úvěru. V tomto případě opět vznikají alternativní náklady. Firma nikdy nedisponuje nekonečnou velikostí cizích zdrojů, proto pokud je použijeme na zásoby, nemůžeme je použít v jiné fázi výroby. Pak nákladem obětované příležitosti je přírůstek zisku zajištěný dodatečnou investicí financovanou těmito zdroji.
2. Použití materiálních zdrojů.
   Zásoby potřebují někde být uskladněny. Tyto sklady potřebují prostor. Firmy vždy mají k dispozici pouze omezenou velikost pozemku. Využijí-li jeho část na skladování, pak musí získat větší rozlohu nebo musí omezit prostor pro vlastní výrobu. Nákladem obětované příležitosti je ztráta produkce, která by vznikla na místě skladových prostor nebo z financí použitých na zvětšení pozemku.
3. Použití lidských zdrojů
   Odmyslíme se od nedostatku manuálních pracovních sil a jejich přesunu z výroby, pak narážíme na problém omezenosti kvalifikovaných manažérů. V tomto případě pak člověk zabývající se problematikou zásob nemůže dostatečně řešit úkoly související s jinou fází výroby. Nákladem obětované příležitosti je pak ztráta produkce, která by vznikla jako dodatečný výsledek činnosti těchto zaměstnanců.

Do problematiky nákladů obětované příležitosti bych zahrnul také problém rizik ztráty neuspokojeného zákazníka. Už v problematice přímých nákladů jsme se částečně zabývali tímto problémem, kdy nedostatek surovin, materiálu a polotovarů způsobuje zpomalení nebo i zastavení výroby, které můžeme poměrně přesně vyjádřit. Ale v případě neuspokojení nových potenciálních zákazníků již můžeme náš nerealizovaný zisk jen odhadovat. K tomu je však nutné připočíst ještě další dodatečné náklady v podobě zhoršení konkurenční pozice a image firmy.

4. Řízení zásob

Finanční prostředky, které jsou vázány na zásoby, nejsou optimálně využity, neboť jsou vázány v zásobách, které lze z hlediska likvidity považovat za méně likvidní než peníze na běžných účtech nebo v hotovosti. Proto je snížení stavu zásob, ať už materiálu, nedokončené výroby, hotové výroby, či obchodního zboží prioritou v oblasti nákupní a výrobní logistiky pro další vývoj v podniku. Každé významné snížení zásob, které nevyvolává efekt vedlejších nákladů je žádoucí. Zásoby však nelze snižovat na úroveň nulovou, ani to není možné. Pokud do zásob zahrneme dopravované zboží nebo komponenty výroby pak automaticky vždy budou náklady existovat. S rostoucí velikostí zásob se zlepšuje služba těchto zásob, ale objevují se negativa v podobě vysokých nákladů. Je tedy potřeba u každé položky nalézt optimální dodávkový cyklus, výši pojistné zásoby, velikost optimální dodávky a také metodiku pro změny těchto parametrů v rámci změny výroby, to znamená najít nejlepší poměr mezi přínosy a náklady na tuto položku v ekonomice firmy. Čím je firma menší, tím je procentuálně více zatížena vázaností prostředků v zásobách.

Cílem řízení stavu zásob je:
zvyšování rentability- podnik má možnost zvýšit rentabilitu tím, že sníží náklady spojené se zásobami. To lze například tím, že sníží počet nevyřízených objednávek, urychlí dodávky, odstraní mrtvé zásoby, přesněji prognózuje poptávku, kvalitněji plánuje zásoby apod.
předvídaní dopadu podnikových strategií na stav zásob
minimalizace celkových nákladů logistických činností

Hlavním cílem řízení zásob je celková optimalizace zásob nikoli pouze minimalizace. Pro dosažení optimálního vztahu mezi náklady na udržování zásob a úrovní zákaznického servisu je nutné nepřetržité a komplexní plánování závisející na dostupnosti informací. Informace hrají podstatnou rolí pří prognózování. Přesnost prognóz pak přímo ovlivňuje úroveň zásob resp. jejich navyšování a snižování. Logistika však není pouze o zásobách. Při optimalizaci zásob je nutné zohlednit i efekt na ostatní složky logistiky a brát v úvahu celkový efekt. Je nutné minimalizovat celkový součet nákladů na udržování zásob, množstevní náklady, náklady na vyřizování objednávek a informatiku, skladovací náklady a přepravní náklady při zachování úrovně zákaznického servisu.
Řízení zásob se považuje za jednu z důležitých činností v rámci celého logistického řetězce. Systém řízení zásob je možno chápat jako jistý mechanismus, jež hledá optimální vztah mezi plněním funkcí zásob a náklady, které jsou vynaloženy na pořizování a skladování zásob v podniku. Pokud je na skladě nízký objem zásob náklady budou také nízké, což bude mít za následek nízkou úroveň poskytnutí požadované služby. Vysoká úroveň poskytnutí požadovaných služeb při nízkých nákladech je ideálem, který by se měly snažit firmy dodržovat. U řízení zásob je také velmi důležité umět se vypořádat s nejistotou ohledně nabídky a poptávky spotřebitelů nebo odběratelů. Umět rozpoznat, zda je nejistota skutečná, tedy způsobena dynamickými aspekty dodavatelského řetězce, či pouze způsobena chybnými po-stupy a nedostatky v komunikaci (Emmet, 2008).
V podniku lze řídit několik druhů zásob. Těmito zásobami jsou výrobní zásoby, zásoby hotových výrobků, zásoby zboží, zásoby hotových součástí. Za řízení výrobních zásob odpovídá nákupní útvar. Do těchto zásob spadá velké množství sortimentu, jako jsou zásoby surovin, komponentů, materiálů, polotovarů či náhradních dílů využívaných k údržbě strojů a zařízení. Dále do výrobních zásob řadíme také zásoby nářadí, přípravků, obalů nebo obalových materiálů. Neméně důležité jsou režijní materiály nezbytné pro řízení a správu, výzkum a vývoj, jakož i vnitřní sociální služby pro zaměstnance (Synek, 2006).
Špatné řízení zásob v podniku vede ke ztrátě zisku, z tohoto důvodu je nutné rozpoznat problémové oblasti řízení zásob a následně zlepšit logistický výkon. V případě opakovaných problémů v řízení zásob je nutno provést rozsáhlejší změny v logistických procesech. Příznaky špatného řízení zásob mohou být rostoucí počet objednávek, které nejsou vyřízeny, nebo nárůst investic vázaných v zásobách při neklesajícím počtu nevyřízených objednávek. Dalšími příznaky jsou vysoká fluktuace zákazníků, nárůst zrušených objednávek, častá absence prostoru pro skladování, značné rozdíly mezi obrátkou skladových položek v jednotlivých distribučních centrech a také mnoho zastaralých položek vyskytujících se na skladě (Myerson, 2012).

5. Závěr

Zásoby jsou nezbytnou součásti firmy a doprovází jí po celou dobu existence. Přinášejí významné efekty, ale také firmu zásadním způsobem zatěžují. Jedním z důležitých rolí managementu je právě řízení velikosti zásob a optimalizace v různých ekonomických situacích. Na jejich rozsah je nutné hledět dynamicky a přizpůsobovat se konkrétní situaci. Je samozřejmé, že změna velikosti přináší organizační problémy a další dodatečné náklady. Fixní držení zásob však náklady většinou navyšuje ještě více.

Stať si kladla za cíl poukázat na typy zásob ve vztahu k jejich funkcím a analyzovat náklady na ně. Autor se pokusil na tuto problematiku se podívat širším pohledem obecné ekonomické teorie, které vidí další náklady v podobě oportunitních nákladů, které podniková ekonomika v celé šíři nevidí. Došel k závěru, že význam řízení zásob se zvětšuje se zrychlujícím cyklem životnosti výrobku. Čím dál tím více roste riziko neprodejnosti výrobku, ale i tím znehodnocení výrobních komponentů. Zároveň je nutné okamžitě reagovat na dodatečnou poptávku, neboť její okamžité neuspokojení vede k ztrátě zákazníka a tím posílení konkurence. Současné modely řízení zásob vytvářejí dobrou základnu pro rozhodovací procesy, ale podnikatelský cit však udělá z dobré firmy vynikající podnik.

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SPOTREBA SLOVENSKÝCH DOMÁCNOSTÍ VO VÄZBE NA KVALITU ŽIVOTA

CONSUMPTION OF SLOVAK HOUSEHOLDS IN RELATION TO QUALITY OF LIFE

Vieroslava Holková, Alexandra Veselková

Abstrakt

Spotreba statkov a služieb tvorí nevyhnutnú súčasť života každého človeka a je jednou z podstatných priorít jeho existencie. Vypovedá o rôznych štandardoch spotrebiteľského správania, v ktorých sú nielen sformované spotrebiteľské preferencie, ale ktoré takisto odrážajú finančné schopnosti domácností tieto preferencie zrealizovať. Spotreba vyjadruje rozmanité každodenné spôsoby uspokojovania potrieb a stáva sa dôležitou zložkou kvality života. V našom príspevku vnímame kvalitu života ako vyjadrenie snahy človeka o dobrý a spokojný život, v ktorom dôležitú úlohu zohráva spotreba. Základom skúmania spotreby vo väzbe na kvalitu života sú čisté peňažné výdavky slovenských domácností, ktoré členíme na tri sféry. Analýzou troch sfér kvality života hodnotíme jej existenciálnu stránku, ponúkame čiastkový obraz o formovaní kvality života z pohľadu zmien v spotrebe slovenských domácností.

Kľúčové slová: *kvalita života, spotreba domácností, blahobyt, peňažné výdavky domácností, modely spotrebiteľského správania*

Abstract

Consumption of goods and services is an essential part of every person's life and one of the essential priorities of his existence. It testifies to different standards of consumer behavior that not only shape consumer preferences but also reflect the financial capacity of households to realize these preferences. Consumption expresses a variety of everyday ways of satisfying needs and becomes an important component of quality of life. We perceive the quality of life as an expression of a man's desire for a good and content life in which consumption plays an important role. The basis of the study of consumption in relation to the quality of life is the net monetary expenditure of Slovak households, which are divided into three spheres. By analyzing three spheres of quality of life, we evaluate its existential aspect, we offer a partial picture of the quality of life in terms of changes in consumption of Slovak households.

Key words: *quality of life, household consumption, well-being, monetary expenditure of households, models of consumer behavior*

1 ÚVOD

Systematické skúmanie kvality života spadá do druhej polovice minulého storočia, kedy začali ekonómovia, sociológovia i politici prejavovať záujem o tento pojem. Zavedenie kvality života sa pripisuje americkým ekonómom Ordwayovi a Osbornovi, ktorí roku 1953 použili kvalitu života v súvislosti s upozorňovaním na ekologické nebezpečenstvá neobmedzeného ekonomického rastu. (Snoek, 2000)

Veľkú úlohu pri upriamení pozornosti na tento pojem zohral aj Galbrait (1967), ktorý kvalitu života použil ako protiváhu k jednoznačnej spotrebiteľskej orientácii americkej spoločnosti,

resp. ako protiváhu masovej spotrebe v spoločnosti hojnosti v 60. rokoch minulého storočia, a tým poukázal na význam tohto pojmu. Reagoval na masovú spotrebu, ktorá v tom čase odvádzala človeka od aktivít prispievajúcich k jeho rozvoju a orientovala ho k samoúčelnej spotrebe.

Kvalita života sa v tom období používala vo väzbe na kritiku masovej spotreby ale aj vo vzťahu k vývoju spoločnosti, t. j. k predpokladanému prechodu od materialistických k postmaterialistickým hodnotám a k hľadaniu zmyslu života s prioritou sebarealizačnej reflexie. V súvislosti so štádiami ekonomického rastu spoločnosti sú známe myšlienky Rostowa (1971), podľa ktorého po štádiu vysokej masovej spotreby má nasledovať štádium hľadania novej kvality života. Predstava o kvalite života v tomto kontexte sa nenaplnila, úvahy o jej význame s dôrazom na obsahové určenie však pokračovali a pretrvávajú doteraz.

V súčasnom období rastie význam skúmania najrôznejších aspektov kvality života, pretože na jednej strane sa vytvárajú veľké možnosti rozvoja kvality života, na druhej strane vznikajú nové druhy ohrození a bariér v rozvoji existujúceho ľudského potenciálu. Medzi hlavné pozitívne dopady patrí väčšia vzdelanosť, nárast významu subjektívnej kvality života, či rozšírené možnosti trávenia voľného času. A tak sa do pozornosti opäť dostáva spotreba a jej štruktúra, predovšetkým potreba novej obsahovej náplne spotreby, resp. doplnenie obsahu spotreby.

V tejto súvislosti sa proklamuje pojem „nová spotreba“, ktorý zahŕňa znalosti, intelektuálne produkty a multikultúru, čo možno považovať za nekonvenčné vymedzenie spotreby. (Gibbson, 2007) Takéto vymedzenie spotreby už nepredstavuje len saturáciu klasických základných potrieb, rozširuje spotrebu o napĺňanie potrieb postmaterialistických hodnotových orientácií a aktivít v podobe zvýšeného významu a záujmu o individuálne vzdelávanie a celoživotné vzdelávanie členov domácností, posilneného záujmu o rôzne formy kultúry, aktívne formy trávenia voľného času, udržovanie dobrého zdravotného stavu, udržanie celkovej fyzickej i psychickej kondície, udržovanie spoločenských kontaktov, dosiahnutie určitých statusových pozícií členov domácností v danej spoločnosti a pod. Uvedené prvky spotreby by sme mohli označiť ako „produktívnu spotrebu“, pretože táto spotreba prispieva k rozvoju osobnostných i profesionálnych schopností človeka.

Globalizácia svetovej ekonomiky a nástup informačnej spoločnosti vytvárajú nový obraz dnešného sveta, menia pracovné aj osobné životy. Zdôrazňuje sa spojitosť kvality života s koncepciou trvalej udržateľnosti. V tomto kontexte by produktívne zložky spotreby mohli zohrať dôležitú úlohu pri formovaní kvality v podmienkach udržateľného rozvoja vyspelých krajín.

Aj dnes má hodnotenie kvality života na základe dosiahnutej úrovne uspokojovania potrieb svoje opodstatnenie, a to nielen preto, že spotreba je reálnou súčasťou a dôležitou doménou kvality života ale aj pre jednoduchú dostupnosť údajov o spotrebe, možnosti jej kvantifikácie a komparácie.

2 SPOTREBA A KVALITA ŽIVOTA

Spotreba je vyjadrením spoločenského spôsobu využitia materiálneho a duchovného bohatstva, predstavuje proces privlastnenia a využitia vecí a hodnôt výlučne pre uspokojenie potrieb. Je realizáciou rôznorodých spotrebných záujmov a cieľov členov danej spoločnosti, ktorú determinujú široko koncipované skupiny faktorov. Niektoré faktory určujú spojenie spotreby s určitým typom výroby, ktorá je zameraná na naplnenie rôznych sociálnych cieľov. Ďalšie faktory vyjadrujú podmienenosť spotreby typom rozdeľovania a spôsobom prisvojovania, v dôsledku čoho sa pre spotrebiteľov otvárajú alebo zatvárajú určité cesty k blahobytu. Iné faktory zachytávajú závislosť spotreby od vzniknutej spotrebnej situácie v

spoločnosti. Existujú však aj faktory, ktoré zahŕňajú statusové zvláštnosti spotreby, vyplývajúce z určitého postavenia spotrebiteľa v spoločnosti a spotrebe.

Skutočná spotreba nie je záležitosťou len ekonomických ukazovateľov, ktorými do značnej miery možno charakterizovať postavenie človeka v spoločnosti. Je výsledkom aj jeho spotrebiteľského správania, v ktorom sú premietnuté predstavy a spôsob života, hodnotový systém, finančné možnosti spotrebiteľa, spotrebiteľská kultúra, sociálne vzťahy a pod.

Ak na spotrebu budeme pozerať ako na súhrnný spôsob uspokojovania potrieb členov spoločnosti realizovaný v konkrétnom období a etape ekonomického rozvoja, môžeme spotrebu vnímať ako určitý model rozdeľovania a použitia statkov, služieb a iných foriem bohatstva v danej spoločnosti. Je to model, ktorý je chápaný ako súhrn neustále sa opakujúcich spôsobov a foriem uspokojovania potrieb, prostredníctvom ktorých sa realizuje široká škála spotrebných funkcií, rôzne formy spotrebiteľského správania ale aj výrobné a ekonomické možnosti konkrétne potreby napĺňať.

Kvalita života predstavuje abstraktný a komplikovaný pojem, je prezentovaná ako veľmi široká kategória, ktorá so sebou nesie pretrvávajúci problém hľadania univerzálne platnej definície vyjadrujúcej jej komplexnosť. (Wu & Yao, 2006)

Kvalitu života možno skúmať na rôznych úrovniach, z rôznych uhlov pohľadu i v rôznych súvislostiach, a to od hodnotenia životnej úrovne národnej populácie cez porovnávanie potrieb špecifických skupín obyvateľov a úrovne ich napĺňania (hodnotením spotreby) až po meranie individuálnej spokojnosti. Preto vo vedeckej literatúre nachádzame širokú škálu jej definičného vymedzenia, rozmanité prístupy a spôsoby skúmania tejto kategórie. Zásadný rozdiel spočíva v rôznom poňatí rozsahu a obsahu tohto pojmu. Parciálne prístupy k skúmaniu kvality života spôsobili, že kvalita života má mnoho interpretácií, takže jej obsah nie je jednoznačne a najmä jednotne vymedzený.

Kvalita života je kategória, ktorá zachytáva rôzne parametre ľudského života, životné podmienky jednotlivca, spoločenskej skupiny ako aj celej spoločnosti. Označuje sa za viacrozmerný pojem, pretože jeho obsahom sú materiálne, duchovne, kultúrne, spoločenské a iné stránky života, pričom má aj svoj vnútorný rozmer.

S prehlbujúcimi sa poznatkami o kvalite života a jej rozmanitom ponímaní vznikli rôzne obsahového vymedzenia kvality života, z ktorých vyberáme niekoľko definícií pohybujúcich sa od jednoznačne subjektívnych pocitov prežívania života až po chápanie kvality života ako súboru objektívnych podmienok pre život jednotlivca či určitého spoločenského zoskupenia.

V najširšom význame možno kvalitu života vymedziť ako určitú, dosiahnutú úroveň domén života človeka, v ktorých sú zohľadnené dôležité spoločenské hodnoty a ciele. V tejto súvislosti je kvalita života definovaná ako individuálne vnímanie vlastnej pozície v živote vo väzbe na určitú kultúru, hodnotový systém, životné ciele, očakávania, štandardy a záujmy. (The WHOQOL Group, 1997)

Podľa Massama kvalita života je produktom vzájomného pôsobenia medzi sociálnymi, zdravotnými, ekonomickými a environmentálnymi podmienkami, ktoré vplývajú na ľudský a sociálny rozvoj. (Massam, 2002)

Thirion (2004) chápe kvalitu života ako výsledok vzájomne prepojených podmienok, ktorými sú spravodlivý a rovný prístup k dostupným spoločenským zdrojom, uznanie ľudskej dôstojnosti s patričným uznaním rôznorodosti, osobná a kolektívna autonómia a zodpovedná participácia.

Podľa Tokárovej (2005) kvalitu života možno zisťovať a interpretovať prostredníctvom troch skupín indikátorov (sociálnych indikátorov, ekonomických indikátorov a indikátorov tzv.

subjektívnej psychickej pohody (well-being), ktoré sa vzťahujú k príslušným čiastkovým oblastiam kvality života a sú pospájané ekonomickými, sociálno-psychologickými, sociologickými, environmentálnymi a ďalšími väzbami.

Laluha (2008) vymedzuje kvalitu života ako historicky podmienenú úroveň životných procesov, v rámci ktorých človek, spoločnosť reprodukuje a rozvíja svoju existenciu. Tento pohľad vychádza zo skutočnosti, že človek je biosociálna jednotka, ktorá má svoju (individuálnu) štruktúru potrieb a hodnotových orientácií. Keďže životné procesy (pracovné, rodinné, aktivity voľného času a pod.) každého jednotlivca prebiehajú v konkrétnych možnostiach a životných podmienkach, ktoré môžu byť viac či menej priaznivé, veľmi dôležitú úlohu tu zohráva aktívny životný postoj človeka.

Z prezentovaných názorov na kvalitu života vyplýva, že kvalita života pojednáva o veľmi širokom rámci životných podmienok, v ktorých človek žije a sebarealizuje sa, ale zachytáva aj subjektívne vnímanie týchto podmienok . V našom príspevku sme sa zamerali na naplnenie túžob a predstáv človeka o spokojnom života prostredníctvom spotreby, ktorá je súčasťou kvality života. Predovšetkým je jej zreálnením, aj keď si uvedomujeme, že táto doména neumožňuje vyčerpávajúcim spôsobom kvalitu života zachytiť. V zjednodušenej podobe môžeme konštatovať, že kvalita života je o dobrom a spokojnom živote a v tomto kontexte aj o spotrebe.

3 FUNKČNÁ VYVÁŽENOSŤ SPOTREBY A KVALITY ŽIVOTA - OPTIMÁLNY STAV

I keď spotreba je dôležitou zložkou a prirodzenou súčasťou kvality života, nemôže ju nahradiť. Medzi spotrebou a kvalitou života pôsobí veľmi dôležitý, vzájomne podmienený vzťah. Spotreba vypovedá nielen o stupni nasycovania potrieb ale svojou štruktúrou a úrovňou sa významnou mierou podieľa na formovaní kvality života.

Z pohľadu zvyšovania kvality života by mal byť vzťah medzi spotrebou a kvalitou života vyváženým vzťahom. Orientácia len na materiálnu stránku spotreby ako aj na trend k samoúčelnej spotrebe možno z hľadiska rozvoja osobnosti označiť ako nežiaduci vývoj. V určitých extrémnych situáciách, ako napr. v stave núdze alebo bohatstva, môže spotreba plniť deformujúcu úlohu. Vo všeobecnej rovine za optimálny stav sa považuje funkčná vyváženosť spotreby a kvality.

Základom riešenia uvedeného vzťahu by malo byť dosahovanie takej štruktúry spotreby a kvality života, ktorá by prispievala k naplneniu nielen reprodukčných ale predovšetkým rozvojových potrieb a hodnôt človeka. Tento trend zatiaľ v reálnych životných aktivitách našich domácností nie je dostatočne obsiahnutý a preukázaný.

Pre slovenské domácnosti dosahovanie uvedenej funkčnej vyváženosti predstavuje pomerne zložitý problém. Z krátkodobého hľadiska je u slovenských domácností spotreba determinovaná predovšetkým veľkosťou ich príjmu a zmenami v cenách tovarov a služieb. Z dlhodobého hľadiska spotrebu ovplyvňuje demografický vývoj a zabudované spotrebiteľské zvyklosti. Terajšia úroveň kvality života väčšej časti našej populácie je kompromisom medzi relatívne malými reálnymi finančnými možnosťami a relatívne veľkými životnými ašpiráciami a potrebami.

Z pohľadu zvyšovania úrovne kvality života a dosiahnutia jej efektívnych foriem by mal byť vzťah medzi spotrebou a kvalitou života vyváženým vzťahom. Základom tohto vzťahu by malo byť dosahovanie funkčnej vyváženosti štruktúry spotreby a kvality života, ktorá by prispievala k naplneniu nielen reprodukčných ale predovšetkým rozvojových potrieb a hodnôt človeka.

4 KVALITA ŽIVOTA Z POHĽADU SPOTREBY

Ak na kvalitu života budeme nazerať cez jej 5 komponentov, zohľadňujeme pri jej skúmaní potreby, životné podmienky, sociálne prostredie, hodnotové orientácie a životné aktivity. (Laluha, 2008) Východiskom akéhokoľvek životného procesu sú predovšetkým potreby, z ich uspokojovania vychádzajú impulzy pre vznik nových potrieb rozmanitého charakteru. Napĺňanie potrieb je jednou zo základných priorít existencie človeka ale aj fungovania ekonomiky. Dosiahnutá úroveň uspokojovania potrieb vypovedá o ekonomickej vyspelosti spoločnosti, životnej úrovni jej jednotlivých členov a premieta sa aj do kvality ich života. Determinanty spokojnosti so životom sa líšia podľa úrovne hospodárskeho rozvoja danej krajiny. V dôsledku rozvoja krajiny sú určité potreby uspokojené a prestávajú tak byť dôležitými atribútmi zvyšovania kvality života, zatiaľ čo iné sa dostávajú na ich miesto – nahradia ich. (Bhuiyan & Szulga, 2017)

Vo vzťahu ku kvalite života má spotreba nezastupiteľnú funkciu, pretože vypovedá o materiálnej stránke napĺňania potrieb i túžob človeka. Porovnávaním údajov o kvalite života domácností vo väzbe na ich spotrebu vytvárame obraz o materiálnej stránke kvality života. Na tento účel sa používajú peňažné výdavky domácností v členení podľa základných sfér spôsobu života, t. j. v členení na mimopracovný čas, voľný čas a prierezové výdavky. (Holková & Laluha, 2009)

V štrukturálnej skladbe výdavkov na mimopracovný čas dominujú činnosti, ktoré sú zamerané na uspokojovanie základných materiálnych a reprodukčných potrieb. Tie pozostávajú z výdavkov na potraviny a nealkoholické nápoje, alkoholické nápoje a tabak, odievanie a obuv, bývanie, vodu, plyn a elektrinu, nábytok a bytové vybavenie ako aj na zdravie. Druhou sférou kvality života je voľný čas vo všeobecnosti chápaný ako časť dňa, kedy sa človek venuje podľa vlastného uváženia, výberu a možnosti takým aktivitám, ktoré prispievajú k jeho relaxácii, sebarealizácii a sebazdokonaleniu. Štruktúru výdavkov tvoria výdavky na rekreáciu a kultúru, vzdelanie, hotely, kaviarne a reštaurácie. Treťou sférou kvality života sú prierezové oblasti, ktoré zaberajú činnosti a aktivity prelínajúce sa ostatnými sférami spôsobu života a ktoré prispievajú k modernizácii spôsobu života. Z pohľadu výdavkov táto oblasť je tvorená výdavkami na dopravu, spoje a rozličné služby.

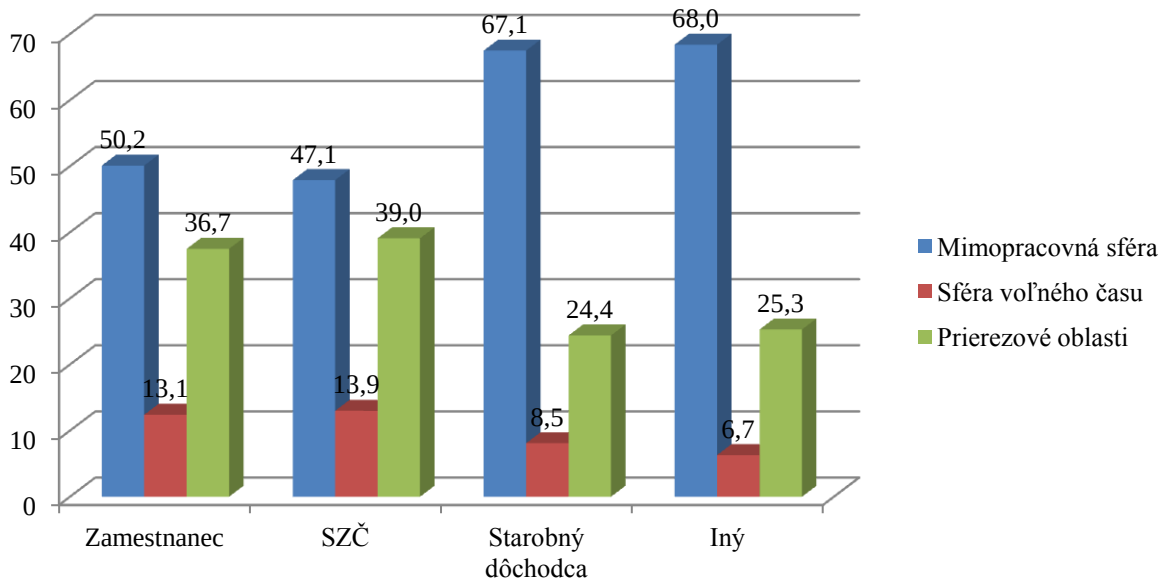
Tabuľka 1: Peňažné výdavky domácností SR podľa sfér kvality života v rokoch 2009-2016 (%)

Sféry kvality života	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Mimopracovná sféra	56,6	58,0	57,2	57,6	57,6	57,7	56,1	54,9
Sféra voľného času	12,3	12,4	12,9	12,7	12,9	12,9	11,6	12,3
Prierezové oblasti	31,1	29,6	29,9	29,7	29,4	29,4	32,3	32,8

Prameň: Vybrané a vypočítané z údajov ŠÚ SR–Databáza časových radov SLOVSTAT, EU SILC, 2017

Údaje tabuľky 1 naznačujú, že peňažné výdavky domácností SR podľa vymedzených sfér kvality života smerujú vo vysokej relácii predovšetkým do mimopracovného času, vyjadrujú vysokú finančnú náročnosť uspokojovania základných potrieb. Výdavky na voľný čas sú veľmi nízke, v roku 2016 dosiahli relatívne nízku úroveň a to 12,3 % celkových výdavkov, výdavky na modernizáciu spôsobu života sú nepostačujúce. Nízka úroveň výdavkov na prierezovú oblasť naznačuje obmedzenú možnosť zlepšenia spôsobu života našich domácností. V priebehu rokov 2009-2016 sa podiel peňažných výdavkov smerujúci do jednotlivých sfér kvality života výrazne nemenil.

Obrázok 1: Peňažné výdavky sledované podľa sfér kvality života a typu domácností SR v roku 2016 (%)

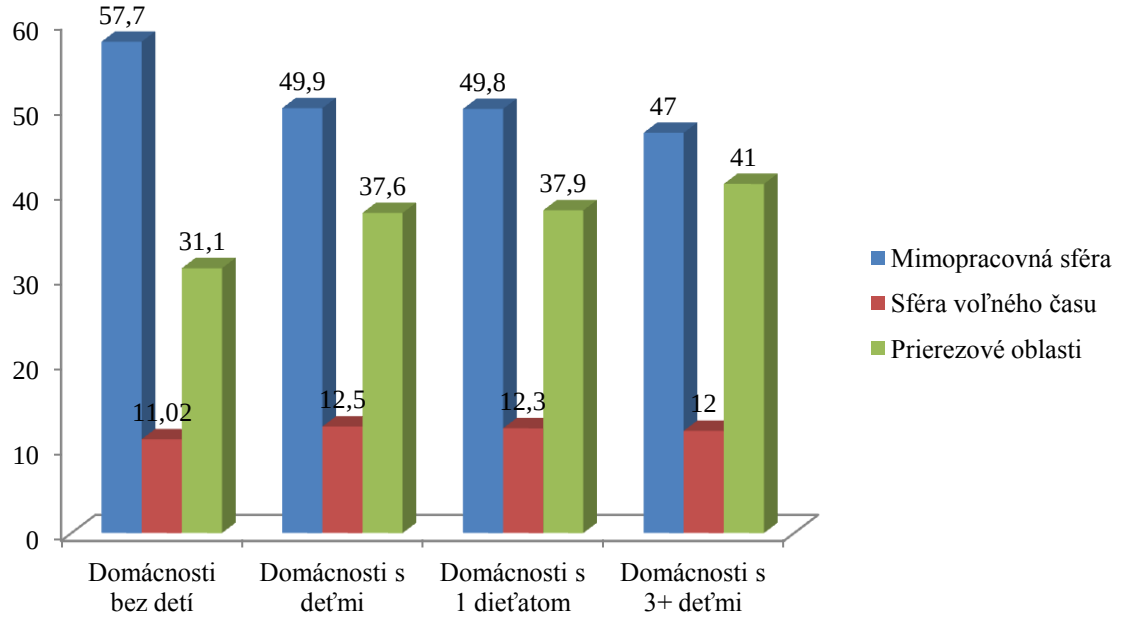


Prameň: Vybrané a vypočítané z údajov ŠÚ SR–Databáza časových radov SLOVSTAT, EU SILC, 2017

Výrazné rozdiely vo formovaní kvality života sme zistili v jednotlivých typoch domácností (obrázok 1). Z hľadiska úrovne kvality života sledovanej podľa jednotlivých sfér majú domácnosti samostatne zárobkovo činných osôb (SZČ) relatívne najvhodnejšiu skladbu výdavkov, čo súvisí s ich finančnou možnosťou realizovať aktivity prispievajúci k modernizácii života. Nepriaznivú situáciu možno sledovať v domácnosti roľníkov (iný), kde podiel výdavkov na mimopracovný čas tvorí 68,0 % a na voľný čas pripadá 6,7 % z celkových výdavkov. Problémy nízkeho príjmu sa premietajú aj do spotrebiteľského správania domácnosti typu starobný dôchodca, kde podiel výdavkov na mimopracovný čas predstavuje 67,1 % celkových výdavkov a na voľný čas 8,5 %. To znamená, že domácnosti typu starobný dôchodca a roľníkov (iný) vynakladajú prevažnú časť svojho príjmu na uspokojovanie nevyhnutných potrieb a preto sú výdavky na voľný čas veľmi nízke.

Rozdiely sú viditeľné aj v jednotlivých sférach kvality života v sledovaných domácnostiach podľa počtu detí (viď obrázok 2). Nepriaznivú situáciu možno vidieť v domácnostiach s 3 a viac deťmi, kde podiel výdavkov na mimopracovnú sféru je síce pod úrovňou 50 % celkových výdavkov, je to však dôsledok slabej príjmovej situácie a z toho vyplývajúcej nepriaznivej sociálne pozície viacdetných rodín, ktoré zápasia s problémom uspokojovania nevyhnutných potrieb.

Obrázok 2: Peňažné výdavky podľa sfér kvality života a domácností sr podľa počtu detí v roku 2016 (%)



Prameň: Vybrané a vypočítané z údajov ŠÚ SR–Databáza časových radov SLOVSTAT, EU SILC, 2017

Na základe čistých peňažných výdavkov, ktoré sú rozdelené do uvedených troch sfér kvality života rozlišujeme reprodukčný a rozvojový model kvality života. (Holková,V., Laluha,I., 2009) Pre väčšinu slovenských domácností je charakteristický reprodukčný model kvality života, ktorý je zameraný na uspokojovanie predovšetkým základných reprodukčných potrieb, je prejavom odkladaných spotrebných ašpirácii a nedostatočného osobného rozvoja jej členov. Tento model obmedzuje zvyšovanie úrovne kvality života našich domácností, dôkazom čoho je pomerne vysoký podiel výdavkov na mimopracovný čas a nízky podiel výdavkov na voľný čas.

Základným trendom zmien v kvalite života slovenských domácností v dlhodobom horizonte by mohol byť trend takých zmien v štruktúre spotreby, ktorý by viedol k všestrannému rozvoju človeka, teda k rozvoju jeho bytostných a duchovných síl. To znamená, že spotreba by sa mala formovať tak, aby prispela k uspokojovaniu materiálnych a duchovných potrieb v reláciách a štruktúre, ktoré by viedli k rozvoju tvorivého potenciálu človeka, k jeho sebarealizácii a súčasne by prispela k jeho pocitu pohody a šťastia.

5 ZÁVER

Spotreba vyjadruje spôsob použitia materiálneho a duchovné bohatstva spoločnosti pri uspokojovaní potrieb jej jednotlivých členov, ktorí sa líšia realizáciou spotrebných záujmov a cieľov. Vo vzťahu ku kvalite života má spotreba nezastupiteľnú funkciu, pretože vypovedá o materiálnej stránke napĺňania potrieb i túžob človeka.

Z hodnotenia kvality života našich domácností na základe jej materiálneho aspektu vyplýva, že súčasná kvalita života našich domácností je pod dominantným tlakom klasickej štruktúry spotreby. V našej spoločnosti spotreba väčšiny domácností je zameraná na uspokojovanie predovšetkým základných reprodukčných potrieb. To znamená, že súčasná úroveň spotreby a jej štruktúra obmedzujú zvyšovanie kvality života našich domácností v zmysle smerovania k

rozvojového modelu kvality života, dôkazom čoho je pomerne veľký podiel výdavkov na mimopracovný čas a nízky podiel výdavkov na voľný čas. Reprodukčný model kvality života je na jednej strane prejavom vysokej finančnej náročnosti uspokojovania základných potrieb slovenských domácností, na druhej strane je prejavom odkladaných spotrebných ašpirácii a nedostatočného osobného rozvoja ich členov.

V súvislosti s ďalším formovaním kvality života je dôležité, aby vzťah medzi spotrebou a kvalitou života dosahoval funkčnú vyváženosť v zmysle prispievania k naplneniu reprodukčných ale predovšetkým rozvojových potrieb človeka. Takýto trend pri formovaní kvality života väčšiny našich domácností sme zatiaľ v reálnych podmienkach slovenskej spoločnosti nezachytili.

Tento príspevok vznikol s podporou grantovej agentúry VEGA v rámci projektu č.1/0393/16 s názvom Európska únia v pokrízovom období – makroekonomické a mikroekonomické aspekty.

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PŘECHOD Z MEZINÁRODNÍCH STANDARDŮ ÚČETNÍHO VÝKAZNICTVÍ (IFRS) NA ČESKÉ ÚČETNÍ PŘEDPISY (CAS) - VYBRANÉ OBLASTI

TRANSITION FROM IFRS TO THE CZECH ACCOUNTING STANDARDS – SELECTED STANDARDS

Petra Baranová

Abstrakt
Cílem příspěvku je analyzovat provedení přechodu z Mezinárodních standardů účetního výkaznictví na české účetní předpisy u vybraných položek aktiv. Tato problematika není v českých účetních standardech řešena v žádném právním předpisu ani v interpretacích Národní účetní rady. Příspěvek je strukturován dle jednotlivých standardů IFRS a ukazuje možnosti, jak řešit přechod zpět na české účetní standardy. Společností, které se vrací zpátky na české účetní standardy, je velmi málo. Do budoucna lze očekávat spíše trend přechodu na IFRS. V současné době bylo minimálně 10 přechodů z IFRS na české účetní standardy. I přes omezenější využití si tato problematika zaslouží své účetní řešení – ať již plně legislativní, či v podobně interpretace Národní účetní rady.
Klíčová slova: *přechod, IFRS, CAS, mezinárodní standardy účetního výkaznictví*

Abstract
The paper analyses the conversion from International Financial Reporting Standards to Czech Accounting Standards for selected asset classes. Such topic is not covered in any law or in National Accounting Council interpretations. The paper deals with the conversion for each individual selected IFRS standard and demonstrates the options how to proceed in order to adopt the Czech Accounting Standards for the entities which previously used IFRS framework. Such adoptions are relatively rare. In the paper 10 adoptions back to Czech Accounting Standards were identified. The main trend is currently rather to adopt IFRS. Despite the limited number of companies dealing with the adoption back to Czech Accounting Standards the topic deserves an attention as there is currently lack of any accounting guidance on this topic. The guidance can be in either in a form of a legislation or National Accounting Council Interpretation.
Key words: *transition, IFRS, Czech accounting standards*

1 ÚVOD

Použití standardů Mezinárodní účetního výkaznictví (dále jen „IFRS“) bylo začleněno do legislativy zákonem č. 437/2003 Sb., který vešel v platnost 16. prosince 2003 a v účinnost 1. ledna 2004. V prvopočátku se použití standardů týkalo pouze účetních jednotek (dále jen „ÚJ“) – obchodních společností, které jsou zároveň emitentem cenných papírů registrovaných na regulovaném trhu cenných papírů v členských státech Evropské unie. Až do 31. prosince 2010 byl tento odstavec součástí paragrafu 19 zákona o účetnictví. Zákon č. 410/2010 Sb. udělal z jednoho odstavce týkajícího se použití IFRS samostatný paragraf a to § 19a. Nově zavedený paragraf 19a, až na drobné terminologické úpravy (zejména označení cenných papírů na investiční cenné papíry), je v zákoně o účetnictví dodnes.

Novela zákona o účetnictví (novelizace zákonem č. 410/2010 Sb.) umožňuje ÚJ, které se mají podrobit konsolidaci dle IFRS nebo ÚJ, které mají sestavit konsolidovanou účetní závěrku dle IFRS, sestavit svou individuální účetní závěrku dle IFRS od roku 2011.
Česká národní banka zveřejňuje v rámci Centrálního úložiště regulovaných informací seznam emitentů cenných papírů přijatých k obchodování na regulovaném trhu. Přibližně 52 z těchto emitentů jsou obchodní korporace (nebankovní a nefinanční akciové společnosti a společnosti s ručením omezeným) dle českých účetních předpisů, které mezi lety 2005 až 2014 přešly z českých účetních předpisů na IFRS. Nejvíce emitentů (39) přešlo v letech 2005 – 2009, v roce 2010 – 3 emitenti, v roce 2011 – 2 emitenti, v roce 2012 – 5 emitentů, v roce 2013 pouze 1 emitent a v roce 2014 emitenti 2.
Ve skutečnosti je počet společností, které vykazují dle IFRS mnohem vyšší. Procházka [1] ve svém příspěvku uvádí, že „*počet nekotovaných českých podniků, které připravují účetní závěrku dle IFRS, pohybuje v rozmezí 2 000 až 20 000*."
Z výše uvedeného je zřejmé, že většina obchodních korporací v současné době řeší, nebo bude řešit, spíše přechod z českých účetních předpisů (dále jen „CAS") na IFRS, nikoliv přechod z IFRS na CAS, a lze očekávat, že počet ÚJ vykazujících dle IFRS bude přibývat. Argumentů pro toto tvrzení je hned několik. První z nich vyplývá z toho, že v České republice existují společnosti, jejichž vlastníci jsou ze zahraničí, kde je IFRS jako základní vykazovací systém. Lze očekávat, že tito vlastníci budou požadovat na těchto společnostech, aby taktéž začaly vykazovat dle IFRS, protože informace ve výkazech budou srozumitelnější a bude s nimi možné lépe pracovat, ať již pro účely rozhodování, finanční analýzy a zejména sestavení konsolidované účetní závěrky.
I když možnost vykazovat dle IFRS pro tyto jednotky platí od roku 2011, lze odhadovat spíše postupné zavádění IFRS. Důvodem je fakt, že zavádění IFRS je dlouhodobější proces, který je potřeba důkladně naplánovat a zajistit kvalifikované personální zajištění. Dalším důvodem je snížení limitů pro konsolidaci, což může způsobit zvýšení počet jednotek vykazujících dle IFRS.

2 PŘEHLED LITERATURY

Autoři jak ve světě, tak v České republice, se ve svých pracích věnují především přechodu na IFRS, jak z pohledu samotného přechodu, tak se objevují i témata s ohledem na finanční analýzu, technické provedení či příspěvky statistického ražení analyzující finanční náročnost přechodu a další. Mezi tyto autory patří Ladislav Mejzlík *Možnosti a rizika technologického řešení převodu českých účetních závěrek do IFRS*, David Procházka *Vynucené přijetí IFRS českými nekótovanými podniky: hodnocení přínosů a nákladů* a *Implementace IFRS a její vliv na vzájemné postavení finančního a manažerského účetnictví*.
Tématu přechodu z IFRS na CAS se věnují pouze 3 diplomové práce, jejichž vedoucím byl Libor Vašek, který působí na Katedře finančního účetnictví a auditingu na Fakultě financí a účetnictví na VŠE v Praze. Konkrétně se jedná o autory Matěj Mráz - *Proces přechodu společnosti z IFRS na české účetní předpisy* (2014), Kateřina Peřinková - *Přechod společnosti z IFRS na české účetní předpisy* (2015) a Lukáš Hajduk - *Přechod české účetní jednotky z IFRS do prostředí českých účetních předpisů* (2015).
Tím, že se konkrétně přechodu z IFRS na CAS nevěnuje žádná právní norma ani interpretace Národní účetní rady, je nutné vycházet z ustanovení zákona o účetnictví, prováděcí vyhlášky, českých účetních standardů, případně z 36 interpretací Národní účetní rady.

3 PŘECHOD Z IFRS NA CAS

Při přechodu z CAS na IFRS a i z přechodu z IFRS na CAS je nutné provést 4 operace:

1. vykázat aktiva a dluhy, které požaduje konkrétní rámec;

2. již nadále nevykazovat aktiva a dluhy, které nesmí být dle konkrétního rámce vykazovány;
3. provést reklasifikaci aktiv a pasiv tak, aby to odpovídalo danému koncepčnímu rámci;
4. přecenit aktiva a pasiva tak, jak požaduje daný koncepční rámec.

Pro účely přechodu na IFRS je definována tzv. hladina významnosti (materialita), která vždy souvisí s konkrétním podnikem. Jednoduše to znamená, že pro účely přechodu na IFRS nemusí účetní jednotka posuzovat všechny položky avšak pouze ty, které jsou nad uvedenou hladinu významnosti. To např. znamená, že pokud by účetní jednotka měla vykázat nové aktivum, jehož pořizovací cena je 1 000 Kč, a tato hodnota je pod hladinou významnosti, nemusí účetní jednotka nové aktivum vykázat. Totéž platí v případě, kdy účetní jednotka vypočítá např. zůstatkovou cenu dlouhodobého majetku a porovnává ji s její fair value a rozdíl mezi hodnotami je pod úrovní hladiny významnosti. Záleží pak na účetní jednotce, kterou hodnotu si zvolí. Smyslem stanovení hladiny významnosti je, aby přínosy z účetní informace nebyly převáženy náklady na získání této informace.

Všechny navrhované možnosti, jak provést vykázání dle CAS vychází z předpokladu, že hodnota je nad hladinu významnosti, tj. je nutné dané aktivum vykázat/nevykázat, upravit hodnotu atp.

3.1. Dlouhodobá aktiva

Dlouhodobými aktivy se zabývá několik standardů IFRS (viz níže). Mezi přetrvávající rozdíly mezi IFRS a CAS patří vykazování (resp. nevykazování) aktiv, jejich ocenění a zveřejnění. Aktivum v IFRS může být vykázáno pouze v případě, že splňuje definici aktiva, v opačném případě se tento náklad stává nákladem období a účtuje se do výsledovky. Dalším přetrvávajícím rozdílem jsou úrokové náklady (tzv. výpůjční náklady) aktivované do pořizovací ceny aktiva. Výpůjčním nákladům se věnuje samostatný standard IAS 23 *Výpůjční náklady*. V IFRS nemá účetní jednotka možnost volby (v minulosti možnost volby existovala) ohledně aktivace výpůjčních nákladů, v CASu byla možnost volby účetním jednotkám ponechána, zda budou úrokové náklady před zařazením majetku aktivovat či nikoliv.

Při přechodu na IFRS musí ÚJ identifikovat doposud nevykazovaná aktiva a naopak přestat vykazovat aktiva, která nesplňují kritéria pro vykazování aktiva. Dále je nutné zatřídit aktiva do správné kategorie – tzn. aktiva dle jednotlivých standardů IAS 16, IAS 32, IAS 40 apod. Každý ze standardů definuje podmínky pro prvotní a následné ocenění. V případě následného ocenění si ÚJ vybírá mezi Modelem pořizovací ceny a Modelem přecenění. IFRS ve svých standardech poskytuje podrobnější návod, jak idenfitikovat, spočítat a vykázat snížení hodnoty aktiv (impairment). V CASu (§ 25 odst. 3) mají ÚJ povinnost posoudit snížení hodnoty aktiv u všech aktiv vždy k rozvahovému dni. V IFRS je stanoveno, že pro aktiva neomezenou dobou použitelnosti, nezařazená nehmotných aktiv a u goodwillu se test provádí v případě, že se objevují tzv. indikátory snížení hodnoty. Rozdíl ve vykazování aktiv se bude nadále prohlubovat spolu s příchodem nového standardu IFRS 16, který bude mít významný dopad na vykazování majetku pořízeného formou leasingu.

3.1.1. IAS 16 „*Pozemky, budovy a zařízení*“

Standard IAS 16 obsahuje veškerý taxativně vyjmenovaný dlouhodobý hmotný majetek v CAS (vyhláška 500/2002 Sb., dále jen „vyhláška“). V CASu je dlouhodobý (hmotný i nehmotný) majetek vše, o čem tak stanovil zákon. Jedním z rozdílů je vykazování hlavních náhradních dílů – v CAS se vždy vykazují jako zásoby, avšak v IFRS, pokud je doba použitelnosti delší než 1 období, vztahuje se na náhradní díly taktéž standard IAS 16, v opačném případě se náhradní díly řídí standardem IAS 2 (viz 3.3. IAS 2 „Zásoby“).

Zákon o účetnictví (dále jen „ZoÚ“) v § 24 v odst. 2) rozlišuje mezi oceněním ke dni uskutečnění účetního případu a oceněním k rozvahovému dni (případně k jinému dni, ke kterému se sestavuje účetní závěrka).
V situaci, kdy je nutné vynaložit náklady na odstranění aktiva, či sanaci, v IFRS se tvoří rezerva na tyto tituly. Pro vytvoření rezervy je nejprve nutné zjistit vyhnutelnost těchto nákladů. Pokud není možné se těmto nákladům vyhnout, je nutné odhadnout jejich výši. Vzhledem k tomu, že se jedná o náklady potřebné v různě dlouhé budoucnosti, je potřeba vypočítat současnou hodnotu těchto odhadovaných nákladů a o současnou hodnotu navýšit pořizovací cenu aktiva.
Aktiva mohou být pořízena z vlastních zdrojů a nebo částečně či plně ze státní dotace. Podnikům vykazujícím dle IFRS je ponechána možnost výběru mezi dvěma možnostmi – snížit pořizovací cenu aktiva o hodnotu státní dotace, či nesnižovat pořizovací cenu a k tomu vykázat výnosy příštích období, které se budou rozpouštět po celou dobu odepisování majetku. CAS (pro podnikatele) uznává pouze první možnost – snížit pořizovací cenu aktiva o hodnotu státní dotace.

3.1.1.1. Aktiva v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

V případě, že se účetní jednotka rozhodla při přechodu na IFRS využít Model oceňování pořizovacími náklady a pořizovací náklady nebyly v rozporu s IFRS, může ÚJ pokračovat v odpisování majetku jako dle CAS a při přechodu zpět na CAS nemusí provádět žádné úpravy. Pokud účetní jednotka provedla úpravy v pořizovacích nákladech tak, aby byly pořizovací náklady v souladu s CAS, je vhodné, aby ÚJ vypočítala odpisy za dobu vykazování dle IFRS a provedla mimořádný odpis, který bude součtem odpisů za dobu vykazování dle IFRS. Po přechodu na CAS bude účetní jednotka odpisovat majetek, jakoby nikdy k přechodu na IFRS nedošlo.
Pokud se účetní jednotka rozhodla využít model přecenění, je vždy nutné, aby vypočítala odpis za dobu vykazování dle IFRS a provedla mimořádný dopis. Po přechodu na CAS bude ÚJ pokračovat dle původního odpisového plánu, případně dle revidovaného odpisového plánu v souvislosti s úpravou doby odepisování.
Pokud musí účetní jednotka provést odstranění aktiva, či sanaci, je nutné začít vykazovat rezervu. U přijatých státních dotací nemá účetní jednotka možnost výběru v CASu, a protože je tento postup povolen v rámci IFRS, nemusí účetní jednotka v souvislosti se státními dotacemi nic řešit.

3.1.1.2. Nová aktiva v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

V případě nově pořízených aktiv, při využití Modelu oceňování pořizovacími náklady, posoudí ÚJ zda pořizovací cena neobsahuje položky, které nejsou z pohledu CAS způsobilé k zahrnutí do pořizovací ceny. Jedním takovým příkladem jsou nezpůsobilé Výpůjční náklady (IAS 23), kdy dle standardu dochází k aktivaci nákladů kapitálu – tj. všech úrokových nákladů souvisejících s pořízením aktiva. V CAS je možné aktivovat (a nebo dokonce neaktivovat) pouze úroky z účelového úvěru.
U Modelu přecenění je postup mnohem jednodušší. Pokračovat v odpisovém plánu tak, jak byl nastaven v IFRS.
Jestli si podnik v IFRS vybral vykazování státních dotací v tom způsobu, že ponižuje jejich pořizovací cenu o hodnotu státní dotace, není nutné při přechodu v souvislosti se státními dotacemi nic podnikat. Pokud si však účetní jednotka vybrala druhou možnost, musí být pořizovací cena upravena o přijatou státní dotaci a výnosy příštích období rozpuštěny.
Též v situaci, kdy došlo k vytvoření rezervy na odstranění aktiva apod., musí být pořizovací cena majetku opravena, CAS totiž neumožňuje, aby rezerva na odstranění majetku byla součástí rezervy.

3.1.2. IAS 38 „*Nehmotná aktiva*“

Nehmotné aktivum je povoleno vykázat, pokud splňuje definici aktiva obecně a zároveň i definici nehmotného aktiva – identifikované nepeněžní aktivum, které nemá fyzickou podstatu. Nehmotná aktiva v CASu jsou opět taxativně vymezena. Jedním z přetrvávajících rozdílů je goodwill, konkrétně jeho odpisování resp. neodpisování a vykazování výsledků výzkumu a vývoje.

V IFRS, pokud ÚJ provádí výzkum a vývoj s cílem výsledný produkt prodat/prodávat, může náklady spojené s vývojem a po splnění všech pravidel pro vykazování, vykazovat v rámci nehmotných aktiv. Pro účely přechodu na IFRS musí nejprve účetní jednotka zatřídit daný nehmotný výsledek do kategorie výzkumu a vývoje. Náklady spojené s výzkumem se považují za náklady období a jsou účtovány v daném účetním období výsledkově. V případě, že ani náklady spojené s vývojem nemohou být aktivovány, platí pro ně stejné pravidlo jako pro výzkum – stávají se náklady období.

U softwaru dle IFRS platí, že je nutné posoudit jeho povahu – tj. hmotnou a nehmotnou. V případě, že bez daného software není možné, aby hmotné aktivum fungovalo, je takový software vykazován v rámci hmotných aktiv – např. operační systémy pro počítače. V opačném případě je software vykazován jako nehmotné aktivum.

Nehmotná aktiva, ve srovnání s aktivy hmotnými, naráží v mnohých případech na fakt, že je nelze spolehlivě ocenit, pokud nelze aktivum spolehlivě ocenit, není možné jej vykázat v rozvaze.

3.1.3. IAS 40 „*Investice do nemovitostí*“

CAS nerozlišuje mezi aktivy, které slouží pro vlastní potřebu ÚJ a které slouží přímo ke generování zisku – výnosy z pronájmu či zhodnocení nemovité věci.

V IFRS, stejně jako v CAS, je prvotní ocenění dáno kupní cenou a vedlejšími náklady pořízení. Jednou ze součástí ceny pořízení, stejně jako u standardu IAS 16, jsou výpůjční náklady dle IAS 23 (problematika výpůjčních nákladů - viz IAS 16). Účetní jednotka opět volí mezi modelem fair value a modelem pořizovací ceny. Standard vymezuje, že účetní jednotka může přejít z modelu pořizovací ceny na model fair value. U přechodu opačného pochybuje o jeho relevantnějším vykazování. Posouzení fair value investic do nemovitostí se provádí každý rok tak, aby byla zjištěna fair value ke konci období. Standard přímo nevykazuje povinnost mít hodnotu podloženou posudkem znalce.

Investice do nemovitostí se v IFRS neodepisují. V případě odložené platby je opět nutné do účetnictví zařadit hodnotu investice v současné hodnotě a rozdíl mezi současnou hodnotou a kupní cenou tvoří úrokový náklad.

3.1.3.1. Aktiva v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

Proto aktiva, která jsou v IFRS vykazována dle IAS 40 se v CASu vždy reklasifikují zpět do dlouhodobých hmotných aktiv. IAS 40 nařizuje takové nemovitosti neodepisovat, kdežto v CASu se odepisují. Proto při přechodu z IFRS na CAS je nutné vypočítat zůstatkovou cenu takového aktiva k datu přechodu na CAS. Pokud se stane, že je fair value vyšší než účetní zůstatková cena, z důvodu opatrnosti je vhodnější použít účetní zůstatkovou cenu. Pokud je naopak zůstatková cena vyšší než fair value, z důvodu opatrnosti je jeví jako vhodnější ocenění ve fair value.

Vzhledem k tomu, že CAS nepracuje se současnou hodnotou, je též nutné se vypořádat se správnou výší pořizovací ceny.

3.1.3.2. Nová aktiva v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

Pokud došlo k pořízení nové investice do nemovitosti po přechodu na IFRS, je nutné upravit pořizovací cenu o výpůjční náklady, případně úrokový náklad v případě odložené platby za

nemovitost. Protože dle CASu je nutné odepisovat všechna aktiva, je nutné porovnat zůstatkovou cenu a fair value stejně jako u aktiv, která byla v účetnictví ještě před přechodem na IFRS.

3.2. IFRS 5 „*Dlouhodobá aktiva určená k prodeji a ukončované činnosti*“

CAS (pro podnikatelské subjekty) nemá stanoveny postupy ani pro dlouhodobá aktiva určená k prodeji a ani pro ukončované činnosti. U vybraných účetních jednotek je situace jiná – v legislativě je uvedeno, jak má účetní jednotka postupovat v takovém případě. V následujících odstavcích budou řešeny pouze dlouhodobá aktiva určená k prodeji.
Standard IFRS 5 definuje jasné podmínky, kdy může být dlouhodobé aktivum vykazováno jako určeno k prodeji. Mezi tyto podmínky patří připravenost aktiva k okamžitému prodeji a vysoká pravděpodobnost tohoto prodeje. Standard umožňuje klasifikovat jako aktiva určená k prodeji taková aktiva, která s tímto záměrem již pořizuje, pokud jsou ovšem splněny podmínky pro vykázání (viz výše).
Aktiva určená k prodeji jsou oceněna na úrovni nižší ze dvou – účetní hodnoty a fair value snížené o náklady na prodej. Aktiva určená k prodeji se neodepisují. I aktiva určená k prodeji se musí testovat na snížení jejich hodnoty. Jakmile nejsou splněny podmínky pro vykazování aktiva v rámci aktiv k prodeji, musí být takové aktivum reklasifikováno zpět do kategorie dlouhodobých aktiv.

3.2.1.1.Dlouhodobá aktiva určená k prodeji v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

V praxi zřejmě nenastane situace, kdy by aktivum určené k prodeji bylo vykazováno k prodeji po tak dlouhodobou dobu, nebyly by splněny podmínky pro vykazování v této kategorii.

3.2.1.2.Dlouhodobá aktiva určená k prodeji v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

Při přechodu na CAS je nutné reklasifikovat aktiva určená k prodeji zpět do dlouhodobých aktiv a posoudit, zda budou vykazovány v zůstatkové ceně a nebo ve fair value. A stanovit odpisový plán pro odepisování aktiva.

3.3. IAS 2 „*Zásoby*“

Mezi vykazování zásob v IFRS a dle CAS je velmi málo rozdílů. Mezi tyto rozdíly patří alokace fixní režie - CAS zahrnuje skutečné využití výrobní kapacity, IFRS však pracuje s běžným využitím kapacity. Koncept posouzení a řešení snížení hodnoty je obecně detailněji řešen v IFRS než v CASu. Od 1. ledna 2016 došlo k odstranění jednoho z velkých rozdílů mezi IFRS a CASem a to, že změna stavu zásob vlastní výroby je ve výsledovce vykazována jako úprava nákladů, nikoliv jako úprava výnosů. Jak již bylo uvedeno výše, jeden z dalších rozdílů mezi CASem a IFRS tkví ve vykazování hlavních náhradních dílů a přídavných zařízení, které jsou v CASu vždy součástí zásob a v IFRS jsou takové zásoby s dobou použitelnosti delší než jedno období vykazovány v rámci dlouhodobého majetku – IAS 16 odst. 8.
Zásoby se oceňují na úrovni nižší z pořizovacích nákladů a čisté realizovatelné hodnoty. Kdežto zásoby v CASu se oceňují pořizovací cenou/vlastními náklady, koncept čisté realizovatelné hodnoty CAS nezná.

3.3.1.1. Zásoby v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

U zásob, které by byly v účetnictví před přechodem a ještě po dobu vykazování dle IFRS, zřejmě došlo k úpravě jejich ocenění tak, aby jejich ocenění odráželo zásady pro ocenění dle IFRS – CAS neumožňuje ocenění zásob na úrovni čisté realizovatelné hodnoty. Je taktéž možné, že část těchto zásob představuje hlavní náhradní díly a přídavné zařízení, které se před

přechodem na CAS vykazují v rámci dlouhodobých aktiv. Při přechodu na CAS je nutné reklasifikovat zpět do zásob tyto hlavní náhradní díly a přídavné zařízení.

3.3.1.2. Zásoby v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

Postup pro nové zásoby, které jsou vykazovány až za doby vykazování dle IFRS je stejný jako v předchozím případě. Vykazování zásob na úrovni čisté realizovatelné hodnoty je pro ÚJ impulsem pro to, aby vytvořila na takové zásoby opravnou položku.

3.4. IAS 39, IAS 32 - Pohledávky z obchodních vztahů a opravné položky k nim

ÚJ mohou ve výkazech vykazovat více druhů pohledávek: pohledávky z obchodních vztahů, pohledávky za zaměstnanci, pohledávky z leasingu či z pojistných smluv. Předmětem tohoto článku jsou pouze pohledávky z obchodních vztahů s úmyslem držet je do splatnosti.
Pohledávky se v IFRS považují za finanční aktivum, resp. finanční nástroje, a jsou upraveny hned několika standardy – IAS 32 a IAS 39. Standard IAS 39 řadí pohledávky z obchodních vztahů do kategorie „Poskytnuté úvěry a pohledávky".
Součástí pohledávek jsou i příjmy příštích období, náklady příštích období a dohadné účty pasivní – viz 3.4. Časové rozlišení.
IFRS pracuje se současnou hodnotou pohledávek a s diskontováním v případě, že se jedná o dlouhodobé pohledávky. Pokud je splatnost pohledávky odložena o více než rok, dle IFRS je nutné spočítat současnou hodnotu takové pohledávky. Rozdíl mezi současnou hodnotou a brutto hodnotou pohledávky představuje úrokový výnos. U krátkodobých pohledávek nahraje faktor času roli, a proto se vykazují nediskontované.
Standard IAS 39 neopomíná ani problematiku nedobytnosti pohledávek. Je možné k nedobytné pohledávce vytvořit opravnou položku či snížit její hodnotu přímo. Ztráta se vypočítá jako rozdíl mezi brutto hodnotou pohledávky a hodnotou budoucích odhadovaných peněžních toků z této pohledávky. Je samozřejmé, že hodnota budoucích odhadovaných peněžních toků musí být ve formě současné hodnoty.
Standard IAS 39 bude nahrazen standardem IFRS 9, který je účinný od 1. ledna 2018, avšak Evropská unie doposud tento standard neakceptovala.

3.4.1.1. Pohledávky v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

Pohledávky, které byly v účetnictví ještě před přechodem na IFRS, a jejich vykazování pokračuje i během vykazování dle IFRS, mohou být vzhledem k době pouze dlouhodobého charakteru. Před přechodem na IFRS bylo nutné vypočítat jejich současnou hodnotu a vykázat je v tomto ocenění. CAS nepracuje se současnou hodnotou, a proto je nutné takové pohledávky přecenit na úroveň jejich nominální hodnoty. Rozdíl mezi oceněním v IFRS a CAS bude vykázán v rámci Jiný výsledek hospodaření minulých let.

3.4.1.2. Nové pohledávky v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

Jestliže vznikly během doby vykazování dle IFRS nové dlouhodobé pohledávky – je nutné použít stejný postup jako v předchozím odstavci – změnit ocenění dlouhodobých pohledávek.
Krátkodobé pohledávky nepodléhají úpravě. V tvorbě opravných položek není mezi IFRS a CAS rozdíl.

3.5. Časové rozlišení[1]

Časové rozlišení nákladů a výnosů vychází z akruálního principu, jenž je zakotven v Koncepčním rámci.

[1] Pro účely tohoto článku se na časové rozlišení považují náklady příštích období, výnosy příštích období, příjmy příštích období, výdaje příštích období, dohadné účty aktivní a dohadné účty pasivní.

I když se zdá, že má IFRS standard na každou problematiku, standard věnující se přímo časovému rozlišení neexistuje. Použitelný standard je IAS 8 *Účetní pravidla, změny v účetních odhadech a chyby.* V IFRS se časové rozlišení dělí pouze podle toho, zda se jedná o časové rozlišení aktivní či pasivní a dle tohoto kritéria se rovněž vykazuje:

- Příjmy příštích období, náklady příštích a dohadné účty aktivní jsou součástí pohledávek
- Výdaje příštích období, výnosy příštích období a dohadné účty pasivní jsou součástí závazků.

Ani komplexní náklady příštích období nemají v IFRS svůj ekvivalent. V CASu se přes komplexní náklady nejčastěji účtují náklady spojené s výzkumem a vývojem. Problematika výzkumu a vývoje je popsána v části věnující se nehmotným aktivům. Komplexní náklady příštích období se v CASu dále používají k účtování o drobném majetku, který není vykazován v rozvaze. Náklady spojené s pořízení jsou po delší časové období rozpouštěny do výsledovky.

3.5.1.1. Časové rozlišení v účetnictví před přechodem na IFRS

Vzhledem k tomu, že IFRS nezná jednotlivé kategorie tak, jak jsou rozděleny v CASu, při vstupu na IFRS je časové rozlišení vykazováno jako pohledávky, či závazky. Pokud účetní jednotka vykazuje časové rozlišení, které trvá i po celé období vykazování dle IFRS a pokračuje i při přechodu na CAS, je nutné takové časové rozlišení zařadit zpět do správné kategorie dle CASu – tj. náklady příštích období, výnosy příštích období, příjmy příštích období, výdaje příštích období, dohadné účty aktivní a dohadné účty pasivní.

Lze se však domnívat, že tento krok nebude pro většinu ÚJ, které přechází zpět na CAS relevantní. Časové rozlišení se v jednom účetním období vykáže a v dalším účetním období již nikoliv, protože pomine důvod vykazování.

Co se týká komplexních nákladů příštích období, pokud jsou tvořeny výzkumem a vývojem, tak je nutné zvážit, jestli mohou být náklady spojené s vývojem klasifikovány jako nehmotné aktivum či nikoliv. Pokud nelze vývoj klasifikovat jako nehmotné aktivum, dojde k odúčtování komplexních nákladů příštích období, protože neexistuje důvod k vykazování.

3.5.1.2. Nová časové rozlišení v účetnictví po přechodu na IFRS

Pro nově vykazované časové rozlišení platí stejný postup, jako je uveden v předchozím odstavci – tj. časové rozlišení musí být rozděleno dle kategorií v CASu.

Komplexní náklady nejsou v IFRS vykazovány, proto je na volbě účetní jednotky, jestli je pro IFRS bude tvořit (znovu vykazovat) či nikoliv.

4 PŘECHODY Z IFRS NA CAS V ČR

V rámci emitentů cenných papírů, jak byli popsáni výše, přechod z IFRS na CAS byl identifikován u devíti společností:

1. Pražská plynárenská, a.s.;
2. Kongresové centrum Praha, a.s.;
3. Pivovary Lobkowicz Group, a.s.;
4. Lázně Teplice v Čechách a.s.;
5. Česká námořní plavba a.s.;
6. VET Assets a.s.;
7. SLEZAN Frýdek-Místek a.s.;
8. OCEL HOLDING SE "v likvidaci"; a
9. SETUZA a.s.

Důvodem přechodu těchto společností bylo zejména stažení cenných papírů z trhu a nedošlo k další emisi. Desátý případ byl detekován u společnosti Česká telekomunikační

infrastruktura a.s. Česká telekomunikační infrastruktura a.s. se odštěpila od společnosti O2 Czech Republic, a.s.
Seznam těchto společností není vyčerpávající, neboť je velmi obtížné objevit společnosti, u kterých byl tento přechod realizován. Důvodem je neexistence veřejných rejstříků, kde by byly tyto informace explicitně uváděny.

5 ZÁVĚR

Práce si nedala za cíl komplexně zmapovat všechny možné situace, které mohou nastat při přechodu z IFRS na CAS. Z tohoto důvodu byly výše popsány pouze vybrané oblasti a situace. Z důvodu obsáhlosti jednotlivých standardů a možných kombinací nelze v jednom příspěvku či monografii v žádném případě všechny možné situace popsat.
Vždy je nutné, aby účetní jednotka pracovala s vhodnou hladinou významnosti a posuzovala všechny významné případy individuálně. Z důvodu absence legislativy a nebo doporučení z řad odborné veřejnosti, neexistuje a nebude existovat pouze jeden přístup, jak přistoupit k přechodu zpět na CAS. Účetní jednotka musí v takových případech využívat zejména odborný úsudek.

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IDENTIFIKACE VLIVU UDĚLOVÁNÍ DOTACÍ NA ROZVOJ INTERNACIONALIZACE REGIONŮ: PŘÍPAD EUROREGIONU NISA

IDENTIFICATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE GRANTING OF THE GRANTS ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INTERNACIONALIZATION OF THE REGIONS: CASE OF THE EUROREGION NISA

Karolina Pavlů

Abstrakt

Článek se zabývá zhodnocením vlivu dotací na rozvoj cestovního ruchu v českém a polském příhraničním regionu Euroregionu Nisa. Pomocí dat získaných z ČSÚ, údajů z Euroregionu Nisa a výročních zpráv OPPS Česká republika – Polská republika 2007 – 2013 zkoumá vliv objemu dotací na rozvoj infrastruktury cestovního ruchu. Konkrétně ovlivnění počtu hromadných ubytovacích zařízení a lůžek, vliv na nárůst počtu domácích a zahraničních turistů ve vybraném regionu a vliv dotací na internacionalizaci euroregionu. Provedený výzkum poukázal na nevyvážený vývoj struktury turistů sledovaných oblastí, pozitivní dopad na budování ubytovací infrastruktury, nevyvážené čerpání dotací a klesající tendenci internacionalizace české části regionu.

Klíčová slova: *euroregion, cestovní ruch, dotace, příhraniční regiony, spolupráce*

Abstract

The article deals with the assessment of the impact of subsidies on tourism development in the Czech and Polish border region of the Euroregion Nisa. Using the data obtained from the CZSO, the data from the Euroregion Nisa and operational program for cross-border cooperation annual reports, the Czech Republic - Poland 2007 - 2013 examines the impact of the volume of subsidies on the development of tourism infrastructure. In particular, the number of accommodation establishments and beds, impact on the increase in the number of domestic and foreign tourists in the selected region and the impact of subsidies on the internationalization of the Euroregion. The research revealed an imbalanced development of the structure of tourists in the monitored areas, a positive impact on accommodation infrastructure, an unbalanced use of subsidies, and a decreasing tendency to internationalize the Czech part of the region.

Key words: *euroregion, tourism, crossborder regions, cooperation*

1. ÚVOD

Cestovní ruch se v posledních letech stává velmi dynamickým odvětvím, které si zaslouží pozornost. Celosvětově se stává speciálním odvětvím ekonomie pro jeho nezpochybnitelný vliv na ekonomický růst.(Tomic et al, 2012) Z pohledu globální konkurenceschopnosti, kdy je nabízeno nepřeberné množství produktů a destinací, musí každá destinace, kromě přírodních předpokladů, nabízet stále více kombinace kvalitnějších služeb, aby získala konkurenční výhodu.(Papp, 2011) Jedním z klíčových faktorů zvyšování úrovně služeb je spolupráce jednotlivých subjektů působících v destinaci. Spolupráce je v dnešní době významný prvek fungování veřejné správy a nezbytný prvek rozvoje regionů, kdy důvody pro spolupráci nejrůznějších subjektů mají základ v existenci „synergického efektu“, tedy faktu, že společně

lze dosáhnout významnějšího výstupu, než kdyby každý subjekt usiloval o dosažení cíle sám. Spolupráci lze obecně považovat za součinnost určitého množství subjektů při dosahování určitého společného cíle. Hrabinová (2011) uvádí, že široká spolupráce různorodých aktérů je v dnešní době považována za velmi významný pozitivní faktor v přístupech k územnímu rozvoji. Můžeme rozlišit spolupráci jak ve vertikální dimenzi geografických úrovní, tak v horizontální dimenzi aktérů. Spolupráce aktérů v území je reflektována v různých tématech ekonomického, sociálního a kulturního rozvoje území, spolupráce a síťování usnadňuje přístup na trh, ke zdrojům i znalostem pro zachování konkurenceschopnosti ekonomických subjektů. V souladu se Strategickými obecnými zásadami Společenství by měla Evropská územní spolupráce stimulovat vyvážený, harmonický a udržitelný rozvoj evropského území, a to ve čtyřech dimenzích: ekonomické, sociální, kulturní a environmentální. Měla by podporovat spolupráci mezi územními prvky a přispívat k hospodářské a sociální integraci příhraničních oblastí potýkajících se s problémy, které mohou být vyřešeny spoluprací se sousedními přeshraničními regiony, podporovat hospodářský růst a vytváření pracovních míst, posílit konkurenceschopnost příhraničních regionů a posílit přeshraniční identitu v rámci evropského občanství. Provádění operačních programů a schvalování projektů je přímo podmíněno jejich souladem se zásadami trvale udržitelného rozvoje.(ec.europa.eu, Stejskal 2009)

V případě příhraničních regionů je jedním ze způsobů podpory podniků v daných regionech podporování přeshraniční spolupráce těchto podniků. V případě, že se podaří zvýšit přeshraniční spolupráci, zvýší se také konkurenceschopnost těchto podniků vůči ostatním podnikům z jiných regionů. Následně se zvýší ekonomická aktivita v daných regionech, což způsobí zvýšení konkurenceschopnosti regionů vůči ostatním regionům a snížení negativních regionálních disparit vůči ostatním regionům.(Branda, 2013)

Dalším z přístupů podpory těchto regionů jsou dotace. Evropské společenství, respektive Evropská unie, vynakládá na tuto oblast nemalé finanční prostředky např. z programu INTERREG, který zahájil svou činnost v roce 1989 pod názvem INTERREG I, v letech 1994-1999 fungoval pod názvem INTERREG II, následně v letech 2000-2006 jako INTERREG III a v období 2007-2013 jako INTERREG IV. Pro stávající programovací období 2014-2020 podporuje přeshraniční spolupráci nový program INTERREG V. (strukturální-fondy.cz) Česká republika po svém vstupu do Evropské unie mohla začít čerpat finance na své regionální kooperační projekty právě i z těchto programů. Po roce 2004 byl zaznamenán výrazný nárůst počtu uzavřených partnerských dohod o spolupráci se zahraničními regiony. Příhraniční kraje mají výhodu, že přímo sousedí s některými regiony v Rakousku, Německu a Polsku a mohou tak čerpat dotace z programů INTERREG. Tyto regiony mohou využívat mnohé další možnosti finanční podpory přeshraniční spolupráce, např. v rámci Programu spolupráce Rakousko – Česká republika 2014-2020, Programu přeshraniční spolupráce Česká republika-Svobodný stát Bavorsko Cíl EÚS 2014-2020, Programu spolupráce Svobodný stát Sasko – Česká republika 2014-2020, Programu nadnárodní spolupráce INTERREG CENTRAL EUROPE, Programu nadnárodní spolupráce DANUBE, Programu meziregionální spolupráce INTERREG EUROPE, Programu meziregionální spolupráce ESPON 2020 či Programu meziregionální spolupráce INTERACT III.(Branda 2013)

Projekty INTERREG měly významný dopad na skutečnost, že evropské vnitřní hraniční regiony se postupně transformují jako mezinárodní destinace cestovního ruchu jak fyzicky, tak i symbolicky a některé se proměnily v areály rozvoje spolupráce v cestovním ruchu a místo určení. (Prokkola 2007).

Obecným cílem Operačních programů přeshraniční spolupráce je podpora hospodářské a sociální integrace příhraničních území prostřednictvím odstraňování přetrvávajících bariér a posilování jejich rozvojového potenciálu. Pomocí těchto operačních programů jsou vzájemně

posilovány hospodářské, společenské a kulturní vztahy, společná péče o přírodní bohatství, budování flexibilního trhu práce a v neposlední řadě rozvoj cestovního ruchu.(cz-pl.eu)

1.1 Přeshraniční cestovní ruch

Příhraniční regiony jsou oblasti speciálního zájmu jakéhokoliv státu. V těchto oblastech jsou socioekonomické procesy ovlivněny dodatečnými faktory jako je národní hranice, socioekonomické a etnokulturní vlivy sousedních států, atd. Příhraniční regiony mají značný potenciál pro rozvoj v mnoha oblastech. To platí zejména pro turismus jako rapidně se rozvíjející průmyslové odvětví (Anderson 2001). Význam státních hranic pro rozvoj cestovního ruchu a další návazné aktivity nabývají v posledních letech na důležitosti.(Prokkola 2007).

Vztah mezi národními hranicemi a rozvojem cestovního ruchu je složitý, jelikož hranice ovlivňují cestovní ruch mnoha způsoby. Hraniční instituce jsou budovány a udržovány státní správou za účelem kontroly a regulace pohybu a dopravy mezi státy. Fyzická hranice může být překážkou turistických toků nebo může být překročena téměř bez povšimnutí. Hraniční propustnost a bariérové efekty způsobené hranicemi, jako jsou předpisy pro pohyb osob a zboží, přímo ovlivňují toky cestovního ruchu a rozvoj a distribuci turistických infrastruktur v pohraničí. Prostorová propustnost, politické situace a sociokulturní soudržnost také ovlivňují potenciální vznik přeshraničního partnerství a rozvoje (Timothy 2001). Toto partnerství a spolupráce mezi sousedními příhraničními regiony v různých hospodářských a sociokulturních oborech naznačují, že mnoho dříve odcizených nebo spojených příhraničních regionů se stává více vzájemně závislé nebo dokonce integrované.

Přeshraniční cestovní ruch může být chápán jako indikátor společného ekonomického prostoru.(Cimler et al., 2014) S odkazem na přeshraniční spolupráci je cestovní ruch v příhraničí klasifikován dle několika kritérií. Tento typ turismu je hlavně založen na sociálně-psychologických aspektech s převládajícím motivem účasti například v rekreačním turismu, kulturně-vzdělávací cesty atd. Cestovní ruch v příhraničí je rozdělen i podle věku účastníků – dětí, mládeže, ekonomicky aktivní a senioři. Dle místa pobytu můžeme cestoví ruch rozdělit na takzvané “citybreaky“, pobyty na venkově nebo lázeňské pobyty. Dle délky pobytu jej dělíme na krátkodobý a dlouhodobý. Další členění příhraničního cestovního ruchu může být i podle jeho organizace a to na organizovaný a neorganizovaný. Dále můžeme rozdělit cestovní ruch podle místa na domácí, zahraničí, mezinárodní a cestovní ruch realizovaný v příhraniční nebo v Euroregionu. (Syrovátková, 2012)

Příhraniční oblasti jsou ovlivněny příhraničními návštěvami, kdy se jedná převážně o krátkodobé pobyty. Mezi hlavní motivy patří nakupování, návštěva přírodních a kulturních památek, návštěvy příbuzných a známých.(Dědková, Ungerman, 2017)

Počátek přeshraniční spolupráce na území Evropy spadá již do období po druhé světové válce, kdy přeshraniční obce začaly navazovat kontakty a začaly se spojovat do svazků k rozvojové spolupráci a uzavíraly vzájemné dohody, zejména k uplatňování společného zájmu v hospodářské oblasti a vedoucí k překonávání negativních efektů hranice. Tyto přeshraniční spolupráce nejprve vznikaly na hranicích Německa s Nizozemskem. V roce 1958 bylo kolem Gronau na německo-nizozemské hranici založeno EUREGIO – první vyspělá institucionální forma přeshraniční spolupráce (Branda, 2009). Od něj je i odvozen obecnější název podobných struktur – euroregiony. Největší rozvoj přeshraniční spolupráce zaznamenala od začátku devadesátých let minulého století. V tomto období se začala přeshraniční spolupráce rozvíjet i v České republice. V současné době na našem území existuje 13 euroregionů.

1.2 Euroregion Nisa

Území Euroregionu Neisse-Nisa-Nysa (ERN) je tvořeno z částí území 3 států: Spolkové republiky Německo, České republiky a Polské republiky. Před rokem 1989 byly kontakty

napříč hranicí velmi slabé a překračování samotné hranice bylo obtížné. Díky politickým změnám, které po roce 1989 následovaly, zde ale mohla vyplout na povrch vůle těchto států ke společné spolupráci a dveře k přeshraničním kontaktům se začaly pomalu otevírat. V roce 1991 proběhla v Žitavě konference, jejímž výstupem bylo memorandum, nastiňující budoucí vývoj spolupráce. Ještě téhož roku byl navržen model institucionální struktury, který byl pro vznik ERN také velmi podstatným krokem. Zakládající zasedání proběhlo opět v Žitavě k datu 21. 12. 1991 a toto datum je považováno za jeho vznik. Až do roku 2004 bylo hlavní sídlo ERN v Žitavě, v roce 2004 se však přestěhovalo do města Liberec (Euroregion Nisa ed. 2015).

ERN je iniciátorem kooperace mezi jednotlivými regiony v příhraničí. Je založen na dobrovolném partnerství měst a obcí. V české části zahrnuje tři regiony. Nejvíce zainteresovaných měst a obcí je v libereckém regionu. Konkrétně je zde 32 obcí z oblasti kolem České Lípy, 26 obcí se nachází kolem Jablonce nad Nisou, 52 z okolí Liberce a 16 z okolí Semil. ERN nabízí a iniciuje velké množství aktivit jak v horském tak venkovském cestovním ruchu. Jako jeden z prvních euroregionů podporuje rozvoj takzvaného udržitelného turismu. (Euroregion Neisse-Nisa-Nysa ed. 2014)

2. METODOLOGIE

Česko-polské příhraničí, které je objektem zájmu tohoto příspěvku je součástí ERN. Do České části Euroregionu patří turistické regiony Český ráj, Českolipsko, Krkonoše a Jizerské hory. V polské části je euroregion tvořen 51 komunitami Dolnoslezského vejvodství. Tato oblast spadá do oblasti financované Operačním programem přeshraniční spolupráce Česká republika – Polská republika 2007 – 2013 (OPPS ČRPR 2007–2013), který navazuje na Program Iniciativy Společenství INTERREG IIIA realizovaný v polsko-českém pohraničí v období 2004 – 2006. Na období mezi lety 2007 – 2013 je v programu OPPS ČR - PR 2007 – 2013 k dispozici 219 459 344 EUR z prostředků ERDF. Prostřednictvím tohoto rozpočtu budou podpořeny společné přeshraniční projekty v česko-polském pohraničí. Každý projekt předložený v rámci OPPS se musí vztahovat pouze k jedné oblasti podpory a tedy i k jedné prioritní ose. Projekt se předkládá v rámci oblasti podpory, která odpovídá charakteru projektu. Projekt musí naplňovat některý z cílů dané oblasti podpory, v níž je předkládán. Rozvoj cestovního ruchu spadá do II. prioritní osy, která se zaměřuje na podporu rozvoje podnikatelského prostředí a cestovního ruchu. Na tuto oblast bylo celkově vyčleněno 79 005 364 EUR. Zájemci mohli čerpat dotace ve třech oblastech podpory:

1. Rozvoj podnikatelského prostředí – 10 972 968 EUR
2. Podpora rozvoje cestovního ruchu – 59 254 023 EUR
3. Podpora spolupráce v oblasti vzdělávání – 8 778 373 EUR

Realizace Prioritní osy II. přímo přispěla k plnění strategického cíle Konkurenceschopná česká ekonomika, který byl v rámci projektu vymezen. V rámci čerpání z této prioritní osy byl tradičně největší zájem o absorpční kapacitu v oblasti podpory 2.2. - Podpora rozvoje cestovního ruchu. Realizovány ale byly i projekty vytvářející příznivé podnikatelské prostředí a možnosti spolupráce a zaměstnanosti především pro MSP. Část aktivit a projektů v rámci Prioritní osy II. pak přispívala i k plnění cíle Otevřená, flexibilní a soudržná společnost – zejména projekty v oblasti 2.3. - Spolupráce v oblasti vzdělávání. Značný podíl celkového rozpočtu programu směřoval také do rozvoje kulturního a přírodního dědictví regionu a jeho využití v rámci odvětví cestovního ruchu včetně podpory turistické infrastruktury. Díky těmto projektům se odhaduje zvýšení počtu návštěvníků atraktivit cestovního ruchu ve společném příhraničí na více než čtvrt milionu ročně. To přinese následně zvýšení zaměstnanosti v regionu. Počet pracovních míst přímo vytvořených v rámci projektů cestovního ruchu činí až cca 40. Další pracovní místa vzniknou nepřímo, v návaznosti na realizované aktivity, a to buď

přímo v cestovním ruchu nebo v odvětví na něj navazující či mající prospěch ze zvýšeného počtu návštěvníků příhraničí.(cz-pl.eu)
Předpokládanými výsledky provedeného výzkumu bylo pozitivní ovlivnění třech vybraných ukazatelů rozvoje regionu – počet turistů v regionu, počet ubytovacích kapacit a lůžek a index internacionalizace. S ohledem na cíle OPPS Česká republika – Polsko se očekává zvýšení počtu návštěvníků atraktivit cestovního ruchu ve společném příhraničí a následně zvýšení zaměstnanosti v regionu. Počet pracovních míst přímo vytvořených v rámci projektů cestovního ruchu činí až cca 40. Další pracovní místa vzniknou nepřímo, v návaznosti na realizované aktivity, a to buď přímo v cestovním ruchu nebo v odvětví na něj navazující či mající prospěch ze zvýšeného počtu návštěvníků příhraničí. (cz-pl.eu)
K účelům výzkumu byla použita dostupná data z Českého statistického úřadu a výroční zprávy programu přeshraniční spolupráce Česká republika – Polská republika 2007 – 2013. Další metodou byla korelační analýza a výpočet internacionalizace regionu.

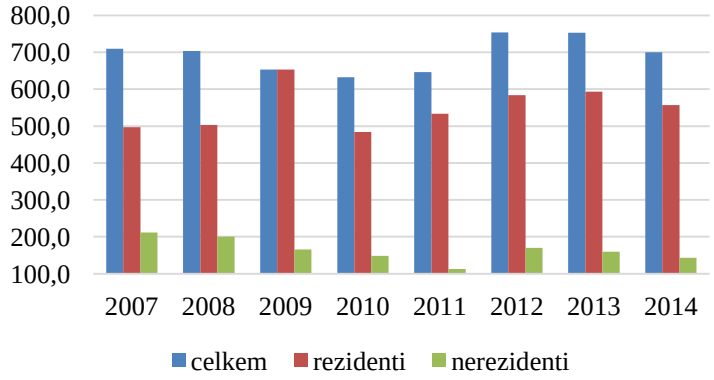
Tabulka 1: Čerpání dotací z programu přeshraniční spolupráce Česká republika – Polská republika 2007 – 2013 v EUR

Rok	Celkem	II. Prioritní osa - cestovní ruch
2007	4 389 186,8	0
2008	108 939 365	39 502 680,0
2009	155 119 514	2 322 759,0
2010	199 002 701	18 757 479,7
2011	207 818 193	32 878 214,2
2012	212 863 530	51 285 722,0
2013	237 182 064	59 779 622,5
2014	250 783 594	65 303 815,5

Zdroj: vlastní zpracování na základě výročních zpráv programu

Tabulka 1. ukazuje výše čerpaných dotací za jednotlivé roky programu. V prvním roce nebyly na 2. prioritní osu čerpány žádné finanční prostředky z důvodu zadávání žádostí o dotace. Nejvíce finančních prostředků bylo na 2. prioritní osu čerpáno v roce 2014, kdy byla v prvním čtvrtletí provedena prioritní kontrola ukončování projektů a z toho vyplývající plnění indikátorů a dosahování úspor při ukončování projektů. Výsledkem této činnosti bylo získání vstupních informací o podmínkách posledního příjmu žádostí. Po dokončení konzultací bylo do 31. 1. 2014 podáno 8 žádostí týkajících se posilování dostupnosti a 11 žádostí týkající se podpory rozvoje cestovního ruchu.(cz-pl.eu)
V návaznosti na čerpání dotací byl zjišťován pomocí korelační metody vliv dotací na nárůst turistů v Euroregionu Nisa jak ze zahraničí, tak i domácích (rezidentů) Jak je zjevné v Grafu 1 uvedeném níže, je ve zkoumaném období patný nárůst převážně domácích turistů. V roce 2010 byl zaznamenán propad celkové návštěvnosti, která mohla být způsobena předcházející ekonomickou krizí. Z pohledu vlivu dotací na nárůst turistů měly dotace vliv převážně na rezidentní (domácí) turisty – v korelaci objemu dotací a rezidentních turistů vyšla hodnota 0,877. U zahraničních turistů tento jev zaznamenán nebyl (hodnota – 0,529). Z tohoto výsledku je možné usuzovat, že došlo díky dotacím ke zlepšení infrastruktury a propagace této oblasti.

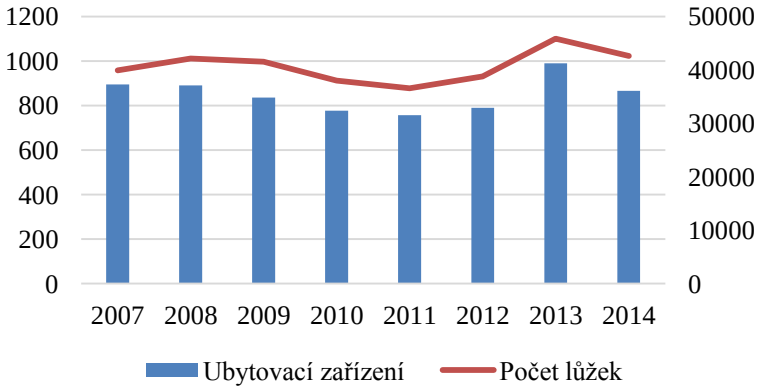
Graf 1: Počet turistů v letech 2007-2014 (v tis.)



Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě dat z ČSÚ

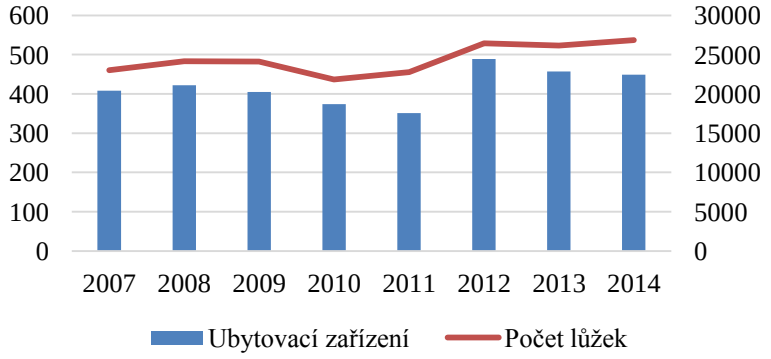
Druhým ukazatelem v rámci výzkumu dopadu dotací na rozvoj Euroregionu Nisa byl zkoumán vliv dotací na nárůst ubytovacích kapacit jak na české, tak i polské straně ERN. Na základě dostupných dat z Českého statistického úřadu bylo v roce 2007 na českém území 895 hromadných ubytovacích kapacit. V následujícím roce byl zaznamenán pokles na 890, ovšem co do počtu lůžek byl naopak mezi roky 2007 a 2008 zaznamenán nárůst z původních 39927 na 42155. Tento nárůst můžeme přisuzovat možnému čerpání dotací na rekonstrukci a rozšíření stávajících ubytovacích kapacit. V následujících letech 2009-2011 byl v celkovém počtu ubytovacích kapacit patrný velký pokles z 835 na 756. Po těchto letech opět následuje nárůst. Pokud porovnáme s údaji o čerpání dotací, tak v roce 2012 byl nárůst výše čerpaných dotací, takže můžeme usuzovat, že na nárůst ubytovacích kapacit měly tyto dotační prostředky pozitivní vliv. V ukazateli počtu lůžek dochází rovněž k obdobnému jevu. Nicméně při korelaci není vyšlý ukazatel tak signifikantní jako je tomu v případě vlivu dotací na ubytovací kapacity na polské straně, který je znázorněn v Grafu 3. Na polském území ERN je sice patrný stejný pokles jak na straně ubytovacích kapacit, tak i lůžek ve stejném období jako v české části, ale tyto poklesy nejsou tak výrazné. V roce 2007 bylo na polském území ERN 408 ubytovacích zařízení s 23037 lůžky. Do roku 2011 jejich počet klesl na 351 ubytovacích zařízení s 22761 lůžky. Po tomto roce přichází nárůst jak na straně ubytovacích zařízení, tak i na straně počtu lůžek. Po korelaci mezi objemem dotací a ukazatelem počtu lůžek vyšla hodnota 0,770708, zatímco u stejně provedené korelační analýzy s hodnotami za české území vyšla hodnota nižší 0,410764. Dalo by se tedy říci, že polská strana využívala dotační možnosti lépe.

Graf 2: Ubytovací kapacity- česká část Euroregionu Nisa



Zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě dat z ČSÚ

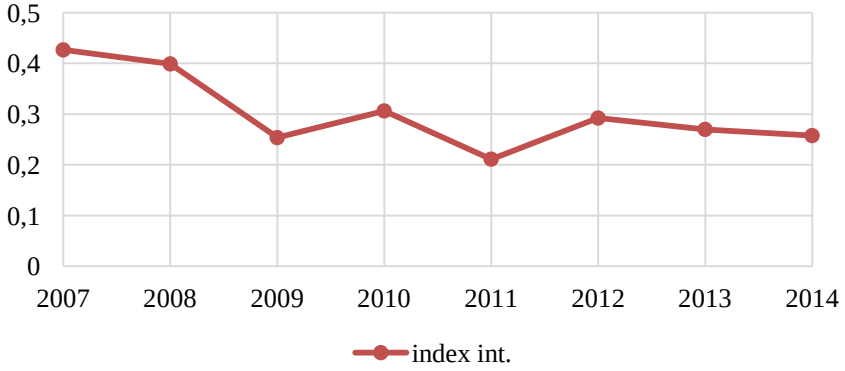
Graf 3: Ubytovací kapacity polská část Euroregionu Nisa



zdroj: Vlastní zpracování na základě dat z ČSÚ

Předposledním ukazatelem, který byl pro účely tohoto článku předmětem výzkumu, byl index internacionalizace regionu. Měření internacionalizace nabývá v posledních letech na důležitosti vzhledem k diskutovanému tématu globalizace. K měření internacionalizace je využíváno několik metod a přístupů dle rozličných indikátorů.(Sullivan 1996, Dororrenbacher 2000) Ve většině případů se měření internacionalizace aplikuje na výrobní podniky, v tomto případě byl princip měření zaměřen na ERN. Do poměru byly dány ukazatele počtu domácích a zahraničních turistů. Jak je zřetelné z grafu 4 níže, internacionalizace české části ERN v letech 2007 - 2014 vykazuje oproti předpokladu spíše klesající charakter.

Graf 4: Index internacionalizace české části Euroregionu Nisa



3. ZÁVĚR

Při výzkumu bylo zjištěno, že dotace čerpané ve vybraném operačním programu více ovlivnily počet domácích turistů na území České republiky. Při zpracování dat se ne zcela potvrdila domněnka cíle programu, že dotace budou mít vliv na nárůst turistů. Toto se potvrdilo pouze na území České republiky pro domácí turisty. Na celkový počet turistů dotace příliš vliv neměly. Počet turistů byl v letech 2009-2011 negativně ovlivněn dopady předcházející ekonomické krize. Naopak bylo zjištěno, že možnost čerpání dotací pozitivně ovlivnila počet ubytovacích kapacit a počet lůžek převážně na polské straně Euroregionu Nisa. Zajímavým faktem je zjištění, že nejvíce vyplacených a čerpaných dotací bylo v posledním roce programu – 2013 a rok po ukončení v takzvané dokončovací fázi v roce 2014. Druhým zkoumaným faktorem byly počty ubytovacích kapacit a počet lůžek. Zde se ukázalo, že dotace byly v tomto směru lépe využity polskou stranou, kde docházelo k většímu nárůstu těchto dvou ukazatelů. Nejvíce překvapující byl výsledek výpočtu internacionalizace vybraného regionu, kdy i přes nárůst čerpaných dotací měl ukazatel spíše klesající charakter.

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THE ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF THE AIRLINE AIR EXPLORE

Edina Jenčová, Juraj Vagner, Miroslav Ličko

Abstract

The financial and economic activities of the company are exposed to adverse external and internal factors. Signs of adverse influences are the mostly decrease of liquidity, loss of profitability, financial instability, increase of costs, to name a few. This paper demonstrates the financial analysis and diagnosis of the financial condition of the selected airline company Air Explore.

Keywords: *economic analysis, financial analysis, ratios, airline, air transport*

1 INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the economic analysis dates back to the period of the Great Economic Crisis that took place in the United States of America and gradually spread to the whole world, from 1929 until the first half of the 1930s. During this period, business owners and senior management have become aware of the importance of knowing the business's economic situation, of the environment in which they have their business and other aspects to prevent future financial losses and to discover the right direction to generate profit.

The company's economic analysis has continued to improve, and new opportunities are gained to evaluate and predict the company's future performance and, as a whole, increases the company's market success potential if they are aware of their weaknesses and are willing to remove them in all of the kinds of companies as well as in the airline companies.

The purpose of our work is to collect the theoretical knowledge about the solved issue of the company's financial analysis and to analyze selected economic and financial indicators of Air Explore.

2 FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

An *economic analysis* can be defined as the monitoring of a specific economic unit - an enterprise, its selected business activities and processes that are divided into smaller elements. These elements are scrutinized and evaluated to improve them. Following the implementation of the improvement processes, these elements are then reinserted into an economic unit that increases financial performance. The results of the improvement process of economic analysis and business stability assessment are important knowledge for interest groups, stakeholders. They are divided into internal and external. [1]

Economic analysis is usually divided into two mutually interconnected parts:

1. Qualitative analysis, also referred to as fundamental or strategic. It is aimed at assessing the external and internal economic environment of an enterprise in the lifetime of the business, and taking into account the underlying objective of the business. It processes data of a qualitative nature.
2. Quantitative analysis, also referred to as financial or technical. It uses algorithmized methods (mathematical, mathematical-statistical, economic and others) to quantitatively process basic economic indicators. Indicators are specific data (variables, indicators) that are statistically measurable in time and space. When calculating the values of the indicators, account is taken not only of the result (the difference of the values of the compared indicators), but also of the definition of causal factors and the intensity of their effect on the resulting phenomenon.[2]

Financial analysis belongs to financial management and is a method of evaluating the financial management of an enterprise. Financial analysis includes mathematical methods, statistical methods, graphical methods, complex systems algorithms that have the purpose of optimizing and increasing performance. [3]

The objective of quantitative analysis is to evaluate the financial health of the enterprise. The results of the financial analysis are important knowledge for the users of financial analysis, ie for the stakeholders. [4]

Sources of information for analyzing the financial state of the enterprise are all data, documents, records, reports and knowledge that contain information that clarifies and broadens the outcome of the financial analysis. These data may include the following information:

1. Financial information - includes financial statement statements (financial statements, balance sheet, profit and loss account, cash flow statement), attachments, annual reports, in-house accounting, statistical information on finance,
2. Non-financial information - contains information from various areas (economic area, political-legal area, science and technology area). Furthermore, there is information about statistics, business data (production, demand), forecasts, business records, and managerial positions. [5]

3 METHODOLOGY

Ratio indicators help analyze the relationship between two or more items from the accounting items by their share. Analyzing ratios is ranked among the most popular and most widely used method since it allows to obtain a quick and inexpensive picture of the development of the entity's basic financial characteristics. [6]

Given that the main objective of the work is to perform a financial-economic analysis, the methods we have chosen are described in the part of the method of financial analysis of the company. We have selected:

- analysis of cost, revenue, cash flow,
- analysis of profitability indicators,
- analysis of activity indicators,
- analysis of debt ratios,
- analysis of liquidity indicators,
- scoring and bankruptcy model.

4 AIR EXPLORE FINANCIAL ANALYSIS RESULTS

Company costs increase over the period under review (Figure 1). Based on the company's development, we can say that this is due to the fact that the company is expanding. The biggest increase was the cost of production between 2014 and 2015, which only confirms the development of the company currently in the phase of trying to expand its operations. The positive thing is that the cost of production is rising, which says that the company is likely to grow. However, it is necessary for the company to guard the costs not to increase without increasing the volume of production, the optimum being if the volume of production grows faster than the cost of production.

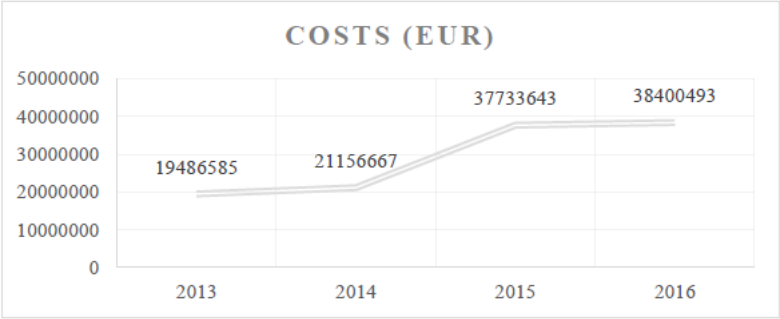

Figure 1: Costs of Air Explore
(Source: Annual Report of Air Explore [online] Available on: https://www.finstat.sk/44168802/report)

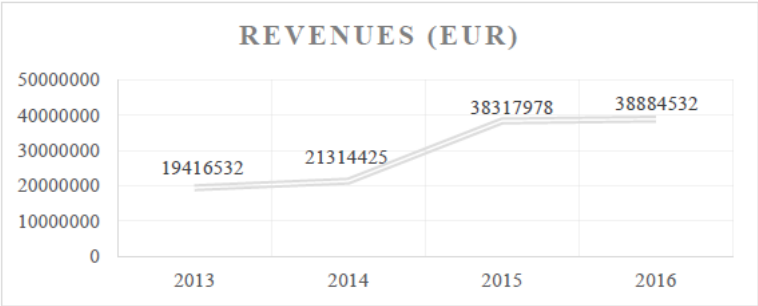

Figure 2: Revenues of Air Explore
(Source: Annual Report of Air Explore [online] Available on: https://www.finstat.sk/44168802/report)

Despite the fact that revenues grow in such a dynamic way (Figure 2), profit (Figure 3) in 2016 compared to 2015 decreased by 53.7% from € 677,056 in 2015 to € 313,523 in 2016, even though the above-mentioned sales grew by 7.97%.

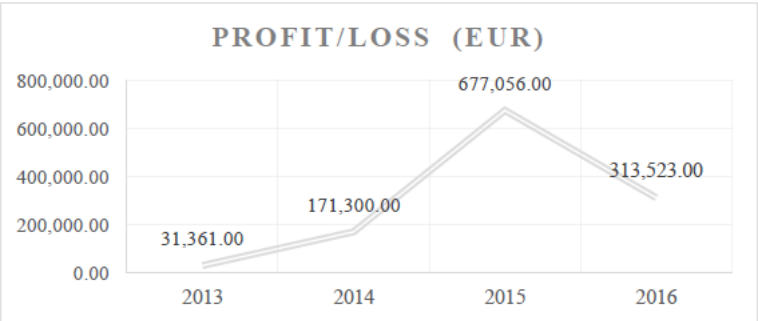

Figure 3: Profit/Loss of Air Explore
(Source: Annual Report of Air Explore [online] Available on: https://www.finstat.sk/44168802/report)

Net cash flow reflects the growth or decline of cash in absolute figure. The cash flow (Figure 4) situation is not as positive as other indicators. It seems that despite the yields, the company has not had enough cash flow lately and got into negative numbers, which is alarming. On this basis, it should take measures to see in particular an increase in net cash flow.

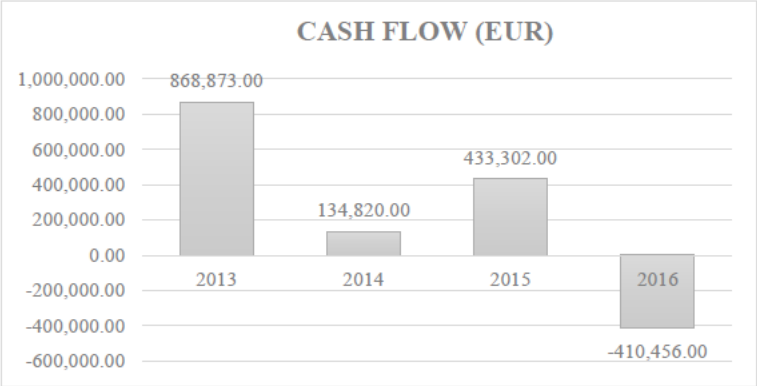

Figure 4: Cash Flow of Air Explore
(Source: Annual Report of Air Explore [online] Available on: https://www.finstat.sk/44168802/report)

The indicator of current liquidity indicates the future solvency of the company and its sufficient value should exceed 1.5. The value of quick ratio should not fall below the value of 1. The company does not reach these values in either of the monitored periods. The optimal value of the immediate liquidity indicator should be in the range of 0.2-0.6. It is the only indicator which company achieves optimum values.

The profitability outcome has no prescribed values to be near or exceeded. It is essential for a company to have positive values above zero. The profitability of the company is positive for all the monitored periods.

Through activity indicators, we evaluate as an efficient company that evaluates assets in the company's production process. Total assets turnover should not be more than 60 days. In 2016, for the first time, the company managed to get to less than 60 days, which is positive. Asset turnover indicates the number of asset swaps for a given time interval, typically a year. The value of asset turnover should be at least at 1. Company has a long-term asset turnover of more than 1.

The total debt of the company is higher, which needs to be worked on. Self-financing is the opposite of total indebtedness. Their sum should be 100%. Based on the fact that we know that debt is high, we also know that the degree of self-financing is extremely low and needs to be stepped up to increase it. The company's problem is short-term indebtedness.

Ex ante analysis is the future-oriented analysis. We used Altman Z-Score and Index 95. The Z-score formula for predicting bankruptcy was published in 1968 by Edward I. Altman, who was, at the time, an Assistant Professor of Finance at New York University. The formula may be used to predict the probability that a firm will go into bankruptcy within two years. If the score reaches 2.9, we can say that the company is prosperous as AirExplore.

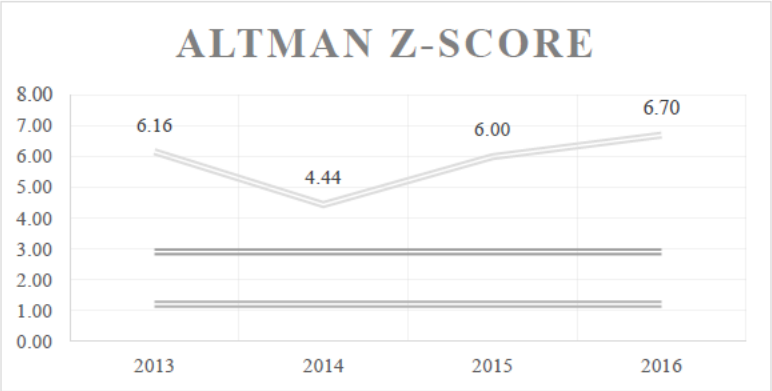

Figure 5: Altman Z-Score of Air Explore

Based on the development of the index of Figure 5 at Air Explore we can talk about prosperity and financial stability.

INDEX 05 is the Czech model used to assess the financial health of the company. Compared to the Altman Z-Score, it is a relatively new model, created in 2005, which evaluates the likelihood of bankruptcy of the company as well as its prosperity.

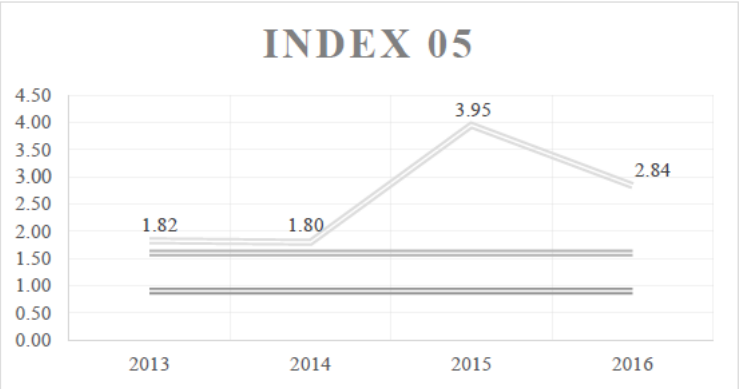

Figure 6: Index 05 of Air Explore

The company does not threaten to bankrupt its prospects for the future have a positive tendency. Based on the development of the index of Figure 6 at Air Explore we can talk about prosperity and financial stability.

5 CONCLUSION

Company costs increased over the period under review. Revenues also increased, mainly due to the growing sales of the company, which grew on a regular basis over the period under review. From the point of view of the cash flow, it seems that in spite of the revenues, the company has not had enough cash flows lately and got into negative numbers, which is alarming. In terms of financial analysis of the company's liquidity, the only satisfactory result was value of immediate liquidity. The profitability of the company was positive in all the monitored periods. Indicators of activity say that company is on the limit of values. Company indebtedness is higher than recommended. In terms of ex ante models, the company has positive prospects. We identified two fundamental shortcomings in the financial and economic analysis of the company: high indebtedness and low self-financing and low net cash flow. Increase in net cash flow can be achieved through the movement of assets and liabilities.

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VEŘEJNÁ SPRÁVA A MAKROPROCESY

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, MACROPROCESSES

QUAERE

LEGISLATÍVNE ZMENY V KONTEXTE PRIAMEJ A NEPRIAMEJ FORMY VÝKONU MIESTNEJ SAMOSPRÁVY

LEGISLATIVE CHANGES IN THE CONTEXT OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT FORM OF LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE

Simona Kováčová, Natália Kováčová

Abstrakt

Dňa 1. februára 2018 Národná rada Slovenskej republiky schválila svojím významom a niektorými zmenami pomerne zásadnú novelu základného predpisu samosprávy - zákona č. 369/1990 Z. z. o obecnom zriadení s účinnosťou od 1. apríla 2018, ktorej primárnym účelom bolo flexibilne reagovať na viaceré podnety a poznatky vyplývajúce z aplikačnej praxe. Vychádzajúc z uvedeného je primárnym cieľom príspevku vyzdvihnúť najdôležitejšie zmeny, v kontexte nepriamej a priamej formy výkonu samosprávy rezultujúce z novely zákona, s akcentom na explikáciu a zhodnotenie úpravy pre funkčnosť a efektivitu miestnej samosprávy a komunálnej politiky.

Kľúčové slová: *miestne referendum, starosta, obecné zastupiteľstvo, novela zákona o obecnom zriadení*

Abstract

On February 1st, 2018, the National Council of the Slovak Republic approved with its significance and with some changes a fundamental amendment to the basic regulation of self-government - Act no. 369/1990 Coll., Municipalities Act with an effect from April 1st, 2018. The primary purpose of this amendment has been to respond flexibly to the lots of incentives and knowledge from application practice. Based on the above, the primary objective of this article is to highlight the most important changes in the context of the indirect and direct form of self-government performance, resulting from the amendment to the law, with the emphasis on explanation and evaluation of new legislation for the functionality and efficiency of local self-government and municipal policy.

Key words: *Local Referendum, Mayor, Municipal Assembly, Amendment to Act No. 369/1990 Coll., Municipalities Act*

ÚVOD

Samospráva plní okrem iných aj tzv. koordinačnú úlohu, pretože v rámci svojho územia koordinuje a riadi činnosť v kooperácii s ďalšími subjektmi, napr., s orgánmi miestnej štátnej správy, ktorých spolupráca sa vyžaduje pri zabezpečení verejných služieb, alebo s podnikateľskými subjektmi, ktoré anticipujú *„rast a prosperitu územia, stabilizáciu na trhu práce, zvyšovanie produktivity práce - a teda sú výrazným predpokladom zvýšenia lokálnej ekonomiky“* (Kováčová, 2011, s. 78). Objektom riadiacich a koordinačných činností je občan miestnej samosprávy, ktorý je zároveň subjektom. V danom prípade ide o vyjadrenie základného demokratického princípu, ktorým je orientácia na občana (nositeľa moci) v zmysle uspokojovania jeho potrieb, čo je fundamentálnym poslaním samosprávneho systému. S ašpiráciou na dosiahnutie kvality svojho života, napĺňanie svojich potrieb a cieľov má občan právo združovať sa, byť členom občianskych združení, spolkov a predovšetkým disponuje právom vykonávať samosprávu priamo, tzn. miestnym referendom, alebo

zhromaždením obyvateľov obce a nepriamo prostredníctvom samosprávnych orgánov (starosta, obecné zastupiteľstvo). Preto sa v zmysle viacerých zásadných zmien, ktoré priniesla novela zákona o obecnom zriadení primárne zameriame len na tie, ktoré súvisia s uvedenými formami výkonu samosprávy obce, tzn., že objektom nášho záujmu je analýza zmien vo vzťahu k pôsobnosti a postaveniu starostu, obecného zastupiteľstva ako aj zmien ktoré sa dotkli zhromaždenia obyvateľov obce a miestneho referenda.

1. LEGISLATÍVNE ZMENY V KONTEXTE NEPRIAMEJ FORMY VÝKONU SAMOSPRÁVY OBCE

Novela zákona o obecnom zriadení sa výrazným spôsobom dotkla druhej časti zákona o obecnom zriadení a to konkrétne orgánov obce, prostredníctvom ktorých vykonávajú obyvatelia územnej jednotky samosprávu nepriamo. Prvá podstatná zmena sa viaže na doplnenie § 11 od. 2, ktorý hovorí o inkompatibilite funkcie poslanca so starostom a zamestnancom obce, v ktorej bol zvolený, čo platilo aj v prípade nenovelizovaného zákona,[1] avšak nová úprava precizovala znenie písmena b), v zmysle ktorého je verejná funkcia poslanca obecného zastupiteľstva nezlučiteľná *„s funkciou zamestnanca obce, v ktorej bol zvolený, to neplatí ak zamestnanec obce bol dlhodobo uvoľnený na výkon funkcie poslanca“* (§ 11 ods. 2, písm. b) zákona č. 369/1990 Zb.). Účelom doplnenia pôvodného znenia o časť *„to neplatí ak zamestnanec obce bol dlhodobo uvoľnený na výkon funkcie poslanca“* má byť riešenie stavu, ktorý nútil zamestnanca obce v prípade zvolenia do obecného zastupiteľstva ukončiť pracovný pomer s obcou, pretože v opačnom prípade by došlo k inkompatibilite funkcií. Novelizácia paragrafu zabezpečí, aby zamestnanec základnej jednotky miestnej samosprávy, ktorého obec ako zamestnávateľ dlhodobo uvoľnila na výkon poslaneckej funkcie, nemusel ukončiť pracovný pomer s obcou, avšak vychádzajúc z právneho inštitútu dlhodobého uvoľnenia na výkon verejnej funkcie, t.j. poslanca obecného zastupiteľstva, ostáva bez aktívneho výkonu funkcie zamestnanca základnej jednotky miestnej samosprávy.

Kompetencie obecného zastupiteľstva sa rozšírili o vyhlásenie dobrovoľnej zbierky, čo je logické nakoľko došlo k rozšíreniu samosprávnej pôsobnosti obce v §4 ods. 3 o vyhlásenie dobrovoľnej zbierky, pričom na túto zbierku sa nevzťahuje zákon o verejných zbierkach, a preto je v právomoci obecného zastupiteľstva určiť podmienky jej vykonania (§ 11 ods. 4, písm. b) zákona č. 369/1990 Zb.) Novelou bolo obecnému zastupiteľstvu priznané právo určovať náležitosti miestnej dane alebo poplatku (§ 11 ods. 4, písm. e) a v súvislosti s novým § 2aa o pričlenení nefunkčnej obce[2] sa kompetenčný rámec rozšíril aj o rozhodovanie o vydaní súhlasu s pričlenením obce bez samosprávnych orgánov, nakoľko uvedený proces musí byť podmienený súhlasom obecného zastupiteľstva susediacej obce (§ 11 ods. 4, písm. q). Okrem potrebného súhlasu, okresný úrad v sídle kraja predkladá ministerstvu aj záznam zo zhromaždenia o prerokovaní predmetnej záležitosti o pričlenení sa k susediacej obci, čo naznačuje, že isté úpravy sa dotkli aj § 11b o zhromaždení obyvateľov obce.

Okrem voľby poslancov obecného zastupiteľstva, majú občania možnosť vykonávať samosprávu nepriamo prostredníctvom voľby starostu, ktorý ako významný predstaviteľ moci na území základnej jednotky miestnej samosprávy, reprezentuje obec navonok, predovšetkým vo vzťahu k štátnym orgánom, k právnickým ako aj fyzickým osobám. V kontexte zmien

[1] Zákon o obecnom zriadení bol viackrát novelizovaný, a preto termín „nenovelizovaný zákon“ budeme využívať pre označenie podoby zákona pred 1. aprílom 2018.

[2] Novelizovaná zákonná úprava tak dopĺňa znenie zákona o § 2aa s osobitnou úpravou nazvanou *„Pričlenenie obce,“* obsahujúcou spôsob riešenia tzv. „nefunkčných obcí,“ pod ktorými rozumieme základné jednotky miestnej samosprávy, ktoré po vykonaní dvoch po sebe nasledujúcich volieb do orgánov samosprávy obcí, nie sú spôsobilé zvoliť si svoje orgány, tzn. zastupiteľský zbor poslancov- obecné zastupiteľstvo a starostu obce, ktorý je najvyšším výkonným orgánom obce. Proces pričlenenia nefunkčnej obce k susediacej je koordinovaný okresným úradom v sídle kraja, v ktorého územnom obvode sa nefunkčná obec nachádza, pričom pričlenenie môže vykonať vláda nariadením

novely zákona viažucich sa na túto funkciu, došlo podobne ako v prípade poslanca obecného zastupiteľstva k rozšíreniu paragrafu o inkompatibilite tejto funkcie, čo možno demonštrovať prostredníctvom § 13 ods. 3, písm. b) v zmysle ktorého je funkcia starostu nezlučiteľná *„s funkciou zamestnanca obce, v ktorej bol zvolený, to neplatí ak zamestnanec obce bol dlhodobo uvoľnený na výkon funkcie starostu“* (§ 13 ods. 3, písm. b) zákona č. 369/1990 Zb.). Účelom precizovania právnej úpravy bolo odstrániť doposiaľ existujúci stav neumožňujúci starostom pokračovať v pracovnom pomere s obcou, a teda boli nútení ukončiť tento pracovný pomer, pričom nové znenie dovoľuje, aby uvedené osoby, ktoré obec ako zamestnávateľ dlhodobo uvoľnila na výkon verejnej funkcie starostu, mohli aj naďalej ostať v pracovnom pomere s obcou, ale rovnako ako v prípade poslanca obecného zastupiteľstva, bez aktívneho výkonu funkcie zamestnanca základnej jednotky miestnej samosprávy.
Starosta je najvyšším výkonným orgánom obce, ale nie výkonným orgánom obecného zastupiteľstva, čo znamená, že tak starosta ako aj obecné zastupiteľstvo majú zákonom vymedzené svoje postavenie a zastupiteľstvo nedisponuje právom ukladať starostovi úlohy v zmysle povinnosti niečo vykonať v určenej lehote. Starosta má nezávislé postavenie, čo ale nevylučuje vzájomné vzťahy medzi starostom a zastupiteľstvom. Demonštrovať to môžeme prostredníctvom sistačného práva starostu, ktoré dáva starostovi právo pozastaviť výkon uznesenia zastupiteľstva, ak má za to, že nie je v súlade so zákonom, resp. mu odporuje, poprípade ak by malo byť pre obec nevýhodné. Starosta tak disponuje právom v lehote do 10 dní od jeho schválenia poslancami, uznesenie nepodpísať. V zmysle nenovelizovaného zákona, mohli poslanci obecného zastupiteľstva aj napriek sistácii starostu potvrdiť toto uznesenie a to v prípade ak za uznesenie opätovne zahlasovala 3/5 väčšina všetkých poslancov, pričom sa tak muselo uskutočniť do 2 mesiacov od schválenia uznesenia zastupiteľstvom. Novela zákona neruší proces uplatnenia sistačného práva, len v § 13 ods. 8 predlžuje lehotu na potvrdenie pozastaveného uznesenia obecného zastupiteľstva starostom na 3 mesiace, nakoľko zákonná úprava jasne hovorí *„ak bol výkon uznesenia obecného zastupiteľstva podľa odseku 6*[3] *pozastavený, môže obecné zastupiteľstvo toto uznesenie trojpätinovou väčšinou hlasov všetkých poslancov potvrdiť; ak obecné zastupiteľstvo uznesenie nepotvrdí do troch mesiacov od jeho schválenia, uznesenie stráca platnosť“* (§ 13 ods. 8 zákona č. 369/1990 Zb.). Predĺženie lehoty reflektuje pravidelné zasadnutia obecného zastupiteľstva, ktoré zasadá aspoň raz za 3 mesiace.
Doplnením § 18f ods. 1 písm. h) sa posilnila aj kompetencia starostu vo vzťahu k hlavnému kontrolórovi, nakoľko podľa novelizovaného znenia zákona má hlavný kontrolór zákonnú povinnosť vykonať kontrolu, nielen na podnet obecného zastupiteľstva (doposiaľ zákon vymedzoval túto právomoc obecnému zastupiteľstvu) ale aj vtedy ak ho o to požiada starosta, v prípade, že vec neznesie odklad. Posúdenie nemožnosti odkladu veci je v právomoci orgánu žiadajúceho kontrolu, bez povinnosti preukázať posúdenie uvedenej skutočnosti. Posilnenie starostovskej kompetencie čelí kritickému postoju opozície, čo možno demonštrovať napríklad stanoviskom hnutia OĽaNO, ktoré nesúhlasí s tým, že kontrolórovi bude dávať úlohy starosta, hoci práve on má podliehať kontrole kontrolóra. Podpredseda ZMOS-u Bieľak nepovažuje túto kritiku za opodstatnenú a tvrdí: *„Čo je zlé na tom, ak starosta požiada kontrolóra plateného z obecných peňazí, teda zamestnanca obce, ktorý pracovnoprávne podlieha starostovi ako každý iný zamestnanec, aby vykonal nejaký úkon? Treba povedať, že v praxi to už funguje…Je to obyčajný pragmatizmus, opatrenie, ktoré má pomôcť k efektívnejšej samospráve,“* (Filová, Stupňan 2018).

[3] To znamená, že starosta ho v lehote do 10 dní nepodpísal.

2. LEGISLATÍVNE ZMENY V KONTEXTE PRIAMEJ FORMY VÝKONU SAMOSPRÁVY OBCE

Zhromaždenie obyvateľov obce je súčasťou 3 rovnocenných spôsobov, akými môžu obyvatelia obce vykonávať miestnu samosprávu, pričom ide o inštitút, zmyslom ktorého je verejná diskusia o obecných záležitostiach obyvateľmi obce. Je to forma priamej demokracie, ktorej zákonné vymedzenie bolo doposiaľ upravené len jediným paragrafovým znením, nakoľko v nenovelizovanej podobe zákona bolo stanovené, že obecné zastupiteľstvo môže na prerokovanie obecných záležitostí zvolať zhromaždenie obyvateľov obce alebo jej časti. V súčasnosti sa novela zákona rovnako zmieňuje o danej forme priamej demokracie len jednou vetou, ale za to v rozšírenom znení, nakoľko v zmysle § 11b: *„Obecné zastupiteľstvo alebo starosta môže zvolať zhromaždenie obyvateľov obce alebo časti na prerokovanie vecí územnej samosprávy, ak § 2aa ods. 2 neustanovuje inak."* Z uvedeného vyplýva, že sa rozšírila kompetencia starostu o možnosť zvolávať zhromaždenie obyvateľov obce, ktorá doposiaľ patrila do pôsobnosti obecného zastupiteľstva a zároveň uvedeným právom disponuje aj okresný úrad v sídle kraja a to v špecifickej situácii, ktorou je pričlenenie k susediacej obci. Je to logické, nakoľko nefunkčná obec nemá orgány obce, preto sa táto úloha zveruje okresnému úradu v sídle kraja, v ktorého územnom obvode sa nachádza nefunkčná obec.

Paragrafové znenie explicitne nedefinuje spôsob a formu uskutočnenia zhromaždenia obyvateľov obce, a preto môžeme implicitným spôsobom z príslušného ustanovenia zákona predpokladať, že určenie spôsobu a formy realizácie bude plne v právomoci obecného zastupiteľstva, či starostu ktoré disponujú právo jeho vyhlásenia. Akceptovaná by mala byť taká forma, ktorá umožní verejný charakter rokovania a každému subjektu zaručí právo prezentovať svoj názor. Dôležité je vyzdvihnúť a to sa týka aj miestneho referenda, že ide o proces, ktorý v konečnom dôsledku nie je pre zastupiteľské orgány obce záväzný, keďže poslanci obecného zastupiteľstva vykonávajú svoju funkciu na základe reprezentatívneho mandátu a zákon im neukladá povinnosť, aby boli pri výkone samosprávy viazaní rozhodnutiami, ktoré vzídu zo zhromaždenia obyvateľov obce. Preto uvedená forma podľa niektorých plní len úlohu konzultatívnej demokracie a nie prvku priamej účasti na lokálnej samospráve (Palúš - Jesenko - Krunková, 2010).

Druhým, priamym spôsobom výkonu miestnej samosprávy a posilňovania lokálnej demokracie je inštitút miestneho referenda, ktorého iniciátormi na rozdiel od zhromaždenia obyvateľov obce môžu byť v zmysle zákona obyvatelia obce. Zákon diferencuje medzi obligatórnym a fakultatívnym referendom.

Obecné zastupiteľstvo môže vyhlásiť miestne referendum v prípade dôležitých otázok vo vzťahu k rozvoju obce a chodu obce ako aj v jednom prípade odvolania starostu a to vtedy, pokiaľ nie je spôsobilý vykonávať svoju funkciu, poprípade je neprítomný po dobu viac ako 6 mesiacov. Zastupiteľstvu v daných prípadoch nie je uložená povinnosť jeho vyhlásenia, tzn., že hovoríme o fakultatívnom miestnom referende.

Ak nastane niektorý z dôvodov taxatívne vymedzených v § 11a ods. 1 zákona o obecnom zriadení, z dikcie zákona vyplýva, že za splnenia zákonom stanovených podmienok nemá obecné zastupiteľstvo inú možnosť, len povinnosť vyhlásiť miestne referendum. Ide o prípady:

- zlúčenia, rozdelenia, zrušenia obce alebo zmenu jej názvu;
- vo veci odvolania starostu;
- ak o to petičnou formou požiada minimálne 30% oprávnených voličov, pričom musia byť splnené všetky náležitosti tak ako to stanovuje zákon č. 85/1990 Zb. o petičnom práve;
- a v zmysle písmena d) a e) § 11a ods. 1, v prípade zmeny označenia obce, alebo ak to stanovuje osobitný zákon.

V čom ale spočíva zmena, ktorú priniesla posledná novelizácia zákona. Prvou, zmenou je precizácia postupu pred samotným konaním referenda, v zmysle väčšej voľnosti obce pri oznámení o vyhlásení referenda. § 11a v ods. 7 nenariaďuje, že oznámenie o vyhlásení miestneho referenda sa musí doručiť každému obyvateľovi obce, ktorý má právo hlasovať v referende (tzn., oprávnenému voličovi), pretože *„obec najneskôr 15 dní pred dňom konania miestneho referenda zverejní oznámenie o vyhlásení miestneho referenda na úradnej tabuli obce a na webovom sídle obce, ako aj iným spôsobom, ktorý určí obecné zastupiteľstvo"* (§ 11a ods. 7 zákona č. 369/1990 Zb.). Uvedený postup smeruje k finančnej úspore, nakoľko sa javí postačujúce zverejnenie oznámenia na úradnej tabuli a tiež na webovom sídle obce, pričom toto oznámenie musí obsahovať informácie o dátume schválenia uznesenia obecného zastupiteľstva o vyhlásení miestneho referenda alebo o dátume doručenia petície, o otázke, resp. otázkach, ktoré sú predmetom referenda, o mieste, dátume a čase jeho konania a o spôsobe úpravy hlasovacieho lístka. Zároveň ale zákon nezakazuje, a teda umožňuje informovať všetkých obyvateľov obce, ktorí majú minimálne 18 rokov o konaní miestneho referenda doručením tohto oznámenia, čo znamená, že obce môžu pokračovať v doposiaľ zaužívanom postupe. Obecné zastupiteľstvo môže zvoliť aj oznámenie formou miestneho rozhlasu alebo formou miestnej tlače. Podmienkou pre platnosť miestneho referenda naďalej ostáva účasť minimálne polovice oprávnených voličov, pričom rozhodnutie musí byť prijaté nadpolovičnou väčšinou platných hlasov zúčastnených, tak ako to definuje § 11a ods. 8, ktorý sa po novele precizoval, pretože v zmysle druhej vety nie obecné zastupiteľstvo, ale obec vyhlási výsledky miestneho referenda a to tak na úradnej tabuli ako aj na webovom sídle v obci. Lehota je nezmenená, nakoľko obec má 3 dni od doručenia zápisnice o výsledkoch hlasovania na vyhlásenie výsledkov uvedeným spôsobom.

Druhá zmena je zásadná, nakoľko sa dotýka odvolania starostu. V znení zákona pred novelou bolo obecné zastupiteľstvo povinné vyhlásiť referendum vo veci odvolania starostu v prípade predloženej petície, o ktorú žiadalo aspoň 30% oprávnených voličov alebo ak výkon starostu nebol v súlade so zákonom, ak porušil Ústavu SR, zákony či zanedbával svoje povinnosti.[4] Terajšia úprava pripúšťa len petičnú formu zmienenú v § 13a ods. 3 písm. a) a vypúšťa obligatórne vyhlásenie referenda o odvolaní starostu v prípade hrubého porušenia zákona, čím odoberá právomoc doposiaľ pripadajúcu na poslancov obecného zastupiteľstva, ktorí návrh v danej veci museli potvrdiť nadpolovičnou väčšinou všetkých členov. Tvorcovia novely argumentujú, že pôvodné ustanovenie spôsobovalo problémy súvisiace s nejednoznačným výkladom, keďže nebolo celkom jasné, čo sa považuje za hrubé zanedbávanie povinností ako aj problémy tzv. „objektivity," nakoľko uvedené skutočnosti (hrubé, alebo pravidelné zanedbávanie povinností, porušenie Ústavy SR a iných všeobecne záväzných právnych predpisov) posudzovali poslanci obecného zastupiteľstva, čo nemožno považovať za adekvátne riešenie z hľadiska objektivity. Takýmto spôsobom sa podľa zástancov vypustenia uvedeného dôvodu na obligatórne vyhlásenie referenda, doposiaľ vytvárala možnosť pre účelové využitie tohto mechanizmu v neprospech starostu.

Uvedená legislatívna zmena dichotomizuje odbornú verejnosť na dva tábory, nakoľko opozícia a viacerí politológovia sa zhodujú, že vypustenie tohto ustanovenia značne skomplikovalo možnosť odvolať starostu v zmysle akým určoval už dnes neexistujúci bod 2 § 13a ods. 3 písm. a). Odmietavý postoj k účelovému zneužívaniu poslaneckého oprávnenia voči starostovi zastáva aj politológ Koziak, podľa ktorého *„ak starosta začne hrubo zanedbávať svoje povinnosti, porušovať zákony a má na svojej strane zastupiteľstvo, potom je vlastne neodvolateľný. Práve počínanie starostu môže vyhovovať zastupiteľstvu v prípade spoločných kšeftov, ktoré môžu neskôr obec položiť"* (Filová, Stupňan 2018). Na druhej strane ZMOS jednoznačne tvrdí, že poslanci obecného zastupiteľstva nedisponujú

[4] Návrh muselo obecné zastupiteľstvo schváliť absolútnou väčšinou svojich členov.

právomocou súdov, prokuratúry, justície a nie je v ich kompetencii, aby posudzovali a rozhodovali o tom, či niekto porušil zákon. Ďalej sa odvolávajú na petíciu, ako dostatočný nástroj na odvolanie starostu v prípade neplnenia úloh a jeho nečinnosti, ktorý ostáva stále zakotvený v § 13a ods. 3 písm. a). V kontexte uvedeného podpredseda ZMOS-u Bieľak dodáva, že žijeme v právnom štáte, kde o porušení zákona rozhodujú súdy a orgány na to príslušné, *„ale aby poslanci sami rozhodli o tom, či starosta porušil zákon? Platí prezumpcia neviny. A ak sa preukáže, že zákon porušil, nastupujú iné právne dôsledky, ktorým môže byť aj zánik mandátu.“* (Filová, Stupňan 2018).

3. ZÁVER

Novela zákona o obecnom zriadení priniesla viacero podstatných zmien vo vzťahu k funkčnosti a efektivite miestnej samosprávy, pričom najzásadnejší rozpor vyvolalo vypustenie doposiaľ existujúceho ustanovenia o odvolaní starostu, v prípade ak výkon starostu nie je v súlade so zákonom, ak porušuje Ústavu SR, zákony či hrubo a opakovane zanedbáva svoje povinnosti. Návrh na vyhlásenie miestneho referenda v danej veci bol pôvodne podmienený súhlasom absolútnej väčšiny všetkých členov (poslancov) obecného zastupiteľstva, čo iniciátori novely považovali za zásadný problém, nakoľko v právnom štáte posúdenie uvedených skutočností spadá do pôsobnosti súdov, prokuratúry či iných orgánov tohto druhu. Opozícia kritizuje zákon hlavne z hľadiska posilnenia kompetencií starostu, ktorý má v zmysle novej legislatívnej úpravy právo nariaďovať hlavnému kontrolórovi úlohy, na úkor kompetencií poslancov obecného zastupiteľstva a obyvateľov obce.

Predstavené zmeny nie sú jediné, čo možno demonštrovať napríklad doplnením zákona o § 2aa pod názvom *„Pričlenenie obce,“* ktorý rieši problém tzv. nefunkčnej obce jej pričlenením k susediacej obci. V § 2b s názvom *„Označovanie ulíc a iných verejných priestranstiev,“* zákon vymedzuje jednotlivé znaky tvoriace definíciu verejného priestranstva a ukladá tiež povinnosť vlastníkovi budovy na území obci, strpieť označenie budovy názvom ulice alebo iného verejného priestranstva. Novela precizuje, upravuje, alebo dopĺňa viaceré paragrafové znenia, čo možno selekciou deklarovať na ustanoveniach:

- o obyvateľoch obce, ktorí sú povinní poskytovať osobnú a vecnú pomoc pri záchranných akciách a odstraňovaní následkov mimoriadnych udalostí v obci,
- o vyhlasovaní verejnej zbierky,
- o všeobecne záväzných nariadeniach obce,
- o opatreniach v prípade nečinnosti obce na úseku preneseného výkonu pôsobnosti štátnej správy,
- o zverejňovaní na webovom sídle obce,
- o finančnom strope, tzn., že zákon stanovuje maximálnu možnú výšku odmeny, ktorú možno poskytnúť členovi komisie obecného zastupiteľstva a členovi výboru mestskej časti, ktorí nie sú poslanci,
- o plate kontrolóra - z hľadiska právnej stability je plat hlavného kontrolóra obce determinovaný populačnou veľkosťou obce, atď.

Pre úplnosť je potrebné podotknúť, že osobitnú skupinu tvoria tzv. nepriechodné návrhy, resp. zámery, ktoré neboli zrealizované. Z uvedeného možno spomenúť napríklad zníženie počtu poslancov zastupiteľstiev, nakoľko predkladatelia návrhu argumentovali tým, že SR má viac ako dvojnásobne vyšší podiel poslancov na lokálnej úrovni na 100 000 obyvateľov, než je priemer Európskej únie (napr. Banská Bystrica má v súčasnosti 31 poslancov, pričom v prípade schválenej zmeny by ich po novom nemala viac ako 21). Novela nakoniec nepriniesla žiadnu redukciu poslancov, nakoľko parlament 127 hlasmi schválil návrh P. Antala (Most-Híd), ktorý zmenil pôvodný návrh a zámer novely zákona č. 369/1990 Zb. o obecnom zriadení.

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AN EVALUATION OF LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THEIR EFFECTS EMPLOYEE'S ATTITUDE TO WORK IN AN ORGANIZATION

Ogbummor Benjamin Chinedu

Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate leadership styles and their effects on employee's attitudes to work in an organization. In the course of this study the researcher investigated some selected organizations in Anambra state Nigeria. The study was designed to identify the best leadership style that will improve the employee's attitude. The study was carried out in the ministry of works and housing organizations in Anambra state Nigeria. In the analysis of results, percentages were used. The findings of the work showed, among others things that: Employee's react to leadership style by creating informal group employee's attitude is greatly affected by leadership styles adopted by their leader. There was every indication that employee's performance and morale are affected by leadership style by their superior's exercise.

Key words: *Evaluation, Employee, Leadership, Power, Attitude, Style and Organization*

1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a fascinating concept in which philosophers, historians Psychologists, sociologists, politicians and all kinds of executives have shown much interest. It is considered as one of the key function of management and as such has been a subject of considerable research. According to Igboli (1999) leadership means a process by which people are directed, guided and influenced in achieving group goals. A leader is a person who is central in a group interaction. By the nature of their position managers are placed in a leadership position in any organization to influence the behaviour of the formal work group their effectiveness can be measured by the accomplishment of the group vis-à-vis the organizational goals and objectives. Leadership consists of two types; formal and informal: The formal leaders are appointed to their leadership positions while the group selects informal leaders.

The concept of authority is closely related to the concept of power. Authority has been defined as the right to influence others, while power, on the other hand, rests on domination, representing the ability of a person to influence the behaviour of other people. Max Weber defined authority as legitimate power. Thus, a person exerting influence can be said to have power when he is able to influence the behaviour of other people or another person, and he also has authority when the other person believes and accepts his influence attempt as legitimate.

Basically, the amount of authority that person possesses depends on the amount of reward and legitimate power available to him while occupying a certain position. Of course like Bernard and others have forcefully argued that it also depends on subordinate's acceptance of the authority. Informal leaders generally combine expert and referent powers. Although some theorist identified legitimate power as the primary, or even the only means of influence gradually this idea is changing. Today, if managers will be effective in achieving influence on his subordinates; he will certainly go beyond the use of combination of coercive, reward and legitimate power, which is associated with Autocratic leadership style. He must also earn his right to influence others by showing capability and expertise in a given area or by personal Magnetism or both.

According to trait theory, the earliest theory of leadership effectiveness is determined manually by personal traits or characteristics of the leader. Closely related to this is the "great man" theory based on the proposition that some people were born to be leaders, having inherited some set of unique traits and characteristics that could not be acquired in any other way. This view was then thought to be persuasive because leaders frequently emerge within the same prominent family.
We should know that people are capable of exercising effective leadership in an organization is scarce relative to the need for them. Leadership ability is a valuable skill and those who possess or have it reap high rewards. The universal scarcity of an effective leader cause organization to search constantly for them and foster development and better utilization of ensiling leadership is that how effective is the leadership styles and characteristics in bringing out or about a good execution of workers towards organization, work and their environment? It is the aim of this research paper to give an answer to this question.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Leadership and leadership styles are very important instruments in every aspect of management. It is the life wire of management which for sees for the success or failures in an organization. Leaders in an organization should be very careful in choosing leadership styles, in which they feel is best to run their organization the reason for this is that some styles night have a regulative or formative impact on the attitude of employees in that organization. They should know the style they will apply so that it will bring out the best in their employees' attitudes towards the achievement of the organizational goals. They should also know that the style they should apply should depend on the situation on ground or level of intellectual of the workers with these they will achieve the best in their employees.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

A great number of people do not know that leadership is part of management and also the back-bone of management. Leadership role is said to be a very useful tool in the life of an organization, it is that basic that his impact on the employees attitudes and the organization productivity. The purpose of this research is to evaluate the impact of leadership styles on the attitude of employee in an organization, selecting the ministry of works and housing in Anambra State.

1. To investigate the type of styles used by the leaders in an organization.
2. To investigate the reactions of the employees to these styles
3. To determine the problems facing the terms of these leadership styles.
4. To recommend possible solutions to the problems identified

1.3 Scope of the Study

This study was limited to problems of leadership, leadership styles, and their effects on the attitude of workers. If focused on the different types of leadership styles that can be used by leaders in any given situation. It also focused on how best to make employees to put in their best in organization. Attempts were made to look into organizations like government establishments.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the most researched and least understood variables of the management process is the leadership. Throughout past events, it has been recognized that the difference between success and failure, whether in games, war a protest movement, business organizations known as leadership. Despite all the attention given to it and its recognized importance, leadership still

remain as inexplicable concept. In reviewing the various definition and concepts of leadership, a lot would be reviewed in this chapter.

Begin with, Oyoubaire (1984) states that "leadership may conceived in terms of certain qualities or properties inherent in the human personal. In this sense he further stated that leadership is the ability based on the personal qualities of the leaders to clear the follower's voluntary compliance in a board of matter relationship, so to say and the followers.

Katz and Kahn (1978) also viewed leadership they see it as least applied to formally organization enterprises, as the influential increment over and about mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organizations. In other words an organization's role may encompass definite objectives and plans to achieve them clear position duties and all other non-personal things and individual must do to carry out a job.

Thierauf et al (1979) viewed leadership from an angle of influence. They defined leadership as "a way of stimulating and motivating subordinates to accomplish assigned task". They viewed the leaders as being distinct from the group and are concerned with guiding, conducting and directing the group. The leader moves the group within the constraints of its magnum capabilities to attain certain specified objectives. In other not to lose his identify just like other researchers the leader takes his place before the group, and he suspires the group to accomplish organizational objectives the group response will depend upon the capabilities of the leader.

In supporting the view of the above authors, Koontz et al (1974) defined leadership as influences act or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly with zeal and confidence zeal reflects ardor, confidence reflects expedience and technical ability. Leaders lands to help groups to achieve organizational objectives with the maximum application of its capabilities. The leaders do not stand behind a group to push and prod; they place themselves before the group as they facilitate progress and inspire the group to accomplish organizational goals.

From the above discussion, we have seen different definitions given by different authors. Through the angle which every individual sees leadership, they all differs but still conveys the same meaning.

2.1 Approaches to Leadership

There are many researchers that have done a lot of study on leadership theory. In this context our review will fours attention on fielder's contingency approach, situational approach and night approach.

Fielder's findings and theories are based on a considerable volume of research. Although their approach to leadership theory is primarily one of analyzing leadership styles. Fielder and his associates at the university of Illinois have combined to some extent, the trait and situational approach and have suggested a contingency approach implies that leadership is any process in which the ability of a leader to exercise influence depends upon the group task situation and the degree to which the leaders style, personality and approach fit the group. According to Fielder (1982) he stated that people become leaders not only because of the attributes of their personality but also because of various situational factors and the interaction between their leaders and the situation. On the basis of his studies, Fielder found three critical dimensions of the situation that affect a leader most effective styles. These three characteristics founded by the greatest researcher are as follows:

Position Power: This is the degree to which the powers of a position as distinguished from other source of power such as charismatic or expertise power enables a leader to get group members to comply with directives, as can be seen in the case of managers, this is the power arising from

organizational authority. As Fielder points out a leader with clear and considerable position power can more easily obtain better fellowship that without such power.

Task Structure: With this dimension, Fielder had in mind the extent to which tasks can be clearly spelt out and people held responsible for them, in contrast to situation where tasks are argue and unstructured, where tasks are clear, the quality of performance can be easily controlled and group members can be more definitely held responsible for performance than where task are ambitions.

Leader Member Relation: This decision which Fielder regard as the most important influence on the manager's power and effectiveness. If the manager gets along well with rest of the group, if group members respects the manager for reasons of personality, character, or ability, then the manager mighty not have to reply on formal rank or authority, on the other hand, a manager who is dislike or distrusted may be less able to lead informally and could have to reply on directives to accomplish group tasks.

Another important area which the theorist founded attention is the trait approach to leadership. Prior to 1949, most studies of leadership did tend to concentrate on identifying traits. The approach stressed that leaders actually possessed certain trait that non-leader do have. Stodghil (1948) found that various researches identified fire (5) physical trait related to leadership ability such as (energy, appearance, height, intelligence and ability) trait. Also sixteen (16) personality trait (such as adaptability, enthusiasm and self-confidence etc) six (6) task related characteristics (such as achievement drive, persistence and initiative and soon). And nine (9) social characteristics (such as co-cooperativeness, interpersonal skills and administrative ability etc). Generally, the study of leadership trait has not given a fruitful explanation to leadership.

Not all leaders possess all the trait, and many non-leaders possess most or all of them. Also the trait approach gives no guide as to how much of any trait a reason should have. In contrasting this theory, Engine E Jenning (1961) said research has produced such a variegated list of trait presumably to describe leadership that for all practical purpose, it describes nothing. Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate between leaders and non-leaders nevertheless some studies have indicated a significant correlation between certain traits and leadership effectiveness.

Ibid (1948) found from the review of related literature that there was a definite correlation between the traits of intelligence, scholarship, dependability, responsibility, social participation and socio-economics status of leaders compared to non-leaders. Likewise Keith Davis found out that leaders that have high intelligence hoard social interest and maturity is long motivation to accomplish and great respect and interest in public. But even these corrections between traits and leadership are not persuasive. Most of these so called traits are really pattern of behaviour that one would expect from a leader and particularly from a leader in managerial position.

After increasing disillusionment with the trait approach to understanding leadership, attention turned to the study of situations. A large number of studies have been made on the premise that leadership is strongly affected by the situation from which the leader emerges and in which he or she operates. This approach of leadership recognizes that there is an interaction, which exists between the group and the leader. Headers are affected by how their supervisors and peers accept them to behave. The leaders then are the persons who recognize these desires and do those things or undertake those programmed designed to meet them. Some theorists contain that variation exist in the nature of task, organizational environment, time dimensions and social and cultural environment.

The multi-dimensional approach to leadership was detected early in the studies of Stodghill and his associates (1956) when it was discovered that in analyzing 470 many officers occupying 45 different positions, their leadership ability was heavily affected by such situational factors. The

present state of knowledge is that it is not possible now to define with precision the specific leadership qualities and behaviour required for effective performance in defining situations with particular type of followers.

2.2 Leadership Styles

Many writers have created classification schemes to deposit different kinds of leadership styles. The different classification of leadership styles has occasioned a multitude of studies, which in turn has given rise to equally multitudinous theories. Leadership theories base on forms of various approaches to successful leadership suffice it to say that researchers were able to research into a lot of different leadership styles prominent among which are the autocratic, democratic, lassies fare, consultative benevolent, participative e.t.c some of them could be used interchangeably.

Autocratic and democratic leadership style are the most commonly studies and compared. The major deference between this leadership style is from their respective power base. Under the autocratic style, decision making is under the control of the leader. It can take the form of conversion, benevolence or manipulation. Autocratic leader get to follow orders through position, implied threats the authority and prestige of an organizational position or a hard-boiled demeanor. Hampton (1981) said "such leader is described variously as restrictive and structuring". The essence of these leadership styles is overriding concern with the task use, and with workers. He dictates, applies force, believes he is always right and takes no advice from his subordinates. All form of organizational power resides with him. Authoritarian leadership exalts the leader at the expense of others in the group. Often the autocratic leader takes credit for accomplishment but blames failures on their followers, Chansreal Martins and company (1981) described a leader with autocratic style as "the pace-setter-getter". He is a slave driver and a bulldozer.

Democratic leader leads mainly by persuasion and other examples like force fear, status or power. They consider the opinions and feeling of followers, makes them feel important and attempted to put group and individual goals above their own personal objectives. They also encourage participative in decision making Flipo and Gray (1982). Stated that democratic leaders are leaders with any techniques of positive leadership such as praise the pat on the back, task and the purchase of subordinates by a comprehensive fringe benefit programmed.

The Laissez Faire leadership style is the type that leaders attempt to pass the responsibility for decision making. Ducan (1978) stated that "Laissez-faire leader, would exercise no direct influence over the group behaviour, he would simply allow followers to prove their own goals in whatever they consider it desirable", he also maintained that a close approximation of this style in real life would be the director of a group of physicians who enjoys the luxury of assuming that the members have a professional knowledge of group goals and they know the most effective methods for achieving them so that little or no leadership is required.

The participative leadership style has substantial confidence on subordinates but not complete confidence and trust; he still wishes to control decision. The exploitative style does not have confidence or trust in subordinates and so takes decision himself.

The consultative leadership style is what Likert looked at as consultative management. He maintained that management sometimes solicits for ideas from subordinates to help solve problems. But management itself makes all the decision. Suggestion plans may be used for upward communication. Control is primarily performed by the upper management but with some shared responsibility at the middle and lower level.

One of the most widely known approaches to dramatizing leadership style is the managerial grid developed some years ago by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. This grid has two dimension, they are concerned for production is conceived as the attitudes of a leader towards a wide variety of things, such as the quality of policy decision, procedure and processes, creativeness of research quality of staff service, work efficiency and volume of output. Concern for people is likewise interpreted in a broad way. It includes such element as degree of personal commitment towards goal achievement, maintaining the self-esteem of workers responsibility, good working conditions and having satisfying interpersonal relationship.

Blake and Mouton recognize fire extremes of basic styles. Under impoverished management, (1,1) managers concern themselves very little with either people or production and exerts minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

At the other extreme is the team management (9,9) style the managers have a high concern for both production and employee morale and satisfaction. They are really team managers who are able to mesh production needs of the enterprise with the needs of individuals.

Another style is known as the country club management (1,9) style managers have thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships and this heads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

Also the (9,1) style which is the authority-compliance, here managers develop efficiency in operation result from arranging condition of work in such a way that human element interfere to a minimum degree. They have concern for production and how concern for employees.

Lastly the (5,5) style which is referred to as middle of the road management. Managers have an intermediate amount of concern for both employee and production satisfaction.

Using these fire extremes, every managerial style can be placed somewhere in the grid. This managerial grid is a useful device for identifying and classifying managerial style. However, it does not tell us why a manager falls in one part or another of the grid. Summarily, they concluded that one has to look at underlying causes of personality of leader's followers, the ability and training of managers and organizational climate and situational factors that influence leadership effectiveness.

Lastly, it is clear that there is no secret trick to leadership styles, if anything or a better understanding of nature of the overall problem in any organization may lead to better solution of leadership style for individual situation.

2.3 Summary of Literature Review

Every group of people that performs towards the total capabilities has somebody as its leader, who is skilled in the act of leadership, the skill is seem to be compound of at least three ingredient: the ability to comprehend or understand that human beings have different motivating forces at varying or different times and situation, the ability to inspire and the ability to act in a way that will develop a climate for responding to and arousing motivations.

As in all practical it is one thing to know motivation theory, categories of motivating force and the nature of system motivation and another thing is to be able to apply his knowledge to people and situations. As a matter of fact, perhaps the fundamental principle of leadership is people that tend to follow those whom they see as a means of satisfying their own personal goals, the more manager understand what motivate their subordinates and how these motivation operate, and the more they reflect their understanding in carrying out this management actions, the effective leaders they are likely to be. If leaders can induce their subordinates is believe that their personal objectives are in harmony with those of the organization their accomplishment tend to make them effective leaders.

However, leadership seems to beware ability to inspire that is to animate or to enliven followers to apply their full capabilities to a project. While the use of motivators seems to create about subordinates and their need inspiration emanates from group leaders they may have charismatic qualities. That induces loyalty, duration and zeal on the part of followers. This is not a matter of need satisfaction; it is rather a matter of people giving altruistic support to a chosen champion. The evidence of inspirational leadership comes from hopeless and fearful situation such as a nation on there battle, a prison camp, with expectation morale, or a defeated leader deserted by faithful followers. Leadership has to do with style of the leader and climate he or she develops as a trait.

The leader's behaviour in any given situation will be influenced greatly by the marry force operating within the individual. He or she will of course perceive leadership problems in a unique way in the basis or individual background, knowledge and experience. Among the important internal forces affecting the individual are personal value system, confidence in subordinates, leadership indication and feeling of security in an uncertain situation. The leader brings these and other highly personal variables to each situation as forces which consciously or unconsciously influence behaviour, he or she can better understand what makes subordinates act in a given way and can thus be more effective.

3. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This page will seek to bring out the highlight of key findings, which i considered important in the course of analysis of the data and the research questions. In a nutshell, the findings of the study are as follows:

That employee's attitude is greatly affected by leadership style adopted by their leaders. There was every indication that employee's performance and morale are affected by leadership styles and their superior exercises.

Those employees react to leadership style by creating informal group.

That in all respect employees attitude is contingent on a leadership style which integrates organization and employees objectives.

That the resultant effect of unpopular leadership in an organization results in workers and uncooperative attitude.

In addition to the above findings, it was noted that effective leadership contributed to the degree at which organizational goals one accomplished. Majority of the management team interviewed held the view that they motivated the employees in order to get positive response from them thereby increasing greater productivity.

The study also revealed that there is no one best leadership style in all situations. That leadership success is dependent on many variables in changing environment. Variables such as, making employees to contribute during decision on the analysis of the prevailing situation at hand.

Lastly, it was observed that the loyalty of employees to the organization and its environment counted a lot on the type of style adopted by their leader. A human relation type of leadership, which recognizes the objectives of the employee's, is more favoured by the employees. When subordinate needs and aspirations are met, they participate more with an increased productivity for the mutual benefit of both.

3.1 Recommendations

1. Being aware of the fact that employees at all levels evaluate their jobs and their organization according to the kind of leadership behaviour their bosses exhibit, leaders

should always try to influence and motivate employees for the survival of the organization.

2. When formulating organizational policy, it is necessary that employees needs and aspirations are integrated. When the organizational goals embrace the internalized values of the employees, they will simultaneously satisfy their goals and that of the organization.
3. In consultative style of management, employees are committed to participate more and creativity should maximized. Cognizance of this, management should encourage increased employees participation at least in the work group, to partake in decision making in areas that affect them most.
4. On the use of power, the consent of those over who the acquired power is exercised is necessary. Realistically individual employee's background, education, orientation, largely determines the best of leadership with which they could be led. Management must be aware of these while dealing with their employees.
5. Leadership should know that there is no one best leadership style in all situations, when solving a problem. Situations are bound to change, organizations, enlarge and people with variating interests, wishes and ideologies, there adoption of any style should be based on these variables.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were made. This research work has been able to prove how the style of leadership adopted by executives in the work place can affect employees as this creates a conducive atmosphere, which may spun employee's eagerness at the end increasing greater productivity.

In spite of the importance of this, most organizations still do not employ a purposeful leadership style, which will make organizational environment conductive for work. This explains part of the reasons for the conflict witnessed between management and employees in most organizations.

Again, this is not to suggest that the style of leadership is the only factor responsible for organizational conflict, however, recognition of the best leadership style to adopt in all situations will undoubtedly reduce the conflict and create a conducive working environment.

Furthermore, recognizing the importance of this theory, executives must endeavour to create a good organizational climate that will make employees participate with great enthusiasm towards the achievement of organizational goals.

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OD ZDIEĽANÝCH HODNÔT K „DOBRÉMU ŽIVOTU V POLIS“

FROM SHARED VALUES TO “GOOD LIFE IN THE POLIS”

Andrea Klimková, Marián Bednár

Abstrakt

Infraštruktúra je nevyhnutnou súčasťou funkčnosti rôznych organizácií a inštitúcií a kvality života obyvateľov mesta, regiónu. Kým tzv. „tvrdú“, technickú infraštruktúru vytvorenú z dopravných sietí, telekomunikačných, vodných a energetických sietí považujeme za určujúcu a kľúčovú, nemali by sme opomínať „mäkkú“, sociálnu infraštruktúru, sem radíme sociálne, kultúrne a ďalšie nástroje, stratégie, faktory a inštitúcie ovplyvňujúce kvalitu života obyvateľov. Inovatívne stratégie ukazujú, aké dôležité sú etické politiky a etické nástroje ako súčasť oboch týchto štruktúr. Sú nielen neodmysliteľným potenciálom aj podmienkou pre rast a rozvoj regiónu, pre spravodlivú distribúciu informácií, zdrojov a pre spravodlivé podmienky spolupráce, ale súčasne stimulujú multisektorovú spoluprácu, menia etickú klímu regiónu a vytvárajú priestor pre inovatívne procesy. Cieľom príspevku je poukázať na inovatívnu rolu aplikovaných etikov, na ich potenciál a kompetencie podporovať a vytvárať etickú infraštruktúru ako významnú a užitočnú súčasť regionálneho rozvoja.

Kľúčová slova: *hodnoty, polis, stratégie, nástroje, dobrý život, etika*

Abstract

Infrastructure is an indispensable part of the functionality of various organizations and institutions and the quality of life of the inhabitants of the city, the region. If we consider the "hard" technical infrastructure created by transport networks, telecommunication, water and energy networks to be decisive and key, we should not forget the "soft" social infrastructure, we advise social, cultural and other instruments, strategies, factors and institutions influencing quality of the inhabitants' lives. Innovative strategies show the importance of ethical policies and ethical tools as part of both these structures. They are not only an inherent potential, but also a condition for the growth and development of the region, the fair distribution of information, resources and fair conditions of cooperation, while stimulating multisectoral cooperation, changing the ethical climate of the region and creating space for innovative processes. The aim of the paper is to highlight the innovative role of applied ethics, their potential and competence to promote and create ethical infrastructure as an important and useful part of regional development.

Key words: *values, polis, strategies, tools, good life, ethics*

1 ÚVODNÉ PREDBEŽNÉ POZNÁMKY

Regionálny rozvoj zohráva stále dôležitejšiu úlohu nielen v rámci rozvoja samotného regiónu - územia, ale podieľa sa aj na plnení ekonomických, sociálnych a environmentálnych úloh krajiny. Aktéri regionálneho rozvoja (orgány štátnej správy, samosprávy, záujmové združenia občanov, podnikateľov a i.) sú súčasne morálnymi aktérmi. Jedným z typov morálnych aktérov sú rôzne organizácie a inštitúcie, ktoré pôsobia v regióne. Na rozvoj regiónu majú vplyv aj kultúrne kvality, tzn. etická klíma a organizačná kultúra organizácií a inštitúcií pôsobiacich v regióne. Zdieľané hodnoty, predpoklady, názory, očakávania, postoje a normy

odhaľujú implicitný či explicitný skupinový súhlas s tým, ako rozhodovať a riešiť problémy, „ako veci riešiť, akým spôsobom“ (Kilmann, Saxton, Sherpa, 1985, s. 5).
Vzhľadom k spoločenskej závažnosti a aktuálnosti problematiky regionálneho rozvoja, vzhľadom na otázky spravodlivosti vo väzbe na disparity regiónov, na spravodlivú distribúciu zdrojov sa na problém regionálneho rozvoja upierajú nielen pohľady geografov, ekonómov, ekológov a politikov. Do diskurzov vstupujú aj odborníci z komunity aplikovanej etiky. Dôvodom sú otázky prístupu, spravodlivosti, zodpovednosti, transparentnosti, dôvery, kvality života, dobrého života a dobrej praxe, čo sú nielen morálne kategórie, ale aj predmet aplikovanej etiky a jej špecifických subdisciplín: *organizačnej etiky, sociálnej etiky, etiky politiky, etiky ľudských práv, environmentálnej etiky, hospodárskej a podnikateľskej etiky*.
Za dôležité endogénne faktory rozvoja regiónov boli ešte donedávna v kontexte ekonomického prístupu považované najmä *podnikateľské subjekty* ako hnacia sila a sprostredkovateľ rozvoja; *pracovné sily* ako neoddeliteľná súčasť výrobných a rozhodovacích procesov, aj *infraštruktúra*, najmä tzv. „tvrdá“ (technická infraštruktúra dopravných sietí, telekomunikačných, vodných, energetických sietí); finančný kapitál a prírodné zdroje. Dnes je už situácia iná a hybnou silou regionálneho rozvoja sú regionálni a miestni aktéri a regionálny rozvoj sa chápe širšie, než len hospodársky rozvoj. Heuristickým kľúčom v rozvoji sa stávajú kultúrne a ekosystémové služby, sociálne, kultúrne a prírodné podmienky pri zohľadnení udržateľného rozvoja. Idea etickej infraštruktúry nie je nová, je jednoduchá, ale môže sledovať novú perspektívu. Aby určité organizácie, inštitúcie, podniky, či administratívne systémy uspeli, prekvitali, potrebujú dobrú infraštruktúru, fyzickú (dopravu, služby, komunikáciu), sociálnu (sociálne normy, očakávania, pravidlá), aj etickú infraštruktúru. Tak napríklad implicitná sociálno-politická infraštruktúra, ktorú v spoločnosti považujeme za samozrejmosť a nezamýšľame sa nad ňou, je dôležitou súčasťou a komponentom fungovania spoločnosti a hrá fundamentálnu úlohu v interakciách ľudí, v civilizovanom dialógu, pri rešpektovaní ľudských práv a akceptovaní rôznych spôsobov vyrovnaného života z hľadiska ekonomických, politických a sociálnych podmienok. Akú úlohu plní etická politika a etická infraštruktúra pre dobrý (rozumej hodnotný či šťastný) život v polis?

2 MORÁLNO-HODNOTOVÝ KONTEXT REGIONÁLNEHO ROZVOJA

Aby sme mohli hľadať odpovede na dobrý život v mestskom regióne, potrebujeme si v prvom kroku ujasniť a vymedziť základné pojmy: *mestský región, regionálny rozvoj, etická politika, etická infraštruktúra.* Druhým krokom a špecifickým cieľom nášho skúmania v predloženej štúdii bude zdôvodnenie poslania a účasti aplikovaných etikov (expertov na etiku) v transformačných procesoch a transformačných zmenách rozvoja regiónu, tzn. aj v rozhodovacích a plánovacích procesoch regiónu, ich účasť v komisiách, projektoch a štruktúrach verejnej správy.
Funkčné mestské regióny – predstavujú špecifický typ mestského regiónu definovaného na základe priestorovej interakcie medzi mestom a jeho okolím. Ide o nodálne regióny. Mestský región sa definuje ako priestorové súvislé územie, ktoré je relatívne uzavreté vzhľadom na denný pohyb obyvateľov za prácou, vzdelaním, službami, rekreáciou a sociálnymi kontaktmi. Pre regionálnu analýzu predstavujú často vhodnejšie priestorové jednotky než existujúce administratívne členenie danej krajiny. Mikroregióny pre potreby komunálnej reformy – dosahujú najvyšší stupeň integrity. Ide o územné celky, v ktorých sú najviac uzatvorené regionálne procesy, najmä dochádzka za prácou a službami (Gozora, 2011, s. 10-13). Všeobecne, na základe rôznych definícií budeme región vnímať ako zložitý dynamický priestorový systém, ktorý vznikol na zemskom povrchu na základe interakcie prírodných a socioekonomických javov, otvorený, *interagujúci*. Jeho cieľom je podnecovať kultúrny, sociálny a hospodársky rozvoj a rozvíjať vlastnú identitu.

K faktorom podmieňujúcim rozvoj a vývoj regiónov patrí napríklad faktor *polohového potenciálu, makropolohovej atraktivity*, *charakteru osídlenia* a *osobitosti demografických štruktúr*, *územno-správneho členenia, sídelnej hierarchie, historickej marginality*, alebo (nevýhodnej) *ekonomickej špecializácie regiónu* (Falťan, 2005), alebo faktor *depresnosti priľahlých regiónov susedných štátov*, čo poukazuje na nevýhodnú pozíciu východoslovenských okresov (Radvanský, 2009), tiež faktor *environmentálnej situácie* (ovplyvňujúci kvalitu života, zdravotný stav obyvateľstva), alebo ako hovorí faktor akčnosti samosprávy, ktorá rozhodujúco ovplyvňuje správu a rozvoj územia, ak dokáže iniciovať a viesť partnerstvá, získavať podporu, aktivizovať a inštitucionálne inovovať verejnú správu, atď. K faktorom podmieňujúcim rozvoj regiónu zaraďujeme aj „etickú politiku ako *„proces spoločného rozhodovania určitej skupiny morálnych aktérov k dosiahnutiu určitého spoločného dobra"* (Klimková, 2017b) a etickú infraštruktúru, ktoré znamenajú súbor nástrojov a postupov zameraných na elimináciu nežiadúceho a neetického konania (Fobel, 2002; Fobel, 2013), podporu takého prostredia, v ktorom je prítomná dôvera, komunikácia, transparentnosť, profesionalita, spravodlivosť a spravodlivá distribúcia zdrojov, prístup k informáciám, zdrojom, rozhodovaniu, spoločenská zodpovednosť, atď." (Klimková, 2017b).
Termín "etická infraštruktúra" sa odvoláva na formálne systémy, postupy a politiky, ktoré môže organizácia implementovať, aby zabezpečila, že organizácia a jej členovia (zamestnanci) ako morálni aktéri konajú eticky, aby „disponovali takými systémami riadenia, vedenia, rozhodovania, ktoré aplikujú a implementujú etické rozhodovacie procesy a etické praktiky" (Klimková, 2017b). Iný, všeobecnejší prístup hovorí o formálnych a neformálnych systémoch, ktoré umožňujú etické konanie a správanie v organizáciách. Etická infraštruktúra, je definovaná aj ako prvky, ktoré prispievajú k etickej efektívnosti organizácie, obsahuje formálne a neformálne etické systémy. Tieto systémy by mali spoločne usmerňovať rozhodnutia tvorcov politík, lídrov, manažérov, ich konanie a rozhodnutia pri riešení náročných etických otázok. Avšak, empirický výskum etickej infraštruktúry bol doteraz ojedinelý, zriedkavý, skromný, ako konštatuje Treviño (Treviño et al., 2014, Treviño a kol., 2006). V právnej praxi, termín *etická infraštruktúra* zaviedol Ted Schneyer, profesor práv na Arizonskej univerzite, ktorý sa odvolal na formálne systémy a postupy a politiky, ktoré organizácia implementuje do svojich rozhodovacích procesov a organizačnej kultúry (Schneyer, 1991). Zavedenie etickej infraštruktúry je proaktívnym a proetickým opatrením na rozvoj a podporu etickej praxe. Výskumné štúdie v Južnom Walese ukázali, že formy, ktoré tak urobili sú lepšie riadené, lepšie a efektívnejšie poskytujú služby, znížili počet sťažností (Schneyer, 2011). Podľa jedného z najstarších etických centier (*ERC, Ethics Resources Centre*) je súborom štyroch základných prvkov a mala by byť v zhode s legislatívnym rámcom a externými reguláciami, organizačnou filozofiou, organizačnými hodnotami, individuálnymi hodnotami[1]. Morálne hodnoty usmerňujú organizačné správanie a efektivita organizácií, pripravenosť na strategické zmeny a organizačné inovácie a transformácie, na realizáciu ich skutočného poslania a vízií nadväzuje na Aristotelovskú ideu nielen „dobrého života", ale aj „dobrej praxe". Pokiaľ neprijmeme predpoklady, že hodnoty nikdy nestoja osamotene, ale sú súčasťou strategického riadenia, a všetkých ekonomicko-sociálnych procesov regiónu, rovnako ako základných dokumentov regionálneho rozvoja, súčasne, že inovácie a kvalitatívne zmeny rozvoja regiónov súvisia s hodnotami a so všetkými vzťahmi prebiehajúcimi v regióne, potom musíme vnímať pripravenosť regiónov ku kvalitatívnym zmenám ako podmienku prežitia. Súčasťou tohto smerovania je dôsledná etická politika a tvorcovia etických politík (experti na etiku, poradcovia v etike).

[1] *Ethics Resources Centre*. Dostupné na: https://berkleycenter.georgetown.edu/organizations/ethics-resource-center (19. 6. 2018).

3 ETICKÝ PROGRAM A RIADENIE ETIKY AKO INOVATÍVNY POTENCIÁL REGIONÁLNEHO ROZVOJA

Analýza etických rizík predstavuje jednu z možností spoluúčasti aplikovaných etikov, v tzv. interdisciplinárnych tímoch, alebo ich účasť pri tvorbe strategických dokumentov a procesov, napríklad v tvorbe a implementácii *Programov hospodárskeho rozvoja a sociálneho rozvoja samosprávneho kraja*, alebo *Programov hospodárskeho rozvoja a sociálneho rozvoja obce* (v súlade so zákonom č. 309/2014 Z. z., ktorým sa dopĺňa zákon č. 539/2008 Z. z. o podpore regionálneho rozvoja). Poslanie a úlohy expertov na etiku vidíme v dvoch sférach: (1) *v preventívnej etike*: tzn. v systematickej implementácii etiky do etického prostredia, pri tvorbe a implementácii etických programov; (2) v proaktívnej *konzultačnej a poradenskej činnosti*, tzn. monitoringu a vyhodnocovaní pravdepodobnosti výskytu rizika, etického rizika, alebo neetického konania, predvídateľné, aj nepredvídateľné etické dôsledky. Expert na etiku dokáže priradiť váhy významnosti jednotlivým etickým rizikám, aj posúdiť, či riziko môže vyústiť do krízy. Na základe toho je schopný pripraviť alternatívy riešení, aj s dopadom na rôzne cieľové skupiny a konkrétnych morálnych aktérov. Expert na etiku má kompetencie pre poskytovanie odborného etického servisu všetkým organizáciám v regióne, teda aj verejnej správe. Je teda schopný inštitucionalizovať etiku na rôznych úrovniach regiónu.

V rozvoji regiónov má samozrejme fundamentálnu rolu strategické plánovanie a jeho vonkajšie väzby v systéme riadenia a správy, ktoré Radoslav Klamár (2005) definoval nasledovane:

- *pre zložky samosprávy* – by sa strategický plán mal akčnou smernicou politickej reprezentácie mesta resp. regiónu;
- *pre miestne zložky samosprávy* – by mal byť základnou informáciou o zámeroch mesta resp. regiónu ako celku, rámcom pre vytváranie vlastných lokálnych stratégií a programov;
- *politické strany* – môžu strategický plán využiť k príprave svojich volebných programov;
- *vzťah strategického plánu k verejnosti je kľúčový* – z ich potrieb musí program vychádzať, s jeho koncepčnými víziami, cieľmi i akčným programom by mali byť občania zoznámení a mali by ho prijať za svoj;
- *pre vyššie úrovne štátnej správy* – môže strategický plán slúžiť ako podklad pre prejednávanie o účasti štátu (širšieho regiónu) na rozvoji obce – o legislatívnych úpravách, finančnej účasti a iných formách účasti;
- *voči podnikateľskej sfére* – plní strategický plán garančnú funkciu – poskytuje informácie o zámeroch a očakávanom budúcom správaní sa obce (regiónu) a tým aj do istej miery i o budúcich podmienkach podnikania v nej, dáva zároveň priestor na formovanie partnerstiev verejnej a súkromnej sféry a vznik rozvojových iniciatív;
- *pre odvetvové koncepcie* – strategický plán určuje základné princípy rozvoja, vo všeobecnej úrovni zaisťuje medziodvetvovú koordináciu a naznačuje súvislosti (Klamár, 2005).

Súčasťou strategického plánovania vo väzbe na každú zložku, má dôležitú funkciu a misiu aplikovaná etika prostredníctvom špecifických teoreticko-aplikačných diskurzov aj prostredníctvom poradenstva v etike (inštitucionalizácie a implementácie etickej politiky a etickej infraštruktúry na všetkých úrovniach aj v konkrétnych inštitúciách a organizáciách rôzneho typu, nemáme na mysli len podniky a firmy, teda súkromný sektor).

S regionálnym rozvojom súvisia a sú tesne späté problémy štátnej a verejnej správy, jej transformačné procesy. Diskurzy o spravodlivej verejnej správe, o transparentnej a zodpovednej verejnej správe, alebo o dobrej praxi verejnej správy nás navigujú k úvahám o samosprávach, či verejnej správe v jej organizačnej dimenzii, to znamená o organizáciách pôsobiacich v rámci tohto systému, ale aj o charakteristických črtách organizácií ako takých.

Môžeme vnímať verejnú správu ako organizáciu / organizácie a teda v nej uplatňovať paradigmy organizačnej etiky? Implementácia etiky a spúšťanie nového etického režimu sa často zjednodušene spája s rozpracovaním etického kódexu (Fobel, 2013). V organizačnej praxi sa často podceňuje preventívna úloha etiky a aktívnej etickej politiky. Stretávame sa s neprofesionálnymi postupmi, alebo s tým, že organizácia nemá vytvorený priestor pre dialóg a etické nástroje. Každú organizáciu možno definovať ako systém rolí a prúd aktivít, ktoré nadobúdajú takú podobu, aby viedli k napĺňaniu spoločných zámerov. Systém rolí vlastne predstavuje štruktúru organizácie a prúd aktivít zodpovedá procesom, ktoré prebiehajú v organizácii. Môžeme konštatovať, že „fungovanie systému štátnej a verejnej správy ako racionálnej organizácie, závisí od ľudského faktora, odborných a morálnych kvalít" (Fobel, 2000, s. 105). Dôvera ako dôležitý komponent, v našom prípade dôvera občana/občanov závisí od správania sa zamestnancov verejnej správy, aj od etickej infraštruktúry vo verejnej správe.

Organizačná kultúra podporujúca inovácie je dôležitým predpokladom úspechu organizácií, ktoré zvolili stratégiu inovácií a chcú poskytovať lepšie služby. Ako konštatujú mnohí teoretici, špecifiká inovatívnej kultúry organizácie sú v paradoxoch a v tom, že *inovatívna kultúra*:

- vďaka zdieľaným inovatívnym hodnotám a normám redukuje konflikty vo vnútri organizácie a na strane druhej vedie k zvýšenej citlivosti na problémy (Lukášová a kol., 2004);
- vytvára a podporuje poriadok a do istej miery aj akúsi vzburu voči tradičnému poriadku (Lukášová a kol., 2004, s. 142); pripomíname, že je dôležité to chápať inovatívne, ale s rešpektom k tradícii, k tradičným hodnotám regiónu, zvykom, rituálom, ceremoniálom;
- na jednej strane zabezpečuje kontinuitu, zjednodušuje koordináciu a kontrolu, na strane druhej vytyčuje provokatívne ciele a tým možno narúša doterajšie hodnoty, či profesionálne role; konečným výsledkom však bude nový vyšší stupeň kontinuity, koordinácie, kontroly (Lukášová a kol., 2004, s. 142).

Tendencia, aby inštitúcie a organizácie, ktoré sú súčasťou tokov moci a rozhodovacích procesov regionálneho rozvoja implementovali etiku do svojich praxí, nie je nová a súvisí s náročnosťou s prijatím politicky aj morálne obhájiteľných rozhodnutí. Súvisí s posudzovaním sociálnych, politických, ekonomických a environmentálnych dôsledkov (krátkodobých, strednodobých, dlhodobých) aj s elimináciou neetických praktík. Úloha aplikovanej etiky je aj v „objasnení morálnych predpokladov, respektíve základov, a tým prispieva k zdôvodneným a zodpovedným rozhodnutiam" (Banse, In Fobel, 2010, s. 121). Etické riadenie (*Ethical Governance*) je koncept zameraný na zmenu chápania postavenia etickej politiky, nie ako doplnku, ale ako centrálnej témy v rozhodovacom procese. Všetky ľudské aktivity by mali byť podriadené etickej perspektíve, čo znamená nielen *dobrú prax*, ale aj cestu k spravodlivej, zodpovednej a udržateľnej spoločnosti (Klimková, 2017b). Vnútornú etickú politiku v organizačnej praxi najčastejšie vyjadruje etický program (Čmelíková, 2010, s. 98). Organizácie v regióne môžu proaktívne vytvárať svoju etickú organizačnú kultúru prostredníctvom kvalitne navrhnutých etických programov (Treviño, 2006).

4 ZÁVER

Mnohé organizácie majú svoj etický program, ale ako formálny nástroj a nevedia čo s ním. Aby to bola neformálna záležitosť, aby to prispelo k rozvoju regiónu a stalo sa skutočne súčasťou riadenia kvality a politiky, ktorá ako preferovanú hodnotu vyjadruje etické štandardy, morálne rozhodovanie a konanie a dobrú prax, potom je potrebné venovať etike v regióne – v jeho inštitúciách a organizáciách mimoriadnu pozornosť a zveriť ju do rúk

špecialistom – poradcom v etike. Medzi osvedčené formy etického manažmentu patrí spolupráca a partnerstvo s Centrami etického poradenstva[2], v ktorých pôsobia špecialisti schopní adekvátne uchopiť uvedenú problematiku „dobrého života v polis“.

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AVAILABILITY OF INFORMATION ON A REQUEST IN THE SMALL MUNICIPALITIES IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Peter Nemec

Abstract

The right to information is one of the fundamental political rights, one of the main attributes of a democratic state. In the Slovak Republic it is regulated by Act No. 211/2000 on free access to information effective since 2001. Despite the long period of existence of this law, public authorities have been failing to comply with it. Problems occur especially in small municipalities. The paper focuses first on the theoretical knowledge about the availability of information on a request under the Act and also on the status of small municipalities in the Slovak Republic. Subsequently, on the basis of the realized research, the paper gathers practical experience with the process of accessing the requested information, which shows the conditions of the small municipalities as well as the relation of the small municipalities to the Act No. 211/2000.

Keywords: *information, law, small municipalities, request*

1 INTRODUCTION

The significant change which considerably affected the public administration in the Slovak Republic has been the adoption of the Act on Free Access to Information - Act No. 211/2000. This act is considered by many experts due its importance as one of the most important legislative acts in the era of the independent Slovak Republic. It delivers the transition from secrecy to the openness of public administration. Thus, public authorities must make available to the public all information available to them, with the exception of those whose protection is required in the public interest. The fundamental importance of the Act on Free Access to Information itself on the transparency of public relations can be found, in particular, in the disclosure of all information relating to the public interest. This allows for public scrutiny to identify and subsequently rectify potential failures that may be committed (and many times are committed) by elected representatives and their institutions.

The Act on Free Access to Information itself, from the time of its preparation, has given rise to negative reactions from the obligated subjects, which in practice result in failure to comply with it. Some stakeholders consider free access to information as a barrier to the performance of their agenda. This law may not only entail increased burdens of work they have to carry out in relation to it, but it may also pose a problematic concealment of their own dubious behaviour or an increased threat of possible negative reactions by the public to the conduct of individual representatives of these entities. Critical voices are mainly heard by small municipalities that are the most vulnerable among individual subjects of the public administrations that are materially and personally undersized. As a reason for such a negative perception of Act No. 211/2000 they state enormous burdens placed on them, beside the exercise of their original and delegated competencies, and in particular their personnel capacities and material equipment do not allow them to deal properly with the disclosure of information under the relevant law.

The general issue of the right to information in the conditions of the Slovak Republic is now relatively widespread in this territory, but mostly on theoretical level. From a practical point of view, the problems in making information available, especially in small municipalities are

almost not addressed at all, and there is a lack of procedures and methods that would enable to deal with this unfavourable situation systematically and effectively. That is why we have decided to address this issue and tackle it. To this end, we have carried out extensive research and we are presenting its partial outputs relating to process of making information available in the respective paper.

2 THEORETICAL DEFINITION

The issue of the right to information belongs on a global scale among topical and widespread themes. Although it might seem at first glance that it is a right that is the construct of the new era, it can actually be dated back to the end of the 18th century, when the first code of law in Sweden emerged in the context of freedom of the press. From the north of Europe, the need to exercise the right to receive and disseminate information in practice has come sooner or later basically all over the world and is now an indispensable element of the legal order of the advanced democratic states of the world. Due to its specificity, its interrelation to other rights or freedoms, as well as a varied approach to it, it is necessary to clarify the relevant facts and concepts that form the theoretical basis of the presented issue.

2.1 Availability of information on a request

From the wording of the Act No. 211/2000 follows that it recognizes two ways of making information available. The first way is to make information available on request from applicants and the second way, the obligatory (active) disclosure of information where the obligated person must disclose information without being asked for it in advance (Ikrényi et al., 2015; Dobrovodský, Košičiarová, 2015; Wilfling, 2012). In view of the content of this paper, we will only focus on publishing information on the basis of a request for access to information.

In the context of the Act on Free Access to Information, any entity ("anyone") may in any form ask an exactly specified obligatory entity to disclose information at its disposal. According to the section 14 subsection 1 of this Act, the request for disclosure may be filed not only in writing (letter), orally, by fax, e-mail, but also by any other means that are technically feasible for the obliged person (e.g. by telephone). The provisions of section 19 subsection 2 of Act No. 71/1967 (Administrative Procedure Code) states that each submission (including a request) must be assessed by the obliged entity not according to its designation or name but by its content. The request must in accordance with the section 14 subsection 2 of the Information Act clearly indicate for which obliged person it is intended, it must contain the identification data of the applicant, and also clearly state the information concerned and the way of disclosure of information suggested by the applicant.

Pursuant to section 14 subsection 4 of the Act No. 211/2000 the request is regarded as filed on the day the obliged person with appropriate competence was notified. Provisions of the section 15 subsection 1 of the Information Act regulates the situation when the obliged person doesn´t have the requested information available and knows where it is possible to obtain the information. In this case it shall transfer the request within five days from the delivery of the request to the obliged person who has the requested information available. If the obliged person fails to know it, it shall reject the request by a written decision

Pursuant to section 15 subsection 2 of the Information Act the obliged person shall notify the applicant of the transfer of request without any delay. Pursuant to section 15 subsection 3 of the Act, the period for compliance with request shall commence anew on the day the obliged person received the transferred request.

Information may be in the context of the provisions of the section 16 subsection 1, first sentence of the Information Act made available in a various ways and as rightly noted by Kamenec and Pirošík (2000), the choice of how to make information available depends mainly on the will of the applicant. However, if the information can not be made available in a way specified by the applicant, the obliged entity must, in accordance with section 16, subsection 1, second sentence of the information Act agree with the applicant another way of making information available. These facts, however, are not further specified by the law.

As in the context of the provision 3 of the section 3 of the Information Act (e.g. Ikrényi et al., 2015; Dobrovodský, Košičiarová, 2015; Wilfling, 2012), the information provided by the obliged entity is made available to the applicant without the applicant having to state or prove the reason for the application, for which information he / she is requesting, or to demonstrate the justification or validation of the request. It is completely irrelevant for the obliged person whether the applicant intends to use the information for their personal purposes or to use it publicly.

Pursuant to provisions of the section 17 subsection 1 of the Information Act The obliged person shall comply with the request for information without undue delay, but not later than eight working days after filing of the request. In accordance with the section 17 subsection 2 to accommodate the request of a blind person to make the information available in the Braille is set the period of 15 working days quoted law set a period

Wilfling (2012) states that in the context of the Information Act that information that is simple and whose search and gathering do not take much time must be made available "*without undue delay*", that is, if possible, immediately. Since the concept is not defined by any law, according to Fekete (2011) it is necessary to interpret it according to the circumstances of the individual case, taking into account the nature of the matter. The provision of simple information on the last day of the term is not correct according to Wilfling (2012) and can be considered a breach of legal obligation.

For serious and well-defined reasons as specified in section 17 subsection 2 of the Information Act, the obliged person may extend the time limit for processing the application, but not more than by 8 working days and 15 working days if the information is made accessible to the blind person in an accessible form. Under section 27 subsection 2 of Act No. 71/1967 the period begins to run on the day following the date on which the beginning of the period was established.

The accommodation of a request for information can be understood as either providing the required information within the statutory time limit or issuing a written decision not to disclose information within the statutory time limit about which needs to be issued a written decision pursuant to section 18 subsection 2 of the Information Act. According to Wilfling (2012), if the obliged entity fails to accommodate a request for information within the statutory time limit and remains idle, it is assumed that it has issued a decision not to disclose the requested information. After the legal deadline, therefore, is established the fiction of a disapproving (negative) decision. This also applies if the obligated person has only made available some of the required information, but has not made a written decision about not providing of the remaining information within the statutory time limit. As stated by Dobrovodský and Košičiarová (2015), if the application fails to meet the obligatory content requirements and the applicant fails to correct it in due time, the information may not be

disclosed due to this deficiency. In this case the obliged person must with reference to section 18 subsection 2 of Act No. 211/2000 set the request aside.

2.2 Small municipalities

There is no legal definition of a "small municipality". On the basis of certain characteristic and relevant features, however, it can be defined from the general point of view as the lowest administrative and territorial unit associating citizens who have permanent residence in their territory (e.g. Cibulka, 2017).

The size of a municipality in terms of its population is usually considered a significant differentiation factor that affects different levels of community development or the quality of human potential (Gajdoš, Moravanská, 2014). Despite this fact, there is no legislation in the Slovak legal order which would differentiate the municipalities according to their size. However, certain consideration of this aspect can be seen in the issue of dividing income tax revenue to the local government when the size of settlements itself is one of the four criteria for allocating of share taxes (see Government Decree No. 668/2004 on the distribution of income tax revenues to the territorial self- self-government) or in the issue of the number of members of the municipality council, which depends on the size of the municipality (see section 11, subsection 3 of Act No. 369/1990).

The very definition of the term "small municipality" is ambiguous in the context of a diverse view of experts on this issue. In Slovak and foreign literature, a small municipality is considered to be a municipality with up to 500 inhabitants or with up to 1000 inhabitants. Falťan et al. (2011) looks at the issue of the size of municipalities in the context of the criterion of the municipal infrastructure. It believes that there is no such infrastructure in communities of up to 500 inhabitants, which is present in municipalities with over 500 inhabitants. According to him, municipalities with up to 500 inhabitants perform part of the basic competencies using the larger municipalities within the joint offices. This theory is confirmed by the findings of Sochorová (2016) which, on the basis of the performed research confirm that there are almost no civil amenities within municipalities of up to 500 inhabitants, which is significantly improving in the municipalities with over 500 inhabitants. When assessing the technical infrastructure, both size categories of municipalities achieved comparable results. It follows that one of the characteristics that fundamentally distinguishes small municipalities from larger municipalities is the worse civil (and partly technical) infrastructure.

In general, a small municipality is a municipality with low population, lack of civil and technical infrastructure, and existing problems in the exercise of original or transferred competencies. We are inclined to the opinion of the experts that the small village is a population of 500 inhabitants in terms of number of inhabitants, because in the larger municipalities with more than 500 inhabitants the above mentioned problems are not seen to a larger extent.

According to Nižňanský et al. (2014), small municipalities have problems to adequately fulfil their statutory competencies, especially due to lack of human resources and financial resources. In this municipalities is a reduction in capital spending, debt, limited co-financing of projects, and a threat to the funding of basic services whose provision is their exclusive responsibility.

According to the statistical data from the year 2016 obtained from the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic, there were 2890 municipalities in the Slovak Republic, 140 of which had the status of a city. The rural communities of up to 5 000 inhabitants (2756 municipalities) had the largest share of the settlement structure, accounting for 95.36% of the total number of municipalities in the country. Most municipalities consisted of municipalities in two size categories - municipalities with population ranging from 500 to 999 (765 municipalities) and municipalities with a population of 200 to 499 (733 municipalities). Together with municipalities in the first size group of up to 199 inhabitants (397 municipalities), in the Slovakia exists 1895 municipalities with fewer than 1000 inhabitants, representing 65.97% of the total number of 2890 municipalities. The current settlement structure in the Slovak Republic is characterized by a significant fragmentation and a large share of the so-called small municipalities (Nižňanský et al., 2014).

According to Sloboda (2004), small municipalities in Slovakia concentrate mainly in two areas, in the south of Central Slovakia (the Juhoslovenská and Rožňavská basins) and in the northeast of Slovakia. Klimovský (2009) states that these are the most fragmented and least developed regions with the most municipalities with a population not exceeding the limit of 250 inhabitants. Most municipalities of this size category are located in remote areas with marginal economic and socio-economic significance. In the case of the first area where the small municipalities are concentrated it is a continuous area of municipalities in the counties of Veľký Krtíš through Lučenec, Rimavská Sobota, Revúca to Rožňava. Unlike the northeast of Slovakia, it has a better location potential, but it has not been used and developed for a long time which is also reflected in the demographic decline of the territory. The second area where the small municipalities are concentrated it is bounded by a continuous territorial belt which goes from Bardejov county to Sobrance county. This border area has been influenced by the impact of state borders as a barrier and the absence of metropolitan agglomerations of pan-European importance, which is also reflected in the overall demographic potential.

3 DISCLOSURE OF INFORMATION ON REQUEST - RESEARCH

The basic research method of obtaining primary data in quantitative research was a questionnaire method implemented in the form of an electronically transmitted request for information disclosure. This procedure was chosen mainly because of the advantages this method provides - speed, objectivity, accessibility and also no economic burden for the concerned subjects. As part of the research methodology, we proceeded taking into account the existence of a well-known psychological barrier of respondents to fill out extensive questionnaires. For this reason, the scope of the request for access to information was, by analogy, chosen to the maximum extent to prevent problems in providing the requested information. The respective request consisted of seven so-called “open questions” of a merit nature that could be divided into two areas of interest: provision of information under the Information Act and staffing of municipal offices, including internal organization of work.

The basic set of research consisted of 1130 small municipalities located in the territory of the Slovak Republic. The examined municipalities include two size groups defined by the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic - municipalities with 199 inhabitants and municipalities from 200 to 499 inhabitants (for the sake of the clarity we have shifted the limit of the statistically defined second size group to 500 inhabitants, while the final number of municipalities remains unaffected). In the effort of complexity and full coverage of the research sample, we have integrating all selected municipalities into research, and we have not considered the creation of a sample. Due to the occurrence of certain facts (absence of e-mail address, non-delivery of e-mail), the size of the examined set was distorted to 95.40 %

(1078 municipalities) of the basic set. We completed the gathering of data on June 21, 2017, when the statutory 8-day deadline for accessing the requested information has expired.

As has already been mentioned, the problems with accessing information have already been detected in the very beginning of the research by submission of the information request in electronic form. It has been shown that some small municipalities are still not ready to process the legitimate requests from citizens sent by electronic mail. Their e-mail address was either missing or hard to find on the internet portals. We also registered the fact that many municipalities do not have a functional email address, which was demonstrated by the non-delivery (returns) of the information requests. This could have been due to the change of the email address without subsequent redirection of the delivered emails, without subsequent correction of the data on publicly available internet portals or other public places.

The collected research data showed that 613 of the total of 1020 addressed municipalities responded to the request for information disclosure within 8 working days, representing a total of 60.01 %. In municipalities with up to 199 inhabitants there were 178 municipalities (56.51 %) and in municipalities with number of inhabitants from 200 to 500 we recorded 435 responding municipalities (61.70 %). Of the 613 small municipalities, 588 responded to a request for information disclosure within the statutory time limit (95.92 %). Of that number, 14 municipalities (2.28 %) responded immediately on the application date when the legal deadline did not even begin to run. 154 municipalities (25.12 %) responded to the request on the first day of the deadline. From the municipalities with a population of up to 199 inhabitants it was 42 municipalities, and 112 municipalities from the municipalities ranging from 200 to 500 inhabitants. On the other hand, 22 municipalities (3.59 %) left the response on the last day of the deadline, while in the case of municipalities of up to 199 inhabitants it was 7 and in the case of municipalities from 200 to 500 inhabitants it was 15. After the deadline assumed by the law, information was disclosed by 25 small municipalities which is 4.08 % (14 municipalities with up to 199 inhabitants and 11 municipalities with 200 to 500 inhabitants).

Table No. 1: Overview of meeting the legal deadline for handling a request for information disclosure

	Municipalities up to 199 inhabitants	**Municipalities from 200 to 500 inhabitants**	**Total**	**Total in %**
On the day of request submission	6	8	14	2.28 %
1. day	42	112	154	25.12 %
2. day	24	79	103	16.80 %
3. day	25	75	100	16.31 %
4. day	19	43	62	10.11 %
5. day	18	37	55	8.97 %
6. day	10	35	45	7.34 %
7. day	13	20	33	5.38 %
8. day	7	15	22	3.59 %
After the deadline	14	11	25	4.08 %

Source: Processed by the results of the research, 2018.

According to the above data, that as many as 40 % of small municipalities did not respond in any way to the sent request, which is considerably negative and worrying in view of the obligation imposed by the law. On the basis of this data, we believe that, despite the long existence of the Act on Free Access to Information, it is perceived by the representatives of

small municipalities is as a "second-round" law. Failure to comply with its individual provisions in practice (except the obligatory disclosure of contracts) is not connected with legal consequences which would have fatal effects for the local authorities or would constitute a high sanction for failure to do so.

Out of the 613 municipalities that responded to the request, only 375 cases were signed by the municipality's mayor as the sender of the e-mail, representing 61.17 %. The administrative officer of the Municipality Office was the second most frequent person to respond to the request. This happened in 182 municipalities (29.69 %). In case of 5 municipalities (0.81 %) who responded to this request, the deputy mayor of the municipality was chosen as the designated person to disclose the information. In the case of 3 municipalities (0.49 %), the information was made available by the economist, or the accountant of the municipality. The financial manager of the municipality dealt with a submitted request in two municipalities (0.32 %). Up to 46 responses to this request were not signed at all, representing 7.50 %.

Table No. 2: Personal aspect in the responses to request for information disclosure

	Municipalities up to 199 inhabitants	**Municipalities from 200 to 500 inhabitants**	**Total**	**Total in %**
municipality's mayor	127	248	375	61.17 %
administrative officer	34	148	182	29.69 %
economist/accountant	2	1	3	0.49 %
financial manager	2	0	2	0.32 %
deputy mayor	2	3	5	0.81 %
not signed	11	35	46	7.50 %

Source: Processed by the results of the research, 2018

The above data show that the request for access to information is usually accommodated by the mayor of the municipality. Staffing in the individual municipal offices is often missing the developed administrative apparatus, which is represented exclusively by the mayor of the municipality. They alone fulfil all the roles imposed on them in connection with the tasks of the municipal offices, usually working half-time, sometimes even for a shorter time. If the municipal office has other employees, it can be assumed that the agenda is assigned to them or shared with the mayor of the municipality.

Of the total number of small municipalities to which the request for information was sent, we received the highest rate of responses from the municipalities from the Bratislava region, where to the 6 sent requests all the 6 addressed municipalities replied (100 %). In turn, the second region was the Nitra region, where to 88 sent requests addressed to specific small municipalities replied 67 local governments of up to 500 inhabitants (76.14 %). On the third place is the Trnava region, where from the addressed 41 municipalities replied 29 municipalities (41.7 %). The Banská Bystrica region ranked fourth in the assessment of small municipalities that responded to the request for information disclosure and 155 small municipalities (63.79 %) replied on 243 requests. The second part of the regions is opened by the Košice region with 105 responses to 166 requests (63.25 %). Further is the Trenčín region, where 41 small municipalities (59.42 %) responded to the 69 submitted applications. The penultimate place belongs to the Žilina region, where 47 municipalities with 500 inhabitants replied to 87 requests (54.02 %). Last is the Prešov region with feedback from 157 municipalities to 317 requests, which is 49.84 %.

Of the 613 municipalities that responded to the request for information disclosure, up to 611 of them made the requested information available in its entirety. One municipality in the

Nitra county fail to disclose the requested information at all and the other municipality in the county of Nové Zámky answered the request in part only when information only to four of the seven questions were disclosed. For both municipalities, there were reasons that were not supported by the law, and therefore did not proceed in the correctly to refuse the access to information. Out of the 611 small municipalities that made available the required information in full, 448 responded to all the questions asked, the responses of the remaining 163 municipalities were incomplete. The reasons for such a situation are unknown and can only be guessed. Reflections, however, are mainly directed at the lax approach of the authorized persons to the sent question when they obviously did not read carefully the questions asked. This does not exclude even the misunderstanding of the actual text of the request, which, however, we perceive as simple and comprehensible or even deliberate non-disclosure of the required information by those obliged persons.

From the content of some responses to the request and the attitude of the representatives of small municipalities, it can also be assumed that the request for certain information by referring to the Information Act is perceived as a form of attack on the given self-government, or their person. This is evidenced by many inappropriate responses or inadequate remarks in response to the requested information full of arrogance, even aggression. For all such answers, we give an example of a small municipality located in the county of Vranov nad Topľou. Its mayor said that every request for access to information unnecessarily intrudes upon his time and quiet at work, does not help and personally sees no significance in submitting such information.

As part of the information gathering process, we have seen behaviours in several small municipalities, the obvious goal of which was to create a barrier to access the requested information, or at least to let the applicant know that the request for access to information is, for various reasons, difficult: One group of small municipalities obstructing the access to information, were those which required to state the reasons why we need the information. However, the Act on Free Access to Information in the section 3 subsection 1 clearly states that information is made available without evidence of any legal or other cause or interest for which the information is required. This means that none of the obliged persons may make the disclosure of the requested information conditional upon the reason for which the request is sent. The other category of such municipalities may include those municipalities which, despite the fact that the request in question contained all the formalities required by the law, requested additions in accordance with the provisions of section 4 subsection 3 of the Information Act. According to this statutory provision, if the application does not have the prescribed formalities, the liable entity shall promptly request the applicant to add the incomplete application within a specified period of not less than 7 days. In doing so, it has to instruct the applicant about how to make the addition. Since the request submitted contained all the prescribed requirements, we responded to the reaction of the given municipality, saying that we insist on making information available, as we are not aware of the absence of formalities in our application. Thereafter, the information requested from these municipalities was made available.

When collecting the information, we also note the fact that many obliged persons do not know the individual legal provisions of Act No. 211/2000 or do not apply them in practice. An example may be the municipality in the Prešov county, whose administrative official has obviously arbitrarily explained the provisions of section 7 of Information Act or was not aware of it at all. The section 7 subsection 1 of the cited act states that if the subject of the request is to obtain information which has been previously published in a certain place, the

obliged party may, without undue delay, but no later than five days after the request, instead of disclosing the information, provide the applicant the information which allow them to find and retrieve the published information. The following section 2 addresses the situation if the applicant insists on disclosure of published information. In that case, the obliged person shall make it available to them, and the period for making them available runs from the day on which the applicant announces that they insists on the direct access to the information. However, the official of the municipal office responded to the request curtly, stating that all requested information was freely available on the site of that municipality. Such a method may be considered as a reference to already disclosed information under the law in question only if the liable entity states the exact procedure for obtaining the information or - in the best case - provides a precise web link to obtain the information requested. Beside the evident violation of the cited legal provision, however, subsequent lustration at the official web site of the given municipality revealed that, except the one requested information, no other information we wanted to obtain was found. The guidance given to us by the official was therefore incorrect.

4 CONCLUSION

Act No. 211/2000 gave to the constitutional right to information an usable content and formally guaranteed that free access to information would be available to everyone. For more than 17 years of its existence, it could be assumed that the public authorities will adopt the basic postulate of this law, which implies that the implementation of its individual legal provisions in practice should not cause serious (any?) problems. Performed research has shown that this is not the case. We have found that in the conditions of small municipalities in the Slovak Republic there are several problems in making information available many times resulting in the absolute ignorance of the requests for disclosure. Due to the place of the Slovak Republic among the advanced democratic states, characterized by the openness of the public administration, the current state of affairs is not satisfactory. Therefore, this situation needs to be systematically and comprehensively investigated and then addressed.

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MIESTNE REFERENDUM V SLOVENSKEJ A ČESKEJ REPUBLIKE

LOCAL REFERENDUM IN SLOVAK AND CZECH REPUBLIC

Michaela Sangretová

Abstrakt

Miestne referendum je jedným z inštitútov priamej demokracie na lokálnej úrovni. Príspevok pojednáva o právnej úprave miestneho referenda v podmienkach Slovenskej a Českej republiky. Autor analyzuje a porovnáva slovenskú a českú právnu úpravu miestneho referenda, poukazuje na nedostatky a navrhuje možné návrhy a úvahy de lege ferenda.

Kľúčová slova: *samospráva, priama demokracia, miestne referendum*

Abstract

The local referendum is one of the institutions of direct democracy at the local level. The paper deals with the legal regulation of the local referendum in the conditions of the Slovak and the Czech Republic. The author analyzes and compares the Czech and Slovak legal regulations of the local referendum, points out deficiencies and suggests possible de lege ferenda considerations.

Key words: *self-government, direct democracy, local referendum*

ÚVOD

Neoddeliteľnou súčasťou demokratického a právneho štátu je územná samospráva ako demokratická forma spravovania miestnych záležitostí. Vo väčšine moderných demokratických štátov sú právne základy územnej samosprávy fixované v základných zákonoch, ktoré predstavujú východisko pre jej zákonnú úpravu, ako i pre jej praktické fungovanie.

Ak má byť štát považovaný za demokratický, musí mať vytvorený systém, ktorý na jednej strane umožňuje vytvoriť racionálnu centralizáciu a koncentráciu verejnej moci, na strane druhej v súlade s princípom subsidiarity verejnú moc dekoncentrovať na nižšie články. Princíp subsidiarity znamená, že nadradeným orgánom majú byť priznané iba také kompetencie a úlohy, ktoré nemôžu byť práve z dôvodu racionality a efektívnosti priznané nižším úrovniam štátu a spoločnosti.

Takto moderne poňatá územná samospráva zároveň vychádza z medzinárodnoprávnej úpravy. Najdôležitejším medzinárodnoprávnym dokumentom, ktorý je základom moderných samospráv súčasných európskych štátov je Európska charta miestnej samosprávy (ďalej len „Európska charta“)[1]. Európska charta definuje a obraňuje princípy miestnej samosprávy ako rozhodujúce piliere demokracie v jednotlivých krajinách. Základ tvorí osem princípov ako základných ukazovateľov rešpektovania demokratických hodnôt tých ktorých štátov, ktoré sa

[1] Európska charta miestnej samosprávy bola otvorená na podpis všetkým členským štátom Rady Európy dňa 15. októbra 1985. Jej podpisom najvyššie štátne inštitúcie prejavili svoju politickú vôľu riadiť sa vo vzťahu k územnej samospráve princípmi, ktoré obsahuje. Potvrdzujú tým a na medzinárodnej úrovni deklarujú svoj postoj k územnej samospráve, k jej významu a miestu v spoločnosti.

premietajú cez medzinárodné dokumenty a právne predpisy aj do právnych poriadkov jednotlivých štátov.[2] Európska charta okrem iného upravuje:

- ústavnú garanciu práva na miestnu samosprávu,
- materiálny definíciu práva na miestnu samosprávu,
- záruky dostatočného rozsahu práva na miestnu samosprávu,
- finančné záruky práva na miestnu samosprávu a
- právo na ochranu práva na miestnu samosprávu.[3]

Vnímajúc priamu demokraciu na miestnej úrovni (t. j na priestorovo menšom území) ako ľahšie realizovateľnú, pre občanov zaujímavejšiu a v neposlednom rade blížiacu sa „pravej", klasickej demokracii, môže vyvstať dojem, že práve tieto formy priamej demokracie budú bezproblémové, resp. so zanedbateľnými problémami v praktickej realizácii. Formy priamej demokracie na lokálnej úrovni v Slovenskej republike sú žiaľ v súčasnosti vnímané ako problematické, predovšetkým referendum na lokálnej úrovni.

Vzhľadom na podobnú východiskovú právnu základňu, ale i príbuznosť ústavno-politických problémov, sa nám na tomto mieste javí ako vhodné hľadať zdroje inšpirácie, tak v pozitívnom ako aj negatívnom zmysle slova, v právnom poriadku Českej republiky. Pri úvahách nad zmenou právnej úpravy inštitútov priamej demokracie je však potrebné taktiež reflektovať posledný vývoj v rámci Európskej únie, ktorá bude nepochybne jej vývoj determinovať.

1 PRIAMA DEMOKRACIA V SLOVENSKEJ REPUBLIKE

Ústava Slovenskej republiky č. 460/1992 Zb. v znení neskorších predpisov (ďalej len „Ústava SR"), v čl. 2 ods. 1 deklaruje, že „moc pochádza od občanov, ktorí ju vykonávajú prostredníctvom svojich volených zástupcov alebo priamo". Z uvedeného je zrejmé, že participáciu občana na štátnej moci Ústava SR deklaruje rovnocennou formou realizácie moci, na jednej strane prostredníctvom volených zástupcov a na druhej strane priamo občanmi. Na správe veci verejných majú občania právo podieľať slobodnou voľbou svojich zástupcov alebo priamo, o čom pojednáva čl. 30 ods. 1 Ústavy, v spojitosti už s citovaným ustanovením čl. 2 ods.1 Ústavy. Na základe týchto článkov môžeme hovoriť o pomere medzi demokraciou zastupiteľskou a priamou. V slovenskom právnom poriadku je dôraz kladený na systém zastupiteľskej demokracie. Priama demokracia ako prostriedok realizácie verejnej moci bezprostredne suverénom – ľudom, nie je ekvivalentom reprezentatívnej demokracie ani jej konkurentom. Existuje popri nej ako organický doplnok, ktorý môže napomáhať harmonizácií záujmov spoločnosti a štátu a súčasne upevňovať a posilňovať legitimitu moci.

Spôsob realizácie priamej účasti na správe veci verejných na miestnej úrovni[4] upravuje čl. 67 ods.1 Ústavy SR rámcovo popri orgánoch územnej samosprávy. Zhromaždenie obyvateľov obce, miestne referendum a referendum na území vyššieho územného celku predstavujú inštitúty realizácie priamej demokracie na lokálnej úrovni. Ústava SR obsahuje len rámcovú úpravu týchto inštitútov, konkretizáciu ktorých obsahuje v prvom rade zákon č. 369/1990 Zb. o obecnom zriadení v znení neskorších predpisov (ďalej len „zákon o obecnom zriadení") a následne zákon č. 302/2001 Z. z. o samospráve vyšších územných celkov v znení neskorších predpisov (ďalej len „zákon o VÚC").

Zákon o obecnom zriadení počíta s priamou účasťou obyvateľov obce ako so spôsobom výkonu miestnej samosprávy v ustanovení § 3 ods. 2, kde popri definovaní práv obyvateľa obce, hovorí, že obyvateľ obce má právo:

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[2] Bližšie pozri: SOTOLÁŘ, J. *Samospráva obce. Obecné zriadenie na Slovensku*. Košice: SOTAC s.r.o. 2011. s. 46 - 49.

[3] KROŠLÁK, D. a kol. *Ústavné právo*. Bratislava: Wolters Kluwer s.r.o., 2016. s. 712.

[4] Medzi inštitúty priamej demokracie na celoštátnej úrovni zaradzujeme celoštátne referendum a ľudové hlasovanie o odvolaní prezidenta.

- hlasovať o dôležitých otázkach života a rozvoja obce (miestne referendum),
- zúčastňovať sa na zhromaždeniach obyvateľov obce a vyjadrovať na nich svoj názor a zúčastňovať sa na zasadnutiach obecného zastupiteľstva.

V ustanovení § 4 ods. 2 zákona o obecnom zriadení je presne upravený spôsob vykonávania územnej samosprávy, podľa ktorého samosprávu obce vykonávajú obyvatelia obce troma spôsobmi a to 1) orgánmi obce, 2) miestnym referendom, 3) zhromaždením obyvateľov obce.

1.1 Miestne referendum a referendum na území vyššieho územného celku

Zákonodarca v § 11a zákona o obecnom zriadení upravuje kľúčovú formu priamej demokracie v podmienkach obecnej samosprávy. Podstatou miestneho referenda je vymedzenie jeho povahy ako doplnkového ad hoc mechanizmu k permanentne fungujúcim voleným orgánom obce. Uvedená povaha je výrazom tzv. suplementárnej povahy priamej demokracie vo vzťahu k demokracii zastupiteľskej.

Základné informácie o miestnom referende môžeme nájsť vo vyššie spomínanom §11a zákona o obecnom zriadení[5], pričom podrobnosti o organizácií ponecháva zákonodarca v rukách jednotlivých miest a obcí prostredníctvom všeobecne záväzných nariadení (ďalej len „VZN“). Zákon tiež rozlišuje, kedy je miestne referendum povinné, a kedy je možné, respektíve čo je potrebné urobiť, aby obecné zastupiteľstvo miestne referendum vyhlásilo. Zákon o obecnom zriadení ustanovuje, že obecné zastupiteľstvo vyhlási (obligatórne) miestne referendum, ak ide o

- zlúčenie obce, rozdelenie alebo zrušenie obce, ako aj zmenu názvu obce,
- odvolanie starostu,
- petíciu skupiny obyvateľov aspoň 30% oprávnených voličov,
- zmenu označenia obce, alebo
- ak to ustanovuje osobitný zákon.

Obecné zastupiteľstve v zmysle zákona môže vyhlásiť (fakultatívne) miestne referendum aj pred rozhodnutím o ďalších veciach samosprávy obce.

Účelom právnej úpravy miestneho referenda je aktivizácia občianskeho potenciálu a teda zvýšenie miery občianskej participácie na rozhodovacích procesoch v obecnej samospráve. Miestne referendá, žiaľ priveľmi často končia nedostatočnou účasťou hlasujúcich. Na tomto mieste sa otvára otázka existencie kvóra, ktoré je stanovené pre platnosť výsledkov miestneho referenda. V zmysle zákona o obecnom zriadení sú výsledky miestneho referenda platné, ak sa na ňom zúčastnila aspoň polovica oprávnených voličov a ak bolo rozhodnutie prijaté nadpolovičnou väčšinou platných hlasov účastníkov. Je potrebné zdôrazniť, že toto 50 percentné kvórum predstavuje rozsiahlejší problém prevažne pri realizácií celoštátneho referenda, avšak aj v rovine miestneho referenda, môže predstavovať v určitých obciach dosiahnutie 50 percentnej účasti oprávnených voličov na miestnom referende ťažko prekonateľnú prekážku.

Podľa J. Tekeliho *„legislatívne zrušenie kvóra účasti na miestnom referende ako podmienky platnosti jeho výsledkov by pozitívne ovplyvnilo mieru občianskej participácie na priamej správe veci verejných zvýšením percenta účasti oprávnených voličov na hlasovaní. Zároveň by došlo k reálnejšej použiteľnosti miestneho referenda v podmienkach slovenskej obecnej samosprávy“.*[6] Na druhej strane podľa A. Krunkovej *„znížená hranica kvóra pre platnosť a účinnosť výsledkov miestneho referenda, odstupňovaná adekvátne počtu obyvateľov v*

[5] Miestne referendum bolo do účinnosti veľkej novely zákona o obecnom zriadení č. 102/2010 Z. z., upravené v zákone o obecnom zriadení ako hlasovanie obyvateľov obce s legislatívnou skratkou „miestne referendum“. Predmetnou novelou sa terminológia zákona o obecnom zriadení prispôsobila terminológií Ústavy.

[6] TEKELI, J., HOFFMANN, M. *Zákon o obecnom zriadení. Komentár*. Bratislava: Wolters Kluwer, 2014. s. 433.

obciach, by mohla zvýšiť šancu k reálnemu uplatňovaniu priamej demokracie hlavne v obciach s vyšším počtom obyvateľov".[7]
Výsledky miestneho referenda predstavujú na jednej strane kľúčový inštitút celého zámeru uskutočňovania miestneho referenda, na druhej strane je však povaha výsledkov miestneho referenda najzložitejšou interpretačnou otázkou právnej úpravy miestneho referenda. V uvedenom smere zákon o obecnom zriadení výslovne nerieši predovšetkým otázku záväznosti výsledkov platného referenda pre orgány obce.[8] Rovnako platná právna úprava nepozná ani mechanizmus sankcionovania orgánu obce v prípade, ak tento orgán nerešpektuje platné výsledky miestneho referenda, pričom pod takýmto sankcionovaním je možné rozumieť napr. rozpustenie obecného zastupiteľstva ex lege, či zánik mandátu starostu obce ex lege.

1.2 Referendum na území vyššieho územného celku

Zákon o VÚC obsahuje obdobnú právnu úpravu, zohľadňujúc určité odchýlky, referenda na území vyššieho územného celku ako možnosti priamej účasti obyvateľov na rozhodovaní o otázkach života samosprávneho kraja. V zmysle § 15 ods. 1 zákona o VÚC „zastupiteľstvo vyhlási referendum o dôležitých otázkach, ktoré sa týkajú výkonu samosprávy samosprávneho kraja, ak sa na tom uznesie alebo ak o to petíciou požiada aspoň 30 % oprávnených voličov". Rovnako referendum vyhlási aj vtedy, ak sa má hlasovať o odvolaní predsedu samosprávneho kraja za podmienok stanovených v zákone. Podrobnejšia analýza tohto inštitútu nie je potrebná, nakoľko k realizácii jediného možného prvku priamej demokracie, referenda na území vyššieho územného celku, ešte v Slovenskej republike nedošlo.
Odpovedí na otázku, prečo sa do dnešných dní neuskutočnilo je viacero. Územie Slovenskej republiky je rozdelené na osem samosprávnych krajov a teda obyvatelia samosprávneho kraja sa k informáciám týkajúcich sa ich činnosti dostávajú iba sporadicky, predovšetkým prostredníctvom médií. Môžeme predpokladať že, rovnako realizácia referenda na území samosprávneho kraja je nepochybne finančne náročnejšia, ako realizácia referenda miestneho. V nadväznosti nato, by realizácia referenda mohla pôsobiť ako mrhanie finančných prostriedkov predovšetkým s ohľadom na pretrvajúcu nízku volebnú účasť vo voľbách do samosprávnych krajoch.

2 PRIAMA DEMOKRACIA V ČESKEJ REPUBLIKE

Všeobecne nemožno pochybovať o tom, že priama demokracia je v českých pomeroch chápaná ako jedna z možností ako sa podieľať na výkone štátnej moci. Na druhej strane, máme zato, že téma priamej demokracie bola v českom právnom prostredí dlhodobo značne opomínaná, nepochybne aj v dôsledku historických okolnosti prijímania Ústavy, ktoré boli voči priamej demokracii mimoriadne nepriaznivé.
Nie je teda zrejme prekvapivé, že vládny návrh Ústavy Českej republiky[9] (ďalej len „Ústava ČR"), s možnosťou referenda vôbec nepočítal a len ako kompromis sa nakoniec do čl. 2 ods. 2 Ústavy dostal text, ktorý do budúcna pre túto formu demokracie síce otvoril priestor, avšak nijakým zaväzujúcim a veľmi rozpačitým spôsobom. V podstate sa táto otázka len odložila k prípadnému možnému riešeniu v budúcnosti. Ústavodarca totiž len uviedol, že „ústavný zákon môže stanoviť, kedy ľud vykonáva štátnu moc priamo".

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[7] KRUNKOVÁ, A. *Verejná moc a priama demokracia*, Košice: UPJŠ, 2010. s. 109 a nasl.
[8] Určitú výnimku predstavuje miestne referendum o odvolaní starostu, ako určitej formy tzv. recallu na lokálnej úrovni. Ustanovenia tohto druhu miestneho referenda sa javia ako najpokrokovejšie v tom zmysle, že bez pochybností stanovujú účinky kladného výsledku referenda. Výsledky platného miestneho referenda, ktorým sa rozhodlo o odvolaní starostu spôsobujú zánik mandátu.
[9] Ústava Českej republiky č. 1/1993 Sb. v znení neskorších predpisov.

Od referenda na celoštátnej úrovni je potrebné odlišovať referendum miestne a krajské, týkajúce sa výkonu samostatnej pôsobnosti (práva na samosprávu). V tomto prípade Ústava ČR zákonodarcu nijak neobmedzuje, pretože ústavné zakotvenie referenda je požadované len pre prípady výkonu štátnej moci a nie moci samosprávnej. Na rozdiel od celoštátneho referenda, ktorým je na ľud prenášaný výkon štátnej moci, a pre ktoré je vzhľadom k výslovnému ustanoveniu čl. 2 ods. 2 Ústavy ČR predpísaná výhrada ústavného zákona[10], možno referendum miestne, resp. krajské zaviesť bežným zákonom, nakoľko nejde o výkon štátnej moci.

Pri hľadaní odpovede na otázku, či je referendum ako forma priama priamej demokracie na lokálnej úrovni odvoditeľná z ústavného poriadku, narážame na komplikáciu v podobe čl. 104 ods. 2 Ústavy ČR, podľa ktorého sú to zastupiteľstvá (nie priamo občania obce), kto rozhoduje vo veciach samosprávy. Ústava ČR teda výslovne predpokladá (a v tomto zmysle uprednostňuje) reprezentatívnu formu lokálnej samosprávy.[11]

Akokoľvek nie je miestne, resp. krajské referendum predpokladané Ústavou ČR[12] a hoci bolo do českého právneho a politického systému implementované vo vlne reforiem začiatku 21. storočia posilňujúce priamy vplyv občanov na výkon politickej moci,[13] napriek tomu ako jediný nástroj priamej demokracie reálne funguje.

2.1 Miestne referendum v Českej republike

Miestne referendum upravuje zákon č. 22/2004 Sb., o místním referendu (ďalej len „zákon o místním referendu“), ktorý nahradil skorší zákon č. 298/1992 Sb. o volbách do zastupitelstev v obcích a o místním referendu, ktorý bol prijatý ešte v dobe kedy bolo miestne referendum na ústavnej úrovni čšl. Federácie predpokladané. Pre úplnosť uvádzame rovnako krajské referendum zakotvené zákonom č. 118/2010 Sb., o krajském referendu.[14]

Ústavný súd Českej republiky judikoval, že v ústavnom poriadku inštitút miestneho referenda výslovne zakotvený nie je, avšak vychádza z ústavne garantovaného práva občanov na územnú samosprávu a z čl. 21 ods.1 Listiny základných práv a slobôd zakotvujúceho právo občanov podieľať sa na správe verejných vecí priamo. Jednou z foriem takej účasti je práve miestne referendum, pokiaľ sa koná v zákonných medziach daných v konkrétnej podobne ustanoveniami zákona o miestnom referendu. Miestne referendum ako priama forma výkonu samosprávy územným spoločenstvom občanov je v Českej republike upravené iba na úrovni obyčajného zákona, a predstavuje tzv. dekonštitucionalizovanú formu výkonu práva na samosprávu. To však neznamená, že neexistujú ústavné pravidlá a princípy, z ktorých musí zákonná úprava miestneho referenda vychádzať.[15]

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[10] Faktom je, že akokoľvek bolo za účinnosti Ústavy ČR podané veľké množstvo najrôznejších návrhov ústavných zákonov o referende, žiadny z nich zatiaľ nebol schválený a zmienená skepsa k priamej demokracii trvá aj naďalej. Jedinou „úspešnou“ výnimkou je špeciálny, ad hoc zameraný ústavný zákon o referende o pristúpení k Európskej únií a jeho použiteľnosť tak bola skonzumovaná už týmto aktom pristúpenia.

[11] LANGÁŠEK, T.: *Místní referendum v judikatuře správních soudů a ústavního soudu.* s. 153. In: ŠIMÍČEK, V. *Přímá demokracie*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, 2016. 215 s.

[12] Predsa len niektoré ustanovenia ústavného poriadku s týmto inštitútom lokálneho referenda súvisia. Je to predovšetkým čl. 8 Ústavy ČR ústavne garantujúci samosprávu územných samosprávnych celkov, ako aj čl. 100 ods. 1 Ústavy ČR ústavne garantujúci právo na samosprávu, ktorého nositeľmi sú územné spoločenstvá občanov tvoriace územné samosprávne celky, teda obce a vyššie územné samosprávne celky, resp. kraje.

[13] Rozšírenie počtu priamo volených inštitúcií – horná komora parlamentu (1996), krajské zastupiteľstvá (2000), Európsky parlament (2004), prezident republiky (2013), zavedenie krajského referenda (2010).

[14] Obdobne ako v Slovenskej republike žiadne krajské referendum v Českej republike nebolo do dnešného dňa vyhlásené a pokusy o jeho realizáciu boli zatiaľ veľmi ojedinelé a nesmelé a žiadny z týchto návrhov sa nedostal do úvodných fáz procedúry podľa zákona o krajském referendu. Preto v nasledujúcom texte sústredíme pozornosť na realizáciu miestneho referenda v zmysle zákona o místním referendu.

[15] Uznesenie Ústavného súdu Slovenskej republiky, sp. zn. III. ÚS 134/04 z 12.8.2004.

Platný zákon o místním referendu umožňuje vyhlásiť miestne referendum tak zdola na základe ľudovej iniciatívy zhmotnené v činnosti prípravného výboru[16], tak aj priamo z rozhodnutia zastupiteľstva obce. V oboch prípadoch je to ale zastupiteľstvo obce, ktoré referendum vyhlasuje, prípravný výbor, resp. jeho členovia alebo majú zákonom priznané verejné subjektívne právo, aby bolo miestne referendum za splnenia zákonom stanovených podmienok vyhlásené a toto právo je pod súdnou ochranou.

Miestnemu (ako i krajskému) referendu bola až do konca roka 2011 poskytovaná súdna ochrana krajskými súdmi rozhodujúcimi v správnom súdnictve v jednoinštančnom konaní. Rozhodnutia krajských súdov boli podrobované len prieskumu Ústavným súdom Českej republiky cestou bežnej ústavnej sťažnosti. Od. 1. januára 2012 sa situácia razantne zmenila a na pole miestneho a krajského referenda vstúpil Najvyšší správny súd Českej republiky, ku ktorému bola rozsiahlou technickou novelou otvorená kasačná sťažnosť aj proti rozhodnutiam krajských súdov vo veciach miestneho a krajského referenda.[17]

Tak ako aj v Slovenskej republike, právna úprava rozlišuje medzi obligatórnym a fakultatívnym miestnym referendom. Obligatórne je referendum v prípade oddelenia časti obce a vytvorenia novej obce podľa zákona č. 128/2000 Sb. o obcích (ďalej len „zákon o obcích“) a v prípade mestskej časti susediacej s inou obcou od hlavného mesta Praha podľa zákona č. 131/2000 Sb., o hlavním městě Praze.

Čo sa týka fakultatívneho miestneho referenda, to je možné uskutočniť o akejkoľvek otázke v samostatnej pôsobnosti obce. Podľa zákona o obcích tam spadajú záležitosti, ktoré sú v záujme obce a občanov obce, pokiaľ nie sú zákonom zverené krajom alebo pokiaľ nejde o prenesenú pôsobnosť orgánov obce alebo o pôsobnosť, ktorá je zvláštnym zákonom zverená správnym úradom ako výkon štátnej správy, a ďalej záležitosti, ktoré do samostatnej pôsobnosti obce zverí zákon.

V praxi ide hlavne o dlhý výpočet právomocí zastupiteľstva obsiahnutý v ustanovení § 84 a v § 85 zákona o obcích, ďalej výpočet právomoci rady obce v ustanovení § 102 a v neposlednom rade starostlivosť o vytváranie podmienok pre rozvoj sociálnej starostlivosti a pre uspokojovanie potrieb svojich občanov, predovšetkým potreby v oblasti bývania, ochrany a rozvoja zdravia, dopravy, informácií, výchovy a vzdelávania, celkového kultúrneho rozvoja a ochrany verejného poriadku.

A contrario teda možno vyvodiť, že pokiaľ určitá záležitosť vôbec nie je v kompetencii obce, alebo v kompetencii prenesenej, tak o nej nie je možné v miestnom referende rozhodovať.[18]

Ak zameriame našu pozornosť na obsah referendových otázok, tie môžeme zhrnúť do niekoľkých tematicky blízkych skupín, napríklad 1) vznik novej obce (osamostatnenie, zlúčenie), 2) vojenské obranné prostriedky, 3) veterné elektrárne, 4) spaľovne, skládky, úložiska jadrového odpadu, 5) predaj obecných nehnuteľností, 6) obmedzenie výstavby – bývanie, 7) ťažba nerastov, 8) obmedzenie hazardu, 9) doprava a pod.[19]

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[16] Návrh prípravného výboru môže byť podaný, pokiaľ ho podpisom podporil patričný počet oprávnených osôb: do 3000 obyvateľov 30% oprávnených osôb, do 20.000 obyvateľov 20%, do 200.000 obyvateľov 10%, nad 200.000 obyvateľov 6%oprávnených osôb.

[17] Najvyššiemu správnemu súdu Českej republiky, bola tak trocha v rozpore s kasačním princípom, v tomto type konania zverená i právomoc charakteristická pre systém apelačný, t.j. možnosť popri zrušení preskúmavaného uznesenia krajského súdu, priamo rozhodnúť vo veci, tzn. určiť, že návrh na konanie referenda nemá nedostatky alebo referendum rozsudkom vyhlásiť či vysloviť neplatnosť hlasovania alebo rozhodnutia prijatého v referende.

[18] Tento názor potvrdil aj Krajský súd v Českých Budějovicích v Uznesení, sp. zn. 10 Ca 204/2004 zo dňa 4.11.2004, kde konštatoval, že do samostatnej pôsobnosti obce podľa spomínaného ustanovenia nepatrí rozhodovanie o úložisku vyhoreného jadrového paliva a preto o ňom nie je možné miestnym referendom rozhodovať.

[19] Bližšie pozri: MINISTERSTVO VNITRA ČESKÉ REPUBLIKY: *Místní referenda v České republice 2006 – 2017*. [cit. 2018-06-18]. Dostupné na internete: <file:///C:/Users/Mischel/Downloads/47360__M%C3%ADstn%C3%AD_referenda_tabulka_hl%C3%A1%C5%A1en%C3%AD_(5820352).pdf. >

Česká zákonná právna úprava výslovne ustanovuje otázky, ktoré síce spadajú do samostatnej pôsobnosti obce, napriek tomu o nich nie je možné v referende. Ustanovenie § 7 zákona o místním referendu[20] stanovuje, že nesmie byť v referende rozhodované:

- o miestnych poplatkoch a o rozpočte obce[21];
- o zriadení alebo zrušení orgánov obce a o jej vnútornom usporiadaní;
- o voľbe a odvolaní starostu, primátora, viceprimátora, členov rady obce a jej súčastí, či ďalších členov zastupiteľstva obce a volených alebo menovaných členov ďalších orgánov obce[22];
- o otázkach, v ktorých by v miestnom referende položená otázka alebo obyvateľmi poskytnutá odpoveď bola v rozpore so zákonom;
- o uzatvorení verejnoprávnych zmlúv k výkonu prenesenej pôsobnosti;
- alebo o schválení zmene alebo zrušení všeobecne záväznej vyhlášky obce[23];
- ako aj v prípadoch, kedy sa o položenej otázke rozhoduje v zvláštnom konaní[24],
- a v neposlednom rade ak od platného rozhodnutia v miestnom referende do podania návrhu na konania miestneho referenda v tej istej veci neuplynulo 24 mesiacov.

V zmysle Nálezu Ústavného súdu Českej republiky, sp. zn. III. ÚS 263/09 všetky tieto výnimky je nutné posudzovať reštriktívne, pretože aj miestne referendum je výkonom práva podieľať sa na správe verejných vecí. Tento výpočet je značne rozsiahly, predovšetkým v porovnaní so slovenskou právnou úpravou, kde takáto úprava negatívneho výpočtu

[20] Z Uznesenia Krajského súdu v Plzni, sp. zn. 30 Ca 59/2006, zo dňa 10.7.2006 vyplýva, že tento výpočet obsiahnutý v ustanovení § 7 zákona o místním referendu nie je taxatívny.

[21] Zaradenie problematiky poplatkov a rozpočtu obce do zakázaných otázok nie je ničím prekvapivé, nakoľko tak na miestnej úrovni, ako aj na úrovni celoštátnej, tvoria rozpočtové a daňové záležitosti jadro kompetencií parlamentu, resp. jeho časti a predstavujú hlavný kontrolný mechanizmus proti moci výkonnej.

[22] Na tomto mieste možno vidieť, že sa jedná o otázky materiálne protizákonné, vybočujúce zo samostatnej kompetencie obce, resp. vyhradenému typu konania, a také k zodpovedaniu ktorých zákon jednoznačne predvída iný proces rozhodovania (voľby).

[23] Otázne je, prečo nie je možné, aby všeobecne záväzné vyhlášky boli schválené miestnym referendom namiesto hlasovania zastupiteľstva. Touto výlukou sa zaoberal Najvyšší správny súd Českej republiky v Rozsudku, sp. zn. Ars 4/2014 zo dňa 22.10.2014 kde pomerne konštatoval, že prípravný výbor bude ťažko vytvárať legislatívne kvalitný predpis, nič ale nebráni tomu aby občania vyjadrili svoj názor, ako tomu bolo v tomto konkrétnom prejednávanom miestnom referende, že si neželajú prevádzkovanie lotérií na území svojej obce, a potom je na orgánoch obce, aby tento záväzný pokyn premietli do kvalitnej všeobecne záväznej vyhlášky. Obdobne Najvyšší správny súd Českej republiky, v Rozsudku sp. zn. Ars 3/2014 zo dňa 2.10.2014, uznal, že toto ustanovenie zákona o místním referendu zabraňuje iba konanie miestneho referenda, ktoré by priamo nahradzovalo zastupiteľstvo v jeho činnosti prijímania, zmien a zrušenia všeobecne záväzných vyhlášok. Iba taká formulácia otázky, ktorá by obsahovala znenie všeobecne záväznej vyhlášky, alebo menila či rušila vyhlášku už existujúcu, by bola v zmysle predmetného ustanovenia neprípustná.

[24] V tomto prípade sa jedná o najpočetnejšiu skupinu z pohľadu doteraz existujúcej judikatúry, ktorá dopadá typicky na otázky, v ktorých má byť rozhodované v správnom konaní podľa zákon č. 71/1967 Sb., o správním řízení (správní řád), pretože rozhodovanie miestnym referendom samozrejme nevie s istotou zabezpečiť, že budú garantované procesné i materiálne práva účastníkov vyplývajúce im zo zákona. Krajský súd v Plzni, Uznesením, sp. zn. 58 Ca 23/2005 zo dňa 21.4.2005 dospel k záveru, že táto výluka sa vzťahuje len na prípady, kedy zákon zakladá obci právomoc rozhodovať o veciach patriacich do samostatnej pôsobnosti obce v zvláštnom konaní, t.j. v konaní formálne upraveným procesným predpisom. Konaniu miestneho referenda ale nemôže brániť skutočnosť, že určitá vec je alebo bude predmetom správneho konania konaného v prenesenej pôsobnosti. V danej konkrétnej veci Krajský súd uznal samo rozhodnutie obce postaviť kanalizáciu je rozhodnutím v jej samostatnej pôsobnosti, takže sa na ňu nevzťahuje zákaz obsiahnutý v ustanovení § 7zákona. Na tom nič nemení ani fakt, že v prípade kladnej odpovedi v miestnom referende a na to nadväzujúce rozhodnutie obce kanalizáciu postaviť, by stavebný úrad danej obce následne viedol o návrhu obce stavebné konanie, ktoré by už prebiehalo v prenesenej pôsobnosti.

predmetu referenda úplne absentuje a v zásade právna úprava umožňuje realizáciu miestneho referenda o akejkoľvek otázke.[25]
Zákon o místním referendu bol dlhodobo podrobovaný kritike za vysoko nastavené kvórum povinnej účasti pre platné hlasovanie. Zákonodarca pristúpil k zníženiu kvóra pre platnosť rozhodnutia prijatého v miestnom referende z 50 percent na 35 percent všetkých osôb oprávnených hlasovať v miestnom referende, s cieľom zvýšiť počet miestnych referend s platným výsledkom. V porovnaní so slovenskou právnou úpravou 35 percentné kvórum považujeme za dostatočne vysoké a tento počet obyvateľov obce oprávnených hlasovať v miestnom referende za dostatočne reprezentatívny.
V zmysle českej judikatúry sa určité obmedzenia vzťahujú aj na formu, predovšetkým na jednoznačnosť otázky, ktorá má byť v miestnom referende položená. Táto otázka musí umožňovať jednoznačnú odpoveď áno alebo nie, ale tak ako uviedol Najvyšší správny súd Českej republiky, jednoznačnosť otázok je potrebné posudzovať pohľadom bežného hlasujúceho občana a nie „rigoróznym právnickým okom“.[26]

Veľmi pozitívne v porovnaní so slovenskou právnou úpravou hodnotíme aj existenciu centrálneho registra miestnych referend. Zákonná úprava uložila obciam[27] oznamovaciu povinnosť voči Ministerstvu vnútra Českej republiky, ktoré od roku 2006 vedie kompletnú databázu miestnych referend v Českej republike.[28] V období od roku 2006 – 2017 sa uskutočnilo 252 miestnych referend.[29]
Naopak v Slovenskej republike neexistuje štátny orgán, ktorý by spracovával celorepublikové štatistické údaje dotýkajúce sa vykonaných miestnych referend, a teda konkrétne informácie môžu poskytovať len samotné obce. Združenie miest a obcí Slovenska, záujmové združenie právnických osôb, združuje vyše 96% všetkých miest a obcí v Slovenskej republike. V roku 2015 zrealizovalo prieskum, na vzorke respondentov, ktorú tvorilo 284 samospráv, v počte 609 388 obyvateľov. Cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť ako sa inštitút referenda využíva v slovenských mestách a obciach a akým témam sú referendá venované. Z prieskumu vyplynulo, že za roky 2005 – 2015 miestne referendum realizovalo necelých 7% samospráv. V prípade zrealizovaných referend bolo platných 60 % z nich.

ZÁVER

Účelom právnej úpravy miestneho referenda je aktivizácia občianskeho potenciálu, t. j. zvýšenie miery občianskej participácie na rozhodovacích procesov v obecnej samospráve. Takýmto spôsobom sa má dosiahnuť zapojenie širokého spektra subjektov do správy komunálnych záležitosti. Miestne referendum plní aj funkciu špecifickej spätnej väzby vo vzťahu k fungovaniu orgánov obce, zjednodušene povedané funkciu kontroly, ktorej naplnenie umožňuje prostredníctvom foriem priamej demokracie vykonávať kontrolu činnosti zastupiteľských orgánov. Problematika miestnych referend je zaujímavá aj z dôvodu, že

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[25] Bližšie k problematike neprípustných otázok v miestnom referende pozri: MOLEK, P.: *O otázkách přípustných a nepřípustných, aneb ptejte se mě, na co chcete...?* s. 136 – 145. In: ŠIMÍČEK, V. *Přímá demokracie*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, 2016. 215 s.
[26] Rozsudok Najvyššieho správneho súdu Českej republiky, sp. zn. Ars 2/2012 zo dňa 31.10.2012.
[27] Príspevok pre jednoduchosť pracuje s termínom obec aj v zmysle mestečko, mesto, štatutárne mesto a mestská časť.
[28] Táto databáza zahrňuje informácie o obci, položenej otázke, dátume konania, počte oprávnených voličov, percento účasti, percento platnosti, výsledok hlasovania a informáciu o záväznosti. Databáza neuvádza informáciu o iniciátorovi referenda, t.j. či ide o návrh prípravného výboru (občiansku aktivitu), alebo o návrh zastupiteľstva.
[29] Bližšie pozri: MINISTERSTVO VNITRA ČESKÉ REPUBLIKY: *Místní referenda v České republice 2006 – 2017*. [cit. 2018-06-18]. Dostupné na internete: <file:///C:/Users/Mischel/Downloads/47360__M%C3%ADstn%C3%AD_referenda_tabulka_hl%C3%A1%C5%A1en%C3%AD_(5820352).pdf. >

vypovedajú o mentalite obyvateľstva, predstavujú unikátnu príležitosť k nahliadnutiu do spoločnosti.
Ak bolo vyššie uvedené, že Česká republika zatiaľ nepozná referendum na celoštátnej úrovni, uskutočnili sa desiatky a možná dokonca stovky miestnych referend. V porovnaní so slovenskou právnou úpravou je táto omnoho dôslednejšia a precíznejšia. Judikatúra Najvyššieho správneho súdu Českej republiky poskytuje odpovede na celú radu právnych otázok spojených s praktickou aplikáciou zákona o místním referendu.
Záverom môžeme konštatovať, že pôvodne koncipovaná idea umožniť občanom Slovenskej republiky rozhodovať o verejných záležitostiach obce miestnym referendom, je podľa súčasnej právnej úpravy v mnohých smeroch fakticky nerealizovateľná. Slovenská republika sa nemôže pýšiť prepracovanými inštitútmi priamej demokracie tak na celoštátnej ako ani na regionálnej úrovni. Nedôsledná, úsporná, miestami zmätočná zákonná úprava spôsobila, že dôsledky vykonaných, resp. nevykonaných miestnych referend mali dohru aj na Ústavnom súde Slovenskej republiky a preto by malo predstavovať skvalitnenie právnej úpravy inštitútov priamej demokracie jednou z najaktuálnejších úloh slovenskej legislatívy.

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KOMPETENCIE ÚZEMNEJ SAMOSPRAVY V SLOVENSKEJ REPUBLIKE

COMPETENCES OF SELF - GOVERNMENT IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Ladislav Prešínsky, Peter Černý

Abstrakt

Územná samospráva zohráva kľúčovú úlohu v moderných demokratických štátoch. Táto skutočnosť sa naplno prejavila v prostore sjednej Európy po roku 1989. V prípade Slovenskej republiky v tomto kontexte vznikli postupom času dve úrovne územnej samosprávy. Prvá úroveň o niečo škôr a to už v roku 1990 a druhá o jedenásť rokov neskôr (v súvislosti so vstupom Slovenskej republiky do štruktúr Európskej únie). V predkladanom příspěvku sa preto venujeme úlohám a kompetenciám územnej samosprávy v moderných štátoch a identifikujeme kľúčové determinanty organizácie územnej samosprávy v podmienkach Slovenskej republiky. Metodologicky je práca spracovaná na základe klasických metód deskripcie, analýzy a syntézy.

Klíčová slova: *demokracia, samospráva, kompetencie*

Abstract

Territorial self-government plays a key role in modern democratic states. This fact has fully manifested itself in the area of central Europe after 1989. In the Slovak Republic, in this context, two levels of territorial self-government have developed over time. The first level emerged earlier in 1990 and the second one 11 years later (in connection with the integration of the Slovak Republic into the structures of the European Union). In the present paper, we discuss the role and competencies of the territorial self-government in modern states and identify the key determinants of the organization of territorial self-government in the conditions of the Slovak Republic. Methodologically, the work is based on classical methods of description, analysis and synthesis.

Key words: *democracy, self-government, competences*

1 FUNCTION OF SELF-GOVERNMENT

In territorial self-government, several principles are combined. The basis of territorial self-government is the community of persons (personal principle) that has been created within a precisely defined territory (territorial principle). The community manages certain matters autonomously within the legal framework (the legal principle) and independently uses financial resources and property for these activities (the economic principle). Therefore, the functions of territorial self-government take different forms, reflecting its complexity. According to several authors (Hamalová - Balejová, 2010; Wilde, 2010) there are three basic functions of territorial self-government - social, territorial-technical and economic. Other authors, such as Peková (2011) or Panara and Varney (2015), add next function. Subsequently, the functions of territorial self-government are:

A) Political function
B) Economic function
C) Social function

D) Territorial-technical function

Political function (A) of territorial self-government is based on the representation and fulfillment of the interests of its own citizens. From the perspective of political function the territorial self-government forms a space for plurality of opinions and preferences in the territorial selg-governing unit. Various preferences of its inhabitants are reflected in the composition of elected bodies of territorial self-government. The essence of economic function (B) of territorial self-government is the responsibility for securing public services for its inhabitants, creating suitable conditions for socio-economic development and maximizing economic prosperity in its territory. Social function (C) of territorial self-government is determined by the fact that each territorial self-governing unit is made up of a certain group of inhabitants. The role and mission of territorial self-government is to develop cultural and social contacts, improve the social cohesion of different groups of inhabitants in its territory and increase their security. This function also includes the development of social care and social services for the inhabitants in its territory. The last function of territorial self-government is the territorial-technical function (D). Its essence is the optimal utilization of the potential of the territory on the basis of a territorial plan in the spirit of ecologically acceptable and sustainable development.

By applying decentralization to the system of public authority, a multi-level governmental structure, entrusted to provide selected public services, is created. The activity of decentralized governing units (territorial self-government) could then be summarized into several sections, considering the extent of competencies, powers, finances and responsibilities transferred to these lower governing units. Again, we can find several authors who identify the basic functions of territorial self-government. However, we can often see these functions as competencies of the territorial self-government, since authors such as Bailey (1999), Průcha (2012) or Moreno (2012) do not basically distinguish between their functions and the competency framework. Both functions and competencies of territorial self-government they considere to be identical variables, because the functions of territorial self-government are determined by their competencies. As a function of territorial self-government is therefore considered:

A) Self-governing function
B) Transferred function

For territorial self-government it is characteristic that autonomous function (A) is its basic feature. It stems from management of public affairs in its own territory through political, economic, social, cultural and other relationships. These relationships are based on the independence of decision-making (autonomy) that is determined and limited by the legislative regulation. Autonomous function is the core of the activity of the territorial self-government and, in many countries, it is its dominant (one) function. The independence of decision-making in certain areas of public administration is guaranteed by the legal framework. The state and its institutions can not directly intervene in the activities of territorial self-government, or they can do so only within a precisely defined legal scope.

The great variability of the form of territorial self-government and its internal system has led to the fact that there are some territorial self-governments, which also ensure the transferred function (B). The transferred function has its roots in transferring state administration performance to territorial self-government, and sometimes it is also referred to as the transferred competence. It is typical for this function that its performance is funded from the state budget and the state or its institutions are inspecting the tasks entrusted to it. The extent of the competencies entrusted is strictly defined by a law.

The two above-mentioned functions of territorial self-government represent also two pure models of territorial self-government. One model is a completely independent territorial self-government (100% autonomous function) and the second model is a territorial self-

government providing only the transferred function.[1] In practice, however, most territorial self-governments combine both self-governing and transferred function, and their ratio varies considerably from one country to another. The range of functions also affects the budget structure, the revenue base and the volume of territorial self-government expenditure.

2 SELF-GOVERNMENT AT LOCAL AND REGIONAL LEVEL

A separate model of public administration, consisting of separation of municipal self-government from the state administration has been implemented in the Slovak Republic since 1990. This moment can be considered as the formal beginning of modern territorial self-government at local level in Slovakia. A decade later the second level of territorial self-government began to form in Slovakia. The Constitution of the Slovak Republic stipulates that the municipality represents the basic independent territorial self-governing unit of Slovakia, which associates persons who have permanent residence in the territory of the municipality. A very similar formulation also concerns the self-government of self-governing regions.

2.1 Local self-government

According to Nižňanský and Hamalová (2013), the peculiarity of the municipality lies in the fact that the municipality is not only a public administration body, at the same time it is a public law corporation and therefore is it the subject of both public and private law. The municipality as a part of local self-governing level is legally considered as a public corporation to which a specific part of the public authority over persons and public affairs in the administered territory is delegated.

At the local level, we recognize two types of territorial self-governing unit, namely the municipality and the city. These units are however equal and the city represents a special type of municipality. The municipality becomes a city upon its own request and upon fulfillment of the statutory requirements[2]. Act No. 369/1990 Coll. Of Laws on Municipal Administration establishes the basic role of all slovak municipalities. The most important function of the municipality is the care for the all-round development of the territory and the needs of its inhabitants.

The regulation and anchoring of municipal self-government in the Constitution of the Slovak Republic guarantees the right to municipalities and at the same time confirms the ability of municipalities to manage their own public affairs independently within valid legislation. Grúň, Pauličková and Vydrová (2005) identify two bases of Slovak municipalities overlapping each other. The municipalities, on one hand, form the basic territorial self-governing units of the territorial division of the Slovak Republic and, on the other hand, represent relatively independent communities of inhabitants living in the territory of the municipality. Cognitive features of Slovak municipalities are the territorial and personal basis accompanied by the implementation of territorial self-government. The territorial nature of municipalities is derived from a precisely defined territory within Slovakia with clearly defined boundaries in which the inhabitants of the municipality live. The territory of a municipality means its cadastral territory or a set of cadastral territories. These inhabitants subsequently manage selected public affairs through elected representatives.

[1] Theoretically, such territorial self-government would no longer be regarded as "self-government", since it came closer to the deconcentrates of the government, in particular to decentralized local or regional government.

[2] The municipality is declared a city if it is a center (administrative, economic, cultural, touristic) or spa. At the same time it provides services to the inhabitants of the surrounding municipalities and has a secured transport connection with these municipalities. The last conditions are at least partial urban development and at least 5,000 inhabitants.

The actual performance of municipal self-government and the administration of public affairs in the territory of the municipality results from the legal personality of the territorial community and not from the legal personality of their organs. In economic terms, active performance of self-government depends on managing own property and own financial resources, with which the municipality (the community of inhabitants) can deal relatively autonomously. The economic aspect (disposal of own property and income) is a basic prerequisite for the existence of territorial self-government at the level of municipalities. (Žofčinová, 2017)

The inhabitants of the municipality form a personal substratum, the municipality consists of a community of inhabitants. An citizen or a foreigner who has permanent residence in the municipality becomes an inhabitant of the municipality. Every inhabitant of the municipality, as part of the community of inhabitants, has the guaranteed right to participate in the municipal self-government. Thanks to this right, every citizen of a municipality can use its active and passive electoral rights in municipal elections, vote in a local referendum, actively participate in the process of creating and evolving public tasks. Municipal self-government is carried out by residents through municipal authorities, local referendum and municipal assemblies. Basic municipal authorities[3] include the municipal council and the mayor of municipality. Staffing in these general bodies is realized through direct and democratic elections by the inhabitants of the municipality. (Čapošová, Feranec, 2012)

The municipal council (city council in the city) defines Act No. 369/1990 Coll. Of Laws on Municipal *Administration* as a representative corps of deputies who are elected in direct elections by the inhabitants of the municipality for a four-year term. The job of the deputies is to take decisions in basic questions of life in the municipality, whereas the Act on Municipal Administration stipulates that the municipal council may:

a) „determine the principles of management and handling with the property of the municipality and of the property of the state, used by the municipality and approve the most important acts related to this property and control its management,
b) approve the municipal budget and its changes, control its drawing and approve the final account of the municipality, approve the issuance of municipal bonds, approve the contract, decide on the acceptance of the loan or on taking the guarantee for the provision of repayable financial assistance from the state budget; to the extent determined by the municipal council the budget changes may be made by the mayor
c) approve the territorial plan of the municipality or of its part and the concept of the development of individual spheres of life in the municipality,
d) decide on the introduction and cancellation of local taxes and impose a local fee.
e) determine local taxes and fees and public benefits and decide on the acceptance of a loan,
f) announce a local referendum on the most important issues of life and development of the municipality and convene a meeting of municipal residents,
g) decide on regulations,
h) approve agreements on international cooperation and membership of municipality in an international association,
i) determine the salary of the mayor according to a special law and determine, at least 90 days before the election for the full term of office, the extent of the powers of the mayor; change the extent of his powers during the term of office upon his proposal,
j) elect and recall the chief auditor of the municipality, determine the extent of his powers and his salary, and approve his remuneration,

[3] At local level, there is also the chief auditor, the head of the municipal office, the local police, the municipal office, the municipal board or the comittee of municipal council.

k) approve the status of the municipality, the rules of procedure of the municipal council and the principles of remuneration of deputies,
l) establish, abolish and control the budgetary and contributory organizations of the municipality and upon the proposal of mayor appoint and dismiss their directors, establish and abolish commercial companies and other legal entities and approve the deputies in their statutory and supervisory bodies as well as as approve the ownership interest of the municipality in a legal entity,
m) approve the pooling of municipal funds and activities and participation in associations, as well as the establishment of a common regional or interest fund,
n) establish and abolish the authorities necessary for municipal self-government and determine the content of their work,
o) confer honorary citizenship, general awards and prizes,
p) establish a coat of arms, a flag, a seal, or the theme song of the municipality"

The municipal council is a collective body which defines the basic limits for the activity of municipal self-government. Its task is to set the basic boundaries and rules for the management of the municipality and the management of the municipal property, to approve the budget and municipal plan, to determine the amount of local taxes. (Guťan, 2017)

Another authority of territorial self-government at the local level is the mayor of the municipality (in the town mayor of the town). The mayor is at the head of the municipal executive and decides on all issues of municipal administration that are not explicitly entrusted by law to the municipal council. The mayor represents municipality externally and the mayor's position includes also the statutory representation of the municipality. This public function represents the highest executive body of the municipality and convenes and leads meetings of the municipal council. In exercising executive powers, the mayor performs general administration and also represents the municipality in relation to state authorities, legal persons and natural persons. The mayor is the statutory body of the municipality and oversees the work of the municipal office which maintain municipalities' operation as well as the administrative acts binding on the execution of regulations and resolutions of the municipal council.

The mayor is the executive body of the municipality and in the conditions of Slovak municipalities it means that besides mayor's reserved competence for municipal administration, he/she also implements and fulfills the decisions taken by the municipal council. Since the mayor of the municipality and the municipal council are two different bodies with their own set of competencies and of a different nature, in the structure of municipal self-government they are equal. There is no relationship of superiority - inferiority, but a relationship of coordination.

Based on a legal analysis of the institutional cover of municipal self-government, we can define several characteristics for the relationship between municipal council and the mayor of the municipality. Both institutions are equal in the structure of municipal self-government and can not impose obligations on each other. They represent two non-subordinate bodies without a relationship of superiority and inferiority. Each of these two bodies is a body with its own competencies, so it is possible to clearly identify which body of the municipality is competent to decide, to act and to take responsibility for the decision taken. Ideally, the relationship between the mayor of the municipality and the relevant municipal council should be based on mutual cooperation in the interest of the local population.

2.2 Regional self-government

Since the establishment of the Slovak Republic in 1993, the creation and anchoring of the second self-governing level, which would be an intermediate element between the local self-governing level (municipalities and cities) and the central governing level, was expected. This

task has not been solved for a long time and for its specific basis we can designate Act No. 221/1996 Coll. of Laws on the Territorial and Administrative Organization of the Slovak Republic. This Act created the structure of eight regions[4], which fulfilled the tasks of the state administration at that time. The change in the political line and the impact of other circumstances have led to the development of a comprehensive strategy for the creation of a regional self-governing level which has so far been absent in Slovakia. After passionate academic and political debates, a variant of regional territorial self-government, which copied the borders and the number of the existing regions and transformed them into self-governing regions[5], was adopted. Self-governing regions were established in 2001 and their basic characteristics and tasks are anchored in the Constitution of the Slovak Republic. (Horváth, Mikuš, 2016)

The Constitution of the Slovak Republic stipulates that self-governing regions together with municipalities form the territorial self-government in the territory of Slovak Republic. Self-governing regions are independent territorial self-governing and administrative units associating persons who have permanent residence in their territory. Self-governing regions are legal entities which, within the limits of the law, manage their own property and own funds. In principle, these initial definitions of regional self-government can be summarized in the statement that the Constitution of the Slovak Republic and subsequently the relevant laws determine:

- the personal basis of the regional self-governing level: the personal basis of the self-governing region consists of the community of inhabitants who have permanent residence in the territory of the self-governing region. Residents of the self-governing region participate in its administration and, from their preferences, regional self-government derives its roles in the provision of public goods;
- the territorial basis of the regional self-governing level: the self-governing region performs transferred and original competencies within its territorial boundaries. In principle, the territory of the self-governing region is the sum of the cadastral territories of the towns and municipalities, which are located in the territorial district of the self-governing region;
- the economic basis of regional self-governing level: the Constitution of the Slovak Republic, as well as the relevant laws, lay down rules for the independent and separate handling of own property and financial resources. In order to carry out tasks associated with the self-governing competencies, at least relative financial independence of self-governing regions is necessary, without the self-governing regions being dependent on state budget subsidy schemes. The economic basis is a prerequisite for the realization of self-governing public tasks and the fulfillment of regional public interests, when the bodies of the self-governing region decide on the form, scope, quality and structure of the provided public services.

Similarly, as in the case of local territorial self-governing level in Slovakia, territorial self-government at the regional level is also implemented through community of citizens. This self-government may have several forms. The active implementation of self-government by citizens is associated with active participation in elections to the bodies of the self-governing region or participation in referendum in the territory of the self-governing region. In addition, the passive aspect of self-government is linked to passive voting rights in elections to the self-governing region. Local self-government is also carried out by the competent authorities of the self-governing region. Act No. 302/2001 Coll. of Laws on the Self-government of Self-

[4] Bratislavský, Trnavský, Nitriansky, Trenčiansky, Žilinský, Banskobystrický, Prešovský a Košický

[5] The Constitution of the SR uses the expression higher territorial units (vyššie územné celky - VÚC) to designate territorial units at the second level of territorial self-government. In law (e.g. No. 302/2001) the regional self-governing unit is referred to as the self-governing region.

governing Regions for the primary and the most important self-governing scope of self-governing regions considers the all-round development of their territory and the fulfillment of the public interest of the inhabitants of the self-governing region.

The Constitution of the Slovak Republic in Article 69 stipulates that the authorities of the self-governing region are the council of the self-governing region and the chairman of the self-governing region[6]. The council of the self-governing region is a collective body formed by directly elected deputies. Again, there is an analogy with local self-government and its council, because by Act No. 302/2001 Coll. Of Laws on the Self-government of Self-governing Regions, the council of self-governing region is also entrusted to decide on the basic issues of this territorial self-governing unit. According to the Act on Self-government of Self-governing Regions, as amended, the council of the self-governing region may:

a) decide on regulations,
b) determine the principles of management and handlig with the property of the self-governing region and of the property rented by the self-governing region,
c) approve the program of social, economic and cultural development of the self-governing region, the regional strategy of education and training in secondary schools, regional development plans and programs as well as the territorial planning documents of the self-governing region and the territorial plans of the regions,
d) approve the budget of the self-governing region and its changes, control its drawing and approve the final account of the self-governing region; to the extent determined by the council, the budget changes may be made by the chairman of the self-governing region,
e) decide on the acceptance of a loan for self-governing region,
f) approve the remuneration of employees of the self-governing region according to a special regulation,
g) decide to announce a referendum,
h) establish, abolish and control the legal entities of the self-governing region and, upon the proposal of the chairman of the self-governing region, appoint and dismiss their directors, unless a special law provides otherwise, as well as approve the ownership interest of a self-governing region in a legal entity,
i) approve agreements, pooling of funds and activities of the self-governing region, as well as the membership of a self-governing region in associations,
j) elect and recall the deputy chairman of the self-governing region from the deputies of the council upon the proposal of the chairman of the self-governing region, as well as determine to a deputy chairman of the self-governing region, who has been released for the post in the long term, an appropriate remuneration,
k) set up commissions and other bodies of the council, determine their roles, elect and recall their chairmen and other members,
l) elect the chief auditor for a six-year term, recall the chief auditor and determine his remuneration,
m) determine the remuneration of deputies,
n) determine the remuneration of members who are not deputies,
o) set up an office,
p) approve the rules of procedure of the council of the self-governing region,
q) decide about other things that it may reserve in the status of a self-governing region, unless they are legally entrusted to the chairman of the self-governing region.

[6] Besides, legal norms of lower judicial strength identify further members of the self-governing region. Among others chief inspector, commision of the council of the self-governing region and office of the self-governing region.

The competencies of council of the self-governing region are determined by calculation (positive definition). In specifying the competencies of council of the self-governing region, the legislation focuses mainly on their self-governing nature.The second basic body of the self-governing region is its chairman. The chairman of the self-governing region is mandated by a secret ballot by means of a democratic election and only residents of the territory of the self-governing region shall vote. The chairman of the self-governing region is to decide "*in matters in which the law entrusts the self-governing region to decide on the rights and obligations of legal persons and natural persons in the field* self-governing region is the highest executive body of the self-governing region, and is therefore at the head of the regional executive. At the same time the chairman represents the self-governing region externally, in property law relations, in labor relations and the chairman is also the statutory body of the self-governing region. The competence of the chairman of the *of public administration, except for matters, which, on his proposal, are decided by the office's organizational unit specified in the organizational rules of the office*." (Act No. 302/2001, § 16). The result of this legislation is the principle that the chairman of the self-governing region is the subject of the administrative procedure. A simplified principle, which can be used to differentiate the competencies of the council of the self-governing region and the chairman of the self-governing region, is whether it is the decision of the self-governing region (the competence of the chairman of the self-governing region) or the approval (the competence of council of the self-governing region). There are, of course, exceptions to this unwritten rule.

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PŘÍRODNÍ VĚDY

NATURAL SCIENCES

PAIN PERCEPTION IN WOMEN AFTER A PLANNED CAESAREAN SECTION ACCORDING TO THE APPLIED ANESTHESIA METHOD

Eva Šalanská

Abstract

The main objective is to evaluate the measure of a woman's pain perception after a planned cesarean section according to the applied anesthesia method (general anesthesia, spinal anesthesia and epidural anesthesia). The research strategy was based on searching in different databases such as Medline, CINAHL, COCHRANE, PubMed. The data was generated using the following keywords: birth, labour pain, caesarean section, general analgesia, spinal analgesia, epidural analgesia, postoperative care. The total number of professional studies was 18, and 9 of them were used for the present research. After having evaluated the selected studies, the gained data was compared. The studies and evidence provided by Pařízek 2013, Bindera 2008, Smutné 2009, Thorpa 1996, Páeze 2013 describe the effectiveness of particular anesthesia methods applied during cesarean section (total, epidural and spinal anesthesia) and demonstrate how general anesthesia method application is reducing with time. On the contrary, the results showed a positive effect produced by spinal anesthesia application depending on postoperative complications reduction and overall women's adaptation after a planned cesarean section. The research confirmed that there was a difference in pain perception and the overall health condition of women after a planned caesarean section. The analyzed data coincide with the results presented by domestic and international studies. All studies show a significant reduction of general anesthesia application. The choice of a procedure or analgesic method should always depend on the current situation, on the development of a postpartum woman's health condition, on individual wishes and the decision made by a woman.

***Key words**: childbirth, labour pain, caesarean section, general analgesia, spinal analgesia, epidural analgesia, postoperative care*

1. Introduction

The availability of studies dealing with the issue of anesthesia applied during caesarean section performances is very limited. Over the past forty years, there has been a steep increase in the number of caesarean sections provided during labours. Cesarean section as a type of performance belongs to the group of major abdominal operations. The frequency of cesarean sections was 18,79% in the Czech Republic in 2016. In 2016, 19 776 caesarean sections were officially recorded. It is important to divide a caesarean section performance into elective, primary and acute according to the frequency of perioperative and postoperative complications. Postoperative care and its quality contribute to postoperative state prevention and its elimination. (Roztočil, 2008).

In comparison with 1% of caesarean sections made before World War II, the current 30% of the world's average is a staggering statistical number. Foreign statistics shows that, for example, in England and Wales since 1970 the number of caesarean sections has risen from 4% to 22% in 2006. In the United States, this figure has grown from 6% to 26% over the same time period, and current figures are still rising. In 2008, the number of caesarean sections was up to 30, 8% of the total number of births (Křepelka, 2008).

The goal of the WHO was to keep the number of sections up to 15%, as it was found that the cesarean section rate, which is above 15%, affects neither morbidity nor mortality of newborns. Higher incidence of cesarean delivery also increases the risk of complications

among women. At present, the number of caesarean sections is steadily increasing, so it is necessary to address the issue of pain perception in postpartum women (Leifer 2004, Ratislavová 2008, Mander 2014).

2. Methods

We conducted a theoretical and critical data analysis, the study of professional literature and published resources followed by the research of data generated within the period March - June 2017. The main objective was to evaluate pain perception in women after a planned cesarean section according to anesthesia application (total anesthesia, spinal anesthesia and epidural anesthesia). Within the frames of additional goals, we asked the questions about the most common side effects produced by total, epidural and spinal analgesia as one of the most common pharmacological methods used in cesarean section performances. We used the following databases such as Medline, CINAHL, COCHRANE, PubMed. The data was searched using the keywords, criteria: delivery, birth pain, caesarean section, general analgesia, spinal analgesia, epidural analgesia, postoperative care.

Language variety: Czech, English. Territorial frames: unlimited. Source variety: different types of documents, especially articles from journals and scientific contributions from the Internet. We will use the results to compare the data with other works and to study anything that may appear depending on the data found.

3. Results

Taking into consideration the fact that the vast majority of caesarean sections are performed with neuroaxial analgesia, it is beneficial to maintain postoperatively an applied epidural catheter with a continual analgesic application (Marcain, Fentanyl, Sufent) during 24 hours after surgery. Then it is usually possible to switch to oral analgesics since analgesic treatment is no longer necessary. The main focus is put on monitoring a woman until the end of general anesthesia application, her awakening and her transporting to the postoperative ward. General anesthesia is the method to be chosen in obstetrics, especially when dealing with urgent cases, when the condition of a mother or a child is acute and under risk. From the mother’s point of view, general anesthesia brings complications connected with the possibility of failed intubation, vomiting and subsequent aspiration of stomach contents.

Laryngospasm can cause a life-threatening hypoxia and consequent circulatory failure of a woman. A negative effect of a general anesthesia is also proven by the fact that the first contact between a mother and a child after the birth is a bit delayed. This is the issue that needs improvement and particular changes in the established routine procedures in obstetric departments (Pařízek et al., 2002).

When using epidural or spinal anesthesia, post-treatment headache may occur, this is caused by a leaked cerebrospinal fluid. Complication of this kind in modern obstetrics anesthesiology is rather an exception. Application technique has been improved; anesthetists have gained experience and confidence after providing regular "epidural" applications (Binder, 2008).

An observational study was conducted in 2014 to monitor a particular number of methods used in obstetric analgesia and anesthesia in the Czech Republic. The study follows six previous studies started in 1992 and covering the same issues. Finally, a long-term overview appeared demonstrating trends, development features representation of particular methods in obstetric analgesia and anesthesia in the Czech Republic. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire survey.

In 2013 there were 95 obstetric facilities in the Czech Republic. The Czech Society of Analgesia and Intensive Medicine in Obstetrics and the Czech Society of Obstetricians have conducted a questionnaire survey, which is the seventh study since the year 1993.

In 2013 there were 105 310 births in the Czech Republic and in total 106 751 children were born. 82 (86,3%) of questionnaire responses were received from obstetrics departments and 47 (50, 5%) responses were received from anesthesiology facilities. This produced a historically greatest overview of obstetric analgesia and anesthesia applications in 96 268 (91, 4%) deliveries. Respondents reported that 25 330 (26,3%) pregnancies were terminated by a caesarean section, where 14 438 (57%) cases were acute and 10 892 (43%) cases were planned. 2 568 (2, 7%) births were terminated by extraction, obstetric forceps or vacuum extraction. The cesarean section was made in 16,331 (64.4%) cases with neuraxial anesthesia application.

Among these, 12 773 (78, 3%) cases were spinal, 3 246 (21, 0%) cases were epidural and 114 (0,7%) cases were with combined spinal and epidural blockade. There were 16 208 (99, 16%) cases with epidural analgesia, 131 (0, 8%) with spinal treatment, 5 (0, 04%) cases with combined spinal and epidural analgesia. Pediatric analgesia was administered in 517 (0.5%) deliveries and in 755 (0, 8%) cases pudendal analgesia was provided. In conclusion, the national overview of obstetric analgesia and anesthesia in the Czech Republic conducted in 2014 and being compared with the previous years demonstrates an upward trend in the application of regional anesthesia in caesarean section cases. In addition, there was a significant increase in non-pharmacological methods, an increase in epidural analgesia and a decrease in systemic analgesia (Pařízek, Gynecology and Obstetrics Clinic and the 1st Faculty of Medicine in Prague).

The similar study was conducted in 2011, it was aimed at analyzing current anesthetic practice in the field of analgesia used for labour pain management in the Czech Republic. The data was processed using the TrialDB database and the data was obtained using the IHIS database. The results showed that there was a decreasing trend in epidural analgesia application during childbirth in the Czech Republic. 49 obstetric workplaces participated in the study. The comparison of psychological and somatic states between women delivering spontaneously or with the help of cesarean section was described in the thesis that investigated the differences in birth trauma healing; the thesis presented the comparison of self-sufficiency levels, ability to breastfeed, subjectively experienced mental states of women. The paper included a quantitative research in the form of an anonymous questionnaire survey containing 25 questions.

The survey received 98 completed questionnaires for comparison. As the results showed, the vast majority of women after a cesarean section both with epidural analgesia and general analgesia were able to take care of their surgical wound. The survey showed that women had the least complication with wound healing after cesarean section performed with epidural analgesia. The largest number of complications suffered by women was stated after a caesarean section with general analgesia application (Smutná, The comparison of psychological and somatic states of women delivering spontaneously or with the help of caesarean section.), PhD Thesis, Masaryk University, The Faculty of Medicine).

The other research presented the effects of epidural analgesia on a mother and a child including risk evaluation. The results showed that the most common complications associated with epidural analgesia are hypotension, a headache and unwanted dura mater puncture. Long-lasting consequences and mortality cases affected by epidural analgesia are quite rare.

Until the present time, only three randomly selected patients have demonstrated dystocia of the straps as a side effect of epidural analgesia. A few studies showed some connection with maternal fever, chronic back pain, neonatal behavioral changes, and relationship worsening between a mother and a newborn child (Thorp, James, Breedlove, Ginger. Epidural analgesia in labor: an evaluation of risks and benefits. Birth, 1996, 23.2: 63-83).

The research, which evaluated the application of regional versus general anesthesia for caesarean section, was conducted to demonstrate the results comparison of general versus

regional anesthesia applied during caesarean section performances considering three aspects: mortality, morbidity and neonatal effects. The results showed that although the numbers of caesarean sections were constant, general anesthesia application gradually decreased. Maternal mortality connected with general anesthesia used during caesarean section performances decreased to the same level as regional anesthesia. Mortality rate is lower than in cases with regional anesthesia, there is less bleeding, lower risk of infection at the site of surgery, less postoperative pain suffering. Neonatal results are almost the same (Páez, L., et al., Regional versus general anesthesia for cesarean section delivery, Colombia de Anestesiología, 2012, 40.3: 203-206).

The research, which took place in India in 2014, was focused on postpartum pain suffered by women after cesarean section. Women expressed a lot of worries associated with this performance as well as a lot of anxiety because of pain issues. Among pain prevention measures they considered on time mobilization as very important for women after cesarean section, as well as for the prevention of worrying associated with the necessity of pain relief. It helped to find new and more effective methods of pain management after cesarean section deliveries. Conventional analgesia methods were focused on opioids application administered by various routes, such as systemic and neuraxial analgesia. Neural methods, although being effective and safe, required an experienced person to provide the performance. Regional "field blocks" such as transverse abdominis plane (TAP) block and iliohypo-gastric and ilioinguinal nerve blocks are gaining popularity especially due to ultrasound application possibilities in anesthesia. The research stated the importance of optimal cesarean pain management and on time mobilization of women. Although the choice of medication and methods of administration is rather wide, we have not achieved any ideal score (according to VAS standards) that can be as 3 in over 90% of women yet. (Sujata N., Vijay M., Pain control after cesarean birth - what are the options, 2014, 2, 4).

The study that evaluates the predisposing factors involved in pain experiencing during the postoperative period after cesarean birth is focused on the period before the performance itself. It is stated that it can be very beneficial to predict the intensity of postoperative pains in order to adapt analgesia treatment. The aim of this study was to find out whether a preoperative assessment of pressure and evaluation of a general patient status can help to predict pain occurrence after cesarean delivery. The pain measurement method was used to assess the pain by hand twisting, depending on pain perception. Pain suffering was evaluated before and after the performance, and this method was further complemented with the McGill Pain Questionnaire (MPQ).

The results demonstrated a significant variability in the evaluation of preoperative and postoperative pains within the pain assessment range and analgesic medication applications (Luana et al., Predictors of post-cesarean section pain and analgesic consumption, 2011, Anesthesiol Clin Pharmacol).

4. Conclusion

Pain perception prediction in women after a planned caesarean section due to possible complications and post-delivery processes is very difficult or almost impossible. Some women can tolerate pain and cesarean birth quite well, while the others require effective pain management and particular postoperative care. Sometimes very simple procedures such as relaxation means, massages, rehabilitation, breathing training, coughing, etc. can help a lot. Sometimes a midwife, a surgeon or an anesthesiologist is needed to assist.

The choice of a procedure or analgesic method should always depend on the current situation, general condition development of a woman in the postpartum period, as well as on individual wishes and the decision made by a woman. A woman should be sufficiently educated before the cesarean section, realizing the possibilities of nursing care she will be able to choose for

herself. Medical staff (a multidisciplinary team) should always be able to meet this requirement in order to satisfy the needs of a woman, taking into account an individual approach. Depending on the research results, a pilot study is planned with the focus on subjective pain evaluation and women's postoperative period after a planned cesarean section.

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THE EFFECT OF THERMAL PROCESSING ON THE CONTENT OF TOTAL PHENOLICS AND CAROTENOIDS IN SWEET POTATOES WITH DIFFERENT FLESH COLOUR

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of boiling (pieces put into the boiling water, 10 min.) and baking (180°C, 30 min.) on the content of carotenoids and polyphenols in four sweet potato cultivars with different flesh colour (orange, purple and white). Within sample preparation, 5 or 6 tubers were peeled and cut to pieces 15x15 m. Samples were sequentially mixed and prepared for qualitative analyses. The carotenoid and polyphenol content was determined spectrophotometrically (polyphenols in lyophilised sample). The expressive differences of carotenoids and polyphenols were found among tested sweet potato cultivars (the highest content in orange cultivar 'Dubaian'. Both methods of thermal processing were showed by statistically significant increase of carotenoid and polyphenol content in all tested sweet potato cultivars. The more marked increase of both parameters was found after boiling.

Keywords: *sweet potatoes, boiling, baking, polyphenols, carotenoids*

1 INTRODUCTION

The sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) belongs to the *Convolvulaceae* family. This species is expressively different compared to the potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) from various aspects, e. g. botanical; morphological; taste; chemical composition etc. (Loebenstein, Thottappilly, 2009). According to FAOSTAT (2018), the world production of sweet potatoes was relatively stabilized within period 2007-2016 (average = 103 453 mil. tonnes). The most of sweet potatoes is produced in Asia (79%), especially in China. Other important world producers of this crop are Nigeria, Tanzania, Indonesia, Uganda, Vietnam or USA. The Europe production of sweet potatoes, within mentioned period, presented only 0.8% of total world production.

The various parts of sweet potato plant can be used for consumption, especially tubers, shoots, leaves (Mohanraj, Sivasankar, 2014) or vines and roots in animal feeding (Mussoline, Wilkie, 2017). The main nutritional compounds in tubers of sweet potato are carbohydrates (80-90%), proteins, fats and fat-soluble vitamins (Allen et al., 2012). The pulp of sweet potato tubers is orange, yellow, white or purple. Generally, tubers of white or yellow cultivars are less sweet in comparison with orange flesh colour which is typical for sweet potato (Loebenstein, Thottappilly, 2009). Orange-fleshed cultivars are known as rich sources of carotenoids - precursor of vitamin A (Alam et al., 2016). The higher intake of carotenoids in food form is associated with lower occurrence risk of cardiovascular diseases (Lichtenstein, 2009), several cancer types, eye degeneration or neurotic diseases (Rao, Rao, 2007). Poplyphenols, abundant in sweet potatoes, are known bioactive substances with protective effect of human body against oxidative stress which may cause many diseases, including cancer, aging or cardiovascular diseases (Musilová et al., 2017).

The sweet potato tubers are generally consumed as thermally-processed by various ways - baking, boiling, steaming, frying etc. (Tang et al. 2015). Thus, the aim of this research study was to evaluate the effect of thermal processing (boiling, baking) on the content of carotenoids and polyphenols in four cultivars of sweet potatoes.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sweet potato tubers, used in this study, were grown in the field experiment established in 2017 (Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra). Within experiment, one certified cultivar of sweet potato 'Beauregard' with orange flesh colour was used. Other three cultivars, used in the study, were marked according to the market place at which tubers were purchased and sequentially used for seedling preparation (Dubai, United Arab Emirates; Višnjica, Croatia). These cultivars had an orange ('Dubaian'), white ('Višnjica white') and purple flesh colour ('Višnjica purple'). The seedling planting was realised on 1st June 2017 and harvest of sweet potatoes was done on 13th September 2017.

Within sample preparation, 5 or 6 tubers were peeled and cut to pieces 15x15 m (approximately). Variants of thermal processing were following: fresh sample; boiling (pieces put into the boiling water, 10 min.) and baking (180°C, 30 min.). Samples were sequentially mixed and prepared for qualitative analyses. The total carotenoid content was determined spectrophotometrically (Hegedűsová et al., 2015). The sample lyophilisation (freeze drying at -55°C) was realised for analysis of total polyphenol content which was done spectrophotometrically according to the method of Lachman et al. (2003).

A statistical analysis was performed using Statgraphic Centurion XVII (StatPoint Inc. USA). Obtained results were evaluated by analysis of variance (ANOVA) and average values were tested by Tukey HSD test performed at the significance level of 95%.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The thermal treatment is one of the most important factors influencing on the content of various qualitative substances in vegetables. The content of total polyphenols and carotenoids, dependent on the method of thermal processing, in sweet potatoes is mentioned in the table 1. The statistical analysis of obtained results revealed statistically significant differences in polyphenol and carotenoid content in sweet potatoes between raw and boiled or baked sample.

Expressive differences of total carotenoid content (TCC) were showed between cultivars with orange flesh colour ('Beauregard', 'Dubaian') and cultivars with purple ('Višnjica purple') and white ('Višnjica white') colour. The most important and predominant carotenoid substance in sweet potatoes is β-carotene which presents 79.0-97.9% of TCC (USDA, 2015). Teow et al. (2007) found marked variability of its content in sweet potatoes in dependency on the colour of tuber flesh. The highest values of β-carotene content were found in orange cultivars (44.9-226 $mg.kg^{-1}$ f. w.), following by purple (6.3-56.6 $mg.kg^{-1}$ f. w.) and white (0.2-1.5 $mg.kg^{-1}$ f. w.) cultivars.

The increase of TCC was detected after sweet potato thermal processing in all tested cultivars, compared to the control-raw sample. The most significant increase of TCC in individual cultivars was found after boiling, concretely about 6.3% ('Beauregard') - 17.7% ('Dubaian'). These results are in the strong contrast with study of Donaldo-Pestana et al. (2012) who decrease of TCC in sweet potatoes after boiling (40-60 min) and baking (220 °C; 30-45 min). The average TCC in four cultivars was decreasing in the following order: 122.7 $mg.kg^{-1}$ f. w. (raw) > 108.9 (boiling) $mg.kg^{-1}$ > 109.9 (baking) $mg.kg^{-1}$. Similarly to this study, Tang et al. (2015) also found decrease of TCC in sweet potato as result of its thermal processing (boiling = 30 min; baking = 230 °C; 30 min). The value of TCC in boiled sample of sweet potatoes was lower about 22.7% or 39.6% compared to the raw tubers. Vimala et al. (2011) tested the effect of boiling (30 min.) on the TCC in ten cultivars of sweet potato. Authors found the decrease of TCC in the range from 9% to 15% compared to the raw tubers. The negative impact of thermal processing on carotenoid content was also found in experiments with pumpkins (de Carvalho et al., 2014) or tomatoes (Ishiwu et al., 2014).

The variable influence of thermal processing, dependent on the cultivar, on the β-carotene content in sweet potato was detected in the study of Kidmose et al. (2007), realised in Kenya. The boiling (15-39 min, dependent on the cultivar) resulted in the decrease of β-carotene content in tubers of four sweet potato cultivars in the range from -1.2% to -51.2% compared to the control. In the tubers of two cultivars, β-carotene content was higher about 17.9% and 38.1% compared to the control (raw tubers). The baking (86°C; 30-90 min) tended to the decrease of β-carotene content in tubers of four cultivars from -1.0% to -21.6%. On the contrary, the higher content of β-carotene, compared to the control, was found in two cultivars (+19.5% or +31.0%).

Table 1 The polyphenol and carotenoid content in sweet potatoes after tuber thermal processing

Treatment	**Cultivar**	**Total carotenoids**		**Total polyphenols**	
		$mg.kg^{-1}$ f. w.	rel. %	($mg.kg^{-1}$ d. w.)	rel. %
Raw	Beauregard	63.17 ±0.67[b]	100	2119.82 ±20.13[c]	100
	Dubaian	107.66 ±3.33[b]	100	2804.07 ±20.44[c]	100
	Višnjica white	6.34 ±0.34[b]	100	2405.57 ±26.73[c]	100
	Višnjica purple	4.11 ±0.25[b]	100	2441.97 ±42.90[c]	100
Boiled	Beauregard	67.15 ±0.41[a]	106.1	2659.87 ±19.16[a]	125.5
	Dubaian	126.76 ±3.25[a]	117.7	3803.12 ±16.24[a]	135.6
	Višnjica white	7.01 ±0.25[a]	110.6	3084.47 ±18.51[a]	128.2
	Višnjica purple	4.78 ±0.50[a]	116.3	3240.11 ±23.68[a]	132.7
Baked	Beauregard	66.35 ±1.60[a]	104.8	2491.01 ±24.08[b]	117.5
	Dubaian	118.25 ±1.63[a]	109.8	3454.39 ±35.20[b]	123.2
	Višnjica white	6.67 ±0.44[a]	105.2	2853.79 ±38.52[b]	118.6
	Višnjica purple	4.65 ±0.16[a]	113.1	2966.64 ±23.86[b]	121.5

Note: f. w. - fresh weight, d. w. - dry weight, rel. - relatively in %
Different letters among treatments in the same cultivar mean statistically significant difference (at 95.0 % confidence level).

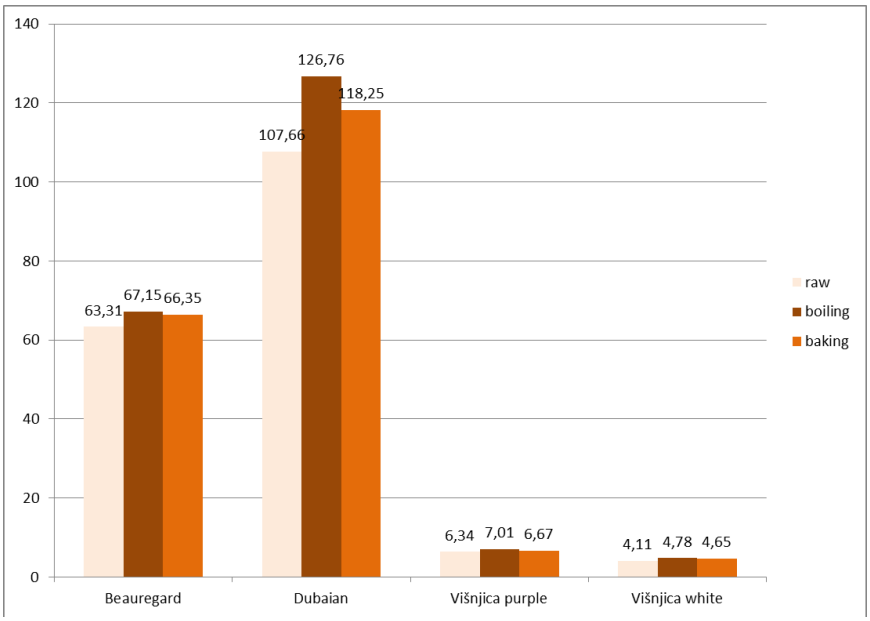

Figure 1 The impact of thermal processing on total carotenoid content in sweet potatoes ($mg.kg^{-1}$ fresh weight)

The total polyphenol content (TPC) was varying in dependent on the cultivar and thermal processing method of sweet potato tubers. The highest TPC in unprocessed tubers was determined in orange cultivar 'Dubaian' (2804.07 mg.kg^{-1} d. w.), followed by purple cultivar 'Višnjica purple' (2441.97 mg.kg^{-1}), white cultivar 'Višnjica white' (2405.57 mg.kg^{-1}) and orange cultivar 'Beauregard' (2119.82 mg.kg^{-1}). The expressive variability of TPC, depending on the sweet potato cultivar, was also found by Grace et al. (2014) and value of TPC in purple cultivar was more than ten-fold higher compared to the orange or yellow sweet potatoes. Ji et al. (2015) examined TPC in different coloured sweet potato cultivars (purple, red, yellow, white). Similarly to previous study, the highest TPC was also found in purple cultivar. The values of TPC in mentioned studies were several-fold higher compared to our study.
The study of Bellail et al. (2012), realised in Egypt, was focused on the impact of boiling (14-17 min.) and baking (23-27 min., 180 °C) on the TPC in sweet potatoes. Both methods of thermal processing, similarly to our study, resulted in significant increase of TPC compared to unprocessed sweet potato tubers. Values of TPC was increasing in following order: raw sample (715 mg.kg^{-1} d. w.) < boiled sample (1602 mg.kg^{-1}) < baked sample (2960 mg.kg^{-1}). On the contrary, Padda et al. (2008) found decrease of TPC in sweet potatoes after thermal processing (boiling = 25 min.; baking = 190 °C, 45 min.). Values of TPC in this study were decreasing in following order of thermal processing method: raw sample (7580 mg.kg^{-1} d. w.) > boiling (5450 mg.kg^{-1}) > baking (4730 mg.kg^{-1}). The variable effect of thermal processing on the TPC was presented in study of Donaldo-Pestana et al. (2012). The value of TPC in baked sample (220 °C; 30-45 min.) was lower about 12.5% compared to the raw sample. The sample processed by boiling was showed by slight increase of TPC about 2.3% compared to the raw sample. The values of TPC in tested samples were following: 1425 mg.kg^{-1} d. w. (baking) < 1603 mg.kg^{-1} (raw material) < 1640 mg.kg^{-1} (boiling).

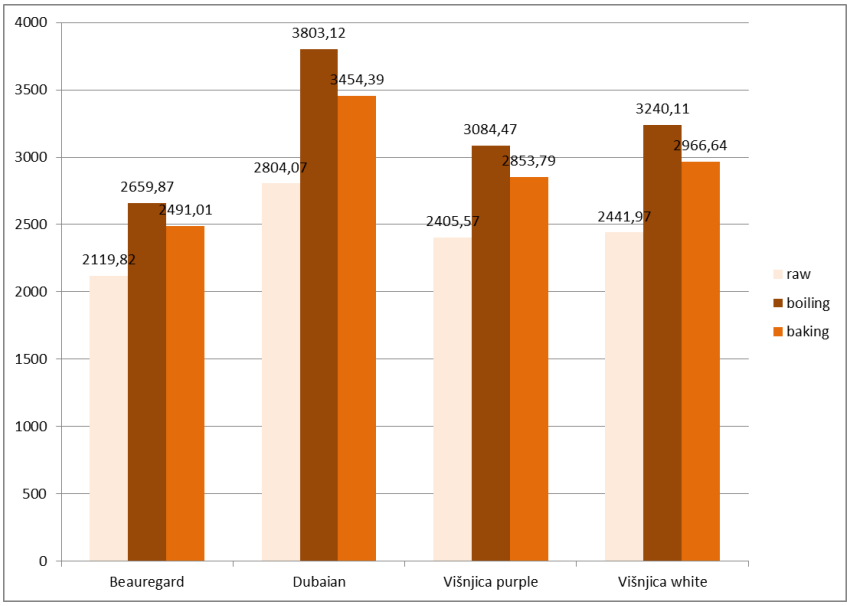

Figure 2 The impact of thermal processing on total polyphenol content in sweet potatoes (mg.kg^{-1} dry weight)

4 CONCLUSION

Nowadays, people suffer from various, serious diseases caused by work stress and less-healthy life style. In Slovak Republic, level of consumed vegetables (approximately 100 kg/person/year) is deeply under value recommended by nutrition specialists (125-130 kg). The sweet potato belongs to the crops which can be marked as potentially rich sources of carotenoids (provitamins A) or polyphenols. The sweet potato is generally cooked before

consumption, mainly by boiling or baking. Obtained results showed significant effect of thermal processing on the content of carotenoids and polyphenols. Both methods of thermal processing (boiling, baking) led to the increase of carotenoid and polyphenol content in sweet potato tubers. The highest content of both qualitative parameters of sweet potatoes was found in tubers processed by boiling. Differences between boiling and baking were not statistically significant.

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RECYKLAČNÍ POTENCIÁL VYTŘÍDĚNÉHO POLYMERNÍHO ODPADU PRO VÝROBU POLYMERBETONU

RECYCLING POTENTIAL OF SORTED POLYMER WASTE FOR THE PRODUCTION OF POLYMER CONCRETE

Eva Kulovaná, Miroslav Černý, Jan Čermák, Jakub John, Josef Jančář

Abstrakt

Byla provedena analýza třech polymerních odpadů, aby se posoudil jejich potenciál při výrobě polymerbetonu. Odpadní polyamid byl složen z polyamidu 66 (PA 66) a skelných vláken (35 % hmotnosti). Vysoká nasákavost PA 66 vede k poklesu jeho tepelné stability. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota expandovaného polypropylenu (EPP) byla stanovena na 180 °C. Odpadní směs drceného polyethylentereftalátu (PET) obsahovala nečistoty a příměsi polypropylenu (PP), ale ze zkoumaných materiálů se jedná o nejslibnější materiál pro výrobu polymerbetonu, protože PET vykazuje poměrně vysokou tepelnou stabilitu.

Klíčová slova: *odpad, polymerbeton, recyklace*

Abstract

The analysis of three polymeric waste was carried out in order to evaluate their potential in the production of polymer concrete. The waste polyamide was composed of polyamide 66 (PA 66) and glass fibers (35 % by weight). The high water absorption of PA 66 leads to a decrease in its thermal stability. The optimal processing temperature of EPP was at 180 °C. The waste mixture of crushed polyethylene terephthalate (PET) involved impurities and polypropylene (PP) admixtures, however it has been appeared to be the most promising material for production of polymer concrete since PET exhibits relatively high thermal stability.

Key words: *waste, polymer concrete, recycling*

1 ÚVOD

Růst produkce plastového odpadu za poslední dekádu dramaticky vzrostl po celém světě. Tento fenomén je přisouzen skutečnosti, že plasty zaujímají mnoho výhodných vlastností vzhledem k ostatním materiálům. Pro rok 2020 se předpokládá, že objem výroby plastů na světě bude ve výši 400 milionů tun ročně, a pro rok 2050 dokonce více než 700 milionů tun. Smutným faktem zůstává, že většina těchto materiálů se spotřebuje pro jednorázové aplikace, jako jsou obalové produkty, které často končí v odpadu.

Z výše uvedených faktů vyplývá, že ekologická likvidace plastových odpadů je nejen v České republice nezbytná. Pro udržitelný rozvoj zpracování, výroby i spotřeby je nutné najít efektivní řešení využití odpadů. Z hlediska zhodnocení plastového odpadu rozlišujeme fyzikální recyklaci (typicky vede k regranulátu), chemickou recyklaci (typicky vede k monomeru), surovinové zhodnocení plastů a energetické zhodnocení plastů. Na odpadní plasty je potřeba nahlížet především jako na surovinový a energetický zdroj. Kritéria, kdy se plast stává odpadem, řeší Evropská komise několik let prostřednictvím IPTS (Institut for Prospective Technological Studies). Současný systém nakládání s odpady vychází ze zásad v hierarchii dle priorit: předcházení vzniku odpadů, opětovného použití výrobků, recyklaci a

kompostování, energetické využití a skládkování. Odpad je proto stále častěji považován za výrobní prostředek a eventuální zdroj energie [1].
Životní cyklus polymeru může být popsán následovně: surový materiál – bývá původní nebo recyklovaný – je zpracován do produktů pomocí různých technik (vstřikování, extruze atd.). To je startovní fáze pro spotřební produkt. Během výrobního procesu je vytvořen první typ pevného plastového odpadu: post-industriální odpad, který bývá čistý a složení polymeru bývá známé. Často tento odpad bývá z jednoho typu materiálu. Ve významu recyklace se jedná o vysoce kvalitní třídu odpadního polymeru. Na konci životnosti je produkt zlikvidovaný a stává se spotřebním (uživatelským) odpadem, který se typicky skládá ze směsi polymerů neznámého složení a je potenciálně znečištěn organickými a anorganickými frakcemi (jako zbytky potravin, kapalin, papír) [2].
Polymerbeton je moderní kompozitní materiál, který vznikl polymerací monomeru ve směsi monomer/plnivo, kde se jako monomer (pojivo) nejčastěji používají epoxidové nebo nenasycené polyesterové pryskyřice a jako agregát (plnivo) se používá anorganický materiál (např. písek) [3]. V některých případech se jako polymerbeton označuje materiál, ve kterém se používá termoplastický polymer jako přísada do betonu [4]. V našem případě pod pojmem polymerbeton označujeme kompozitní materiál, který tvoří termoplast jako matrice (pojivo) a jako plnivo se používá písek.
V roce 2016 byla navržena a zkonstruována technologická linka pro výrobu dílců z odpadních termoplastů a vhodných plniv [5]. Jako pojivo byl zvolen odpadní termoplast PET (polyethylentereftalát). Plastový odpad neprochází čistícím ani separačním procesem před samotným zpracováním. Jako plnivo bylo využito drobné kamenivo frakce 0 – 4 mm zejména z důvodu snadné dostupnosti, zpracovatelnosti danou technologií i známého složení. Cílem tohoto článku je posoudit možnosti recyklace vybraných polymerních odpadů v procesu výroby polymerbetonu.

2 EXPERIMENTÁLNÍ ČÁST

2.1 Materiály

Byly studovány tyto materiály: odpad z polyamidu 66 (PA 66) se skelnými vlákny (35 % hmotnosti), odpad z expandovaného polypropylénu (EPP) a odpad směsi drcených PET lahví (i znečištěných). Nekontaminovaná PET lahev byla použita jako referenční vzorek pro TGA měření. Protože směs drcených PET lahví obsahovala více polymerních materiálů, byl tento materiál pomlet na jemnější frakci a tato směs byla poté analyzována pomocí DSC a TGA.

2.2 ATR-FTIR měření (Attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared)

ATR-FTIR měření byla provedena na přístroji TENSOR 27 od firmy FTIR BRUKER s ATR nástavcem pro měření povrchu kapalin a pevných povrchů v oblasti 4000-650 cm^{-1}. Naměřená spektra byla porovnána s referenčními spektry polymerů v programu OMNIC. Byly analyzovány pouze směsi drcených PET lahví, aby byly identifikovány případné příměsi.

2.3 Diferenciální skenovací kalorimetrie (DSC)

DSC měření byla provedena na přístroji DSC Discovery od firmy TA Instruments. Rychlost ohřevu i chlazení byla 10 °C/min. Byly provedeny 2 ohřevy. V průběhu prvního ohřevu byla smazána tepelná historie vzorku. K vyhodnocení tepelných procesů sloužil druhý ohřev.

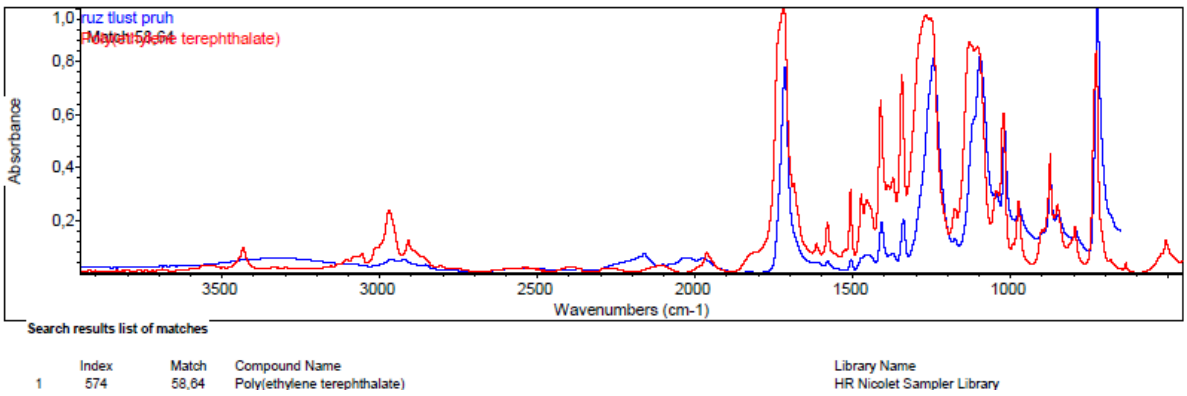
2.4 Termogravimetrická měření (TGA)

TGA měření byla provedena na přístroji TGA Q500 od firmy TA Instruments v dusíkové atmosféře. Rychlost ohřevu byla 10 °C/min. U směsi drcených PET lahví a vzorků z vyčištěné PET lahve bylo navíc provedeno izotermní měření při teplotách 260 °C a 300 °C v inertní a

oxidační atmosféře. Vzorek byl zahřátý na požadovanou teplotu (260 °C nebo 300 °C) a po 2 h byla tato teplota udržována konstantní. Po celou dobu byl sledován úbytek hmotnosti. Čas, po který bylo nutné vzorek zahřívat na požadovanou teplotu, byl vzatý jako t_0 a od zbývajících časů byl odečten. Taktéž úbytek hmotnosti, který byl zaznamenán při dosažení cílové teploty, byl odečten od ostatních zaznamenaných hodnot.

3 VÝSLEDKY

Nejdříve byla analyzována směs drcených PET lahví. Vzorek obsahoval především PET (Obr. 1). Průhledné barevné vzorky obsahovaly PET. Tenké fólie byly čtyřikrát určeny jako PET, dvakrát jako polypropylen, jednou jako polyamid 6 a jednou jako polyester bez bližšího chemického složení.



Obr. 1: ATR-FTIR spektrum drceného PET

Vybrané materiály byly analyzovány pomocí DSC analýzy (Tab. 1). Výsledky byly shrnuty v Tab. 1. Polyamid tál okolo 261 °C, což potvrdilo, že se jednalo skutečně o polyamid 66 a ne polyamid 6 (teplota tání polyamidu 6 je okolo 220 °C). Při prvním ohřevu expandovaného polypropylenu se objevily dva píky (souvisí s expandovanou formou). Při druhém ohřevu se objevil pouze jeden pík s maximem při 144 °C. Z toho se dá usoudit, že prvním ohřevem byla smazána teplotní historie vzorku. Pro DSC křivku EPP jsou běžné dva píky [6]. Pro svařování EPP v koncový výrobek je důležité nastavit teplotu páry právě mezi tyto dva píky. Dříve tající krystaly roztají a podílí se na dobré adhezi, zatímco krystaly s vyšší teplotou tání udržují celkovou strukturu pěny.

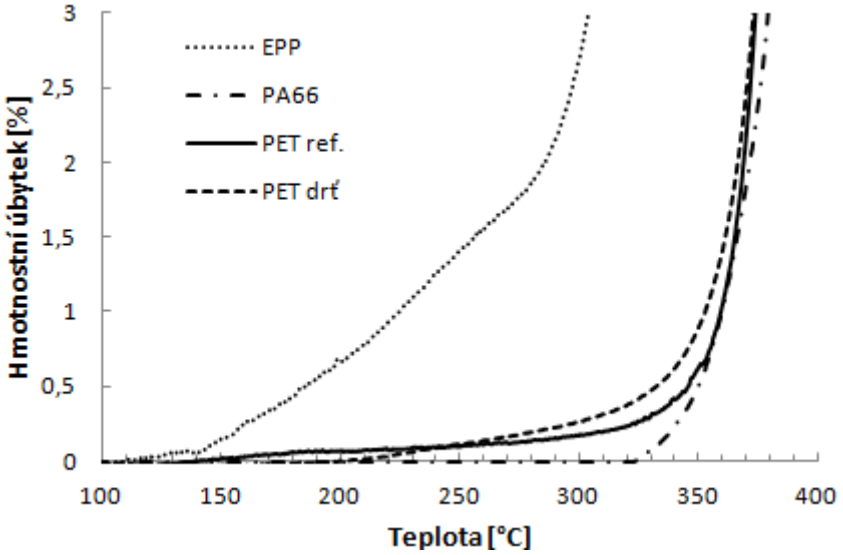
Teplota tání pomleté směsi PET byla stanovena na 250 °C, což je o trochu nižší teplota tání než má čistý PET (256 °C [7]). To je v souladu s obecně známým faktem, že nečistoty snižují teplotu tání pevných látek.

Tab. 1:Shrnutí DSC měření

Materiál	T_m [°C]	T_c [°C]
Polyamid 66	261 (263[a])	223 (223[a])
Expandovaný polypropylen	144 (144 a 160[a])	111 (111[a])
Pomletá směs PET	250 (249[a])	206 (207[a])

[a] Hodnota pro první ohřev

Dále byla provedena TGA měření za účelem měření tepelné stability a degradace (Obr. 2). Nejprudší úbytky hmotnosti a celkové úbytky hmotnosti byly shrnuty do Tab. 2. PA 66 měl podle DSC analýzy teplotu tání 263 °C, při první TGA analýze došlo při 250 °C k úbytku asi 1,7%, co je způsobeno přítomností vlhkosti v PA 66. Měření bylo zopakováno pro vysušený PA 66, který se sušil 24 h při 80 °C, a ihned po vysušení se provedlo TGA měření. Při TGA analýze byl PA 66 tepelně stabilní do 330 °C. Při teplotě o 50 °C vyšší dochází k úbytku celkem 3,2 % hmotnosti vzorku. K nejprudšímu hmotnostnímu úbytku došlo kolem 426 °C, do té doby ubylo 34,2 % hmotnosti vzorku. Celkový úbytek hmotnosti byl 65 %, zbytek tvořil anorganický podíl (skelná vlákna). V porovnání s ostatními materiály měl sice vysušený polyamid nejlepší tepelnou odolnost, avšak při zpracování takového materiálu by pravděpodobně bylo příliš obtížné se zbavit pohlcené vlhkosti v provozních podmínkách (polyamidy jsou obecně velmi nasákavé [5], značný obsah vlhkosti snižuje jejich tepelnou stabilitu). Optimální zpracovatelská teplota byla stanovena zhruba na 280 °C.
EPP měl podle DSC analýzy teplotu tání 144 °C a 161 °C a kolem 200 °C došlo u TGA analýzy k hmotnostnímu úbytku asi 0,7 %. Při teplotě o 50 °C vyšší ubylo celkem 1,4 % hmotnosti vzorku. K nejprudšímu hmotnostnímu úbytku došlo kolem 400 °C, do té doby ubylo 63,8 % hmotnosti vzorku. Celý vzorek se během měření rozložil bez anorganického podílu nebo nedegradovaného podílu. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota byla stanovena na 180 °C.
U referenčního vzorku PET (z nekontaminované PET lahve) byla zjišťována teplotní odolnost, významnější degradace začala při 300 °C (0,2 % hmotnostního úbytku). Při teplotě o 50 °C vyšší ubylo celkem 0,6 % hmotnosti vzorku. K nejprudšímu hmotnostnímu úbytku došlo kolem 417 °C, do té doby ubylo 50,4 % hmotnosti vzorku. Celkový úbytek hmotnosti byl 93 %. Naproti tomu podrcená směs PET při 300 °C vykazovala hmotnostní úbytek 0,3 %. Při teplotě o 50 °C vyšší ubylo celkem 0,9 % hmotnosti vzorku. Příčinou většího úbytku mohl být fakt, že PET drť obsahovala nečistoty, které se rozkládaly dříve než samotný čistý PET. K nejprudšímu hmotnostnímu úbytku došlo kolem 421 °C, do té doby ubylo 51,2 % hmotnosti vzorku. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota byla stanovena na 260 °C. Odpadní směs PET se jevila jako nejslibnější materiál pro výrobu polymerbetonu, protože vykazovala poměrně vysokou tepelnou stabilitu a zároveň je neobjevily žádné problémy se zpracovatelností jako v případě PA 66.



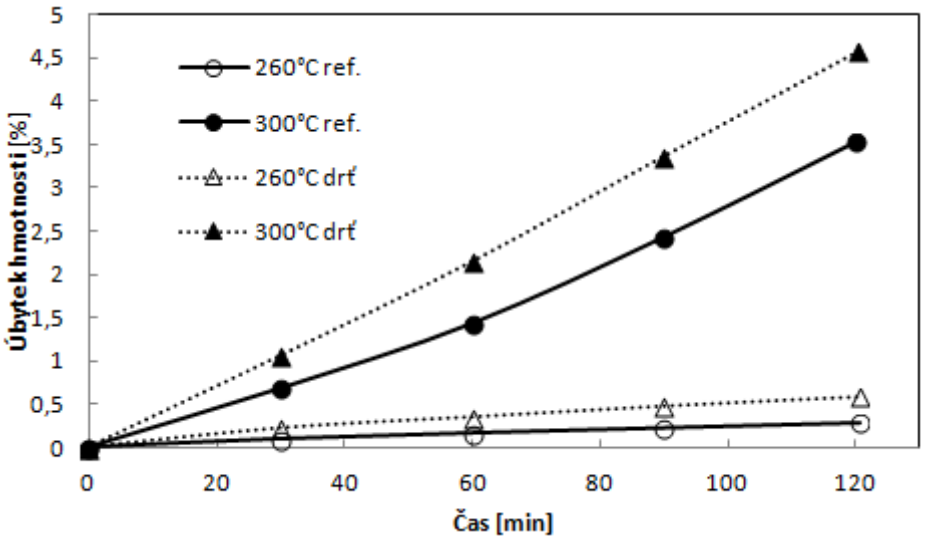
Obr. 2:Hmotnostní úbytky v závislosti na teplotě

Tab. 2: Teploty a hmotnostní úbytky při vyšších teplotách (při větší degradaci)

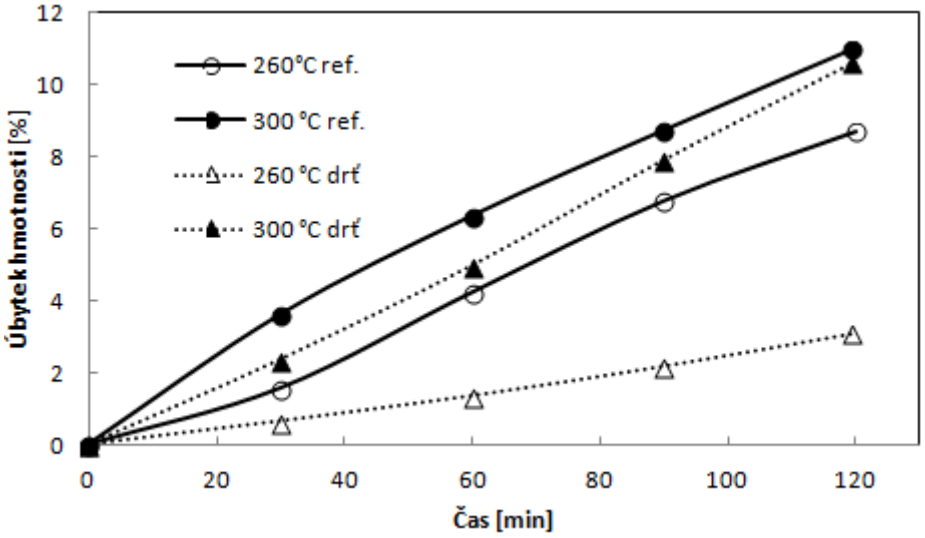
Materiál	Nejprudší úbytek		Rychlost úbytku	Celkový úbytek[a]
	Teplota	Úbytek		
Polyamid 66	426 °C	34,2 % hm.	1,2 %/°C	65 % hm.
Expandovaný polypropylen	400 °C	63,8 % hm.	1,6 %/°C	100 % hm.
Pomletá směs PET	421 °C	51,2 % hm.	1,9 %/°C	97 % hm.
Referenční vzorek PET	417 °C	50,4 % hm.	2,0 %/°C	93 % hm.

[a] Úbytek celkové hmotnosti po konci měření

Nejdříve byla provedena izotermní měření v inertní atmosféře (Obr. 3). Úbytky hmotnosti u drti byly při požadovaných teplotách (při 260 °C i 300 °C) obecně vyšší než u referenčních vzorků, tudíž referenční vzorky (čistá PET lahev) byly tepelně stabilnější než drť. Obecně byly úbytky hmotnosti vyšší při vyšší teplotě (úbytky při 300 °C byly vyšší než při 260 °C).
Poté byla provedena izotermní měření v oxidační atmosféře. Úbytky hmotnosti u drti byly při požadovaných teplotách (při 260 °C i 300 °C) obecně nižší než u referenčních vzorků, tudíž drť byla tepelně stabilnější než referenční vzorky (čistá PET lahev). Obecně byly úbytky hmotnosti vyšší při vyšší teplotě (úbytky při 300 °C byly vyšší než při 260 °C).
PET drť bude vhodná pro výrobu polymerbetonu, protože na vzduchu bude dokonce tepelně odolnější než čistá PET lahev.



Obr. 3: Závislost úbytku hmotnosti referenčních vzorků a drti na čase v inertní atmosféře



Obr. 4: Závislost úbytku hmotnosti referenčních vzorků a drti na čase v oxidační atmosféře

4 ZÁVĚR

Podle teploty tání bylo ověřeno, že odpadní polyamid je složen z polyamidu 66. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota pro vysušený PA 66 byla stanovena na 280 °C. Nasákavost snižuje jeho tepelnou stabilitu.

Při prvním ohřevu expandovaného polypropylenu u DSC analýzy se objevily dva píky (souvisí s expandovanou formou). Dříve tající krystaly roztají a podílí se na zlepšení adheze, zatímco krystaly s vyšší teplotou tání udržují celkovou strukturu pěny. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota byla stanovena na 180 °C.

Čistota odpadních polymerních PET směsí byla ověřena pomocí ATR-FTIR analýzy. Drcená směs PET obsahovala především příměsi polypropylenu. Optimální zpracovatelská teplota PET byla stanovena na 260 °C. Vzhledem k tomu, že PET má dobrou tepelnou stabilitu a efekt nasákavosti je výrazně menší než u PA 66, je tento materiál nejslibnějším materiálem pro výrobu polymerbetonu.

Izotermní TGA analýzy dokázaly, že čistý PET i směs podrceného PET jsou tepelně poměrně stabilní při 260 °C v inertní atmosféře. U směsi podrceného PET při 260 °C rostl celkový úbytek hmotnosti výrazněji. U izotermní TGA analýzy při 300 °C už byly úbytky hmotnosti výraznější. Při izotermní TGA analýze v oxidační atmosféře byly úbytky hmotnosti obecně vyšší při požadovaných teplotách. U PET drti byla tepelná degradace nižší než u čistého PET (referenční vzorek). Z výsledků se dá usoudit, že při 260 °C lze PET poměrně dobře zpracovat, avšak pokud se dosáhne teploty 300 °C, nastane poměrně významná degradace. Navíc na vzduchu bude PET drť tepelně odolnější než čistý PET.

Poděkování

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VPLYV BIOUHLIA A HNOJENIA DUSÍKOM NA PARAMETRE PÔDNEJ ORGANICKEJ HMOTY

THE EFFECTS OF BIOCHAR AND N FERTILIZATION ON SOIL ORGANIC MATTER PARAMETERS

Martin Juriga, Vladimír Šimanský

Abstrakt

Poľný experiment s bouhlím bol založený v roku 2014, na experimentálnej báze SPU v Nitre, v lokalite Dolná Malanta, (Hnedozem kultizemná). Vzorky pôdy boli odoberané na jar a jeseň v roku 2017, s cieľom posúdiť účinok rôznych dávok biouhlia: 0, 10 a 20 t.ha^{-1}, N hnojiva: 0, 160 a 240 kg.ha^{-1}, času (jarný a jesenný odber) a hĺbky pôdy (0-30 cm, 30-60 cm) na parametre pôdnej organickej hmoty (POH). Aplikácia biouhlia štatisticky významne zvýšila hodnoty: celkového organického uhlíka (C_{OX}) a znížila hodnoty: farebného kvocientu humusových látok (Q_{HL}), farebného kvocientu humínových kyselín (Q_{HK}), uhlíka humusových látok (C_{HL}) z C_{OX}, uhlíka humínových kyselín (C_{HK}) z C_{OX} a uhlíka fulvokyselín (C_{FK}) z C_{OX}. N hnojenie spôsobilo nárast Q_{HL}, Q_{HK}, pomeru uhlíka humínových kyselín k uhlíku fulvokyselín (C_{HK}:C_{FK}) a C_{HL} z C_{OX}.

Kľúčové slová: *biouhlie, N hnojenie, pôdna organická hmota, humusové látky*

Abstract

The field experiment with biochar was established in 2014, on the experimental station of SUA in Nitra in the locality of Dolná Malanta (soil type Halpic Luvisol). We studied the influence of different doses of biochar: 0, 10 and 20 t.ha^{-1}, doses of N fertilizer: 0, 160 and 240 kg.ha^{-1}, time (spring and autumn sampling time) and depth (0-30 cm, 30-60 cm) on the soil organic matter parameters. Soil samples were collected in all treatments, twice a year during 2017. The application of biochar significantly increased the values of total organic carbon (C_{OX}) and decreased the values of colour quotient of humic substances (Q_{HS}), colour quotient of humic acids (Q_{HA}), humic substances carbon (C_{HS}) from C_{OX}, humic acids carbon (C_{HA}) from C_{OX} and fulvic acids carbon (C_{FA}) from C_{OX}. N fertilization caused of increasing of Q_{HS}, Q_{HA}, humic acids carbon to fulvic acids carbon ratio (C_{HA}:C_{FA}), C_{HS} from C_{OX}.

Key words**:** *biochar, N fertilization, soil organic matter, humic substances*

1. ÚVOD

Pôdna organická hmota (POH) je kľúčovým parametrom určujúcim kvalitu a produktivitu pôdy. Predstavuje heterogénnu zmes, členiacu sa na primárnu organickú hmotu a humus. Primárna organická hmota zahŕňa všetky nezmenené, či zmenené organické materiály, ktoré sú morfologicky identifikovateľné. Humusové látky sú podstatne zmenené organické materiály (Osman et al., 2012). Podľa Qiu et al. (2018) je POH ovplyvnená celým radom abiotických a biotických faktorov, ako aj vstupom exogénnych organických látok. Osman et al. (2012) uviedol, že väčšina poľnohospodárskych pôd má menší obsah POH ako 5%, avšak tento malý obsah je biologicky vysoko významný. POH plní mnoho funkcií, napr. je najväčším zdrojom pôdneho organického uhlíka (SOC), slúži ako zásobník živín v pôde, pomáha pri infiltrácii vzduchu a vody, podporuje retenciu vody, znižuje eróziu a mnohé iné. Zmeny stavu POH sú závislé od spôsobu obhospodarovania pôdy. Intenzívne riadené poľnohospodárske systémy vedú k poklesu zásob POH a SOC v pôdach (Loveland a Webb,

2003). V posledných rokoch narastá záujem o recykláciu organických materiálov, vytvorených v poľnohospodárstve ako vedľajšie produkty, za účelom zvyšovania obsahu POH a následného zlepšenia pôdnych vlastností (Westerman a Bicudo, 2005). Podľa Wang et al. (2016) sa produkcia a následná aplikácia biouhlia do poľnohospodárskych pôd zdá byť vhodnou alternatívou, ako zvýšiť obsah SOC a zlepšiť vlastnosti pôdy.

Biouhlie je pevný, na uhlík bohatý produkt, ktorý vzniká tepelným rozkladom rôzneho organického materiálu, zvanom pyrolýza, v podmienkach bez alebo s nízkym obsahom kyslíka (Ahmad et al., 2014). Biouhlie sa vyznačuje vysokou pórovitosťou, veľkou plochou merného povrchu, s prítomnosťou funkčných skupín. Jeho vlastnosti závisia najmä od výrobných podmienok a suroviny použitej na jeho výrobu (Weber a Quicker, 2018). Biouhlie má potenciál zlepšiť rôzne fyzikálne, chemické i biologické vlastnosti pôdy (Bakshi et al., 2018). Je považované za stabilnú formu uhlíka, čím môže dlhodobo zvyšovať obsah SOC v pôde (Fischer a Glaser, 2012). Belyaeva a Haynes (2012) potvrdili nárast obsahu živín, katiónovej výmennej kapacity (CEC) a pH pôdy. Z fyzikálnych vlastností môže prispieť, napr. k vyššiemu podielu makro-agregátov, pórovitosti, prístupného obsahu vody, hydraulickej vodivosti či k poklesu objemovej hmotnosti (Pratiwi a Shinogi, 2014). Navyše, prostredníctvom viacerých mechanizmov zlepšuje aktivitu pôdnych mikroorganizmov (Liao et al., 2016; Nielsen et al., 2014).

Cieľom tejto práce bolo preskúmať účinok: (i) rôznych dávok biouhlia, (ii) N hnojiva, (iii) termínu odberu vzoriek a (iv) hĺbky odberu vzoriek na parametre pôdnej organickej hmoty.

2. MATERIÁL A METODIKA

2.1 Charakteristika územia

Lokalita Dolná Malanta sa rozprestiera na území Žitavskej pahorkatiny, v severnej časti Podunajskej nížiny. Ohraničená je pohorím Tribeč a riekami Nitra a Žitava. Oblasť je zaradená do katastrálneho územia Nitrianske Hrnčiarovce. Leží asi 4 km od mesta Nitra, v teplej kukuričnej výrobnej oblasti, v nadmorskej výške 175 – 180 m n. m. Pôda je stredne ťažká, hlinitá až piesočnato-hlinitá s neutrálnou pôdnou reakciou. Pôdnym typom je Hnedozem kultizemná. Územie patrí do veľmi teplej agroklimatickej oblasti s priemernou ročnou teplotou vzduchu 9,8°C a priemerným ročným úhrnom zrážok 561 mm.

2.2 Opis experimentu

Experiment bol založený v marci roku 2014 pred sejbou jarného jačmeňa. Od jeho založenia sa na ploche pestovali tieto plodiny: jarný jačmeň, kukurica siata, pšenica jarná a kukurica siata. V našej štúdii sme hodnotili účinok štyroch faktorov na parametre POH: 1. biouhlie, 2. N hnojenie, 3. termín odberu pôdnych vzoriek a 4. hĺbku odberu vzoriek. V rámci biouhlia sme testovali tri varianty: B0 – bez biouhlia, B10 – s 10 $t.ha^{-1}$ biouhlia a B20 – s 20 $t.ha^{-1}$ biouhlia. N hnojenie pozostávalo tiež z troch variantov: N0 – bez N hnojiva, N160 – so 160 kg N ha^{-1} a N240 – s 240 kg N ha^{-1}. Ďalej sme sledovali vplyv termínu odberu vzoriek na zmeny hodnotených parametrov POH, a to na začiatku (máj) a na konci (september) vegetačného obdobia kukurice siatej a porovnávali sme rozdiely aj medzi dvomi hĺbkami pôdy: 0 – 30 cm a 30 – 60 cm. Použité biouhlie bolo vyrobené pri teplote pyrolýzy 500°C, z obilných pliev a odpadového kalu, vytvoreného pri výrobe papiera, v pomere 1:1. Obsahovalo 57 $g.kg^{-1}$ Ca, 3,9 $g.kg^{-1}$ Mg, 15 $g.kg^{-1}$ K, 0,7 $g.kg^{-1}$ Na, 53,1% celkového C, 1,4% celkového N a 38,3% popola. Veľkosť merného povrchu bola 21,7 $m^{-2}.g^{-1}$. Zrnitostné zloženie sa pohybovalo v rozmedzí od 1 do 5 mm a jeho pH bolo 8,8. Ako N hnojivo bol použitý LAD 27 (liadok amónny s dolomitom).

2.3 Odber vzoriek a analytické metódy

Vzorky boli odobraté dva krát počas roku 2017, a to v máji a v septembri, čo predstavuje 38. a 43. mesiac od aplikácie biouhlia. Odber bol realizovaný z dvoch hĺbok. Zo vzoriek sme odstránili väčšie korene a iné organické časti a preniesli sme ich do laboratória, kde boli vysušené pri laboratórnej teplote. Vo vzorkách boli stanovené nasledovné parametre pôdnej organickej hmoty:

- obsah celkového organického uhlíka (C_{OX}) – oxidometricky (Ťurin, 1966),
- obsah labilného uhlíka (C_L) (Loginow et al., 1987),
- uhlík rozpustný v studenej vode ($C\text{-}_{CWD}$) a uhlík rozpustný v horúcej vode ($C\text{-}_{HWD}$),
- skupinové zloženie humusových látok – skrátenou metódou (Kononova a Belčíková, 1962).

2.4 Štatistická analýza

Jednotlivé parametre organickej hmoty sme hodnotili v programe Statgraphics Centurion XV. I (Statpoint Technologies, Inc., USA) pomocou viacfaktorovej analýzy rozptylu (ANOVA).

3. VÝSLEDKY A DISKUSIA

Ako prvý z parametrov sme hodnotili celkový organický uhlík (C_{OX}). Pri jeho hodnotení sme zaznamenali pozitívny účinok aplikovaného biouhlia (Tabuľka 1). Obe aplikačné dávky štatisticky významne zvýšili koncentráciu C_{OX}: dávka 10 $t.ha^{-1}$ o 12% (B10) a dávka 20 $t.ha^{-1}$ o 23% (B20), v porovnaní s kontrolou (B0). Podľa Stevenson (1994) sa labilné frakcie C vyznačujú vyššou citlivosťou ako pôdny organický uhlík (SOC) a spôsobujú významnejšie zmeny v obsahu C. Preto je ich hodnotenie efektívnejšie ako hodnotenie obsahu SOC, ktorý podlieha zmenám veľmi pomaly. Obsah labilného uhlíka (C_L), sa v našej štúdii síce zvýšil po pridaní biouhlia, avšak bez štatistickej významnosti. Yang et al. (2018) uviedol, že aplikácia biouhlia výrazne zvýšila obsah labilných frakcií C a rýchlosť sekvestrácie C. Podľa neho môže biouhlie znížiť mieru mineralizácie SOC a C v pôde ochranou pred mikrobiálnou degradáciou, prostredníctvom jeho adsorpčných funkcií, ktoré závisia od jeho vlastností. Avšak adsorpcia C biouhlím, je iba časťou tohto ochranného účinku C biouhlím. Na druhej strane Hilscher et al. (2009), poukázal na stimuláciu mineralizácie C, hneď po aplikácii biouhlia. K mineralizácii viedla prítomnosť labilných frakcií C, ktoré podporili mikrobiálnu aktivitu. Nižšia teplota pyrolýzy vedie k vyššiemu obsahu prchavých a aromatických zlúčenín, zatiaľ čo vyššia teplota zvyšuje obsah stabilných zlúčenín (Mukherjee a Lal, 2013). C rozpustný v studenej vode ($C\text{-}_{CWD}$) a C rozpustný v horúcej vode ($C\text{-}_{HWD}$) sú ďalšími labilnými frakciami C, ktoré je možné použiť ako indikátory krátkodobých zmien C v pôde (Haynes, 2000). $C\text{-}_{HWD}$ má oveľa nižšiu mieru biologickej odbúrateľnosti ako $C\text{-}_{CWD}$, pretože horúca voda ničí bunky mikroorganizmov (Bu et al., 2011). Gregorich et al. (2005) zaznamenal, že množstvo $C\text{-}_{HWD}$ značne prevyšuje množstvo $C\text{-}_{CWD}$. S týmto zistením sa stotožňujeme aj v našom experimente. Zároveň spozoroval, že v pôde s vyšším obsahom organickej hmoty bol vyšší obsah $C\text{-}_{HWD}$, čo vyplýva z procesov intenzívnej transformácie pridanej organickej hmoty. Podobne ako pri hodnotení C_L, sme ani pri hodnotení $C\text{-}_{CWD}$ a $C\text{-}_{HWD}$ nezistili významný účinok biouhlia. Samotné N hnojenie môže výrazne podporiť mikrobiálnu aktivitu, čo môže viesť k degradácii organických zlúčenín C. Tento proces však môže byť potlačený kombinovanou aplikáciou N hnojiva s organickou hmotou so širokým pomerom C:N (Gundale a DeLuca, 2007). Hnojenie N v dávke 160, ani v dávke 240 $kg.ha^{-1}$ nespôsobilo významné zmeny v hodnote žiadneho z uvedených parametrov. Na druhej strane výrazne rozdiely v hodnotách boli pozorované medzi aplikačnými dávkami, pri C_{OX}: N240 (1,05%) a N160 (1,18%) a pri $C\text{-}_{CWD}$: N240 (223 $mg.kg^{-1}$) a N160 (244 $mg.kg^{-1}$). Koncentrácia C_{OX} sa medzi mesiacmi máj – september výrazne znížila o 29,6% a $C\text{-}_{CWD}$ o 15,6%. Posledným faktorom hodnoteným v našom experimente bola hĺbka, s nárastom

ktorej nastal štatisticky významný pokles hodnôt týchto parametrov: C_L o 36,89%, $C\text{-}_{CWD}$ o 10,63% a $C\text{-}_{HWD}$ o 23,88%.

Tabuľka 1. Štatistické hodnotenie kvantitatívnych parametrov POH (priemerné hodnoty)

Faktor		C_{OX}	C_L	$C\text{-}_{CWD}$	$C\text{-}_{HWD}$
Biouhlie	B0	1,00	1169,43	225,24	348,14
	B10	1,12	1272,55	238,06	362,48
	B20	1,23	1298,52	231,96	378,94
	±limita	±0,09	±144,60	±19,29	±30,87
N hnojenie	N0	1,12	1272,33	226,93	363,31
	N160	1,18	1287,58	244,53	360,77
	N240	1,05	1180,58	223,80	365,49
	±limita	±0,09	±144,60	±19,29	±30,87
Čas	Máj	1,25	1242,73	251,36	372,58
	September	0,88	1250,93	212,15	353,80
	±limita	±0,07	±118,07	±15,75	±25,21
Hĺbka	0 - 30 cm	1,12	1528,79	244,76	412,43
	30 - 60 cm	1,11	964,87	218,75	313,95
	±limita	±0,07	±118,07	±15,75	±25,21

C_{OX} – celkový organický uhlík, C_L – labilný uhlík, $C\text{-}_{CWD}$ – uhlík rozpustný v studenej vode, $C\text{-}_{HWD}$ – uhlík rozpustný v horúcej vode

Dôležitým kvalitatívnym ukazovateľom humusu je pomer uhlíka humínových kyselín k uhlíku fulvokyselín (C_{HK}:C_{FK}). Pomer C_{HK}:C_{FK} je často používaný ako indikátor stupňa humifikácie. Čím je C_{HK}:C_{FK} vyšší, tým je nižšia rýchlosť humifikácie organických látok. Ak je pomer menší ako 1, kvalita humusu je nízka, ak je väčší ako 1, kvalita humusu je vysoká (Anderson a Coleman, 1985). Pri hodnotení tohto parametra sme nezaznamenali štatisticky významný účinok žiadnej z dávok biouhlia. N hnojenie v nižšej dávke viedlo k významnému zvýšeniu C_{HK}:C_{FK}, a to z 0,97 (N0) na 1,20 (N160). V priebehu mesiacov máj – september sa pomer C_{HK}:C_{FK} významne nezmenil. V oboch testovaných vrstvách pôdy bola zistená rovnaká hodnota C_{HK}:C_{FK} (1,06). Na posúdenie kvality humusu sme ďalej použili farebný kvocient humusových látok (Q_{HL}) a farebný kvocient humínových kyselín (Q_{HK}). Aplikácia oboch dávok biouhlia indukovala pokles Q_{HL}: zo 4,78 (B0) na 4,50 (B10) a na 4,62 (B20) a aplikácia nižšej dávky biouhlia pokles Q_{HK} (Tabuľka 2). Vyššia dávka N zvýšila Q_{HL} o 4,82% a Q_{HK} o 2,06%. Počas vegetačného obdobia vzrástli hodnoty Q_{HL} o 8,3% a Q_{HK} o 9,6%. S väčšou hĺbkou poklesli o 5,25% (Q_{HL}) a o 1,30% (Q_{HK}).

Tabuľka 2. Štatistické hodnotenie kvalitatívnych parametrov POH (priemerné hodnoty)

Faktor		C_{HK}:C_{FK}	Q_{HL}	Q_{HK}
Biouhlie	B0	1,04	4,78	3,88
	B10	1,11	4,50	3,78
	B20	1,04	4,62	3,84
	±limita	±0,17	±0,07	±0,04
N Hnojenie	N0	0,97	4,54	3,80
	N160	1,20	4,59	3,82
	N240	1,02	4,77	3,88
	±limita	±0,17	±0,07	±0,04
Čas	Máj	1,11	4,45	3,66
	September	1,02	4,82	4,01

	±limita	±0,14	±0,06	±0,03
Hĺbka	0 - 30 cm	1,06	4,76	3,86
	30 - 60 cm	1,06	4,51	3,81
	±limita	±0,14	±0,06	±0,03

C_{HK}:C_{FK} – pomer uhlíka humínových kyselín k uhlíku fulvokyselín, Q_{HL} – farebný kvocient humusových látok, Q_{HK} – farebný kvocient humínových kyselín

Priemerné hodnoty humusových látok v % z $C_{OX,}$ sú uvedené v Tabuľke 3. Humusové látky (HL) patria medzi stabilnejšie frakcie POH, vyznačujú sa vysokým stupňom polymerizácie. Sú schopné čiastočne odolávať mikrobiálnej degradácii. Vznikajú prostredníctvom chemických a biochemických procesov transformácie rastlinných zvyškov a aktivity mikroorganizmov (Stevenson, 1994). HL tvoria asi 40 – 60% z POH a pozostávajú najmä z humínových kyselín (HK) a fulvokyselín (FK) (Yonebayashi a Hattori, 1998). V rámci našej štúdie sme po aplikácii vyššej dávky biouhlia zaznamenali štatisticky významne nižšie koncentrácie: C_{HL} o 13,68%, C_{HK} o 13,20% a C_{FK} o 14,10%, v porovnaní s B0 variantom. K významnému poklesu C_{FK} viedla aj nižšia dávka biouhlia, a to o 10,23%, oproti kontrole (B0). K podobným výsledkom dospel aj Zhao et al. (2017), ktorý pozoroval, postupný pokles koncentrácii C_{HL} počas prvého roku po aplikácii biouhlia. Podľa Navarrete a Tsutsuki (2008) je tento pokles zvyčajne pripisovaný mikrobiálnej oxidácii organických materiálov. N hnojenie v dávke 240 kg.ha^{-1} štatisticky významne zvýšilo hodnoty: C_{HL} o 11,10%, C_{HK} o 13,94% a C_{FK} o 8,26% oproti N0. Na druhej strane dávka 160 kg N ha^{-1} mala za následok významný pokles C_{FK} o 11,73%, v porovnaní s kontrolou. Yagi et al. (2005), zistil významný nárast hodnôt C_{HL} po aplikácii rôznych dávok N hnojiva: 120, 180 a 240 kg.ha^{-1}. V priebehu vegetačného obdobia nastala významná zmena, pri C_{HL} a C_{HK}, ktorých hodnoty klesli o 8,51% a o 11,16%. Podiel C_{HL} sa spolu s hlbšou vrstvou pôdy zvýšil o 9,42%, C_{FK} o 10,45% a na C_{HK} hĺbka nemala výrazný efekt. Yagi et al. (2005) tiež porovnával dve hĺbky pôdy a zistil, že obsah C_{HL}, C_{HK} a C_{FK} bol vyšší v povrchovej vrstve pôdy, než v hlbšej vrstve. Podľa Stevenson (1994) by tieto rozdiely medzi hĺbkami mohli byť spôsobené syntézou zlúčenín tvoriacich tieto frakcie C, čo najbližšie k povrchu pôdy, kvôli väčšiemu obsahu organických zvyškov.

Tabuľka 3. Štatistické hodnotenie skupinového zloženia humusových látok v % z C_{OX} (priemerné hodnoty)

Faktor		C_{HL}	C_{HK}	C_{FK}
Biouhlie	B0	40,36	20,22	20,13
	B10	37,91	19,84	18,07
	B20	34,84	17,55	17,29
	±limita	±3,29	±2,57	±1,57
N Hnojenie	N0	36,27	17,60	18,67
	N160	36,04	19,57	16,48
	N240	40,80	20,45	20,35
	±limita	±3,29	±2,57	±1,57
Čas	Máj	39,38	20,34	19,03
	September	36,03	18,07	17,96
	±limita	±2,68	±2,10	±1,28
Hĺbka	0 - 30 cm	35,86	18,33	17,48
	30 - 60 cm	39,59	20,07	19,52
	±limita	±2,68	±2,10	±1,28

C_{HL} – uhlík humusových látok z C_{OX}, C_{HK} – uhlík humínových kyselín z C_{OX}, C_{FK} – uhlík fulvokyselín z C_{OX}

4. ZÁVER

Z výsledkov našej štúdie vyplýva, že v rámci hodnotenia kvantitatívnych parametrov POH, aplikácia biouhlia štatisticky významne zvýšila koncentráciu C_{OX}, a to pri oboch aplikačných dávkach. Zároveň viedla k poklesu hodnôt viacerých kvalitatívnych parametrov POH hodnotených v našej štúdii. Hodnoty Q_{HL} sa znížili po pridaní oboch dávok biouhlia a Q_{HK} po pridaní nižšej dávky biouhlia. Tiež sme zaznamenali aj významný pokles hodnôt parametrov skupinového zloženia humusových látok z C_{OX}, pri variante B20: C_{HL} o 13,68%, C_{HK} o 13,20% a C_{FK} o 14,10% a pri B10: C_{FK} o 10,23%, oproti kontrole.

N hnojenie nemalo významný účinok na žiaden s hodnotených kvantitatívnych parametrov POH. V rámci hodnotenia kvalitatívnych parametrov sme však pozorovali významný nárast hodnôt viacerých parametrov. Po pridaní 160 kg N ha^{-1} bola zistená vyššia hodnota C_{HK}:C_{FK} o 19,17% ako pri nehnojenom variante. Keď sme aplikovali 240 kg N ha^{-1} bol pozorovaný významný nárast hodnôt: Q_{HL} o 4,82%, Q_{HK} o 2,06%, ako aj extrahovateľnosti humusových látok z C_{OX}: C_{HL} o 11,10%, C_{HK} o 13,94% a C_{FK} o 8,26%, oproti kontrole. Okrem toho N hnojenie v nižšej dávke viedlo k poklesu hodnoty C_{FK} z C_{OX}, a to o 11,73%, v porovnaní s kontrolou.

V priebehu vegetačného obdobia kukurice siatej nastal významný pokles hodnôt pri parametroch: C_{OX}, C_{-CWD}, C_{HL} z C_{OX}, C_{HK} z C_{OX} a nárast pri: Q_{HL} a Q_{HK}.

V hlbšej vrstve pôdy boli zistené výrazne nižšie hodnoty týchto parametrov: C_L, C_{-CWD}, C_{-HWD}, Q_{HL}, Q_{HK} a vyššie: C_{HL} z C_{OX} a C_{FK} z C_{OX}, ako v povrchovej vrstve.

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KONTAMINÁCIA PŠENICE DEOXYNIVALENOLOM

CONTAMINATION OF WHEAT BY DEOXYNIVALENOL

Michaela Harčárová, Eva Čonková, Dana Marcinčáková, Zuzana Sihelská

Abstrakt

Výskyt mikroskopických vláknitých húb a ich sekundárnych metabolitov, mykotoxínov v obilninách je celosvetovým problémom. V Európe sú najčastejšími kontaminantmi fuzáriotoxíny (deoxynivalenol, zearalenón a fumonizíny). Mykotoxíny majú širokú škálu negatívnych účinkov na zdravie zvierat a ľudí. Cieľom našej práce bolo zistiť prítomnosť deoxynivalenolu v 22 vzorkách pšenice po žatve. Deoxynivalenol bol detegovaný vo 8 vzorkách z 22 vzoriek, čo predstavuje incidenciu 36,4 %. Hladiny deoxynivalenolu sa pohybovali v rozmedzí 0,021 – 0,596 ppm.

Kľúčové slová: *pšenica, deoxynivalenol, ELISA*

Abstract

The occurrence of microscopic filamentous fungi and their secondary metabolites - mycotoxins in cereals is a global problem. The most common contaminants in Europe are fusarium toxins (deoxynivalenol, zearalenone and fumonisins). Mycotoxins have a wide range of negative effects on animal and human health. The aim of our work was to determine the presence of fusarium toxin deoxynivalenol in 22 samples of wheat after harvest by ELISA. Deoxynivalenol was present in 8 samples of 22 samples, representing an incidence of 36.4 %. Deoxynivalenol levels ranged from 0.021 – 0.596 ppm.

Keywords: *wheat, deoxynivalenol, ELISA*

1. Úvod

Pšenica (*Triticum aestivum*) je našou základnou obilninou so širokým použitím. Používa sa v potravinárstve, liehovarníctve, ale aj na výrobu krmív pre hospodárske zvieratá. Obilniny sú už počas rastu na poli vhodným substrátom pre rast mikroskopických vláknitých húb. Spóry mikromycét sa môžu vyskytovať na poliach vo zvyškoch po predchádzajúcej žatve. Za vhodných environmentálnych podmienok ako sú vlhké, teplé počasie a časté zrážky dochádza ku klíčeniu spór a následnému rastu mikroskopických vláknitých húb, ktoré kolonizujú klasy a neskôr zrná pšenice. Niektoré druhy mikroskopických vláknitých húb sú schopné syntézy sekundárnych metabolitov, mykotoxínov (Desjardins, 2006). Na produkcii mykotoxínov sa nepodieľajú všetky mikroskopické vláknité huby, ale len niektoré druhy, ktoré sa nazývajú potencionálne toxinogénne huby (Jantošovič a kol., 1998). Medzi faktory, ktoré súvisia s tvorbou mykotoxínov zaraďujeme: prítomnosť kyslíka, poveternostné podmienky, mechanické narušenie celistvosti zrna počas zberu plodín, poškodenie celistvosti zrna hmyzom, rastlinná varieta, hustota rastlinného porastu, štruktúra pôdy, kvalita hubového inokula a vegetačné štádium (Opletal a Skřivanová, 2010). Poľnohospodársky najvýznamnejšími poľnými mikroskopickými vláknitými hubami s potencionálnou toxinogenitou sú rody *Fusarium* a *Alternaria* (Glenn, 2007).

Deoxynivalenol (DON, vomitoxín) patrí do skupiny trichotecénov, ktorú tvorí viac ako 180 štrukturálne príbuzných mykotoxínov, ktoré sú sekundárnymi metabolitmi mikroskopických vláknitých húb rodu *Fusarium*, *Stachybotrys* a iných (Grove, 2000). Je produkovaný predovšetkým druhmi *Fusarium graminearum*, *Fusarium culmorum*, *Fusarium*

sporotrichioides, Fusarium poae a *Fusarium acuminatum* (Laciaková a kol., 2011). Po prvýkrát bol deoxynivalenol izolovaný v Japonsku v roku 1972 Moorokoom a kol. (Breitenbach a kol., 2002). Je najbežnejším, celosvetovo rozšíreným trichotecénom (Mostrom, 2011). Na negatívne účinky deoxynivalenolu sú zvieratá vnímavé v závislosti od druhu, najviac citlivé sú ošípané, potom hydina a najmenej vnímavé sú prežúvavce (Prelusky a kol., 1994). Nízka vnímavosť prežúvavcov spočíva v aktivite bachorovej mikroflóry, ktorá zohráva dôležitú úlohu pri detoxikácii deoxynivalenolu (Riley a Pestka, 2005). Hlavnými klinickými príznakmi otravy vomitoxínom sú gastrointestinálne problémy a hnačky. Zvieratá sú náchylnejšie na infekčné ochorenia a znižuje sa ich úžitkovosť. Pri hydine je pozorované zníženie hmotnosti vajíčka, zhoršená kvalita vaječnej škrupiny a vo vajíčku ostávajú reziduá (Herzig a Suchý, 2010). Pri dlhodobom podávaní krmiva s obsahom deoxynivalenolu brojlerom bola pozorovaná progresívna rachitída (Köhler a kol., 1978). U hovädzieho dobytka spôsobuje deoxynivalenol znížený obsah tuku v mlieku a znižuje sa celková produkcia mlieka (Rajčáková a Mlynár, 2004). U koní sa otrava prejavuje nervóznym správaním so zmenenými reflexami, meningitídami, hyperestéziami, neurologickým ako aj encefalomyelitickým poškodením (Gedek, 1980). Deoxynivalenol môže spôsobiť akútne intoxikácie aj u psov a mačiek, u ktorých sa akútna otrava prejavuje vomitom, tachykardiou, hnačkou, hemorágiami, edémom, nekrózou kože, hemoragickým zápalom sliznice žalúdka a hrubého čreva, poškodením hematopoetického systému, leukopéniou, trombocytopéniou, hemorágiami v mozgu, nervóznym správaním a odmietaním krmiva (Hughes a kol., 1999). Medzinárodná agentúra pre výskum rakoviny (IARC) zaradila deoxynivalenol do tretej skupiny medzi látky, ktoré nie sú karcinogénne pre ľudí (IARC, 2002).

2. Materiál a metodika

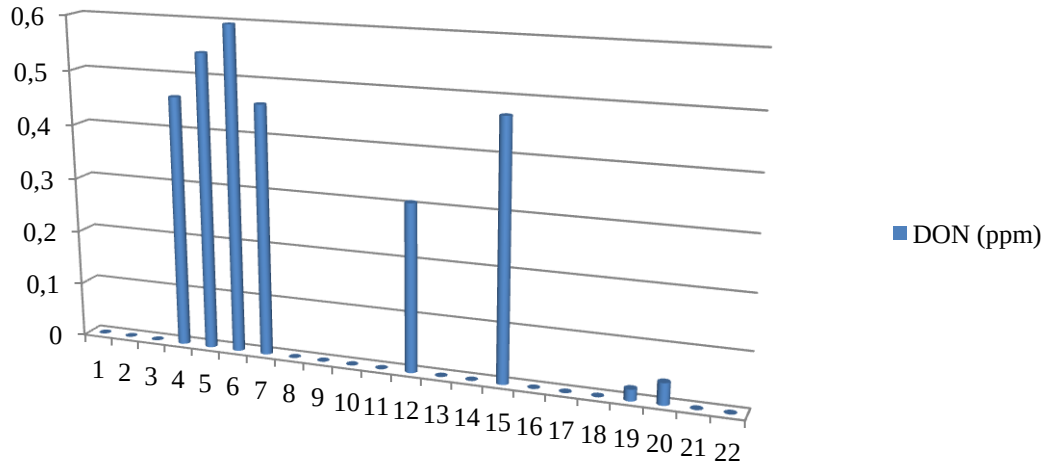
Vzorky pšenice (*Triticum aestivum*) boli získané po žatve v roku 2017 z nákupného skladu Tajba, a.s. Čečejovce. Príprava vzoriek bola vykonaná podľa protokolu Veratox (Veratox for deoxynivalenol; Neogen corporation). Vzorky na stanovenie deoxynivalenolu boli spracované nasledovným spôsobom: 10 gramov z každej vzorky bolo pomletých a zmiešaných so 100 ml destilovanej vody. Vzorky boli miešané na trepačke 3 minúty a následne prefiltrované cez filtračný papier Whatman 1. Filtráty boli po riedení s destilovanou vodou v pomere 1:2 pripravené na stanovenie. Kvantitatívne stanovenie deoxynivalenolu bolo vykonané pomocou ELISA testu a vyhodnotené ELISA readerom (Dynex Technologies).

3. Výsledky a diskusia

Incidencia deoxynivalenolu v nami vyšetrených vzorkách predstavovala 36,4 % s výskytom deoxynivalenolu vo 8 vzorkách z celkového počtu 22 vzoriek. Deoxynivalenol sa v pozitívnych vzorkách pšenice vyskytoval v rozsahu 0,021 – 0,596 ppm (Graf 1). Podobné výsledky kontaminácie pšenice deoxynivalenolom zaznamenali viaceré štúdie. Juan a kol. (2013) v Taliansku potvrdili 28 % incidenciu pšenice deoxynivalenolom. V Nórsku bol preukázaný výskyt deoxynivalenolu v 29,4 % a maximálna hladina mykotoxínu dosahovala 0,890 ppm (Van Der Fels-Klerx a kol., 2012). V Srbsku bolo vyšetrených 55 vzoriek pšenice a výsledná incidencia deoxynivalenolu predstavovala 34,5 % s maximálnou hladinou DON-u 0,420 ppm (Jajić a kol., 2008). Nižší výskyt deoxynivalenolu v pšenici zaznamenali aj vo Švédsku 20,6 % s maximálnou koncentráciou deoxynivalenolu 0,890 ppm (Van Der Fels-Klerx a kol., 2012). V rokoch 2010 – 2011 bolo na Slovensku vyšetrených 299 vzoriek pšenice so 76,6 % výskytom deoxynivalenolu (Šliková a kol., 2013; Šliková a kol., 2014). V Českej republike výskyt deoxynivalenolu dosahoval až 100 % s maximálnou hladinou 2,265 ppm (Hajšlová a kol., 2007). V Rumunsku potvrdili pri vyšetrení 25 vzoriek pšenice 100 % výskyt deoxynivalenolu s maximálnou hodnotou 5,600 ppm (Curtui a kol., 1998).

Stopercentný výskyt DON-u bol zaznamenaný aj v Litve, kde v 48 vzorkách pšenice maximálna koncentrácia deoxynivalenolu dosahovala 2,230 ppm (Mankevičiene a kol., 2011).

Graf 1: Hladiny deoxynivalenolu (ppm) vo vzorkách pšenice



4. Záver

Výskyt mikroskopických vláknitých húb a ich sekundárnych metabolitov v pšenici je výrazne ovplyvnený typom klimatického pásma a s ním súvisiacimi poveternostnými podmienkami, v ktorých je plodina pestovaná. Rozdielne výsledky mnohých štúdií poukazujú na vysokú variabilitu vo výskyte a v množstve deoxynivalenolu prítomného v pšenici. Podľa FAO je približne 25 % celosvetovo vyprodukovaných obilnín kontaminovaných mykotoxínmi. Dôležitou úlohou je neustály monitoring výskytu mikromycét a mykotoxínov, pretože ich šíreniu sa nedá úplne zamedziť. Prítomnosť mykotoxínov v poľnohospodárskych plodinách, krmivách a potravinách je legislatívne regulovaná prostredníctvom povolených maximálnych limitov. V členských štátoch Európskej Únie prebieha kontrola podľa právnych predpisov EU. Problémovými sú však rozvojové krajiny (Afrike a niektoré štáty Ázie), kde takáto regulácia neprebieha alebo ju len začínajú zavádzať.

Poďakovanie

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ÚČINOK RÔZNYCH EXTRAKTOV PÚPAVY LEKÁRSKEJ (*TARAXACUM OFFICINALE*) NA MODELOVÝ ORGANIZMUS

THE EFFECT OF VARIOUS EXTRACTS OF DANDELION (*TARAXACUM OFFICINALE*) ON MODEL ORGANISM

Dana Marcinčáková, Nikola Červeňáková, Michal Milek, Michaela Harčárová, Jaroslav Legáth

Abstrakt

Púpava lekárska (*Taraxacum officinale*) z čeľade *Asteraceae* patrí medzi rozšírené rastlinné druhy s veľkým množstvom farmakologicky účinných látok. Vo forme extraktov sa využívajú všetky časti rastliny, pričom ako extrakčné činidlá sa používajú rôzne solventy. Cieľom práce bolo stanoviť a porovnať in vitro vplyv extraktov listu a kvetu púpavy lekárskej (*Taraxaci folium, Taraxaci flos*) v koncentráciách 125 – 1000 mg/l na metabolickú aktivitu buniek modelovej bunkovej línie králičích obličkových buniek RK13. Ako extrakčné činidlá boli použité acetón (30 %), triton X-100 (2 %) a nonidet P-40 (2 %). Na zhodnotenie účinku bol vykonaný kolorimetrický MTT test metabolickej aktivity. Najvyššie hodnoty metabolickej aktivity buniek boli dosiahnuté pri najnižšej koncentrácii acetónového extraktu 125 mg/l (*Taraxaci folium* 109,36 % a *Taraxaci flos* 119,01 %), po 48 hodinách expozície až 140,80 %. Rezíduá extraktantov spôsobili zníženie metabolickej aktivity k hodnotám 0,12 % – 3,80 %.

Kľúčové slová: *MTT, bunková kultúra, rozpúšťadlo*

Abstract

Dandelion (Taraxacum officinale) from the Asteraceae family belongs to widespread plant species with many pharmacologically effective substances. All parts of the plant are used in extracts and for preparation various solvents are used. The aim of the study was to determine and compare in vitro effect of dandelion leafs and flowers extracts (Taraxaci folium, Taraxaci flos) at concentrations 125 – 1000 mg/l on metabolic activity of model cell line RK13 (rabbit epithelial kidney cells). As a solvent actone (30 %), triton X-100 (2 %) and nonidet P-40 were used. To evaluate impact of extracts to cells th colorimetric MTT test of metabolic activity was employed. The highest value of metabolic activity was recorded with the lowest concentration of used aceton extract 125 mg/ml (Taraxaci folium 109,36 % a Taraxaci flos 119,01 %), after 48 hours even 140,80 %. Residues of solvents caused significant decrease of metabolic activity to values 0,12 % – 3,80 %.

Key words: *MTT, cell line, solvent*

1. ÚVOD

V súčasnosti je približne polovica farmaceutických produktov založená na rastlinách a navyše veľké množstvo sa používa na prípravu rôznych čajovín. Púpava lekárska (Taraxacum officinale) je jednou z bežne sa vyskytujúcich rastlín, ktorá disponuje širokým spektrom liečivých účinkov. Liečivom súčasnej fytoterapie už nie je infúzia, odvar alebo tinktúra, ale suchý štandardizovaný extrakt alebo len jedna samostatná frakcia tohto extraktu. Extrakty predstavujú vo farmaceutickom priemysle surovinu, ktorá zodpovedá dnešným požiadavkám spracovania, analýzy a kontroly rovnako ako syntetické liečivá [1, 2]. Pri príprave týchto suchých extraktov sa využívajú rôzne extrakčné činidlá a predpokladá sa, že sušením

dochádza k odpareniu rozpúšťadiel, ktorých účinok na živý organizmus často nie je známy, alebo môže byť dokonca nepriaznivý. Cieľom našej práce je overiť účinok extraktov liečivej rastliny púpavy lekárskej, ktoré boli pripravené pomocou troch odlišných rozpúšťadiel acetón, nonidet P-40 a triton X-100 na živý organizmus – modelovú bunkovú líniu králičích obličkových buniek RK13 a porovnať tak vplyv rozpúšťadla použitého pri príprave suchých extraktov.

2. MATERIÁL A METÓDY

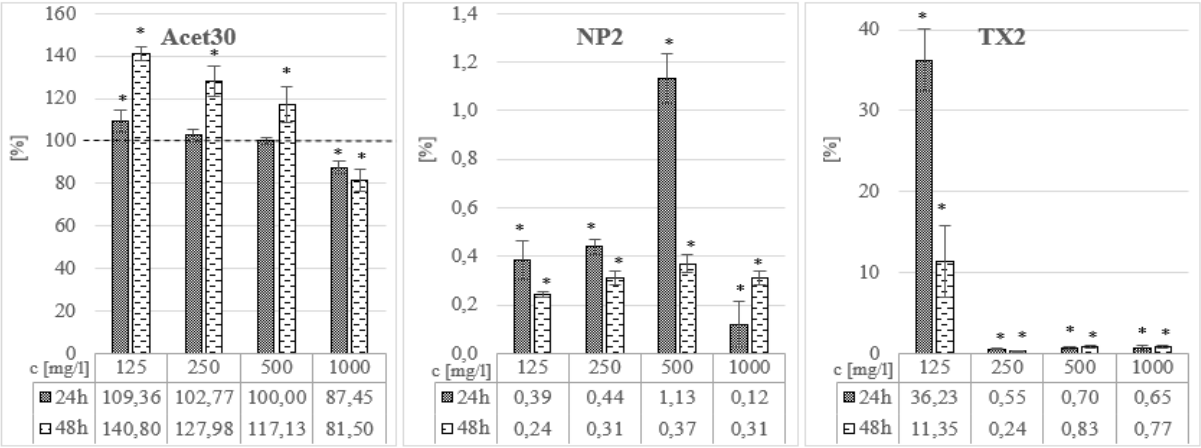
Pomocou troch extrakčných rozpúšťadiel – acetón v koncentrácii 30 % (Acet30), triton X-100 v koncentrácii 2 % (TX2) a nonidet P-40 v koncentrácii 2 % (NP2) boli pripravené vzorky extraktov listu púpavy (Taraxaci folium) a kvetu púpavy (Taraxaci flos), ktoré boli prevedené lyofilizáciou na suché práškové extrakty. Zo suchých extraktov sme pripravili vodné roztoky v koncentráciách 125, 250, 500 a 1 000 mg/l. Ako modelový organizmus boli zvolené králičie bunky epitelu obličiek RK13 (ATCC® CCL-37™), ktoré boli po 24-hodinovej kultivácii v kompletnom kultivačnom médiu EMEM (Earl´s Minimal Esential Medium; Lonza, Belgium) vystavené účinku testovaných extraktov (48 hodín). Na zhodnotenie účinku extraktov na bunky bol v 24. a 48. hodine expozície vykonaný MTT test, ktorý hodnotí metabolickú aktivitu buniek [3]. Hodnoty absorbancie namerané spektrofotometricky boli prepočítané na metabolickú aktivitu buniek vyjadrenú v % podľa vzorca % = absorbancia vzorky x 100 / absorbancia kontroly, pričom ako kontrola slúžili bunky bez expozície (metabolická aktivita 100 %). Výsledky boli vypočítané ako priemerná hodnota (n = 3) so štandardnou odchýlkou (± sd). Pre štatistické vyhodnotenie výsledkov sme použili program Graf Pad Prism 3.00 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA), Dunnettov porovnávací test. Za štatisticky významný rozdiel sa považuje hodnota $P < 0,05$.

3. VÝSLEDKY

Pri zhodnotení metabolickej aktivity buniek modelovej línie ošetrených extraktmi listu púpavy lekárskej (Taraxaci folium) sme výrazné zvýšenie aktivity nad 100 % zaznamenali iba s extraktmi pripravenými v rozpúšťadle Acet30 po 24 hodinách pri koncentráciách 125 a 250 mg/l a po 48 hodinách navyše aj pri koncentrácii 500 mg/l (Obrázok č. 1). V prípade rozpúšťadiel NP2 a TX2 boli takmer všetky hodnoty metabolickej aktivity blízke nule (okrem TX2 pri koncentrácii 125 mg/l), čím možno predpokladať smrť buniek.

U všetkých extraktov bol zaznamenaný štatisticky významný rozdiel ($P < 0,05$) v hodnotách metabolickej aktivity ošetrených buniek v porovnaní s bunkami bez ošetrenia okrem acetónového extraktu 250 a 500 mg/l po 24 hodinách expozície ($P > 0,05$).

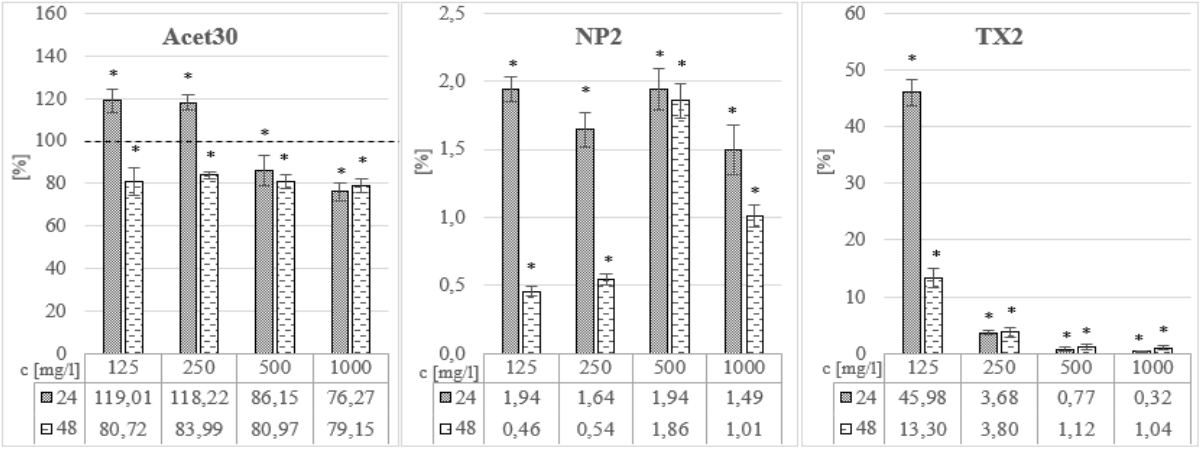
Obrázok č. 1: Hodnoty metabolickej aktivity buniek (%) vystavených extraktom listu púpavy lekárskej v acetóne (30 %), NP2 a TX2 v závislosti od koncentrácie (mg/l)



Acet30 – acetón 30 %; NP2 – Nonidet P-40; TX2 – Triton X-100; * – štatisticky významný rozdiel P < 0,05

Pri celkovom zhodnotení metabolickej aktivity buniek modelovej línie ošetrených extraktmi kvetu púpavy lekárskej (Taraxaci flos) sme výrazné rozdiely oproti listu nedosiahli (Obrázok č.2). Rovnako priaznivý účinok na aktivitu buniek malo rozpúšťadlo Acet30. V prípade koncentrácií 125 a 250 mg/l došlo k zvýšeniu metabolickej aktivity ošetrených buniek nad 100 % pri ich vystavení extraktu po dobu 24 hodín. Pri koncentráciách 500 a 1 000 mg/l aktivita klesla na 80 %. Naopak metabolická aktivita buniek ovplyvnených extraktom púpavy, pri ktorých sa ako rozpúšťadlo používalo NP2 alebo TX2, bola opäť veľmi nízka – takmer nulové hodnoty. Všetky hodnoty boli štatisticky rozdielne oproti kontrole (P < 0,05).

Obrázok č. 2: Hodnoty metabolickej aktivity buniek (%) vystavených extraktom kvetu púpavy lekárskej v acetóne (30 %), NP2 a TX2 v závislosti od koncentrácie (mg/l)



Acet30 – acetón 30%; NP2 – Nonidet P-40; TX2 – Triton X-100; * – štatisticky významný rozdiel P < 0,05

4. DISKUSIA

Púpava lekárska (Taraxacum officinale) disponuje bohatým farmakologickým profilom a z hľadiska výskytu nežiadúcich účinkov ju radíme medzi bezpečné rastliny. Vo viacerých štúdiách boli potvrdené jej farmakologické účinky – diuretický, choleretický, protizápalový, antioxidačný, antikarcinogénny, antihyperglykemický, antikoagulačný, prebiotický [4].

V našej práci sme pri hodnotení účinku metabolickej aktivity buniek ošetrených extraktom púpavy zistili významný vplyv rozpúšťadla použitého pri príprave suchých extraktov. Rozpúšťadlá majú v chemickom priemysle široké uplatnenie v rôznych aplikáciách, ako napríklad v procesoch spracovania (syntéza, separácia, purifikácia aktívnej zložky), v liekových formách a tiež aj počas čistenia, umývania. Pri výbere rozpúšťadla sa zvyčajne používajú metódy na výber najvhodnejšieho rozpúšťadla z vopred vybranej sady pre daný krok spracovania [5]. Acetón rozpúšťa mnoho hydrofilných aj lipofilných zložiek rastlín, je miešateľný s vodou, je prchavý a má nízku toxicitu pre použitý biologický test. Hoci voda je používaná ako univerzálne rozpúšťadlo, rastlinné extrakty z organických rozpúšťadiel poskytujú vyššiu antimikrobiálnu aktivitu oproti vodným extraktom [6]. V našej práci sa potvrdila zvýšená metabolická aktivita buniek vplyvom extraktu listu a kvetu púpavy v prípade použitého rozpúšťadla Acet30. Možno predpokladať práve vplyv obsahových látok, keďže púpava obsahuje veľké množstvo polyfenolov a flavonoidov (19 %) [7]. Triton X-100 a Nonidet P-40 sú jednými z najpoužívanejších neiónových povrchovo aktívnych látok, ktoré sa používajú na lýzu buniek k extrakcii proteínov a iných bunkových organel a tiež ako činidlá permeabilizujúce membrány [8]. Napriek úplnému odpareniu rozpúšťadla pri príprave suchých práškových extraktov bol pri porovnaní vzoriek dokázaný vplyv ich rezíduí na metabolickú aktivitu buniek. Rezíduá spôsobili zníženie metabolickej aktivity ošetrených buniek k nulovým hodnotám, čo značí až smrť buniek. Potvrdilo sa, že výber vhodného rozpúšťadla pri získavaní rastlinných extraktov je veľmi dôležitý, pretože môže nepriaznivo vplývať priamo na živý organizmus. Aj napriek pozitívnym účinkom rastliny bude v konečnom dôsledku dopad na zdravie nepriaznivý.

5. ZÁVER

Na základe dosiahnutých výsledkov možno konštatovať, že výber rozpúšťadla pri extrakcii má veľký význam a ovplyvňuje v konečnom dôsledku viabilitu a metabolickú aktivitu buniek. Pre púpavu a jej komplex obsahových látok je vhodné používať ako rozpúšťadlo acetón (30 %). V prípade vzoriek acetónových extraktov boli pozorované signifikantne zvýšené hodnoty metabolickej aktivity nad 100 %, čo považujeme za podporný účinok. Naopak nevhodné je používanie povrchovo aktívnych látok – iónových detergentov, ktoré na metabolickú aktivitu a viabilitu mali nežiadúci vplyv a spôsobili smrť buniek. Touto prácou sme chceli poukázať na dôležitosť správneho výberu extrakčných činidiel pri príprave rastlinných extraktov, pretože aj po ich odparení zostávajú zvyšky v suchom práškovom extrakte a nepriaznivo vplývajú na živý organizmus.

Táto práca vznikla za podpory Národného referenčného laboratória pre pesticídy Univerzity veterinárskeho lekárstva a farmácie v Košiciach a vďaka finančnej podpore z grantového projektu VEGA č. 1/0408/17.

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LEMNA MINOR BIOASSAY EVALUATION USING COMPUTER VISION

Oto Haffner, Erik Kučera, Barbora Urminská, Michal Hlavatý, Peter Drahoš

Abstract

This paper deals with using of computer vision in evaluation of *Lemna minor* bioassay. The conventionally method for *Lemna minor* bioassay is counting the number of the leaves in order to compute the growth of *Lemna minor* mass. In this work we evaluate the possibilities of using counting of the area of leaves using computer vision and compare the conventionally method.

Keywords: *Lemna minor bioassay; visual system; computer vision, water pollution assessment, bioindicators*

1 INTRODUCTION

It is necessary to develop more and more advances wastewater methods. Environment possibilities of monitoring are in continuous progress which leads to developing better methods for monitoring of toxicants in threatened water. As a relevant approach for evaluation of impact this water to ecosystems the ecotoxicological test are used. Pollution in wastewater treatment plant is not removed perfectly. The pollution is only lowered to the acceptable levels. It must be judge thoroughly whether treated water has enough low the level of ecotoxicity and if there will be any effect on the organism in water [1,3].

Lemna minor is one of the water organism used for measurement of ecotoxicity. The biostimulation or inhibition of plant growth in the tested samples is watched for 7 day during the test of ecotoxicity. The objective of the test is to measure of substance effects on growing of the vegetable. This measurement is done by computing the number of leaves and biomass. For the legitimacy of tests, average increase of a number of leaves must be 7 times in reference samples. The level of EC50 (effective concentration causing 50 % inhibition) for standard substance must be between 5,5 to 10 g.l-1 and the changing of the pH should not change more than 1,5 unit.

The visual evaluation of number of leaves is done manually by laboratory workers. This process can be long and loaded by human mistake. There are devices with partially automated process for Lemna minor experiment evaluation which can have Big scientific institutions which deal with the topic of wastewater management. These devices are often not available for smaller institutions or scientific teams because of the high price.

Lemna minor (lesser duckweed - *Angiospermae, Lemnaceae*) is a freshwater plant which can be found in most contries all over the wolrd, mainly in lowlands and foothill areas where is stagnant and slow-flowing waters. The plants body consists of relatively long root and 2 to 5 mm leaves with oval shape which can float on the surface of water. Mostly, the plant is in the colonies of two to five leaves. A small single plant can itself reproduce every 3 days under ideal conditions in nutrient-rich waters [2]. Lemna minor bioassays are quite common and easy to perform. The test takes 7 days, where the plant is in the tested samples and by evaluation of the growth inhibition it is quantify the effects of substances on vegetation growth.

Computer vision represents the methods for acquiring, analysing and understanding images. Applications of computer vision range from computers or robots hat can comprehend world around them, artificial intelligence to industrial machine vision. Computer vision covers the core technology of automated image analysis which is used in many fields. Machine vision

represents a process of combining automated image analysis with other methods and technologies to provide automated inspection or robot guidance in industrial environment and applications. [4,5,6]

2 EXPERIMENT

Test on *Lemna minor* has been performed according to standard ISO 20079 (Water quality - Determination of the toxic effect of water constituents and waste water on duckweed (*Lemna minor*) - Duckweed growth inhibition test) as a 168 h growth inhibition test [8]. The observed endpoint was inhibition of growth by the effect of the samples during the 7-day exposure (168 hours). The aim of the test was to quantify the negative effects on vegetative growth in two parameters – according to the number of leaves and according to the leaf area. Then it was possible to compare these two methods of evaluation. Reference substance potassium dichromate $K_2Cr_2O_7$ was used for the experiments. Concentrations of this substance were as follows: 5, 10, 20, 40, 80 and 160 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$.

Tests on reference substances serve to verify the quality and sensitivity of organisms, and thus their usability for the test. For $K_2Cr_2O_7$, the EC50 reference value is in the range of 5,5 to 10,0 $mg \cdot L^{-1}$.

For the purpose of testing, modified Steinberg medium was first prepared. This medium contains all the necessary nutrients for Lemna minor growth and it was then used for the dilution of solid $K_2Cr_2O_7$ when preparing the desired testing concentrations. The composition of the solutions necessary for its preparation is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Preparation of modified Steinberg medium

Macronutrients			**Micronutrients**		
number	**compound**	***c*** **($g \cdot L^{-1}$)**	**number**	**compound**	***c*** **($mg \cdot L^{-1}$)**
I.	KNO_3	17,5	**IV.**	H_3BO_3	120
	KH_2PO_4	4,5	**V.**	$ZnSO_4 \cdot 7\ H_2O$	180
	K_2HPO_4	0,63	**VI.**	$Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2\ H_2O$	44
II.	$MgSO_4 \cdot 7\ H_2O$	5,0	**VII.**	$MnCl_2 \cdot 4\ H_2O$	180
III.	$Ca(NO_3)_2 \cdot 4\ H_2O$	14,75	**VIII.**	$FeCl_3 \cdot 6\ H_2O$	760
				EDTA	1 500

For 1 liter of medium, 20 mL of each solution of macronutrients (I – III) and 1 mL of each solution of micronutrients (IV – VIII) was pipetted. The remaining volume was distilled water. At the beginning of the test, approximately 9 beads were placed into each beaker with 100 mL of sample (3 parallel assays for each $K_2Cr_2O_7$ concentration and 6 assays with a clean modified Steinberg medium as a control), the beakers were covered with transparent foil and kept for 7 days under constant light. After a week, the test was evaluated and an EC50 value was determined from both the number of leaves and the area of the leaves.

Calculation of growth rate:

$$r = \frac{\ln x_{tn} - \ln x_{t1}}{t_n} \cdot 100, \tag{1}$$

where x_{tn} is the final number of leaves (or the final area),
x_{t1} is the initial number of leaves (or the initial area),
t_n is the duration of the test

Calculation of growth inhibition:

$$I_r = \frac{(r_c - r_t)}{r_c} \cdot 100 \,, \tag{2}$$

where r_c is the growth rate of the control,
r_t is the growth rate of the sample.

In order to evaluate the assay and determine the EC, the dependence of percentual growth inhibition on the logarithm of the sample concentration was plotted. From the regression line equation the EC50 value was calculated.

3 VISUAL SYSTEM

The main idea for using visual system is the low cost. Our proposed visual system consists of camera holder, light holder, camera, light, voltage source and computer with image acquisition software. The whole visual system can be seen in Fig. 1.

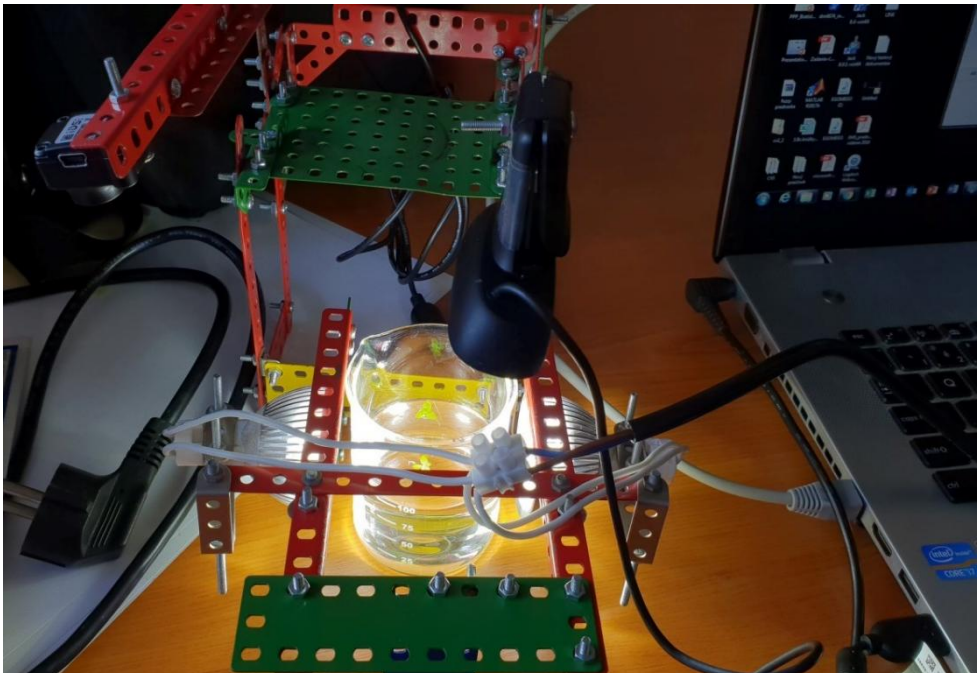

Fig. 1: Visual system

Holders are build using building kit Merkur. The lights are cheap LED spot lights with light diffusors made of paper. Used camera in this experiment is Logitech HD Webcam C270 which has its own image acquisition software Logitech Webcam Software. The sensing parameters of the camera were set manually to receive focused and well exposure images not under- or overexposed (Fig. *2*).

Fig. 2: Well exposured (left) and overexposured (right) images

4 IMAGE PROCESSING

The experiment images must be processed after image acquisition. In our work we will compare conventional evaluation method- leaves counting and new method- area counting. To measure the leaves area, we will use the number of pixels which represent leaves. At first, we have to check whether the leaves do not overlap. If so, it is necessary to detach them from each other. Then we need to select the area of leaves. This can be done automatically using sophisticated computer vison algorithms, however, this is not the aim of this paper and this selection was done manually using computer graphic program Photoshop. Using of computer vision algorithms for selecting the area of Lemna minor leaves can be seen in [7] The result of selected area if a new binary image where the background is white and the leaves are black (Fig. *3*). From the binary image is than very easy to count the number of pixels (the black ones). For area counting we used software NI Vision Assistant, which offer various pre-prepared machine vision algorithms. We used simple area counting using module called Particle Analysis.

Fig. 3: Original image (left) and selected leaves area (right)

5 RESULTS

Tables 2 and 3 show the results of the tests after 168 h exposure. Unfortunately we were not able to maintain the recommended temperature of 24 °C during the test which caused lower values of growth rate in control than are required by the ISO standard. However, it was still possible to compare the two methods of evaluation. A method using image processing showed significantly higher values of growth inhibition, especially at the lowest tested concentrations.

This could be attributed to the fact that low concentration of the toxic substance did not yet have a great impact on number of leaves grown but rather on their size.

Table 2: Results of the test on *Lemna minor* from number of leaves counting

Concentration c (mg·L^{-1})	**Average initial number of leaves** x_{t1}	**Average number of leaves at the end of the test** x_{t1}	**Growth rate** r (d^{-1})	**Growth rate inhibition** I_r (%)
0	9,8	34,2	17,9	0,0
5	9,7	23,7	12,8	28,4
10	9,3	15,7	7,4	58,6
20	9,7	11,7	2,7	85,0
40	9,7	10,7	1,4	92,1
80	9,7	9,7	0,0	100,0
160	10,7	11,3	0,9	95,1

Table 3: Results of the test on *Lemna minor* from area measurement (image processing)

Concentration c (mg·L^{-1})	**Average initial area of leaves** x_{t1} (px)	**Average area of leaves at the end of the test** x_{t1} (px)	**Growth rate** r (d^{-1})	**Growth rate inhibition** I_r (%)
0	60859,8	184916,4	15,9	0,0
5	57898,3	102412,7	8,1	54,4
10	52490,3	76473,0	5,4	69,9
20	58796,3	76108,7	3,7	79,4
40	54943,0	66054,3	2,6	85,3
80	53852,7	56148,0	0,6	96,7
160	58421,7	60745,0	0,6	96,9

Figures 4 and 5 show the evaluation of EC50 by both used methods. Only the values of growth rate inhibition that are lower than 100 % have to be used for the calculation, therefore the regression line was made only using these values (black points on the graph). According to the leaves counting method, the EC50 had a value of 8,50 mg·L^{-1} which lies within the expected range. According to the image processing method, the EC50 was 3,05 mg·L^{-1} which is slightly below the mentioned range. The lower value of EC50 means higher toxicity. It can be concluded that the toxic effect was more significant regarding the leaves area than regarding the number of leaves.

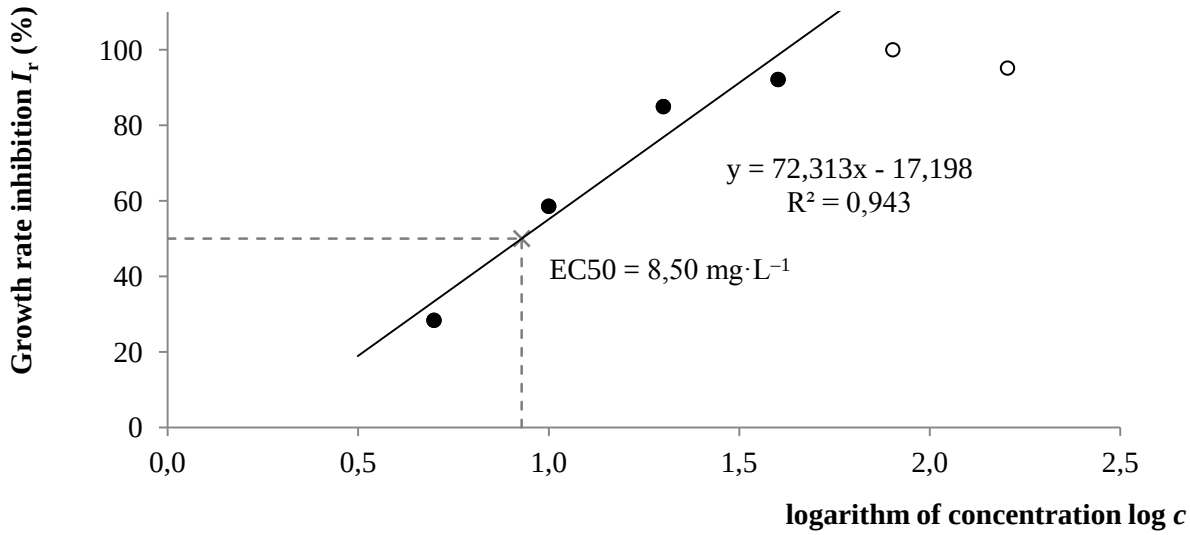

Fig. 4: Graphical results of the test on *Lemna minor* from number of leaves counting

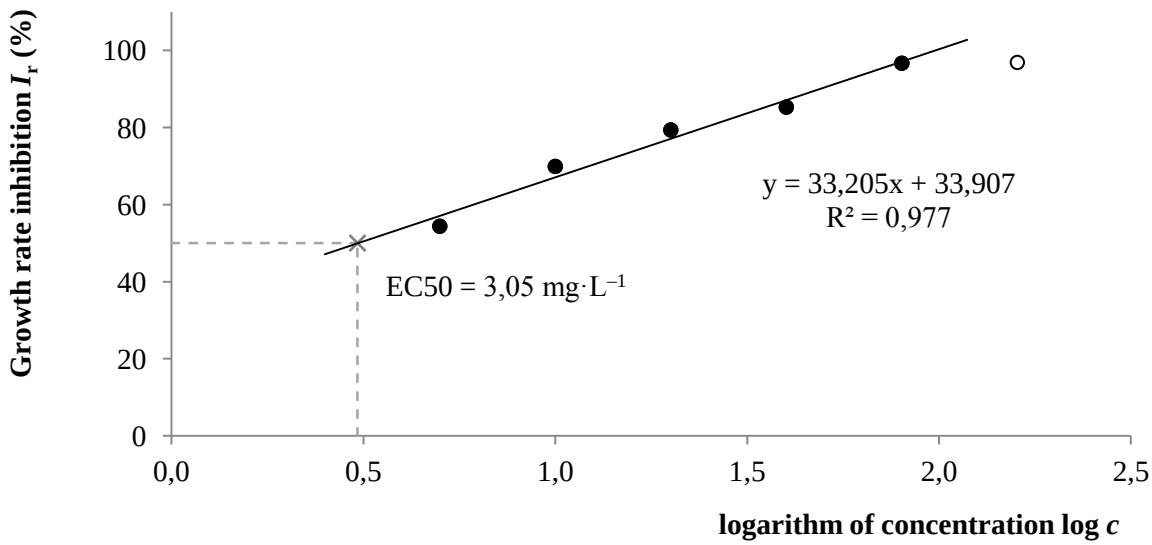

Fig. 5: Graphical results of the test on *Lemna minor* from area measurement (image processing)

6 CONCLUSION

The method using image processing was faster and probably also more precise since it was able to detect the negative effect of tested substance on leaves size, not only on its number. Also the mistakes caused by human factor during counting of the leaves are eliminated using the image processing. On the other hand, overlapping leaves can cause a false positive result (smaller area) if this is overlooked. Therefore it is necessary to carefully check and detach the overlapping leaves before the processing.

In the following research on image processing our aim is to include also the color evaluation which can further increase the sensitivity of the test since many toxic substances cause changes of leaves color (e.g. white color is caused by necrosis, yellowish color by chlorosis). This effect is hardly quantifiable when using the standard method of leaves counting and can be easily overlooked especially if the leaves growth is not yet affected by the toxic substance.

Acknowledgment
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NOVEL STRATEGIES IN DIAGNOSTICS OF EYE DISEASES FROM TEAR FLUID

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Abstract

The early detection of an eye disease is crucial to retain life quality and vision. The presence of the eye disease changes the content of compounds in tear fluid. Tear fluid is perspective biological fluid which could be used as sampling material. In our pilot study, tear fluid of patients with primary angle closure glaucoma, ocular hypertension, dry eye syndrome, and healthy control subjects were analyzed by fluorescence spectroscopy, infrared spectroscopy, atomic force microscopy, and zymography. The methods showed structural changes of tear fluid proteins between the groups of patients and healthy controls. Zymography showed higher activity of matrix metalloproteinase 9 in tear fluid of patients with glaucoma and dry eye. These methods might be used as the base for the future studies of their potential application in laboratory diagnostics of ocular diseases.

Key words: *tear fluid, fluorescence spectroscopy, atomic force microscopy, FT infrared spectroscopy, zymography, glaucoma, dry eye*

1. INTRODUCTION

Approximately 80 – 85 % of our perception, cognition, learning, and activities are mediated through vision. Therefore, vision impairment has huge impact on the quality of life. Currently, there are 253 million people visually impaired (Bourne et al., 2017). World health organization states that vision impairment is also associated with poorer health and bad socio-economical status. Positive aspect is that from all visual disorders, prevention and treatment can cause avoidance in 75 % of blindness.

Glaucoma is one of the worldwide cause of blindness. It is a term for wider range of ocular diseases during which the optic nerve is being damaged usually due to high intraocular pressure. The key problem is the determination of diagnosis in the early stages which are often asymptomatic. Diagnostics of glaucoma include the measurement of intraocular pressure using tonometry, the examination of the optical nerve using ophthalmoscopy and tomography, the visual field test using perimetry, the measurement of the iridocorneal angle using gonioscopy, and the assessment of the cornea thickness using pachymetry. These techniques can recognize glaucoma when it is well advanced. The newer approaches include the peripheral pattern electroretinogram which can measure the retinal function in the section related to the early stages of glaucoma (Patangay et al., 2018) and the optical coherence tomography angiography which can compare differences between visual field and vessel density of macula and peripapillary (Yarmohammadi et al., 2017). The measurement of corneal hysteresis shows promising results reflecting glaucoma status in patients with glaucoma. Furthermore, corneal hysteresis correlates with intraocular pressure and is associated with visual field and optic nerve progression (Deol et al., 2015).

Another widespread ocular disease is dry eye syndrome (*keratoconjuctivitis sicca*) what is common eye disease manifested mainly as eye redness, burning or scratchy sensation in the eye, sensitivity to light, eye fatigue and blurred vision. It leads to reduced quality of life limiting reading, driving, and even professional work (Schaumberg et al., 2011). It is caused

by insufficient lubrication of the eye surface due to inadequate tear production or increased evaporation. Generally, artificial tears are used as a treatment. It is also recommended to consume ω-3 fatty acids which have positive effect in patients with dry eye (Bhargava et al., 2013; Deinema et al., 2017). Diagnostic procedures include Schirmer's test which measure the tear production over the time and tear breakup time test (known as TBUT) which measure the stability of tear film. Other feasible methods are tear osmolarity test (Najafi et al., 2015; Willshire et al., 2018) and tear matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP-9) (Schargus et al., 2015; Messmer et al., 2016).

In diagnostics of specific diseases, the various biomarkers are used. The biomarkers are usually measured in blood serum or urine, but many compounds which are potential biomarkers are present also in saliva or tear fluid. Therefore, tear fluid has become notably examined as noninvasive sampling material. Tear fluid contains several components: water, salts, glucose, urea, ketone bodies, proteins (Jung et al., 2017), hormones (Pieragostino et al., 2017), miRNA (Weber et al., 2017) and other small molecules. Levels of these compounds are maintained in homeostasis in healthy subjects, however, in the presence of disease are often significantly changed (Hagan et al., 2016).

The overall purpose of this work was to study tear fluid of selected patients with ocular diseases (glaucoma and dry eye) using untraditional methods. Examining the potential of novel methods could contribute to development of the early rapid pre-screening diagnostic techniques of eye diseases, thereby improve patient' care.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Materials

Tris-(hydroxymethyl) aminomethan (TRIS), gelatin, sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$), zinc chloride ($ZnCl_2$) and Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 was purchased from SERVA, Heidelberg, Germany. Methanol and acetic acid were obtained from MERCK, Darmstadt, Germany; tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) and ammonium persulfate (APS) from AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany. Acrylamide/bisacrylamide solution was from BIO-RAD, Shanghai, China. Glycerol and Triton X-100 from Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany. Bromphenol blue from CentralChem, Bratislava, Slovakia.

2.2 Tear samples

Tear fluid was collected by flushing method with saline solution (B. Braun, Melsungen, Germany) and by Sugi® cellulose microsponges (Kettenbach, Eschenburg, Germany) from patients with glaucoma (n = 4), ocular hypertension (n = 2), dry eye syndrome (n = 2) and healthy control subjects (n = 5). For the flushing method, 100 µl of saline solution was added to the conjunctival sac, flushed content was immediately collected with micropipette and placed into the 200 µl microtubes. For the cellulose microsponges, the tip of the sponge was placed into the tear fluid of the conjunctival sac, placed into the microtubes (V = 200 µl). After collection, all tear fluid samples were stored at – 80 °C until measurements. For the protein extraction, 100 µl of nuclease free water (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) was added to the microsponge as elution buffer. The microtubes were pierced and fixed in the bigger tube (V = 1500 µl) according to Lee et al., 2015 and centrifugated at 15 000 rpm for 5 minutes at room temperature. All clinical investigations were conducted according to the declaration of Helsinki principles. Ethical consent for this study has been given by the institutional committee on human research and it is compliant with ethical standards on human experimentation and with the Helsinki declaration. The ethics committee *per rollam* gave a favorable opinion on tear collection from patients under protocol No. 7N / 2015 and 7N /2018.

2.3 Fluorescence spectroscopy

The sample of tear fluid was placed into a quartz cuvette (500 µl). The intensity of total endogenous fluorescence was measured on Perkin-Elmer Luminiscence Spectrophotometer LS 55, t = 25°C. The 10 simple synchronous spectra of tear fluid were measured at $\Delta\lambda$ = 20 – 160 nm in the wavelength range λ_{ex} = 240-500 nm. The distance between the simple spectra in space was Δ = 10 nm. The rate of scans was 400 nm/s with the excitation and emission slits 5 nm. The resulting 3-D fluorescence synchronous fingerprint was processed using WinLab Software (version 4, 2001).

2.4 Infrared spectroscopy

The sample of tear fluid (V = 30 µl) was deposed on the ZnSe base and dried in a refrigerator for two days. The dried samples were analyzed by FTIR spectroscope Vertex 80-v (Bruker, Germany) in transmission mode in air and the ambient temperature. The infrared spectra of the samples were processed by the OPUS and Origin software.

2.5 Atomic force microscopy

The sample of tear fluid (V = 10 µl) was deposited on the microscopic glass slide and stretched over the surface by the method of blood smear. Subsequently, the slides were dried at room temperature without fixative. The samples were analyzed by atomic force microscope Dimension Icon® (ICON, Bruker, Berkley, California, USA) in tapping mode with silicon tips (MicroMasch, Berkley, California, USA, NSC35 series) and the radius of curvature 10 nm. The surface of each sample was processed by the ScanAsystTM software.

2.6 Gelatin zymography

The samples of tear fluid were mixed with 8x sample buffer (2 ml 1 M Tris-HCl pH 6,8, 8 ml 20 % SDS, 8 ml 100 % glycerol, 0,4 % bromphenol blue) in corresponding ratio. The samples were fractionated in a 10 % polyacrylamide gelatin gels (2 % gelatin, 10% acrylamide, 0,375 M Tris-HCl pH 8,8, 0,1 % SDS, 0,05 % APS, 0,05 % TEMED) with electrophoresis at 120 V until the colour dye reached the end of the gel. After electrophoresis, the gels were washed with 2,5 % Triton X-100 for 2 x 30 min in agitation and incubated in development buffer (10 mM $CaCl_2$, 0,005 mM $ZnCl_2$, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 7,4) for 39 hours at 37 °C. After incubation, the gels were stained with 0,5 % Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 in 40 % isopropanol and 10 % acetic acid for 1 hour at room temperature and destained for 4 hours in 40 % methanol and 10 % acetic acid (destain solution I) and in 5 % methanol, 10 % acetic acid (destain solution II) for 20 hours. Gelatinolytic activities were defined as white bands on blue background. Proteolytic activity for MMP-9 in the gel was visualized as clear white bands at 92 kDa against blue background.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Tear fluid has been extensively studied in the last decades. It is potential biological sampling material which could replace traditional fluids (blood, urine) or substitute high-invasive sample collection (cerebrospinal fluid) in the future. For these reasons, various research groups have studied and identified the differences in tear fluid between healthy control group and patients (Torok et al., 2013; Salvisberg et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2017) confirming the hypothesis that it is possible to differentiate between healthy subjects and patients based on tear fluid examination. Our work contributes to these findings and confirmes the potential of tear fluid as novel sampling material.

3.1 Fluorescence spectroscopy

Tear fluid of patients with primary angle closure glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT), dry eye syndrome (DES), and healthy control subjects was studied and showed differences using fluorescence spectroscopy.

Synchronous fluorescence fingerprints of tear fluid (Figure 1) of patients PACG (F = 358, λ = 279nm/Δλ = 60nm), OHT (F = 982, λ = 293nm/Δλ = 60nm), DES (F = 920, λ = 268nm/Δλ = 80nm) and healthy controls (F = 766, λ = 278nm/Δλ = 70nm) showed differences in the fluorescence intensity and the position of the peak.

The intensity of fluorescence of tear fluid of patients was the lowest in PACG (F = 358) and the highest in OHT (F = 982). The intensity of fluorescence of tear fluid of DES was also higher (F = 920) in comparison with healthy controls (F = 766).

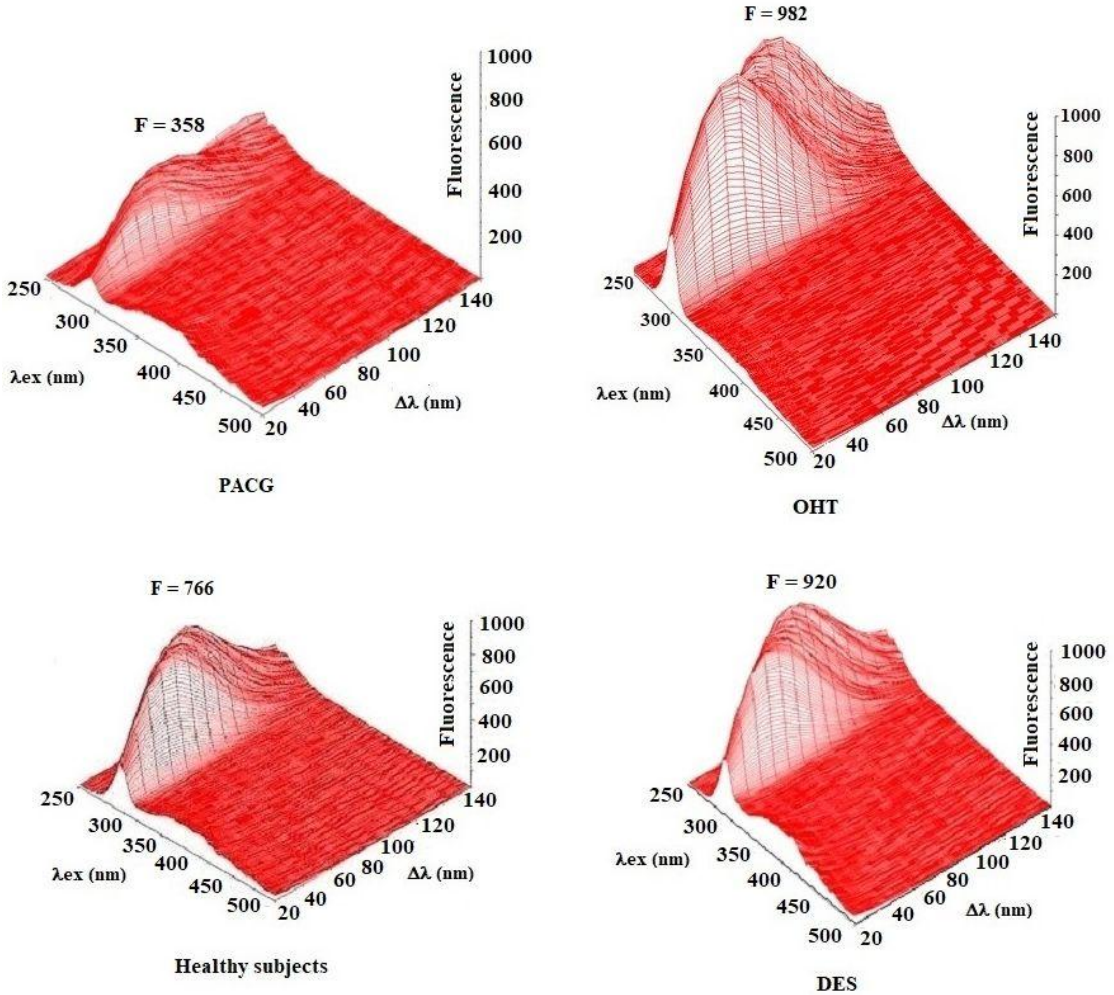

Figure 1: Comparison of tear fluid of patients with primary angle closure glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT), dry eye syndrome (DES) and healthy controls studied by synchronous fluorescence fingerprint.

Synchronous fluorescence spectrum is considered to be a characteristic fingerprint and it is specific for particular tear fluid of healthy controls. It enables the analysis of the multifluorescent mixture of tear fluid and its dynamic changes during ocular diseases. In the presence of the disease, the components of tear fluid undergo changes what is captured on synchronous fluorescence spectra. Therefore, detailed analysis of the fluorescence curve is not essential for the diagnosis.

Changes of fluorophores under endogenous (oxidative stress factors, inflammation) or exogenous stress factors (irritant stimuli) in patients with PACG, OHT and DES disrupt the balance of mutual interactions of fluorophores in tear fluid. The location of peak and total intensity of fluorescence differs among different diagnosis.

Fluorescence spectra showed quantitative and qualitative information about the changes of tear fluid and characteristics for diagnostic assessment that could be used for quick and inexpensive screening of ocular diseases. Fluorescence spectroscopy could be a new possibility in the early diagnosis of ocular diseases.

3.2 FT-infrared spectroscopy

Next, tear fluid was examined using infrared (IR) spectroscopy (Figure 2, Table 1). IR spectra of tear fluid of the patients with PACG showed the position of amide A, amide I, and amide II at 3288 cm^{-1}, 1648 cm^{-1}, and 1550 cm^{-1}, respectively. In the case of OHT, IR spectra showed the position of amide A, amide I, and amide II at 3292 cm^{-1}, 1648 cm^{-1}, 1549 cm^{-1}, respectively. IR spectra of the patients with DES showed the position of amide A, amide I, and amide II at 3291 cm^{-1}, 1648 cm^{-1}, 1549 cm^{-1}, respectively. In healthy controls, IR spectra showed the position of amide A, amide I, and amide II at 3293 cm^{-1}, 1651 cm^{-1}, 1549 cm^{-1}, respectively (Figure 2, Table 1). The obtained results show shift in the position of peak which corresponds to amide A. The other positions of specific peaks (amide I, amide II) have been the same for various diagnosis. The utility of optical methods in diagnostics has been studied in several other diseases. Gajjar et al., 2013 studied blood plasma and serum from ovarian cancer patients using IR spectroscopy and he was able to correctly identify 96,67 % patients. Also blood glucose level has been non-invasively measured using IR spectroscopy (Tamiselvi et al., 2015). Mordechai et al., 2017 studied white blood cells (WBCs) and blood plasma of patients with Alzheimer disease and he was able to correctly identify 85 % patients using IR spectra of WBCs. Although tear fluid content changes during various pathological states, we have observed significant shift in IR spectra only in tear fluid of PACG in comparison with healthy controls.

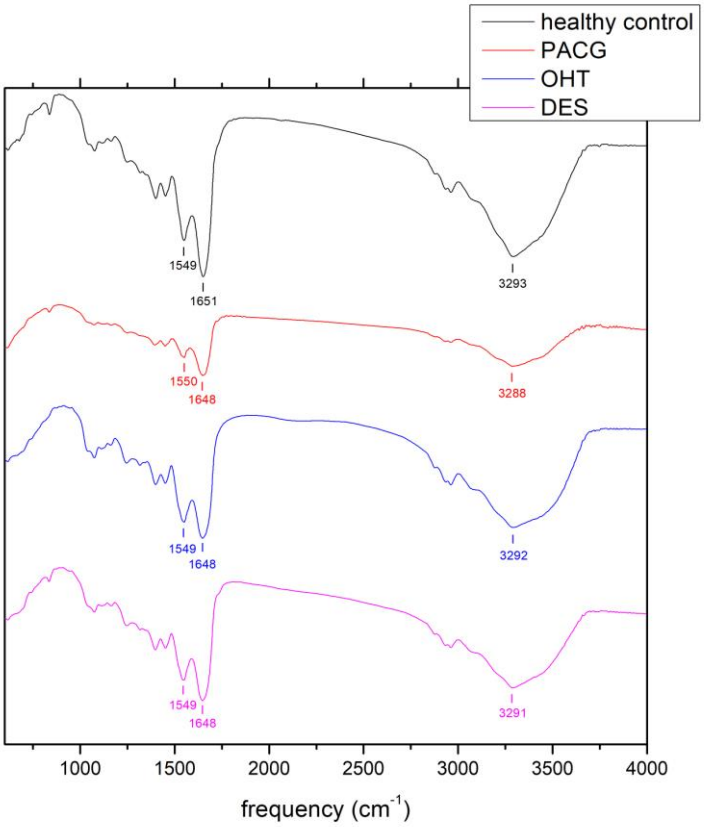

Figure 2: Comparison of tear fluid of patients with primary closure angle glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT), dry eye syndrome (DES) and healthy controls studied by FTIR-IR.

Table 1: Comparison of healthy controls, primary closure angle glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT) and dry eye syndrome (DES)

	amide A (cm^{-1})	amide I (cm^{-1})	amide II (cm^{-1})
healthy controls	3293	1651	1549
PACG	3288	1648	1550
OHT	3292	1648	1549
DES	3291	1648	1549

3.3 Atomic force microscopy

The unique significantly different characteristic structures of tear fluid crystals were observed between healthy control subjects and patients with PACG, OHT, and DES (Figure 3-4) using atomic force microscopy (AFM). Patients with PACG showed dendrites with the length of main branch and lateral branches 500 µm and 3-12 µm, respectively. The smallest branches length was 1-2 µm and total surface roughness was 103 nm. Patients with OHT showed dendritic network with the length of main branch and lateral branches > 50 µm and 12-16 µm, respectively. The width of branches was 2-5 µm and total surface roughness was 39,1 nm. Also patients with DES showed fine dendritic structures with the main branch length and lateral branches 6 µm and 0,8-1 µm, respectively. Total surface roughness was 13,3 nm. The healthy controls showed different crystal arrangement with separated crystals of 300-1000 nm

and total surface roughness 81 nm. Even though tear fluid of each patient didn't show identical pictures, the main pattern of particular disease was detected in the all samples.

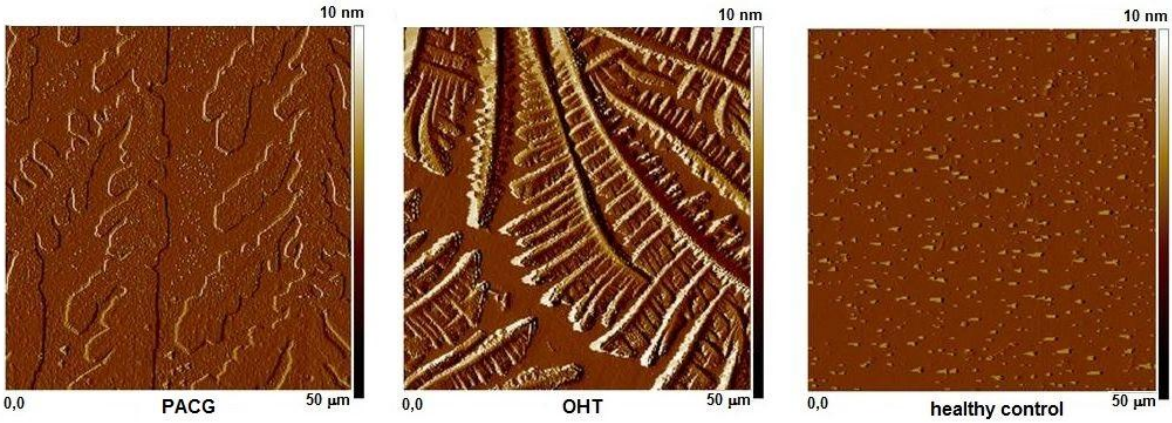

Figure 3: Comparison of tear fluid of patients with primary angle closure glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT), and healthy controls by AFM (50 µm)

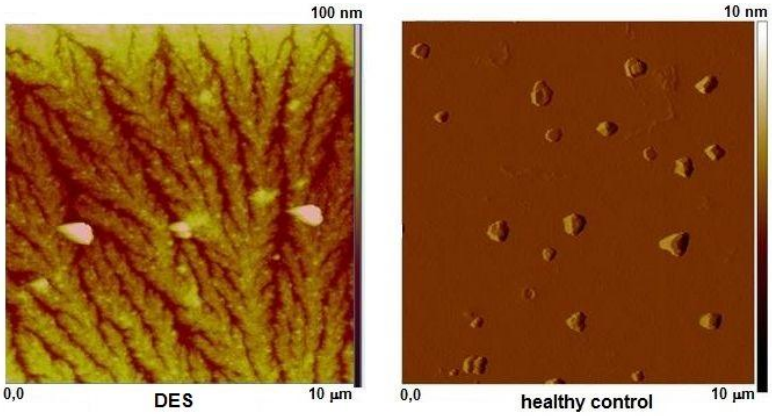

Figure 4: Comparison of tear fluid of patients with dry eye syndrome (DES) and healthy controls by AFM (10 µm).

3.4 Gelatin zymography

The activity of matrix metalloproteinases MMP-2 and MMP-9 in tear fluid was studied by the method of gelatin zymography. To examine whether the PACG, OHT and DES modulate the activity of MMP-9, we determined the activity of MMP-9 in tear fluid. The zymogram showed significant increase in activity of MMP-9 (Figure 5) in tear fluid of PACG and slightly increase in patients with DES. OHT and healthy controls did not show presence of any form of MMP-9. These results are in agreement with the recent study of Sahay et al., 2017 who has detected increase in MMP-9 expression in patients with glaucoma in comparison to healthy subjects. However, Sahay's group also detected elevated MMP-2. Our results didn't reveal the bands of MMP-2 at zymogram (Figure 5). The reason for this result might be non-identical protocol during experimental work.

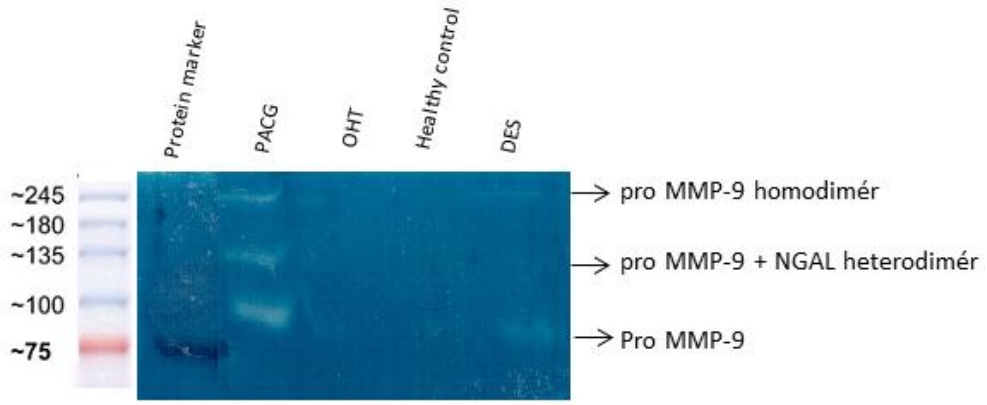

Figure 5: Comparison of tear fluid of patients with primary angle closure glaucoma (PACG), ocular hypertension (OHT), dry eye syndrome (DES) and healthy controls by gelatin zymography.

The elevation of MMP-9 level in tear fluid is considered as unspecific biomarker of DES (Lanza et al., 2016) what is in agreement with our results which showed increase of MMP-9 level. Importantly, patients with OHT as well as healthy control did not show any detectable amount of MMP-9 and MMP-2. These results suggest that MMP-2 and MMP-9 might not be good predictors of the early stages of PACG. During many pathological events, MMP-9 high levels correlate with invasiveness of several diseases (Masuhara et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2014; Papanastasiou et al., 2016).

4. CONCLUSION

We confirmed that tear fluid content of patients with glaucoma as well as with dry eye changed their structure in comparison to healthy controls using untraditional methods of fluorescence spectroscopy, FTIR, AFM and gelatin zymography. Utility of these methods to reveal the early stages of the glaucoma and dry eye need to be further examined.

Acknowledments
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HODNOTENIE SELF-MONITORINGU U PACIENTOV S PORUCHAMI LIPIDOVÉHO SPEKTRA A JEHO VPLYVU NA PREDANALYTICKÚ FÁZU VYŠETRENIA KRVI

EVALUATION OF SELF-MONITORING IN PATIENTS WITH LIPID SPECTRUM DISORDERS AND INFLUENCE ON THE PRE-ANALYTICAL PHASE OF BLOOD TESTING

Zuzana Novotná, Ľubomíra Lizáková, Valéria Mašterová

Abstrakt

Laboratórne vyšetrenia neslúžia iba k diagnostike ochorení, ale majú veľký význam pri monitorovaní ich priebehu, overovaní účinnosti liečby, určovaní prognózy ochorenia a plánovaní ďalších potrebných vyšetrení. Aby bol výsledok vyšetrenia správny a objektívny nestačí iba zaistiť bezchybné prevedenie samotného odberu, ale dôležité je zabezpečiť adekvátne poučenie pacienta o tom, ako má prísť na odber pripravený, kedy a ako často má odber absolvovať. Pri vyšetrení krvných lipidov je dôležité aby si pacient uvedomoval, že ich koncentrácia závisí od mnohých vonkajších a vnútorných faktorov. Cieľom realizovaného výskumu bolo identifikovať deficity vo vedomostiach respondentov o self-monitoringu svojho zdravotného stavu a o príprave na krvné vyšetrenie. U 50 respondentov s diagnostikovanou hyperlipoproteinémiou sme pomocou neštandardizovaného dotazníka zisťovali úroveň kompetencií pri monitorovaní svojho zdravotného stavu. Najvýznamnejšie deficity v kompetenciách respondentov sme zistili v problematike neznalosti významu pojmu lipidový index, viac ako tretina respondentov nevie ktoré orgány môže porucha metabolizmu tukov postihnúť a nemá vedomosti o rizikách poruchy metabolizmu tukov. Optimálne hodnoty krvných lipidov nepozná ani polovica respondentov a svoju poslednú hladinu cholesterolu z nich nevedelo uviesť viac ako 30 %. Vedomosti o správnej príprave na odber krvi sme zistili iba u polovice respondentov. Detekcia vedomostných deficitov pacienta v problematike porúch metabolizmu lipidov, rizikách, ktoré pacienta ohrozujú a príprave na ich správne stanovenie umožňujú v klinickej praxi lepšie smerovanie preventívnej edukačnej činnosti zdravotníkov a efektívnejšiu prevenciu následkov tohto ochorenia.

***Kľúčové slová**: metabolizmus tukov, vyšetrenie lipidov, kompetencia, pacient, edukácia*

Abstract

Laboratory examinations are not only used for a diagnosis of disease, but they also have a great importance in monitoring disease progress, verifying the effectiveness of treatment, determining the prognosis of the disease and planning further necessary examinations. In order for the examination to be correct and objective, it is not enough just to ensure a flawless execution of the sample collection itself, but it is important to ensure that the patient is adequately instructed about how he or she should be prepared for collection, when and how often should be the collection completed. When examining blood lipids, it is important for the patient to realize that their concentration depends on many external and internal factors. The aim of the research was to identify deficits in respondents' knowledge of self-monitoring of their health status and knowledge about preparation for blood tests. In 50 respondents diagnosed with hyperlipoproteinemia, we determined the level of competence in the monitoring of their state of health by means of a non-standardized questionnaire. The most significant deficits in respondents' competencies have been found in the issue of unfamiliarity

with the meaning of lipid index, more than a third of respondents do not know which organs could be affected by fatty metabolism disorder and have no knowledge of the risks of fatty metabolism disorders. Optimal blood lipid levels are not recognized by half of respondents, and no more than 30% of them could mention their last cholesterol levels. Only half of the respondents were aware of the correct preparation for blood collection. The detection of the patient's knowledge deficits in lipid metabolism disorders, the risks to the patient and the preparation for their correct diagnosis make it easier for health care professionals to better manage the preventive educational activities and to prevent the consequences of this disease more effectively.

Key words: *lipid metabolism, lipid examination, competence, patient, education.*

1. PORUCHY LIPIDOVÉHO SPEKTRA

Poruchy lipidového spektra sú následkom poruchy metabolizmu plazmatických lipidov a lipoproteínov. Sú jedným z najdôležitejších rizikových faktorov vzniku srdcovo-cievnych ochorení, ktoré sú viac ako z 90% podmienené aterosklerózou. Na tieto ochorenia v súčasnosti zomiera viac ako polovica ľudí na Slovensku (56%), ale aj v západných krajinách. Dnes existuje dostatok dôkazov nielen experimentálnych, ale aj epidemiologických o vzťahu medzi ovplyvnením lipidového spektra, liečebnou intervenciou a poklesom kardiovaskulárnych ochorení.

Termíny ako sú hyperlipoproteinémia, dyslipidémia alebo hyperlipidémia sú častokrát používané ako synonymá. V súčasnosti sa tieto pojmy postupne nahrádzajú širším pojmom dyslipoproteinémia, ktorý naznačuje, že nemusí ísť len o zvýšenie niektorého z lipidových parametrov. Komplexnosť metabolických výchyliek v lipidovom spektre vystihuje najpresnejšie práve tento termín, pretože znamená, že u chorého nejde len o zvýšenie jednej alebo viac hodnôt, ale skôr poukazuje na nerovnováhu pomerov v celom lipidovom spektre.

1.1 Klasifikácia dyslipoproteinémií

Klasifikácia dyslipoproteinémií (DLP) prešla značne dlhým vývojom. V súčasnosti existuje množstvo dostupnej literatúry, v ktorej sa popisujú klasifikácie DLP na základe viacerých hľadísk a kritérií. V klinickej praxi sa najčastejšie používa klasifikácia Európskej spoločnosti pre aterosklerózu. Toto delenie je v súčasnosti najrozšírenejšie a má praktický význam rozhodovaní o efektívnej liečbe. Vychádza zo stanovenia koncentrácie celkového cholesterolu a triacylglycerolov, na základe ktorého sa DLP delia na tri skupiny:

1. izolovaná hypercholesterolémia – zvýšenie koncentrácie cholesterolu pri normálnej hladine triglyceridov,
2. kombinovaná hyperlipoproteinémia – prítomné zvýšenie celkového cholesterolu a triglyceridov,
3. izolovaná hypertriacylglycerolémia – zvýšenie koncentrácie triglyceridov pri normálnej koncentrácii celkového cholesterolu.

DLP sa môžu klasifikovať aj z hľadiska etiológie, podľa nej sa delia sa do dvoch skupín:

- Primárne DLP sú vrodené a geneticky podmienené (do tejto kategórie patrí až 90 % dyslipidémií). Môžu byť monogénové (mutácia v jednom géne) alebo polygénne (mutácia génových skupín). Medzi najvýznamnejšie formy monogénových podmienených DLP sú familiárna hypercholesterolémia a familiárny defekt alipoproteínu B100. Z polygénových podmienených DLP ide o polygénovú hypercholesterolémiu.
- Sekundárne DLP sú dôsledkom iného základného ochorenia, ktoré alteruje metabolizmus lipidov a lipoproteínov, alebo sú dôsledkom užívania niektorých liekov, hormónov alebo vplyvom vonkajšieho prostredia, ktoré ovplyvňuje

metabolizmus lipidov a lipoproteínov po kvalitatívnej aj kvantitatívnej stránke. Defekt lipoproteínového metabolizmu môže zhoršovať progresiu základného ochorenia. Sekundárne DLP nakoniec vedú k rovnakým komplikáciám ako primárne, teda k zrýchleniu aterosklerózy a akútnej pankreatitíde. Sekundárnu príčinu DLP je potrebné vylúčiť ešte pred stanovením ďalšieho terapeutického postupu. Ochorenie, ktoré vyvoláva sekundárnu DLP je možné kauzálne liečiť, a tak dosiahnuť aj odstránenie sekundárnej DLP.

Na rozvoji DLP sa podieľajú genetické faktory, ale aj faktory vonkajšieho prostredia. Pridať sa môžu aj vplyvy ďalších chorôb, pričom môže vzniknúť sekundárna dyslipoproteinémia. Genetické faktory určujú schopnosť alebo neschopnosť organizmu udržať fyziologickú koncentráciu lipidov a lipoproteínov v krvi i pri negatívnych vplyvoch vonkajšieho prostredia, teda spôsobu života. Osoby s „veľmi dobrou“ genetickou výbavou môžu mať normálnu koncentráciu krvných lipidov aj pri zlom životnom štýle. Osoby, ktoré majú závažnú vrodenú poruchu metabolizmu tukov majú DLP aj pri prísnom dodržiavaní všetkých zásad zdravého životného štýlu. Jednou z najčastejších genetických porúch lipidového spektra je familiárna hypercholesterolémia (FH), ktorá sa vyskytuje v pomere 1 : 300 osôb, a pri neliečení môže mať pre jedinca život ohrozujúce následky. Familiárna hypercholesterolémia (FH) je autozómovo dominantne genetické ochorenie charakterizované zvýšenou hladinou LDL cholesterolu, akcelerovanou aterosklerózou a predčasnou manifestáciou kardiovaskulárnych ochorení.

1.3 Self-management ochorenia

Poruchy lipidového spektra patria medzi ten typ ochorení, pri ktorých je veľmi dôležitá spolupráca pacienta, a kde sa vo veľkej miere môžu v rámci prevencie, farmakologickej a nefarmakologickej liečby uplatniť princípy konceptu sebaopatery. Jedným z jej základných komponentov je self-management, ktorý zahŕňa aj prvok self-monitoringu laboratórnych hodnôt a prejavov ochorenia. Nebezpečenstvo tohto ochorenia je práve v neexistencii prvých varovných príznakov. Ak aj pacient príznaky má, tak sú skôr kozmetického charakteru. Ľudia s poruchami metabolizmu lipidov sú dlhodobo presvedčení u svojom zdraví, až do času, kým ich nepostihne kardiovaskulárne ochorenie (najčastejšie angína pectoris alebo infarkt myokardu.) ako dôsledok aterosklerotického procesu.

Self-management ochorenia je vnímaný ako proces, počas ktorého človek využíva svoje schopnosti (vedomosti a zručnosti) k cieľavedomému stanoveniu reálnych cieľov a k ovplyvňovaniu a kontrole svojho ochorenia alebo jeho symptómov. Vďaka týmto schopnostiam dokáže svoje ciele realizovať a hodnotiť úspešnosť svojho úsilia. Základnými piliermi sú tri komponenty: 1. medicínsky komponent – dodržiavanie liečby, terapeutického režimu (diétne opatrenia, pitný režim a pod.), 2. rolový komponent – schopnosť pacienta udržiavať, meniť alebo utvárať nové vzorce správania (spánkové režimy, pohybové aktivity), 3. emocionálny komponent – zvládanie emocionálnych následkov ochorenia, prispôsobovanie plánov do budúcnosti, zvládanie afektívnych stavov (smútku, hnevu, úzkosti).

Self-management je dôležitou súčasťou starostlivosti o samého seba. Pojem starostlivosť o samého seba je v súčasnej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti trendom, ktorý vedie človeka k tomu aby sa vo vlastnom záujme vedome správal a konal tak, aby si udržal zdravý a kvalitný život a pocit pohody a dobrého zdravia. Starostlivosť o seba samého nezahŕňa iba starostlivosť o seba (ja), ale i jeho existenciu a budúcnosť v spoločenskom prostredí v ktorom žije. Tento postoj vytvára priestor na upevňovanie požiadavky k vlastnej zodpovednosti za seba, svoje zdravie a život. Činnosti sebaopatery sú ovplyvňované sociokultúrnym prostredím, vekom a schopnosťami jedinca. Dalo by sa povedať, že je filozofiou zdravého spôsobu života, pretože ide o konkrétne správanie jedinca, ktoré je nasmerované v prospech svojej existencie.

Dôležitou súčasťou self-managementu je realizácia pravidelných kontrol laboratórnych parametrov. V súčasnosti sa skríning DPL vykonáva v ambulanciách všeobecného lekára v týchto prípadoch:

- muži a ženy vo veku 40 rokov – kompletné lipidové spektrum,
- u osôb s pozitívnou anamnézou, pri hraničných hodnotách sa vyšetrenie opakuje každých 5 rokov,
- u osôb s prítomnou xantomatózou (žltkasto presvitajúce škvrny vystupujúce nad okolie na viečkach, šľachách, lýtkach, kolenách, dorze ruky, arcus senilis – šedý prúžok na rohovke, a pod.),
- u osôb s arteriálnou hypertenziou, pri hraničnom náleze opakovať raz ročne,
- v rámci primárnej prevencie u osôb s dvoma a viacerými rizikovými faktormi,
- u diabetikov raz ročne, vždy pri závažnom zhoršení kompenzácie,
- u pacientov s vysokým rizikom raz ročne, aj v prípade odporúčaných cieľových hodnôt,
- u osôb vo veku nad 80 rokov len pri prítomnosti ochorenia srdca a ciev a diabete.

V rámci laboratórnej diagnostiky je dôležité aby pacient vedel ako sa na vyšetrenie pripraviť a bol dôkladne poučený o tom, čo môže laboratórne vyšetrenie skresliť a ovplyvniť. Nesprávny postup alebo neznalosť faktorov ovplyvňujúcich vyšetrenie môže viesť k zlej diagnóze a následne aj k nevhodnému terapeutickému postupu.

1.4 Preanalytická fáza laboratórneho vyšetrenia

Až 70% intervencií lekára u hospitalizovaných pacientov v USA je zrealizovaných na základe vyšetrení urobených v laboratóriu. Laboratórne vyšetrenia neslúžia iba k diagnostike ochorení, ale majú veľký význam pri monitorovaní ich priebehu, overovaní účinnosti liečby, určovaní prognózy ochorenia a plánovaní ďalších potrebných vyšetrení. V preanalytickej fáze vzniká až 2/3 chýb celého laboratórneho procesu. Tieto chyby často vedú k mylným záverom čo môže mať dopad na zdravie pacienta. Aby bol výsledok vyšetrenia správny a objektívny nestačí iba zaistiť správne prevedenie samotného odberu, ale dôležité je zabezpečiť adekvátne poučenie pacienta o tom, ako má prísť na odber pripravený, kedy a ako často má odber absolvovať. Pri vyšetrení krvných lipidov je dôležité aby vedel, že ich koncentrácia závisí od mnohých vonkajších a vnútorných faktorov: genetická predispozícia, množstvo a zloženie stravy, pitie alkoholu, fyzická aktivita, zmeny telesnej hmotnosti, stav hydratácie, niektoré akútne ochorenia, väčšina chronických chorôb, podávanie niektorých liekov, výkyvy hladiny cukru v krvi ako aj vynechanie liekov znižujúcich hladinu krvných tukov (stačia aj 2-3 dni).
Poučenie pacienta zohráva kľúčovú úlohu v celom procese a je nevyhnutné pre správnosť vyšetrenia. *Odber nalačno* znamená pre laickú populáciu neraňajkovať, ale v skutočnosti je potrebné, aby pacient cca 10-12 hodín nejedol. Pri vyšetrení lipidového metabolizmu je to až 12-14 hodín, pričom by pacient nemal dva týždne pred plánovaným odberom zásadne meniť životný štýl a stravovacie návyky. Odber by sa mal robiť ráno, pacient by mal byť v relatívnom pokoji a odporúča sa tiež aby ráno vypil cca 2-3 litre vody. Dva dni pred odberom by pacient nemal konzumovať alkoholické nápoje. Venepunkcia sa robí u pacienta v kľude, horná končatina má byť vyrovnaná. Poloha pacienta môže ovplyvniť koncentráciu mnohých látok v krvi, štandardná poloha by mala byť v sede. Priloženie turniketu by nemalo trvať viac ako 1 minútu a pacient by tiež nemal rukou cvičiť, pretože po dlhej komprimácii končatiny a výraznom cvičení dochádza k zmene aktivity alebo koncentrácie bilirubínu, cholesterolu, vápnika, kreatininu, AST, CK a ďalších analytov. K odberu krvi by sa mali používať ihly so väčším priesvitom, aby nedošlo k hemolýze krvi alebo zmene koagulačných parametrov.
Pri odbere krvi je potrebné vziať do úvahy aj ovplyvniteľné a neovplyvniteľné faktory, ktoré môžu mať dopad na výsledky niektorých krvných vyšetrení. K neovplyvniteľným

biologickým faktorom preanalytickej fázy patria rasa, pohlavie, vek a tehotenstvo, kedy môže dochádzať k zmenám biochemických dejov a výkyvom v koncentráciách niektorých analytov. Určitý vplyv bol dokázaný pri sezónnych a denných (cirkadiánnych) zmenách. Najvýznamnejším ovplyvniteľným faktorom sú stravovacie návyky, ktoré sa prejavujú hlavne na koncentráciách glukózy, železa, lipidov, bielkovín, močoviny, fosfátov a pod. Fajčenie pôsobí na metabolizmus glukózy, zvyšuje hladinu cholesterolu, triacylglycerolov a kortizolu, znižuje koncentráciu vitamínu B12. S obezitou pozitívne koreluje koncentrácia cholesterolu a triacylglycerolov, kyseliny močovej, kortizolu a inzulínu. Pri alkohole je známi účinok miernych dávok na zvýšenie HDL cholesterolu, ktorý je však prechodný. Fyzická aktivita má vplyv na zloženie telesných tekutín, závisí na jej dĺžke a intenzite. Náročné cvičenie znižuje cholesterol a triacylglyceroly.
Súčasťou komplexnej starostlivosti o pacienta s DLP je diagnostika ochorenia, t. z. nevychádzať iba so stanovenia lipidov, ale je nutné poznať rodinnú a osobnú anamnézu pacienta, samozrejmosťou je jeho odváženie, zmeranie tlaku krvi, obvodu pásu a pátranie po prítomnosti primárnych a sekundárnych prejavov. Zásadou laboratórnej diagnostiky je, že sa opiera o výsledky aspoň dvoch odberov krvi po 12-14 hodinovom lačnení, v rozmedzí 2-8 týždňov. Požiadavkou je tiež zachovanie dostatočného odstupu (4-6 týždňov) od akéhokoľvek interkurentného ochorenia (ochorenie pri ktorom dochádza k poklesu lipidov), pričom sa vyšetruje kompletné lipidové spektrum a tiež je dôležité ho vyšetriť aj u pokrvných príbuzných mladšieho veku. Keďže DLP je najvýznamnejšou príčinou vzniku aterosklerózy, ktorá je multifaktoriálna, súčasťou vyšetrení by malo byť zhodnotenie prítomnosti rizikových faktorov a stanovenie tzv. celkového rizika vzniku ischemickej choroby srdca v priebehu nasledujúcich 10 rokov.

2. ANALÝZA PARCIÁLNYCH VÝSLEDKOV PRIESKUMU

Účinná edukácia a primerané kompetencie pacienta s hypercholesterolémiou v problematike sebaopatery by mali byť výsledkom komplexnej kvalitne poskytovanej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Otázkou je akou mierou vedomostí a zručností pacienti reálne disponujú a v akom rozsahu tieto vedomosti a zručnosti využívajú v starostlivosti o vlastné zdravie.

2.1 Cieľ, vzorka respondentov a metodológia prieskumu

Hlavným cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť a analyzovať úroveň kompetencií sebaopatery u pacientov s diagnostikovanou hypercholesterolémiou. K parciálnym cieľom patrilo analyzovať kompetencie respondentov pri príprave na odber krvi a nefarmakologickej liečbe, zistiť pravidelnosť kontrol lipidov v krvi a zistenia porovnať medzi ženami a mužmi. Do výskumu bolo zaradených 50 respondentov, z toho bolo 24 žien (48%) a 26 mužov (52%). Priemerný vek žien je 46 rokov a priemerný vek mužov je 53 rokov. Pri získavaní vzorky prieskumu sme použili zámerný výber, pacienti, ktorí sa liečia na hypercholesterolémiu. Vyraďovacie kritéria sú vek menej ako 18 rokov, tehotné ženy a pacienti, ktorí sa liečia menej ako 1 rok. Výskumné dáta boli zberané dotazníkovou metódou s použitím položiek vlastnej konštrukcie. K kategorizačným položkám patrilo pohlavie, vek, vzdelanie, dĺžka liečby a hodnota BMI. Prieskum bol realizovaný v období január až február 2018. Dotazníky boli distribuované na ambulancii všeobecného lekára pre dospelých a na kardiologickej ambulancii v Košiciach so súhlasom lekárov. Administrovanie dotazníkov bolo vykonaná osobne. K spracovaniu dát sme použili program SPSS 17.0. V rámci metód deskriptívnej štatistiky sme použili : n (celkový počet), % (percentuálne vyjadrenie), M (priemernú hodnotu).

Tab. 1: Charakteristika výskumnej vzorky

	Ženy	**Muži**
priemerný vek	46 rokov	53 rokov
priemerný BMI	25,3	26,6
priemerná dĺžka liečby hypercholesterolémie	5,7 rokov	6,4 rokov
priemerná posledná hodnota cholesterolu v krvi	5,87 mmol/l	5,73 mmol/l

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

2.2 Kvantitatívna analýza významných zistení prieskumu

Tab. 2: Pravidelnosť kontrolných krvných vyšetrení (cholesterolu)

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	11	45,8%	7	26,9%
skôr áno	9	37,5%	1	3,8%
neviem sa vyjadriť	2	8,3%	1	3,8%
skôr nie	2	8,3%	14	53,8%
nie	0	0%	3	11,5%
Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	1,54		3,19	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

Z analýzy údajov vyplýva, že na pravidelné kontroly cholesterolu (odpovede áno, skôr áno) realizuje viac ako 70 % žien a 30 % mužov. Záporne odpovedali 2 ženy (8,3%) a 17 mužov (65,3%). Aritmetický priemer škálových odpovedí u žien je 1,54 a u mužov 3,19 čo znamená, že odpovede žien sa pohybovali na škále v rozmedzí áno a skôr áno, u mužov neviem sa vyjadriť. Zo zistení vyplýva, že časť respondentov si nedostatočne uvedomuje význam kontroly cholesterolu a dôsledky zanedbávania tejto stránky svojho zdravotného stavu.

Tab. 3: Úroveň vedomostí respondentov o HDL a LDL cholesterole

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	8	33,3%	5	19,2%
skôr áno	4	16,7%	6	23,1%
neviem sa vyjadriť	2	8,3%	5	19,2%
skôr nie	5	20,8%	5	19,2%
nie	5	20,8%	5	19,2%
Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	2,79		2,96	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

Vedomosti o dobrom (HDL) a zlom (LDL) cholesterole má 50% žien a 42,3 % mužov. 41,7% žien a 38,5% mužov odpovedalo záporne. Aritmetický priemer škálovaných odpovedí u žien je 2,79 u mužov je 2,96 z toho vyplýva, že odpovede žien sa pohybovali na škále medzi skôr áno a neviem sa vyjadriť. U mužov boli odpovede najbližšie na škále k neviem sa vyjadriť. Na základe výsledkov konštatujeme, že deficit vedomostí respondentov o skúmanej problematike môže znižovať efektivitu self-monotoringu pacienta a negatívne ovplyvňovať jeho správanie vo vzťahu ku svojmu ochoreniu a zdravotnému stavu.

Tab. 4: Vedomosti o správnej príprave na odber krvi na cholesterol

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	7	29,2%	6	23,1%
skôr áno	9	37,5%	6	23,1%
neviem sa vyjadriť	0	0%	0	0%
skôr nie	6	25%	10	38,5%
nie	2	8,3%	4	15,4%
Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	2,46		3,00	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

Zásady správnej prípravy na vyšetrenie krvi ovláda 66,7% žien a 46,2% mužov. Zápornú odpoveď vyjadrilo 33,3% a 53,8% mužov. Aritmetický priemer škálových odpovedí je u žien 2,46 u mužov 3,00. Z týchto údajov vyplýva, že odpovede mužov boli na škále neviem sa vyjadriť u žien sa odpovede pohybovali medzi skôr áno a neviem sa vyjadriť. Zistenie vypovedá o tom, že respondenti nemajú dostatočné vedomosti o príprave na odber, čo môže mať dopad na objektivitu výsledkov, ovplyvniť ich interpretáciu a plánovanie liečby ochorenia.

Tab. 5: Úroveň informovanosti respondentov o obsahu pojmu lipidový (tukový) index

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	4	16,7%	1	3,8%
skôr áno	2	8,3%	2	7,7%
neviem sa vyjadriť	3	12,5%	5	19,2%
skôr nie	6	25%	8	30,8%
nie	9	37,5%	10	38,5%
Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	3,58		3,92	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

K znalosti pojmu lipidový index sa kladne vyjadrilo 25% žien a 11,5% mužov. Zápornú odpoveď označilo 62,5% a 69,3% mužov. Priemerná hodnota u žien je 3,58 čo značí o tom, že odpovede žien sa pohybovali na škále medzi neviem sa vyjadriť a skôr nie. U mužov je priemerná hodnota 3,92 čo predstavuje na škále odpoveď skôr nie. Toto zistenie je u pacientov s diagnostikovanou poruchou metabolizmu tukov prekvapujúce, vzhľadom k tomu, že pri pravidelných kontrolách krvných tukov by mali byť zdravotníkmi podrobne informovaní o tom aké vyšetrenie sa u nich realizuje, aký je jeho výsledok, ako aj o tom čo tento výsledok znamená pre ich liečbu a zdravotný stav.

Tab. 6: Vedomosti respondentov o postihnutí orgánových systémov pri hypercholesterolémii

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	6	25%	4	15,4%
skôr áno	5	20,8%	7	26,9%
neviem sa vyjadriť	5	20,8%	8	30,8%
skôr nie	3	12,5%	4	15,4%
nie	5	20,8%	3	11,5%

Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	2,83		2,80	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

Analýzou výsledkov sme zistili, že 45,8% žien a 42,3% vie ktoré systémy môžu byť zasiahnuté poruchou metabolizmu tukov a 33,3% žien a 26,9% mužov tieto vedomosti nemá. Priemerná hodnota u žien je 2,83 u mužov je 2,80 a čo na škále u oboch pohlaví ukazuje rozmedzie medzi odpoveďami skôr áno a neviem sa vyjadriť. Môžeme sa domnievať, že respondenti si nie sú celkom istý vo vedomostiach o tejto problematike, čo považujeme u pacienta z hľadiska potreby self-monitoringu príznakov ochorení súvisiacich zo zvýšenou hladinou krvných tukov za významný deficit.

Tab. 7 Úroveň vedomosti respondentov o zdravotných rizikách pri hypercholesterolémii

Odpovede	**Ženy**		**Muži**	
	n	%	n	%
áno	5	20,8%	2	7,7%
skôr áno	9	37,5%	11	42,3%
neviem sa vyjadriť	7	29,2%	6	23,1%
skôr nie	1	4,2%	3	11,5%
nie	2	8,3%	4	15,4%
Spolu	24	100%	26	100%
M	2,42		2,85	

(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

Vedomosti respondentov o zdravotných rizikách hypercholesterolémie hodnotíme u 58,3% žien a 50% mužov ako dostatočné, a u 12,5% žien a 26,9% mužov ako nedostatočné. Aritmetický priemer škálových odpovedí u žien je 2,42 čo na škále znamená rozmedzie medzi skôr áno a neviem sa vyjadriť, u mužov je 2,85 čo vyjadruje pohyb na škále najbližšie k odpovedi neviem sa vyjadriť. Neznalosť rizík hypercholesterolémie je u pacientov závažným deficitom, pretože nedostatočný a pasívny prístup k prevencii a liečbe sa môže do budúcnosti prejaviť vznikom vážnych ochorení srdcovo-cievneho systému, čo môže mať zásadný dopad na dĺžku a kvalitu ich života.

3. ZÁVER

V posledných rokoch neustále narastá pozornosť venovaná problematike porúch metabolizmu lipidov. Príčinou je nárast vážnych ochorení srdca a ciev, ktoré sa významne podieľajú na morbidite a mortalite populácie. V súčasnosti je známy a dokázaný fakt, že ovplyvňovanie lipidového spektra nefarmakologickými a farmakologickými intervenciami môže významným spôsobom znížiť výskyt týchto ochorení a znížiť počet rizikových pacientov. Detekcia vedomostných deficitov pacienta v problematike porúch metabolizmu lipidov, rizík, ktoré pacienta ohrozujú a prípravy na ich správne stanovenie umožňujú v klinickej praxi lepšie smerovanie preventívnej edukačnej činnosti zdravotníkov a efektívnejšiu primárnu a sekundárnu prevenciu tohto ochorenia.

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VÝZNAMNÉ ŽENY V HISTÓRII RÁDIOLÓGIE

SIGNIFICANT WOMEN IN THE HISTORY OF RADIOLOGY

Zdenka Uherová, Janka Slaninková

Abstrakt

Rádiológia je medicínsky odbor, ktorý sa neustále vyvíja. Podieľa sa významnou mierou pri diagnostike a liečbe závažných ochorení. Vznik rádiológie je spätý s menom Wilhelma Conrada Röntgena, ktorý v roku 1895 objavil takzvané X lúče. Jeho objav mal celosvetový ohlas. Okrem mužov lekárov sa do histórie rádiológie zapísali aj ženy. Boli to lekárky, ale aj sestry na rôznych klinikách a oddeleniach. Najvýznamnejšou osobnosťou bola Marie Curie, držiteľka dvoch Nobelových cien. V minulosti neboli známe škodlivé účinky žiarenia a teda ani spôsob ochrany. Viacero žien, ktoré pracovali v oblasti rádiológie predčasne zomrelo.

Kľíčová slova: *rádiológia, história, ženy, medicína*

Abstract

Radiology is a medical discipline, which is constantly developing. It is significantly involved in the diagnosis and treatment of serious diseases. Formation of radiology connects to the name of Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen, who discovered the so-called X- rays in 1895. His discovery had a global impact on radiological therapy and treatment. Besides the male medical doctors also women were written down in the history of radiology. They were doctors, but also nurses at the various clinics and departments. The most important figure was Marie Curie, winner of two Nobel prices. In the past, they were not harmful effects of the radiation and there were no ways of protection. Several women who worked in the field of radiology prematurely have died.

Key words: *radiology, history, women, medicine*

1 ZAČIATKY RÁDIOLÓGIE A POSTAVENIE ŽIEN V SPOLOČNOSTI

Rola ženy v spoločnosti začiatkom 19. storočia bola jasne daná. Žena sa mala starať o domácnosť, byť dobrou matkou a manželkou, mala plniť potreby a želania manžela. Vo vtedajšej dobe nejaké odborné vzdelanie pre ženy alebo dokonca univerzitné štúdium nebolo žiaduce a ani možné a takéto snahy vyvolávali zo strany mužov skôr nevôľu a hnev. Táto averzia voči vzdelávaniu žien bola podporovaná aj v lekárskych kruhoch. Liečenie chorých bolo v rukách mužov, teda aj využívanie rôznych vynálezov a liečebných postupov. Zamietavý postoj spoločnosti k vzdelávaniu žien sa snažili zvrátiť rôzne ženské spolky, ktoré chceli zmeniť dovtedajšie chápanie roly ženy. V roku 1865 formuloval ženský spolok v Lipsku požiadavku, aby ženám bolo umožnené získať odbornú kvalifikáciu pre určité povolanie a tiež aj ďalej študovať. Aj napriek založeniu škôl, ktoré poskytovali kvalifikované vzdelávanie, jednako bolo ženám v Nemecku do roku 1901 štúdium zakázané. Viac úspechov sa zaznamenalo na poli odborného vzdelávania. V roku 1890 bola v Berlíne založená fotografická škola Lette-spolku (Photographische Lehranstalt des Lette-Vereins), ktorá čoskoro po Röntgenovom objave začala so vzdelávaním žien, a to predovšetkým na základe požiadaviek lekárov, ktorým chýbali asistentky. V roku 1896 sa vtedajší riaditeľ školy Schultz-Hencke rozhodol, že vybraným študentkám, ktoré mali pracovať ako pomocné sily lekárov využívajúcich pri diagnostike röntgenové snímky, bude poskytnuté ďalšie

vzdelávanie. Študentky sa museli po zvládnutí techniky fotografovania, naučiť aj ďalšie zručnosti ako vyvolávanie negatívov, vyhotovenie kópií a iné (Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

Prvou vyučenou röntgenologickou fotografkou (Röntgenphotographin), ktorá začala v roku 1897 pôsobiť v nemocnici Hamburg- Eppendorf (tu vzniklo už v marci 1896 röntgenologické laboratórium) bola slečna Paula Chelius. Objav X lúčov spôsobil, že sa v oblasti medicíny začali čoraz viac presadzovať nové metódy diagnostiky, čím rástli aj potreby a nároky na nový kvalifikovaný personál. Tak opäť z iniciatívy Lette-Verein vzniklo povolanie „fotograficko-technická pomocná pracovníčka na vedeckých inštitútoch".

V Nemecku bolo uvedené povolanie po celé desaťročia doménou žien a až v neskoršom období sa mu začali venovať aj muži. V Nemecku tiež čoraz viac naberala na sile požiadavka po ženách lekárkach, ktoré sa spočiatku zaoberali „iba" objasňovaním telesných funkcií, radili ohľadom telesnej hygieny, a poučovali ženy, ako sa chrániť pred neželaným tehotenstvom. Oblasť rádiológie patrila dlhé roky ich mužským kolegom.

Správa o objavení röntgenových lúčov sa v krátkom čase rozšírila do celého sveta a tento objav hneď našiel uplatnenie v oblasti medicíny. Už v marci 1896 založil Dr. John MacIntire na klinike Royal Infirmary v Glasgowe prvé odborné rádiologické oddelenie. V priebehu prvých štyroch rokov od založenia vykonal MacIntire vyše 3000 vyšetrení (Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

2 ŽENY, KTORÉ STÁLI PRI ZRODE NOVÉHO ODBORU

Hoci oblasť medicíny bola v minulosti mužskou záležitosťou, predsa je možné v histórii rádiológie nájsť niekoľko zvučných mien žien, ktoré sa svojím talentom, obetavosťou a odhodlaním vyrovnali mužom, ba niektoré z nich až vysoko prevýšili svojich mužských kolegov. Najznámejšou je bezpochyby držiteľka dvoch Nobelových cien Marie Curie, no aj manželka Wilhelma Conrada Röntgena, ktorá sa stala známou prostredníctvom objavu svojho manžela.

Anna Bertha Röntgen (1839-1919), rodená Ludwig sa narodila ako dcéra krčmára v Zürichu. V roku 1866 sa Anna Bertha spoznala s Wilhelmom Conradom v krčme „Zum grünen Glas" v Zürichu, kde sa do seba zaľúbili. V roku 1869 sa konali zásnuby a v januári 1872 nasledovala svadba. Otec Röntgena aj napriek tomu, že so svadbou súhlasil, mal so svojím jediným synom iné plány. Želal si pre neho zámožnejšie dievča z bohatej rodiny. Sobášom svojho syna bol sklamaný, a preto mladému páru neposkytol takmer žiadnu finančnú podporu. Ako asistent zarobil Röntgen len málo a tak sa musela mladá rodina zo začiatku uspokojiť s pomerne malým bytom. Hoci si obidvaja želali deti, ostalo toto manželstvo bezdetné.

Potom ako profesor Röntgen ako prvý odfotografoval a uvidel kosti svojej ruky, opýtal sa 22. decembra 1895 svojej manželky, či by mohol presvietiť aj jej ruku. Na vyvinutej fotoplatni sa jasne ukázali kosti prstov ruky tak ako aj 2 prstene. Táto fotografia sa stala historickým dokumentom. Pani Röntgen pri pohľade na snímku kostí svojej ruky povedala: „Videla som svoju smrť". Jej reakcia mohla byť niečo medzi nadšením a preľaknutím. Veľa žien a možno sa to týkalo aj pani Röntgen malo voči novému objavu odmietavú reakciu. Zhliadnutie vlastnej kostry prinášalo skôr pocity predtuchy smrti ako nadšenie.

Pani Röntgen bývala často chorá. Starosti jej robili predovšetkým obličkové koliky. Jej muž sa o ňu obetavo staral až kým po rokoch trápenia Anna Bertha Röntgen 31. októbra 1919 zomrela vo veku 81 rokov (Džuganová, Gareiss, 1996, Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

Elisabeth Fleischmann (1859-1905) bola pravdepodobne prvá žena v USA, ktorá mala vlastné RTG laboratórium. Elisabeth Fleischmann sa narodila ako dcéra rakúskych prisťahovalcov ako jedna zo šiestich detí v meste Eldorado v Kalifornii. Čoskoro sa rodina presťahovala do San Francisca, kde navštevovala aj školu. So svojím povolaním knihovníčky finančne prispievala do rozpočtu rodiny. Po smrti matky sa presťahovala k sestre, ktorá sa vydala za lekára. Dr. Wolf bol nadšený objavením röntgenového žiarenia a svojím nadšením infikoval aj svoju švagrinú. Elisabeth neskôr absolvovala šesťmesačný kurz, kde prenikla do tajov využívania elektrickej energie a v roku 1896 sa jej podarilo za pomoci svojho otca zhotoviť súkromný röntgenový prístroj. Čoskoro začali so švagrom experimentovať, pričom si navzájom slúžili ako objekty vyšetrovania. Neuvažovali o ochranných opatreniach, preto sa u nich čoskoro objavili prvé príznaky akútnej dermatitídy. Používanie röntgenového prístroja prispelo k dosahovaniu vynikajúcich výsledkov, čo malo pozitívny vplyv na krátku, ale intenzívnu kariéru Elisabeth. Počas španielsko-americkej vojny poskytovala svoje služby raneným. V popredí jej pracovného nasadenia bola lokalizácia cudzích telies. Neúnavne pracovala, a to až 12 hodín denne, no napriek mnohým varovaniam sa odmietala chrániť. Elisabeth Fleischmann bola jednou z prvých 42 členov Americkej röntgenologickej spoločnosti. V roku 1903 ochorela na postradiačnú dermatitídu rúk, ktorá ju prinútila k tomu, aby sa vzdala svojej práce. Hoci jej v januári 1905 amputovali ruku, predsa v auguste 1905 zomrela na rakovinu vyvolanú vysokými a dlhotrvajúcimi dávkami žiarenia (Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

Marie Curie (1867-1934) patrila k výrazným osobnostiam vedy 19. a 20. storočia. Narodila sa 7. novembra 1867 ako Maria Salomea Sklodowska vo Varšave. Vyrastala so svojimi 4 staršími súrodencami v rodine intelektuálov. Otec bol učiteľom fyziky a matematiky a matka viedla dievčenský penzión. V roku 1883 ukončila 15 ročná Mária vo Varšave gymnázium. Chcela ďalej študovať vysokú školu, avšak v tom čase to ženám nebolo dovolené. V roku 1885 začala pracovať ako vychovávateľka v rodine advokáta a svojou mzdou prispievala staršej sestre na štúdium v Paríži. Marie sa vo voľnom čase vzdelávala, čítala odborné knihy z anatómie, fyziky a fyziológie, čo ju malo pripraviť na plánované štúdium v zahraničí. V laboratóriu vo Varšave, ktoré viedol jej príbuzný sa po prvýkrát oboznámila s experimentálnou chémiou a fyzikou. Tento odbor ju ihneď fascinoval. V roku 1891 začala študovať fyziku v Paríži na Sorbonne. Percentuálny podiel žien v tomto odbore činil v tej dobe sotva 2%. Napriek počiatočným ťažkostiam s jazykom urobila skúšky najlepšie zo študentov a dostala štipendium, ktoré jej umožnilo pokračovať v ďalšom štúdiu. V rokoch 1893-1894 sa jej ujal profesor fyziky Antoine Henri Becquerel a Marie sa stala jeho doktorandkou. V roku 1895 sa vydala za osem rokov staršieho fyzika Pierre Curie, manželom sa v rokoch 1897 a 1904 narodili dve dcéry Iréne a Éve.

V roku 1896 objavil Henri Becquerel radiáciu uránu, čo bolo podnetom pre vznik odboru atómová fyzika. Na základe tohoto objavu si zvolila Marie aj tému svojej dizertačnej práce.

Marie a Pierre spoločne pracovali v provizórnom laboratóriu, kde v roku 1899 izolovali dovtedy neznáme prvky rádium a polónium. Dokázali tiež, že predmety sa v oblasti žiarenia stávajú rádioaktívnymi. V júni 1903 získala Marie Curie doktorát a v novembri spolu so svojím manželom a profesorom Becquerelom dostali Nobelovu cenu za fyziku.

V roku 1906 prišiel Pierre Curie pri dopravnej nehode vo veku 46 rokov o život a Marie prevzala katedru fyziky, ktorú dovtedy viedol. V roku 1908 sa stala ako jediná žena vo Francúzsku riadnou profesorkou na katedre fyziky na Univerzite Sorbonne. V nasledujúcich rokoch intenzívne skúmala vlastnosti rádia. Za túto vedeckú prácu jej bola v roku 1911 udelená po druhýkrát Nobelova cena, tentokrát za chémiu.

V roku 1914 iniciovala založenie francúzskeho rádiologického inštitútu. Počas 1. svetovej vojny spolu so svojou staršou dcérou Iréne zriadila mobilné zariadenia vybavené röntgenom, aby tak pomohla raneným vojakom na frontovej línii. Jej nasadenie a pomoc počas vojny si získalo aj medzinárodné uznanie (Biografie Marie Curie Lebenslauf, Eckelmann, 1999).

V rokoch 1918-1927 sa Marie Curie venovala spolu so svojou dcérou výskumnej činnosti na rádiologickom inštitúte v Paríži. Pod vedením Marie Curie sa z uvedeného inštitútu stalo neskôr centrum nukleárnej fyziky.

Marie Currie bola členkou mnohých akadémií a vedeckých spoločností, dostala viaceré vyznamenania a čestný doktorát. Zomrela 4. júla 1934 na leukémiu, čo bol následok jej dlhoročného kontaktu s rádioaktívnymi látkami.

Simone Laborde (1883 – 1976) po ukončení štúdia medicíny na lekárskej fakulte univerzity v Paríži pracovala v oblasti pediatrie a venovala sa hlavne sociálnym témam, otázkam hygieny a ochrany detí. Po svadbe s Albertom Labordom, mladým fyzikom a spolupracovníkom Pierre Curie sa jej záujmy zmenili. Svoju pozornosť upriamila na radiačnú fyziku a vykonávala tiež výskumy v oblasti rádiobiológie pri liečbe rakoviny. V kooperácii s Marie Curie sa pričinila o to, aby sa rádium používalo pri liečbe rakovinových ochorení. Po skončení vojny založila spolu s prof. G. Roussym liečebné a výskumné centrum pre liečbu rakoviny, ktoré sa neskôr stalo inštitútom G. Roussy. V rokoch 1960-1974 bola generálnou sekretárkou francúzskeho spolku pre výskum zhubných nádorov. Stala sa dôstojníčkou čestnej légie a rytierkou rádu (Ritter des Leopoldsordens). Popri práci lekárky bola tiež presvedčenou feministkou. Obhajovala rovnoprávnosť žien a pričinila sa o to, aby ženy mohli voliť.

Maria Werkenthin (1901-1944) sa narodila 21. marca 1901 v Poľsku v Kordolowke ako dcéra riaditeľa a anglickej matky. Medicínu začala študovať najprv v Kyjeve a neskôr vo Varšave. Štúdium medicíny ukončila v roku 1925. Už počas svojho štúdia sa začala obzvlášť zaujímať o rádiológiu. V roku 1929 sa stala vedúcou rádiologického oddelenia. Svoje vedecké skúmania zamerala na ochorenia pľúc. Napriek veľmi nepriaznivým podmienkam a okolnostiam v období okupácie, vykonávala svoju prácu aj naďalej. Organizovala tiež kurzy pre študentov a mladých lekárov, pomáhala chudobným, podporovala židovské rodiny. Kvôli tomu, že symbolicky položila zelené vetvičky na hroby dvoch účastníkov odboja, bola dňa 9. septembra zatknutá a deportovaná do tábora do Ausschwitzu. Tu pracovala na klinike až dovtedy, kým sama ťažko neochorela na týfus. Dňa 2. februára 1944 bola zastrelená pri plote z ostnatého drôtu.

Suzanne Simon (1901-1982) po ukončení štúdia medicíny na univerzite v Bruseli v Belgicku bola v roku 1928 menovaná asistentkou profesora Murdocha, ktorý pôsobil na univerzite v centre na výskum rakoviny. Svoje vzdelanie si doplnila o rádioterapeutické vzdelanie vo Francúsku, Nemecku a USA. Suzanne sa zaujímala predovšetkým o výskum postradiačných mutácií embryí. V roku 1938 habilitovala na univerzite. Počas druhej svetovej vojny bola poverená vedením inštitútu Bordet. K jej celoživotnému dielu patrí vybudovanie celonárodnej poradenskej siete pre pacientov trpiacich rakovinou. Včas zistila dôležitosť ďalšieho monitorovania ľudí chorých na rakovinu, a to nielen počas niekoľkých mesiacov, ale aj v priebehu ďalších rokov. V roku 1980 ju univerzita v Bruseli vyznamenala cenou „Louise Bernaux“.

Marion Frank sa začala vzdelávať v odbore rádiografia v roku 1939 v Londýne na Royal Northern Hospital. V roku 1941 získala diplom (MSR) z Western Infirmary v Glasgowe. Už skoro rozpoznala dôležitosť kvalifikovaného vzdelania vo svojom odbore, preto v Middlesex Hospital založila školu pre rádiografiu, ktorú aj viedla. V období rokov 1961 až 1973 bola členkou rady britskej spoločnosti pre rádiografiu, kde aj v roku 1967 bola zvolená za prezidentku. V rokoch 1964 až 1973 sa stala viceprezidentkou regiónu Európa - Afrika v

ISRRT. Od roku 1963 - 1977 bola predsedníčkou komory pre vzdelávanie. V roku 1981 získala vyznamenanie od britskej ríše. Royal College of Radiologists ju vymenoval za čestného člena. V roku 1995 dostala so zlatou medailou aj najvyššie ocenenie spoločnosti rádiografie (Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

Súčasná doba na rozdiel od minulosti, kedy sa ženy na pracovnom trhu presadzovali len s určitými ťažkosťami, ponúka ženám dostatok príležitostí na štúdium, vedecké skúmanie alebo výber vhodného povolania.

3 PRIEKOPNÍČKY RÁDIOLÓGIE - OBETE SVOJHO POVOLANIA

Spolu s novým objavom, ktorý vyvolal rozruch v lekárskych kruhoch, vzniklo aj nové povolanie, ktoré však spôsobovalo podlomenie, ba až trvalé poškodenie zdravia, nezriedka končiace smrťou. Keďže sa na začiatku zavádzania novej diagnostickej metódy, nevedelo o škodlivosti žiarenia, neboli pracovníci pred röntgenovým žiarením chránení. V súvislosti s tým sa začali vyskytovať u rádiologických pracovníkov rôzne ochorenia krvi, no aj rozličné druhy rakoviny.

Sestra Blandina (1871-1916) občianskym menom Maria Ridder sa narodila v Nemecku. Od roku 1898 pracovala ako prvá sestra na novo zriadenom röntgenologickom oddelení chirurgickej kliniky v Kolíne. Kvôli neznalosti nebezpečenstva röntgenových lúčov držala nechránenými rukami nepokojných pacientov a deti, aby bolo možné urobiť vhodné röntgenové snímky. Už po 16 mesiacoch sa jej začalo na rukách ukazovať silné sčervenanie sprevádzané opuchom. Liečba masťami nebola úspešná a na základe jednoznačného diagnostikovania karcinómu prišla najprv o jednotlivé prsty, neskôr o časť ruky a nakoniec jej museli amputovať celú hornú končatinu. Koncom roka 1915 sa sestra Blandina sťažovala na silné abdominálne ťažkosti. Súčasne sa jej utvorila na celej ľavej strane hrudníka a chrbta veľká rana. Dlhé mesiace sedela podopretá vankúšmi na svojej posteli až kým jej utrpenie nebolo vykúpené smrťou. Sestra Blandina zomrela 22. októbra 1916.

Sestra Glossinde (1873-1927) pracovala od roku 1902 ako sestra a najbližšia spolupracovníčka Dr. Marc Reiss na röntgenologickom inštitúte Hospital St. Blandina v Metz vo Francúzku. Rovnako ako u jej nadriadeného aj u nej sa začali po niekoľkých rokoch praxe na oddelení začali prejavovať ochorenia rúk. Hoci podstúpila viacero operácií, ani tie nedokázali zabrániť vzniku karcinómu.

Agnes Elisabeth Raaschou-Nielson (1876-1935) pracovala najskôr ako sestra, neskôr bola vedúcou oddelenia rádiológie v Kopenhagene v Dánsku. Denne prichádzala do styku s rádiom, čo sa negatívne začalo prejavovať na jej zdravotnom stave. Už po niekoľkých rokoch práce na oddelení boli na jej rukách zreteľné jasné príznaky dermatitídy Po siedmych mesiacoch, ktoré strávila na nemocničnom lôžku, zomrela na aplastickú anémiu.

Helga Schumacher (1885-1930) získala vzdelanie zdravotnej sestry na Reichshospital v Dánsku v meste Kopenhagen. V období rokov 1918-1929 pripravovala pre liečbu pacientov lieky, ktorých zložkou bolo rádium. Začali sa u nej prejavovať zdravotné problémy, ktorým po 13 mesiacoch útrap podľahla. Bola u nej diagnostikovaná leukémia.

Iréne Joliot-Curie (1897-1956) bola staršou dcérou Marie Curie. Už ako 17 ročná študovala prírodné vedy na Sorbone v Paríži. Podporovala svoju matku pri jej práci pre Červený kríž počas prvej svetovej vojny a pracovala ako asistentka na inštitúte rádiológie, kde boli v tej dobe sestry vzdelávané v oblasti rádiológie. Promovala s dizertačnou prácou, ktorá sa venovala alfa žiareniu (Alphastrahlung) polónia. Spoločne so svojím manželom, Frédéricom

Joliotom, objavila umelú rádioaktivitu. Neustále pracovala s rádioaktívnymi látkami, čo zapríčinilo jej predčasnú smrť, keď ako 58 ročná zomrela na leukémiu.

Vojvodkyňa de Brancas (1898-1936) študovala medicínu a po ukončení štúdia sa usadila vo Francúzsku v Paríži, kde pracovala ako röntgenologička. Mala technické nadanie, čo jej umožňovalo vykonávať rozličné vylepšenia na röntgenových prístrojoch, čím si urobila dobré meno v odborných kruhoch. O niekoľko rokov neskôr sa vydala za vojvodu von Brancas, no svojmu povolaniu sa venovala aj naďalej. Dôsledkom sústavnej práce, kedy sa nechránila pred röntgenovými lúčmi sa jej na rukách začali objavovať znaky popálenín. Najprv jej museli amputovať jeden prst, neskôr ruku po zápästie, až nakoniec prišla o celú hornú končatinu.

Blanche Wiedmann bola povolaním sestra a pôsobila v oblasti sociálnej starostlivosti vo Francúzsku v Paríži. Od roku 1899 pracovala ako sestra na novo založenom röntgenologickom oddelení v nemocnici Salpetriére v Paríži. Poškodenie zdravia vplyvom röntgenového žiarenia viedlo k jej skorému úmrtiu. Stala sa prvou obeťou francúzskej röntgenológie.

Ellen Clark sa stala priekopníčkou röntgenológie v Middlesex-Hospital v Anglicku v meste Londýn. Už v roku 1907 pracovala v takzvanom „Tin House“, kde boli deti ožarované proti mikrospórii. Svoje povolanie vykonávala dlhých 35 rokov. Svojej profesii sa prestala venovať v roku 1921. Mala popáleniny na rukách a celých horných končatinách, čo spôsobilo, že krátko nato zomrela (Frauen in der Radiologie, 1997).

Rádiológia je medicínsky odbor, ktorý sa neustále vyvíja a ktorý využíva určité spektrum ionizačného žiarenia (röntgenového žiarenia) a ďalšie fyzikálne javy (najmä ultrazvuk, magnetickú rezonanciu atď.) na stanovenie diagnózy. Je to klinický odbor, ktorého základným prvkom je zobrazovacia činnosť. Rádiológia od objavenia röntgenových lúčov až po súčasnosť prešla dlhým historickým vývojom spätým s mnohými významnými osobnosťami (Horňáková, Mašterová, Miženková, 2017).

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WPŁYW SUBSTANCJI ZAWARTYCH W ALKOHOLOWYM WYCIĄGU Z ORZECHA WŁOSKIEGO (JUGLANS REGIA L.) NA GRONKOWCA ZŁOCISTEGO (STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS) ORAZ PAŁECZKĘ OKRĘŻNICY (ESCHERICHIA COLI)

THE IMPACT OF THE SUBSTANCES CONTAINED IN THE ALCOHOL EXTRACT OF WALNUT (JUGLANS REGIA L.) ON STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS (STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS) AND THE BATON OF THE COLON (ESCHERICHIA COLI)

Agata Klimczak, Kamila Rybczyńska-Tkaczyk, Anna Krajewska, Karolina Madzelan, Joanna Grzesiewicz

Abstract

W pracy przedstawiony i omówiony zostanie wynik obserwacji oraz testu laboratoryjnego na temat wpływu substancji zawartych w alkoholowym wyciągu z orzecha włoskiego (*Juglans regia* L.) potocznie zwanego orzechówką na gronkowca złocistego (*Staphylococcus aureus*) oraz pałeczkę okrężnicy (*Escherichia coli*). Badania laboratoryjne dostarczyły ciekawych wyników w obu badanych przypadkach - wykazano hamowanie wzrostu drobnoustrojów (potwierdzone w kilku próbach oraz próbie dla samego alkoholu etylowego - sam alkohol nie spowodował tak znacznego hamowania jak w przypadku badanego wyciągu). Substancje zawarte w łupinach nasiennych, organach nadziemnych jak i podziemnych - zwłaszcza Juglon, który bezwzględnie zaliczany jest do substancji leczniczych pochodzenia naturalnego, są obecnie alternatywą dla preparatów syntetycznych. Badania wykonane zostały w Katedrze Mikrobiologii Środowiskowej, Pracowni Mikologicznej Uniwersytetu Przyrodniczego w Lublinie pod opieką dr inż. Kamili Rybczyńskiej - Tkaczyk.

Keywords: *Gronkowiec złocisty, pałeczka okrężnicy, wyciąg alkoholowy, orzech włoski, orzechówka*

Abstract

In work presented and discussed will be the result of observation and laboratory test on the effects of substances contained in the alcohol extract of Walnut (*Juglans regia* L.), colloquially known as „orzechówka" on *Staphylococcus aureus* and the *Escherichia coli*. Laboratory studies have provided exciting results in both test cases-have been shown to inhibiting the growth of micro-organisms (confirmed in several attempts and try for the ethanol-alcohol did not cause so significant braking as in If you test a „orzechówka"). Substances contained in the shell, the bodies of the above-ground and underground-especially Juglone, which is mandatory for medicinal substances of natural origin, are now an alternative to synthetic preparations. Studies were made in the Department of Environmental Microbiology, Mikologicznej University of life sciences in Lublin under the care of dr inż. Kamila Rybczyńskiej-Tkaczyk.

Keywords: *Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, alcoholic extract, walnut*

1. WPROWADZENIE

Organy nadziemne orzecha włoskiego(*Juglans regia* L.), a przede wszystkim jego liście oraz łupiny niedojrzałych owoców zawierają znaczną ilość związków aromatycznych- olejki

eteryczne. Są to lotne związki organiczne, które w zależności od swojego składu chemicznego, budowy przestrzennej cząsteczki oraz gatunku na jaki oddziałują mogą pełnić różne role od repelentów poprzez komunikatory chemiczne, aż do substancji wabiących.[Krzyżanowski 2016]. Orzech włoski wydziela olejki eteryczne poprzez ewaporację. W skład wcześniej wspomnianych substancji eterycznych orzecha włoskiego wchodzi dziewiętnaście terpenoidów, przy czym największy udział w tej mieszaninie przypada na octan (Z)-3-heksen-1-olu oraz β-pinen[Kozak i in. 2014]
W złożonych liściach orzecha włoskiego, sokach, łupinach jego owoców oraz korzeniach występuje związek chemiczny 5-hydroksy-1,4-naftochinon zwany Juglonem należący do związków chinonowych. Juglon po raz pierwszy został wyizolowany w 1928r przez Davis'a z liści i łupin orzechów. Związek ten ma bardzo silne działanie allelopatyczne. Juglon słabo rozpuszcza się w wodzie natomiast bardzo dobrze w rozpuszczalnikach organicznych[Kozak i in. 2014].

2. Materiał i metody

2.1 Orzechówka (alkoholowy wyciąg z orzecha włoskiego *Juglans regia L.*)

Alkoholowy wyciąg z orzecha włoskiego (*Juglans regia L.*) potocznie nazywany „orzechówką" używany w doświadczeniu został wykonany tradycyjną metodą. Zebrano niedojrzałe owoce orzecha włoskiego, następnie oddzielono zielone łupiny od pozostałej części owocu. Do wykonania ekstraktu wykorzystano 300 gram zielonych łupin. Łupiny zostały zalane 500 ml alkoholu etylowego (95%), a następnie ostawione do ciemnego i chłodnego miejsca w zamkniętym szczelnie naczyniu. Wyciąg dojrzewał przez rok będąc raz w miesiącu mieszanym poprzez poruszanie kolistymi ruchami naczyniem.

2.2 Pałeczka okrężnicy (*Escherichia coli*)

Aktywność przeciwmikrobiologiczna ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego była testowana wobec szczepu *E. coli* ATCC 25922 (American Type Culture Collection, LGC Standards, Łomianki, Poland). Oznaczenie minimalnego stężenia hamującego (MIC) (ang. Minimal Inhibitory Concentration) wykonano stosując metodę seryjnych mikrorozcieńczeń (150 - 9,37 mg mL−1) z wykorzystaniem podłoża Mueller- Hinton Broth (MHB). Do odpowiednio przygotowanych seryjnych rozcieńczeń (100 µl) dodawano 100 µl hodowli *E. coli* ATCC 25922 o gęstości 5,0 x 105 jtk mL-1. Kontrole stanowiło podłoże MHB z dodatkiem hodowli *E. coli* ATCC 25922. Oceny wyników dokonywano wizualnie po 18h inkubacji w 37°C, za MIC uznawano stężenie, po zastosowaniu którego nie obserwowano wzrostu E. coli ATCC 25922.

Ocena stopnia żywotności bakterii *E. coli* ATCC 25922 w obecności ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego
Test z wykorzystaniem resazuryny oparty jest na wykrywaniu aktywności metabolicznej komórek. Resazuryna jest barwnikiem, który przenika do komórki w utlenionej postaci (niebieski) i przekształca się w zredukowaną formę (różowy). Zredukowane i utlenione formy resazuryny mogą być oddzielnie mierzone spektrofotometrem i wykorzystywane do określenia żywotność komórek i pokazuje zależne od czasu i stężenia hamowanie ich wzrostu. Ocenę stopnia żywotności bakterii *E. coli* ATCC 25922 wykonano stosując metodę seryjnych mikrorozcieńczeń (150 - 9,37 mg mL^{-1}). Do 100 µl rozcieńczeń przygotowanych z wykorzystaniem podłoża Mueller- Hinton Broth (MHB) dodawano 100 µl hodowli *E. coli* ATCC 25922 o gęstości 5,0 x 10^5 jtk mL-1 i inkubowano (37°C) 18h. Po inkubacji dodano 20 µl 60 µM resasuryny. Kontrole stanowiło podłoże MHB z dodatkiem hodowli *E. coli* ATCC 25922. Po 2 godzinach żywotność komórek monitorowano przez pomiar absorbancji

przy 570 nm (zredukowana resazuryna) i 600 nm (utleniona) i obliczaniu szybkości redukcji resazuryny (w%) obliczając współczynnik redukcji resazuryny (WRR).

2.3 Gronkowiec złocisty (*Staphylococcus aureus*)

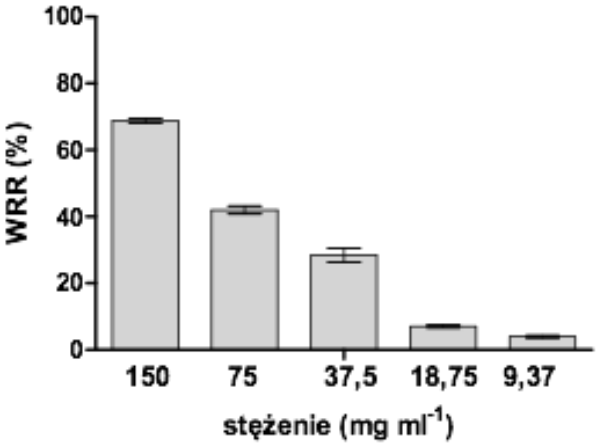
Aktywność przeciwmikrobiologiczna ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego była testowana wobec szczepu *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 29737 (American Type Culture Collection, LGC Standards, Łomianki, Poland). Oznaczenie minimalnego stężenia hamującego (MIC) (ang. Minimal Inhibitory Concentration) wykonano stosując metodę seryjnych makrorozcieńczeń (150 - 9,37 mg mL^{-1}) z wykorzystaniem podłoża Mueller- Hinton Broth (MHB). Do odpowiednio przygotowanych seryjnych rozcieńczeń (0,5 ml) dodawano 0,5 ml hodowli *S. aureus* ATCC 29737 o gęstości 5,0 x 10^5 jtk mL-1. Kontrole stanowiło podłoże MHB z dodatkiem hodowli S. aureus ATCC 29737. Oceny wyników dokonywano wizualnie po 18h inkubacji w 37°C, za MIC uznawano stężenie, po zastosowaniu którego nie obserwowano wzrostu *S. aureus* ATCC 29737.

3.Wyniki

3.1 Pałeczka okrężnicy (*Escherichia coli*)

Na podstawie uzyskanych wyników badań stwierdzono, że minimalne stężenie ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego, hamujące wzrost *E. coli* ATCC 25922, wynosiło 37,5 mg mL^{-1}. W zakresie badanych stężeń (150 - 9,37 mg mL−1) etanolowy ekstrakt z orzecha włoskiego hamował wzrost badanego szczepu, przy czym efekt był uwarunkowany stężeniem. Najwyższy stopień zahamowania wzrostu *E. coli* ATCC 25922 odnotowano dla stężenia 150 (68,75%) (Rys. 1).

Rys.1. Współczynnik redukcji rezasuryny (WRR) w komórkach *E. coli* ATCC 25922 w obecności etanolowego ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego



3.2 Gronkowiec złocisty (Staphylococcus aureus)

Na podstawie uzyskanych wyników badań stwierdzono, że minimalne stężenie ekstraktu z orzecha włoskiego, hamujące wzrost S. aureus ATCC 29737, wynosiło 37,5 mg mL^{-1}.
Podsumowując w obu badanych przypadkach wykazano dobre właściwości przeciwmikrobiologiczne substancji zawartych w alkoholowym wyciągu z orzecha włoskiego(*Juglans regia L.*).

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THE Ω-6/Ω-3 RATIO AS POTENTIAL PROGNOSTIC MARKER OF CHRONIC DISEASES

Monika Široká, Zdenka Hertelyová, Vladimíra Tomečková

Abstract

This study analyzed the amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids by using gas chromatography with flame ionization detector (GC-FID) and evaluated activity of delta-5- and delta-6-desaturases in human blood plasma of people with cardiovascular disease and metabolic syndrome in comparison with healthy people. None of the subjects consumed dietary supplements or ate oily fish regularly. For isolation of lipids from blood plasma was used Folsch metod. Obtained fatty acids metylesters were extracted into heptane and measured by GC-FID. These results showed that metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular diseases are accompanied with higher desaturase activity in favor to ω-6 PUFAs, which can contribute to increase ω-6/ω-3 ratio. The ω-6/ω-3 ratio might be a promised potential prognostic marker of these diseases in the case of confirmation of our hypothesis.

Keywords: *ω-3 fatty acids, the ω-6/ω-3 ratio, chronic diseases*

1 INTRODUCTION

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are studied because of their impact on human health, especially cardiovascular, metabolic, neurological and other diseases (Su et al., 2008; Lavie et al., 2009). They are monocarboxylic acids which contains 2 – 6 double bonds, while last double bond is at the third carbon (ω-3 PUFAs) or sixth carbon (ω-6 PUFAs) from the methyl terminus of the fatty acid chain. These fatty acids are essential for people and have important biological functions. They are precursors for eicosanoids production, affect fluidity of cell membranes, cell signalization and gene transcription (Peiretti, Gai, 2009; Harris et al., 2008; Mori, 2016). Human body syntetizes from α-linolenic acid (ALA, ω-3) and linoleic acid (LA, ω-6) longer and more unsaturated fatty acids (EPA, DHA or AA). It is provided by series of desaturation and elongation reactions. Both, ω-3 and ω-6 PUFAs compete for the same enzymes therefore ALA deficiency reduces DHA and enhanced osbond acid levels in tissue membranes (Russo, 2009). Altered activities of delta-5 and delta-6-desaturases have been associated with several diseases like neuropsychiatric, cardiovascular, metabolic or inflammation and tumorigenesis (Žák et al, 2016; Tosi et al, 2014).

It has been proven, that high ingestion of ω-6 PUFAs significantly increases incidence of stroke, trombosis, arrhythmia and atherosclerosis. On the other side, increased ingestion of ω-3 PUFAs leads to antiinflammatory, antiatherogenic, antithrombotic, hypolipidemic, antiaggregation, hypotensive, neurolegulatory and antiproliferative effects (Jacobson, 2012, Kelishadi et al., 2012, Pella, 2009). Nowadays in our diet, ratio of ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs is higher than 15:1, while scientists estimated that during the human evolution it was just above 1:1 (Hodgson, Mori, 2005). Decreasing of this ratio in our diet and subsequently in blood plasma can reduce inflammation response of organism, cell aging and risk of disease, because the production of anti-inflamatory eicosanoids from ω-3 PUFAs is preferred (Johnson, Bradford, 2014; Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2013).

In the present study, amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids was analyzed by using gas chromatography with flame ionization detector (GC-FID) and activity of delta-5- and delta-6-desaturases was evaluated in human blood plasma of people with cardiovascular disease and metabolic syndrome.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Subjects

Subjects were divided into three groups. The first was control group (C) of healthy people without anamnesis of metabolic and cardiovascular diseases. The second group were patients with cardiovascular diseases (CVD), who were farmacologicaly treated before their participation in our experiment. The third group consist of patients with metabolic syndrome (MS) which were not farmacologicaly treated, but they participated in programe with the aim to reduce body weight. None of the subjects consumed dietary supplements or ate oily fish regularly. Ethical approval was granted by Ethics Committee of Faculty of medicine, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice and all subjects gave written consent.

2.2 Experimental

Blood from subjects was collected by medical staff from UN L. Pasteur and VÚSCH in Košice and it was experimentally studied on Institute of experimental medicine Faculty of medicine, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice. Venous blood (from *vena cubitalis*) was collected into tubes with heparine and after 30 minutes, samples were separated into blood plasma and erythrocytes by centrifugation at 3500 rpm for 5 minutes (Hettich, Germany). Obtained blood plasma was stored in ependorf tubes at t = - 80°C.

2.3 Materials

All chemicals and solvents used during preparation of fatty acids samples were obtained from Chromservis s.r.o., Praha, Czech Republic. Solution of sodium methanolate (1M, MeONa) was prepared in laboratory from dried methanol distillated from Mg/I_2. Deionized water was not pure enough for analysis with GC-FID. We used non-sparkling mineral water "Dobrá voda" (Poděbradka, a.s., Czech Republic). Every bottle was tested and used when chromatogram did not contain a falsed peaks.

2.4 Methods

For isolation of lipids from blood plasma samples we used Folsch metod, which takes advantage of mixture of dichloromethane/methanol 2:1. Subsequently, isolated lipids were hydrolyzed and free fatty acids were transesterified by sodium methanolate (Tvrzická, 2002). Obtained fatty acids metylesters were extracted into heptane and measured by GC-FID. Each fatty acid was identified in chromatogram by Clarity IM offline software. Amount of each fatty acid was evaluated in mole percent (mol%) by Microsoft Excel 2013 on the base of area under the peak in chromatogram. Ratio between ω-6 and ω-3 fatty acids was calculated as ratio between sum of each fatty acids in these classes (Sopková et al., 2016). Activity of desaturases was calculated like ratio of the fatty acids as described in results.

The obtained results were evaluated using descriptive statistics (the frequency, mean ± standard deviation, percentage ratio) as well as the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (MINITAB Inc. version 11.21, Coventry, United Kingdom). The relationship between more than two variables (groups C, CVD, MS) was evaluated using the Tukey's HSD test (MINITAB Inc. version 11.21, Coventry, United Kingdom); the data were considered statistically significant at $P < 0,05$. Statistical analysis was realized by Microsoft Office Excel 2007, SPSS version 19,0 a MINITAB for Windows 11.21.

3 RESULTS

The analyzed ω-3 and ω-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids are decribed in (Tab. 1). Each value in tables and graphs represents mean ± standard deviation. Values marked by a, b, c represents statistically significant differences between groups; values $P < 0,05$ which were considered statistically significant (Tukey test, MINITAB for Windows version 11.21).

Tab. 1 An overwiev of analyzed fatty acids (Tvrzická, 2009)

Denotation	Systematic name of fatty acid	Trivial name	Abbreviation
C18:2, n-6	*cis, cis*-9,12-octadecadienoic	**linoleic acid**	LA
C18:3, n -6	*cis, cis, cis*-6,9,12-octadecatrienoic	**γ-linolenic**	GLA
C18:3, n -3	*cis, cis, cis*-9,12,15-octadecatrienoic	**α-linolenic**	ALA
C20:3, n-6	*cis, cis, cis*-8,11,14- eicosatrienoic	**dihomo-γ-linolenic**	DGLA
C20:4, n-6	*cis, cis, cis, cis*-5,8,11,14-eicosatetraenoic	**arachidonic**	AA
C20:5, n-3	*cis, cis, cis, cis, cis*-5,8,11,14,17-eicosapentaenoic	**timnodonic**	EPA
C22:4, n-6	*cis, cis, cis, cis*-7,10,13,16-docosatetraenoic	**adrenic**	DTA-6
C22:5, n-6	*cis, cis, cis, cis, cis*-7,10,13,16,19-docosapentaenoic	**osbondoic**	DPA-6
C22:5, n-3	*cis, cis, cis, cis, cis*-4,7,10,13,16-docosapentaenoic	**docosapentaenoic**	DPA-3
C22:6, n-3	*cis, cis, cis, cis, cis, cis*-4,7,10,13,16,19-docosahexaenoic	**clupanodonic**	DHA

LA represented in group C 27,22 ± 4,92 mol%. Patients in group CVD had the highest amount of LA and it was 6,7% higher than in group C. Group MS had nonsignificantly higher amount of LA too (0,5%) (Tab. 2). The comparison of changes of GLA amount was found, that group CVD had 14,2% lower value than group C. These changes were not statistically significant.

In group MS, amount of GLA was 3,54±0,69 mol% and these values were significantly higher than in groups C and CVD. As data in Tab. 2 shows, changes in amount of AA in all three groups were not statistically significant.

Relevant decrease of ω-3 fatty acids was seen in both, group CVD and group MS. Amount of ALA in group C was 0,81±0,41 mol%. In comparison to group C, ALA decresed by 45,6% in group CVD and 40,7% in group MS. These changes were staticticaly significant. The lowest amount of EPA had CVD patients with 0,17±0,05 mol%. Statistically significant was difference between group C and group CVD (26,1%). Group MS had nonsignificantly lower amount

of EPA than group C. DHA represented in group MS 1,44±0,36 mol%, which was 29,8% less than in group C. Changes between group C and group CVD were not statistically significant (Tab. 2).

Tab. 2 Fatty acids composition in the groups

PUFA	C	CVD	MS
LA	27,22±4,92^{a}	29,05±3,95^{a}	27,36±9,56^{a}
GLA	0,40 ±0,19^{b}	0,35±0,19^{b}	3,54±0,69^{a}
ALA	0,81±0,41^{a}	0,44±0,08^{b}	0,48±0,20^{b}
DGLA	1,36±0,36^{b}	2,00±0,40^{a}	1,47±0,21^{b}
AA	8,71±2,22^{a}	7,54±2,40^{a}	7,21±2,78^{a}
EPA	0,23±0,08^{a}	0,17±0,05^{b}	0,20±0,02^{ab}
DTA-6	0,21±0,04^{ab}	0,24±0,07^{a}	0,15±0,09^{b}

DPA-6	0,14±0,05[a]	0,15±0,04[a]	0,86±0,05[b]
DPA-3	0,23±0,02[a]	0,20±0,05[ab]	0,17±0,05[b]
DHA	2,05±0,41[a]	1,92±0,37[a]	1,44±0,36[b]

C - control group, CVD - group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS - group of patients with metabolic syndrome
LA - linoleic acid, GLA - γ-linolenic acid, ALA - α-linolenic acid, DGLA - dihomo-γ-linolenic acid, AA - arachidonic acid, EPA - timnodonic acid, DTA-6 - adrenic acid, DPA-6 - osbondoic acid, DPA-3 - docosapentaenoic acid, DHA - clupanodonic acid
Values in table represent mean ± SD
a, b reprezent statisticallly significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

3.1 Sum of omega-3 and omega-6 PUFAs

Based on analysis of fatty acids was find the highest sum of ω-3 fatty acids in group C. The most relevant is difference in ALA, but also EPA and DHA that are the highest in this group. The lowest ω-3 PUFAs were in group MS. The comparison of these results showed significant differencies between all three groups (Fig. 1).

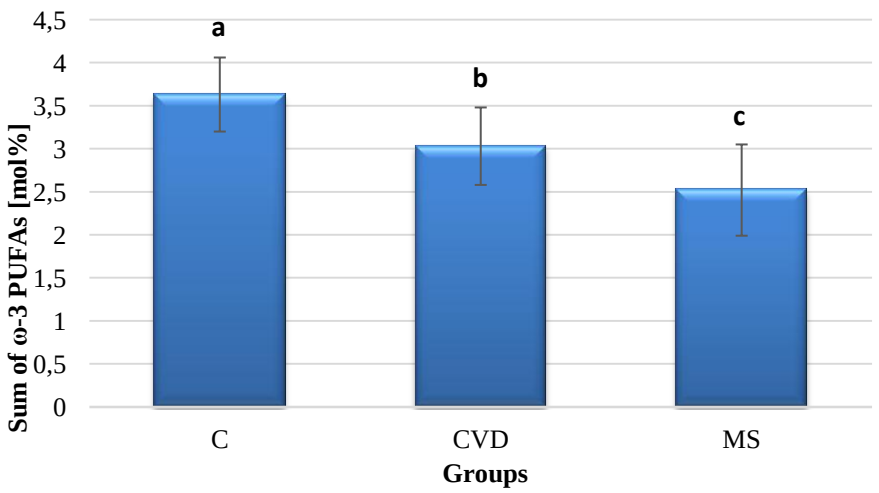

Fig. 1 Sum of ω-3 PUFAs in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome
Values represent mean ± SD
a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered stastically significant (Tukey test)

As Fig. 2 demonstrates, in group C lower sum of ω-6 PUFAs was observed than in other groups. However, differences between groups were mild and nonsignificant.

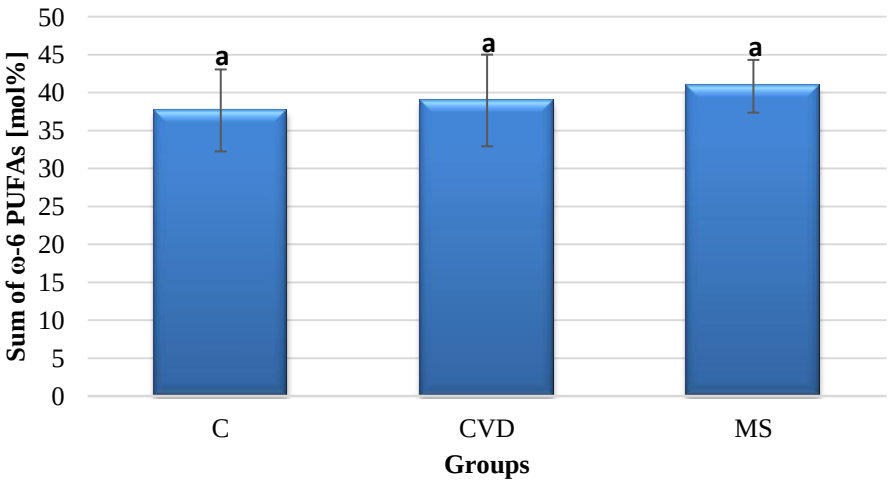

Fig. 2 Sum of ω-6 PUFAs in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome

Values represent mean ± SD

a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

3.2 ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs ratio

The lowest ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs ratio (10,3:1) we observed in group C, which included healthy people. The highest ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs ratio (17:1) was in group MS. Patients with cardiovascular diseases exhibited the middle ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs ratio (13:1). Differences between groups were significant (Fig. 3).

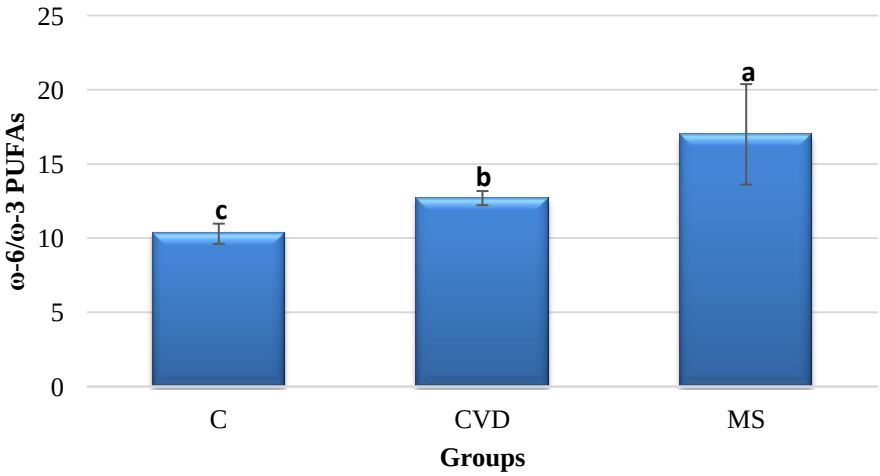

Fig. 3 Ratio of ω-6/ω-3 PUFAs in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome

Values represent mean ± SD

a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

3.3 Activity of desaturases

Next parameters which was evaluated was activity of desaturases for ω-6 and ω-3 PUFAs.

For ω-6 PUFAs was calculated activity of delta-6-desaturase like ratio GLA/LA and activity of delta-5-desaturase like ratio AA/DGLA. The significantly highest activity of delta-6-desaturases for ω-6 PUFAs was observed in group MS (Fig. 4). Activity of delta-5-desaturase for ω-6 PUFAs was the highest in group C and the lowest in group MS (Fig. 5).

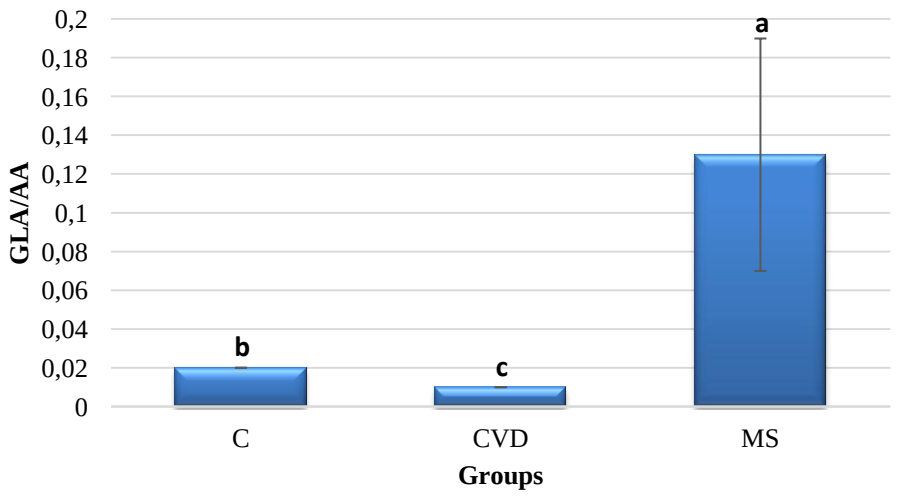

Fig. 4 Activity of delta-6-desaturase (ω-6 PUFAs) in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome

Values represent mean ± SD

a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

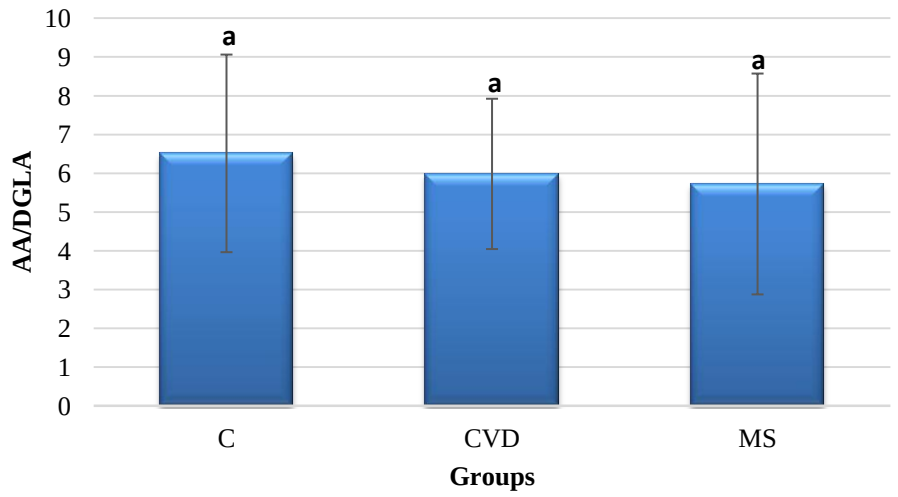

Fig. 5 Activity of delta-5-desaturase (ω-6 PUFAs) in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome

Values represent mean ± SD

a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values P < 0,05 were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

Beside activity of desaturases for ω-6 PUFAs was also evaluated activity of desaturases for ω-3 PUFAs (Fig. 6). However, activities of delta-6 and delta-5-desaturases were calculated

together because amount of docosatetraenoic acid (DTA, C20:4, n-3) was not evaluated. It was not used as the standard. Activity of desaturases was calculated like EPA/ALA ratio. It was the highest in the group C and the lowest in the group MS. Differences between these two groups were singnificant, but not between groups C and CVD or between groups CVD and MS.

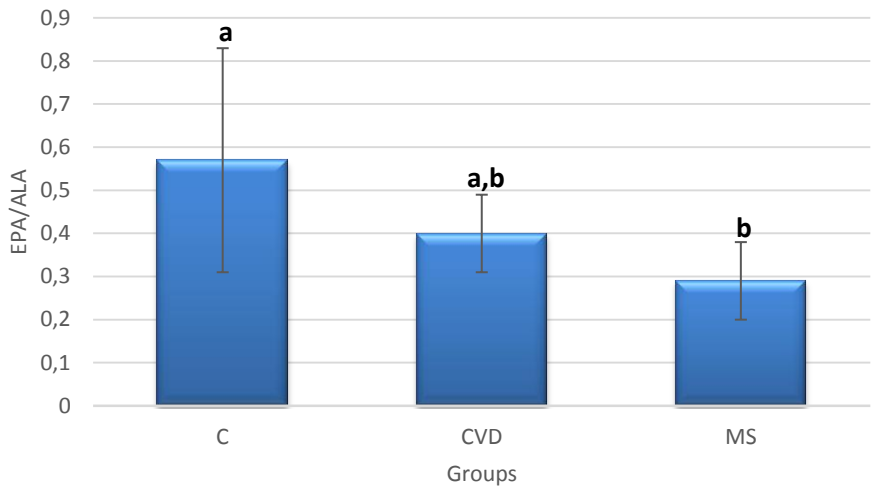

Fig. 6 Activity of delta-6 and delta-5-desaturase (ω-3 PUFAs) in groups

C – control group, CVD – group of patients with cardiovascular diseases, MS – group of patients with metabolic syndrome

Values represent mean ± SD

a, b, c - represent statistically significant differences between groups; values $P < 0,05$ were considered statistically significant (Tukey test)

4 DISCUSION

Amount of fatty acids in blood plasma in population is influenced by several factors, but most important determinant is amount of ingested lipids. Non-dietary factors like gender, age, smoking, obesity, physical activity and sociodemografic characteristics also can influence fatty acid composition in blood plasma, but their impact is smaller (Brandbury et al., 2011). Data from epidemiologic studies provide evidence about association between lack of ω-3 PUFAs and cardiovascular, metabolic and other diseases (Su et al., 2008).

In our study, patients with metabolic syndrome had worst PUFAs profile than patients with cardiovascular diseases, although metabolic syndrome supports progress in aterosclerosis development. In group MS, activity of desaturases was higher for ω-6 PUFAs and lower for ω-3 PUFAs, which is in accord with the results of previous studies (Žák et al., 2016). There was observed higher amount of ω-6 fatty acids and higher ω-6/ω-3 ratio. It might be result of farmacologicaly treatment of the patients with cardiovascular diseases before the experiment while the patients with metabolic syndrome were not farmacologicaly treated (participated in program with aim to reduce body weight). The opposite results were found in group C. Healthy people had lower ω-6/ω-3 ratio and significantly higher amount of ω-3 PUFAs (ALA and DHA). Our results proved, that decrease of ω-3 fatty acids colerrates with progress of metabolic syndrome and obesity.

Low amount of ω-3 PUFAs and higher ω-6/ω-3 ratio (13:1) in group CVD in comparison to group C indicates relationship between fatty acids composition and cardiovascular diseases. In our study, sum of ω-3 PUFAs was higher in the group of healthy people and lower in group

of patients with metabolic syndrome. It correlates with ω-6/ω-3 ratio, because the lowest ratio was in group C (10,3:1) and higher was in group MS (17:1).
If ingested lipids have beneficial effects on human health or it support obesity and other diseases depends largerly on composition of fatty acid in these lipids. AA, which is syntetized from LA is important source of biologicaly active mediators – eicosanoids (prostaglandins, leukotrienes) and their contribution to formation and progress to cardiovascular diseases were demonstrated in many experimental models. Otherwise, ALA, EPA and DHA have protective influence. Epidemiologic studies estimate that diet with low amount of lipids in combination with unsaturated fatty acids where ω-6/ω-3 ratio is 10-4:1 is related to lower incidence of metabolic syndrome, atherosclerosis and cardiovascular diseases (Reiner et al., 2011, Simopolous, 2008).

Conclusion

In conclusion, we proved that formation and progress of metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular diseases correlate with decreased level of ω-3 PUFAs in blood plasma. Our results also indicate, that metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular diseases are accompanied with higher desaturase activity in favor to ω-6 PUFAs, which can contribute to increase
ω-6/ω-3 ratio. The next experiments will study whether supplementation with ω-3 PUFAs in diet of patients with metabolic syndrome or cardiovascular diseases can decrease ω-6/ω-3 ratio. The ω-6/ω-3 ratio might be a promised potential prognostic marker of these diseases in the case of confirmation of our hypothesis.

Acknwledgement

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REALIZÁCIA EDUKAČNÉHO PROGRAMU V OBLASTI HYGIENY RÚK U ŠTUDENTOV OŠETROVATEĽSTVA

IMPLEMENT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF HAND HYGIENE THE NURSING STUDENTS

Jana Cuperová, Terézia Fertaľová, Lívia Hadašová, Iveta Ondriová, Gabriela Kuriplachová, Andrea Lengyelová, Zuzana Bočkayová

Abstrakt

Hygiena rúk je jedným z najdôležitejších opatrení pri znížení vzniku nozokomiálnych nákaz v zdravotníctve. Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia sa venuje hygiene rúk intenzívne, vypracovala Guidelines on Hand Hygiene in Health Care, ako usmernenie pre zdravotnícke zariadenia. Edukácia je kľúčovým prostriedkom pre poznanie problematiky hygieny rúk sestrami v zdravotníckom zariadení. Najefektívnejšie je, ak sa sestra nestretáva s prvotnou edukáciou pri nástupe do práce, ale už pri príprave na budúce povolanie. Cieľom práce bolo vytvoriť edukačný plán pre oblasť hygieny rúk, zameranej na dezinfekciu a umývanie rúk študentov ošetrovateľstva. Pozorovaním študentov sme identifikovali nedostatky nielen vo vedomostnej oblasti, ale aj v oblasti psychomotorickej a afektívnej v oblasti hygieny rúk. Na základe výsledkov navrhujeme realizovať edukáciu a reedukáciu sestier so zameraním na dodržiavanie a propagovanie zásad hygieny rúk podľa Svetovej zdravotníckej organizácie pre zdravotnícke zariadenia.

Kľúčové slová: *Hygiena rúk. Dezinfekcia. Umývanie rúk. Edukačný plán. Edukácia študentov.*

Abstract

Hand hygiene is one of the most important measures to reduce the incidence of nosocomial infections in health care. The World Health Organization is dedicated to hand hygiene intensively, and has developed Guidelines on Hand Hygiene in Health Care as a guideline for healthcare facilities. Education is a key means of getting to know the issue of hand hygiene by nurses in a health facility. The most effective thing is if the nurse does not have initial education at work, but when preparing for the next job. The aim of the work was to create an educational plan for the area of hand hygiene, aimed at disinfecting and washing the nursing students' hands. By observing the students we identified shortcomings not only in the knowledge area, but also in the area of psychomotor and affective in the field of hand hygiene. On the basis of the results, we propose to provide education and reeducation of nurses focusing on the observance and promotion of the principles of hand hygiene according to the World Health Organization for Medical Devices.

Key words: *Hand hygiene. Disinfection. Handwashing. An educational plan. Education of students.*

Úvod

„Čisté ruky“ sú základným atribútom práce sestry v zdravotníckom zariadení. Dodržiavaním noriem a odporúčaní nechráni sestra len seba, pacienta, kolegov ale aj svoje okolie. Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia vydala odporúčania pre hygienu rúk zdravotníckeho personálu. Práve

tento dokument bol základným východiskovým dokumentom pre tvorbu edukačného materiálu. K najdôležitejším spôsobom prevencie nozokomiálnych nákaz patrí umývanie a dezinfekcia rúk zdravotníckych pracovníkov. Ruky zdravotníckeho personálu počas výkonu práce sú kontaminované najrozličnejšou mikroflórou, ktorá sa môže vyznačovať výraznou rezistenciou na antibiotiká a na rôzne druhy dezinfekčných látok. Ďalej sa vyznačuje schopnosťou odolať vplyvom prostredia a prežívať na rukách zdravotníkov, čím dochádza k prenosu mikroorganizmov na pacientov (Maďar 2006). Hygiena a dezinfekcia rúk zdravotníckeho personálu predstavuje základný krok k znižovaniu výskytu nozokomiálnych nákaz (WHO 2009). Stratégia na zlepšenie hygieny rúk v zdravotníckych zariadeniach spočíva v zaistení dezinfekčných prostriedkov na báze alkoholu v mieste starostlivosti o pacienta, prístupe vody na zabezpečenie hygieny rúk, prítomnosti výchovných materiálov na pracovisku upozorňujúcu na dodržiavanie hygieny rúk a najmä systémovú kontrolu stanovených postupov (Podstatová 2007).

1. Nozokomiálne nákazy a hygiena rúk zdravotníckeho personálu

„*K najdôležitejším predpokladom úspešného boja proti nozokomiálnym nákazám patrí správny postoj zdravotníckych pracovníkov*“ (Kelčíková 2014, s. 43). Nemocničná hygiena je širokým pojmom na pomenovanie opatrení pre zaistenie čistoty prostredia, manipuláciu s bielizňou, upratovanie, výber pomôcok k ošetrovaniu pacienta, dezinfekcii, sterilizácii, epidemiologické umiestenie a mnoho iných postupov v zdravotníckom prostredí (Vytejčková 2011). *Nozokomiálne infekcie* možno označiť ako prenesené ochorenia vnútorného alebo vonkajšieho pôvodu, ktoré vznikli s pobytom jedincov v zdravotníckom zariadení, sú nežiaducou komplikáciou nemocničnej starostlivosti s negatívnymi následkami (Vévoda 2013). Uvádza sa, že viac ako 60 % nozokomiálnych nákaz je prenesených rukami zdravotníckych pracovníkov a preto sa dekontaminácia zaradzuje k základným postupom prevencie nozokomiálnych nákaz (Vytejčková 2011). Výskyt nozokomiálnych infekcií nie je presne známy, stretávame sa s vyšším výskytom nozokomiálnych infekcií na oddeleniach jednotky intenzívnej starostlivosti, oddelení anesteziológie a intenzívnej medicíny, ale aj na oddelení chirurgie, traumatológie, dialýzy, či na oddeleniach s výskytom imuno kompromitovaných pacientov (Vévoda 2013). V roku 2014 WHO žiada laboratóriá v registrovaných zdravotníckych zariadeniach po celom svete o predloženie informácií o hospitalizovaných pacientoch, ktorí mali v moči alebo hemokultúre izolovaný jeden z piatich vybraných multirezistentných organizmov (MDROs). Multirezistentné organizmy sú: Vancomycín - resistentné enterokoky, methicilín - rezistentný Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), multirezistentné Acinetobacter spp. (MRAB), Enterobacteriaceae produkujúce ESBL, karbapeném rezistentné Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) (WHO 2014).

Preventívne opatrenia zahŕňajú celý komplex zásad smerujúcich k zníženiu počtu rizikových faktorov jednotlivých infekcií a zabráneniu prenosu infekcie z jej prameňa na vnímavého pacienta. Čistota prostredia, výchova personálu, dodržiavenie antisepsy a asepsy, bariérovej ošetrovacej techniky s dôrazom na dezinfekciu rúk, používanie jednorazových materiálov a pod., sú len niektoré príklady opatrení, ktorými možno efektívne eliminovať prenos infekcie z exogénneho prameňa. Podstatne ťažšie ovplyvniteľný je prameň endogénny, ktorý sa uplatňuje najmä pri poklese imunity pacienta. Z opatrení, ktorými je možné ovplyvniť endogénny prameň, treba spomenúť napr. účinnú liečbu základného ochorenia, terapeutické postupy na podporu imunity, ATB profylaxiu chirurgickej ranovej infekcie a pod. (Krkoška 2002).

2. Edukačný proces zameraný na umývanie a dezinfekciu rúk pre študentov ošetrovateľstva

Edukáciu študentov sme naplánovali dve edukačné stretnutia. Prvé zamerané na samotnú edukáciu a druhé na vyhodnotenie vedomostí a zručností. Predpokladali sme, že študenti boli edukovaní o problematike hygieny rúk minimálne na jednom predmete, a to v predmete Ošetrovateľské postupy. Edukantmi boli študenti ošetrovateľstva v bakalárskom stupni štúdia a študenti magisterského štúdia (sestry v praxi). Edukačné metódy nami zvolené sú: pozorovanie, autodiagnostika, riadený rozhovor, cvičenie, demonštrácia, vysvetlenie a pomôcky: kvíz test (autodiagnostikcký test), poster, video premietané cez dataprojektor, alkoholový dezinfekčný roztok, pozorovací protokol pre dodržiavanie krokov dezinfekcie rúk. V prvej posudzovacej fáze edukácie sme realizovali pozorovanie. Pozorovali sme študentov ako ovládajú a praktizujú postupy zamerané na hygienu rúk, dodržiavajú metódu bariérovej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Pozorovaním sme zistili nielen nedostatky v technike umývania a dezinfekcie rúk, nedodržiavanie používania rukavíc, nedodržiavanie úpravy rúk, ale aj nedostatok vedomostí a motivácie dodržiavať zásady hygieny rúk v zdravotníckych zariadeniach. Študenti nepoznali a nedodržiavali 5 momentov pre hygienu rúk, techniky umývania a dezinfekcie rúk, nosili šperky, nedodržiavali dĺžku prirodzených nechtov a mali nalakované nechty. Hlavným cieľom edukácie bolo rozvíjanie kľúčových kompetencií študentov, ktoré sú definované ako spôsobilosť človeka uplatniť vedomosti, zručnosti a schopnosti v praktickej činnosti zo zameraním na dôležitosť ochrany života a zdravia nie len seba, ale aj pacientov a zdravotníckych pracovníkov.

2.1. Realizácia 1. edukačného stretnutia

Téma: Dezinfekcia a umývanie rúk podľa Postupov hygieny rúk v zdravotnej starostlivosti Svetovej zdravotníckej organizácie.

Hlavný cieľ edukácie: Edukanti preukážu vedomosti, záujem a správnu techniku umývania a dezinfekcie rúk.

V motivačnej fáze sme využili inscenačnú metódu. Skupina edukantov si vybrala študentku, ktorá mala demonštrovať techniku umývania a dezinfekcie rúk. Ide o dynamickú metódu, pri ktorej sú študenti postavení do nejakej roly. Môžu vplývať na zmenu situácie, či prípadu alebo sa ich môžu priamo zúčastniť. Okrem dynamickosti táto metóda umožňuje študentom emocionálne sa zaangažovať, osobne prežívať situáciu a tak rozvíjať empatie a sociálne cítenie, zmýšľanie a konanie. Pomocou diskusie bolo zistené, že vybraná študentka neovládala techniku umývania a dezinfekcie rúk. Pokúsili sme sa nájsť východisko zo situácie a riešiť daný problém. Expozičná fáza bola realizovaná použitím metódy rozhovoru, v jej rámci sme upriamili pozornosť edukantov na nesprávnu dezinfekciu a jej dôsledky sme zdokumentovali výsledkami odobratých sterov. Nasledovala názorná demonštrácia techniky, ktorá bola sprostredkovaná vo forme edukačného videa a posteru. Po jeho zhliadnutí sme realizovali praktický nácvik dezinfekcie rúk pomocou dezinfekčného roztoku alkoholového charakteru. V jednotlivých fázach nácviku techniky boli edukanti individuálne usmerňovaní na chyby pri technike a na najčastejšie vynechávané miesta pri dezinfekcii. Vo fixačnej fáze sme použili metódu riadeného rozhovoru. Prostredníctvom osemsmerovky boli zopakované a upevnené základné pojmy týkajúce sa hygieny rúk. V hodnotiacej fáze bola edukácia ukončená formou rozhovoru o dôležitosti umývania a dezinfekcie rúk a prevencii nozokomiálnych nákaz. Dali sme priestor na otázky edukantov, zhodnotili sme edukačné stretnutie, povzbudili sme edukantov k ďalšiemu edukačnému stretnutiu a naplánovali sme si ďalšie edukačné stretnutie.

2.2. Realizácia 2. edukačného stretnutia

Téma: Zhodnotenie spätnej väzby a opätovná analýza vedomostí v problematike hygieny rúk. Motivačným rozhovorom sme pomocou rozhovoru zdôraznili význam a dôležitosť dezinfekcie a umývania rúk. Spoločne sme si zopakovali získané vedomosti a zručnosti. Následne sme inštruovali edukantov k vypísaniu autodiagnostického testu a uskutočnili samotné vyplnenie autodiagnostického testu. Realizovali sme pozorovanie techniky hygienickej dezinfekcie rúk alkoholovým prostriedkom pomocou pozorovacieho formuláru. Zhodnotili sme priebeh a výsledky edukačného stretnutia, poskytli sme študentom spätnú väzbu.

Výsledky kvíz testu. Test pozostával z 20 otázok, otázky mali charakter zatvorených otázok s 3 až 4 možnosťami. Otázky boli zamerané na definovanie základných pojmov a otázok na vedomosti o dezinfekcii a umývaní rúk. Študenti ošetrovateľstva: úspešnosť testu od 100 % do 80 % malo 6 edukantov. V rozsahu 79 % až 50 % 3 edukanti a 1 edukant mal úspešnosť pod 50 %. Sestry - študenti úspešnosť testu od 100 % do 80 % malo 5 edukantov, 79 % až 50 % mali 3 edukanti a 2 mali pod 50 %. Každý edukant následne predviedol techniku dezinfekcie rúk, ktorú sme pozorovali a správnosť alebo nesprávnosť zaznamenali do pozorovacieho protokolu. Porovnávali sme súvislosť vedomostí s technikou. Zistili sme, že edukanti, ktorí mali skóre z testu do 80 % mali lepšie výsledky z pozorovania o dezinfekcii rúk. Z celého počtu edukantov malo zvládnutú celú techniku dezinfekcie rúk bez chýb iba 30%. Najčastejšie nedostatky pozorované u študentov sú nalakované nechty, dlhé nechty, neznalosť techniky, nedostatočné alebo neúplné vedomosti, nedostatok motivácie (verbalizované skôr u dennej formy) a neuvedomenie si dôležitosti dodržiavanie hygieny rúk. Z výsledkov edukácie vyplýva, že je potrebné zvýšiť dôraz na problematiku hygieny rúk už v prvých rokoch štúdia. Edukanti študenti majú vedomosti o hygiene rúk, ale neuvedomujú si v plnom rozsahu dôležitosť dodržiavania hygieny rúk, neuvedomujú si právne a morálne dôsledky svojho neetického správania a konania. Nedbajú na význam dodržiavania hygieny, ako jednej zo základných prvkov zníženia vzniku nozokomiálnych nákaz. Sestry študentky si toto riziko uvedomujú, čiastočne ovládajú techniku umývania a dezinfekcie, ale vznikom rutiny, lenivosti a potreby odlišovať sa zásady nedodržiavajú. Preto je potrebné venovať viac hodín tejto problematike vo vyučovacom procese, následnej kontrole dodržiavania pravidiel hygieny rúk. Nedodržanie pravidiel by malo byť vo forme sankcie, ktorá je najúčinnejším nástrojom k zmene postoja. Oblasť hygieny rúk by mala byť nosnou aj v edukačnej a kontrolnej činnosti manažmentu zdravotníckych zariadení. V prospektívnej štúdii pod názvom: „*Efektivita vzdelávania v intervenciách hygieny rúk pre študentov medicíny v podmienkach primárnej starostlivosti*“ sa dôraz kládol na pozorovanie a následnú edukáciu. Po edukácii sa zvýšil počet študentov s vhodnou dobou umývania rúk z 5,3 % na 50,8 %. Druhá etapa pozorovania bola po 6 mesiacoch, kde boli znovu zozbierané informácie. V tejto etape pozorovania dosiahol počet študentov 69,7 %. Záverom štúdie bolo, že intervencie zamerané na hygienu rúk v prvom ročníku medicíny boli účinné, študenti mali potrebné znalosti, zmenil sa ich postoj k praxi a nastalo celkové zlepšenie v oblasti hygieny rúk (Nour-Eldein 2015). Thai (2009) v Hong Kongu realizoval výskumnú štúdiu zameranú na predstavy lekárov a sestier o význame a vplyve hygieny rúk na zdravotnú starostlivosť a vznik infekcie. Štúdie sa zúčastnilo 1008 respondentov z toho 906 sestier a 102 lekárov, Cronbachova alpha dosiahla úroveň 0,95. Štúdia zistila, že 70 % sestier a 49 % lekárov si myslí, že viac ako 15 % pacientov by mohlo trpieť nozokomiálnou infekciou a 79 % sestier a 68 % lekárov verí, že viac ako 5 % pacientov zomrie v dôsledku infekcií súvisiacich so zdravotnou starostlivosťou. 60 % sestier a 46 % lekárov uznáva, že viac než 75 % z nozokomiálnych infekcií možno zabrániť optimálnou hygienou rúk. Sestry si umývali ruky vo vyššej frekvencii za hodinu ako lekári, ale nie všetky dodržiavali správnu techniku. Autori predpokladali, že existuje rozdiel v oblasti hygieny rúk s

ohľadom na pohlavie. Tieto výsledky môžu byť použité ako nástroj pre vytváranie účelových stratégii pre hygienu rúk medzi sestrami a lekármi (Tai 2009).

3. Záver

O hygiene rúk ako o prostriedku zníženia vzniku a šírenia nozokomiálnych nákaz existuje mnoho štúdií. Zdravotníci podceňujú dodržiavanie zásad hygieny rúk a tým ohrozujú nie len seba, ale aj pacientov a svojich najbližších. Pozorovaním sme zistili, že nielen študentky ošetrovateľstva, ale aj sestry v klinickej praxi potrebujú reedukáciu. Zmena postoja k tejto problematike musí byť realizovaná celoplošne. Je iba na zdravotníckych pracovníkoch a hlavne na sestrách, ktoré sú najčastejšie v kontakte s pacientom, aby dodržiavali hygienu rúk. Významnú rolu v tomto procese zohráva uvedomenie si roly sestier. Musíme si uvedomiť, že sestra je nie len ošetrovateľkou ale aj nositeľkou zmien, obhajkyňou práv pacienta. Už na akademickej pôde si študenti osvojujú samotný proces edukácie a majú sa stať jeho nositeľkami (Galdunová 2016). Najvhodnejším spôsob riešenia danej problematiky je kvalitná edukácia a následná kontrolná činnosť stanovených doporučení.

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STRUČNÝ PREHĽAD HISTÓRIE RADIAČNEJ OCHRANY

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF RADIATION PROTECTION

Anna Horňáková

Abstrakt

Čoraz viac ľudí prichádza priamo či nepriamo do styku s ionizujúcim žiarením. Aby tento okruh ľudí a ich okolie neboli vystavené nebezpečenstvu a aby nedošlo k ohrozeniu ich zdravia vplyvom ionizujúceho žiarenia, je potrebné zabezpečiť ich ochranu pred týmto nebezpečenstvom. Pracovníci, ktorí z profesionálnych dôvodov prichádzajú do styku s ionizujúcim žiarením mali by disponovať dostatočnými vedomosťami o vlastnostiach tohoto žiarenia, o jeho interakcii s hmotným prostredím, účinkoch na biologické objekty, o spôsoboch merania jeho množstva a ochrane pred jeho škodlivými účinkami. V príspevku sa pokúsime stručne informovať o histórii radiačnej ochrany od objavu X- lúčov až po súčasné metódy ochrany pred žiarením.

Kľúčové slová: *radiačná ochrana, história, zdravie, ožiarenie, bezpečnosť.*

Abstract

More and more people come directly or indirectly into contact with ionizing radiation. To ensure that this circle of people and their surroundings are not at risk and that their health is not jeopardized by ionizing radiation, it is necessary to protect them from this danger. Health care professionals who come into contact with ionizing radiation should have sufficient knowledge of the properties of this radiation, its interaction with the material environment, effects on biological objects, ways of measuring its quantity and protecting it from its harmful effects. We will briefly inform you about the history of radiation protection from the discovery of X-rays to the current radiation protection methods.

Key words: *radiation protection, history, health, irradiation, safety.*

1. RADIAČNÁ OCHRANA A JEJ LEGISLATÍVA

V súčasnej modernej spoločnosti čoraz viac osôb prichádza priamo či nepriamo do styku s ionizujúcim žiarením, ale o jeho škodlivých účinkoch väčšina z nás vie veľmi málo. Radiačná ochrana je systém technických opatrení alebo organizačných opatrení na obmedzenie ožiarenia fyzických osôb pred účinkami ionizujúceho žiarenia. Súčasná koncepcia radiačnej ochrany vo svete a v Európe reprezentujúca Medzinárodnou komisiou pre radiačnú ochranu (ICRP) opiera sa o štandardy vydané medzinárodnou atómovou agentúrou (IAEA) so sídlom vo Viedni a o legislatívu Európskej únie (direktívy EUROATOMU). Radiačná ochrana je jedným z determinujúcich faktorov ovplyvňujúcich úroveň verejného zdravia, na ktoré sa zameriava systém verejného zdravotníctva. Základné bezpečnostné požiadavky na ochranu zdravia pracovníkov a obyvateľov pred ionizujúcim žiarením sú ustanovené v nariadeniach vlád príslušných krajín prostredníctvom doporučení o radiačnej ochrane.

1.1 Historické aspekty radiačnej ochrany

Na sklonku 19. str. boli urobené dva významné objavy, ktoré znamenali začiatok intenzívneho výskumu a využitia ionizujúceho žiarenia. V roku 1895 nemecký fyzik Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen oznámil objav X-lúčov, ktoré boli neskôr nazvané röntgenovými lúčmi. O rok neskôr došlo k druhému veľkému objavu. V roku 1896 francúzsky fyzik Antoine Henri Becquerel objavil pri výskume luminescencie solí uránu prirodzenú rádioaktivitu. Prvé zásady radiačnej ochrany boli sformulované už rok po objavení röntgenových lúčov (1895) americkým inžinierierom Wolframom Fuchsom a obsahovali tieto dôležité fakty: čas ožiarenia skrátiť na minimum, dodržiavať odstup od röntgenky aspoň 30 cm a natrieť si pokožku vazelínou (Hinca 2014). V podstate Fuchs sformuloval tri hlavné zásady ochrany pred vonkajším ožiarením, ktoré sú uplatňované aj v súčasnosti: čas, vzdialenosť a tienenie. Ukázalo sa, že najmä Röntgenov objav má veľký význam pre ľudstvo, pretože ho úspešne možno aplikovať v medicíne pre diagnostické a terapeutické účely (Heřman a kol 2014). X - lúče sa veľmi rýchlo začali v lekárskej praxi využívať. Tak napríklad v januári roku 1896 úspešne použil röntgenoé lúče Emil Grubbé na liečenie pokročilého karcinómu prsníka (Hinca 2014). Vo februári toho istého roku Frost uskutočnil prvé diagnostikovanie pomocou röntgenových lúčov. Kells a Rolins použili röntgenové lúče po prvýkrát v stomatológii. Tento veľkolepý objav umožnil rozvoj medicínskeho odboru rádiodiagnostika (Miženková, Sušinková 2017).

Po týchto prvých povzbudzujúcich správach o využívaní X-lúčov v medicínskej praxi sa však čoskoro začali objavovať aj menej optimistické oznámenia o ochoreniach, ktoré novo objavené lúče spôsobovali. Medzi prvými postihnutými boli predovšetkým experimentátori, ktorí nový objav propagovali a verejne demonštrovali (vo väčšine prípadov na sebe). Ochorenia boli zapríčinené nevedomosťou a nedostatočnými znalosťami o účinkoch žiarenia na biologický objekt. Už v roku 1896 Edison uverejnil správu o poškodení zraku röntgenovým žiarením a tiež Tesla varoval experimentátorov pred blízkym kontaktom s röntgenovými trubicami. Nielen röntgenové žiarenie vyvolávalo obavy z poškodenia ľudského organizmu. V roku 1896 Schmidt objavil rádioaktivitu thória. V roku 1898 manželia Curieovi objavili prvok polónium, neskôr rádium a navrhli termín „rádioaktivita“, ktorý sa začal bežne používať (Seidl a kol. 2012). V tom istom roku Willard objavil lúče gama. V roku 1902 Rollins dokázal, že röntgenové lúče môžu byť smrteľné pre vyššie formy života, preto bolo potrebné merať množstvo ionizujúceho žiarenia. V roku 1904 Saboro a Moiré zaviedli systém kalorimetrickej dozimetrie a v roku 1905 Franklin navrhol jednotku ionizácie. V roku 1911 bol stanovený a zavedený medzinárodný rádiový etalón a jednotka aktivity Curie (Hinca 2014)

V roku 1915 boli predložené prvé oficiálne návrhy súvisiace s ochranou pred röntgenovými lúčmi a boli odsúhlasené Medzinárodnou röntgenologickou spoločnosťou. Na 1. Medzinárodnom rádiologickom kongrese v roku 1925 bola ustanovená Medzinárodná komisia pre rádiologické jednotky (ICRU), ktorá sa dodnes zaoberá metrológiou a štandardizáciou. Na 2. Medzinárodnom rádiologickom kongrese v roku 1928 bola navrhnutá jednotka ožiarenia röntgen (R), ktorá bola oficiálne prijatá v roku 1931. Súčasne bola ustanovená aj Medzinárodná komisia pre radiačnú ochranu (ICRP), ktorá vydáva doporučenia a navrhuje radiačné limity. V roku 1939 bolo objavené špiepenie uránu (Hahn a Strassman), v roku 1942 bol postavený prvý jadrový reaktor Fermim a uskutočnila sa prvá riadená štiepna reťazová reakcia. Jadrová energia začala slúžiť ľudstvu od roku 1954, keď sa začala využívať na výrobu elektrickej energie (v bývalom ZSSR) a od vtedy radiačná bezpečnosť sa stala atribútom jadrovej bezpečnosti (Hinca 2014). V nasledujúcich rokoch (1977, 1990, 2007 a 2018) až po súčasnosť Medzinárodná komisia pre radiačnú ochranu (ICRP) vydala

doporučenia, kde boli uvedené pravidlá radiačnej ochrany pre pracovníkov a obyvateľstvo, vrátane limitovania dávok, požiadaviek optimalizácie a odôvodniteľnosti.

2. CIEĽ RADIAČNEJ OCHRANY

Cieľom radiačnej ochrany je vylúčiť deterministické účinky a znížiť pravdepodobnosť stochastických účinkov na úroveň prijateľnú pre spoločnosť aj jednotlivca. Obmedzenie stochastických účinkov sa zaisťuje systémom limitovania dávok, aby pravdepdobnosť poškodenia organizmu bola minimálna. V našom príspevku sa pokúsime stručne podať chronológiu vývoja noriem radiačnej ochrany od objavu X- lúčov (RTG žiarenia) až po platné súčasné odporúčania pre radiačnú ochranu. Prehľad vývoja noriem radiačnej ochrany je zobrazený chronologicky časovou osou v tabuľkách 1-5.

História radiačnej ochrany

1895	8. november - objav lúčov X	W.K. Roentgen
1896	3. január - zverejnenie objavu X - lúčov	
	február - Objav rádioaktivity	H. Becquerel
	3. marec - Prvá správa o možnom poškodení očí X lúčmi	T.A. Edison, W.J. Morton
	10. apríl - zaznamenaný prípad epilácie po ožiarení X lúčmi	J. Daniel
	18. apríl - zaznamenané sčervenanie pokožky po ožiarení	L. G. Stevens
	júl - prvé ochranné opatrenie - ťažká sklenená platňa na ochranu očí počas rádiografie	W.H. Rollins
	Správa o poškodení zdravia (popáleniny pokožky)	H.D. Hawks
	18. november - Sčervenanie pokožky vyvolané ožiarením	E. Thomson
	Pozlátený elektroskop bol použitý na meranie žiarenia	L. Benoist
	použitie X-lúčov v lekárskej diagnostike, stomatológii a terapii (prsníka)	Frost, Kells, Rollins ...

Tab. 1: Vývoj noriem radiačnej ochrany (1895-1896)
(Zdroj: Hinca 2014)

História radiačnej ochrany

1898	Január - Na ochranu pred žiarením použitý hliníkový filter	E. Thomson
	Júl - Olovené kryty a kolimátory použité pre RTG trubice	W.H. Rollins
	Júl - Prvýkrát použitý termín rádioaktivita	P. & M. Curie
	December - Objavené Rádium	P. & M. Curie
	Objavenie gama žiarenia	P. Villard
1899	Apríl - Návrh na licencovanie rádiografických činností	J. Dennis
	Zverejnenie ochranných pomôcok v RTG. katalógu (rukavice, zástery...)	R. Friedlander Co.
1900	Odporúčanie zvýšiť vzdialenosť na zníženie ožiarenia kože	M.K. Kassabian
1901	3. január - vyslovený predpoklad o smrteľnosti vysokých dávok žiarenia	
	Erytém kože v dôsledku terapie rádiom	H. Becquerel

Tab. 2: Vývoj noriem radiačnej ochrany (1898-1901)
(Zdroj: Hinca 2014)

História radiačnej ochrany

1902	Experimentálne preukázanie smrteľnosti žiarenia na vyššie formy života	W.H. Rollins
1903	Prvé zariadenie na priame pozorovanie žiarenia; spinthariscope	W. Crookes
1904	Október - Smrť priekopníka RTG. techniky v dôsledku vysokého kumulatívneho ožiarenia	C.M. Dally
1905	Navrhnutá jednotka merania ožiarenia odvodená od ionizácie prostredia	M. Franklin
1906	Zvrejnený zákon rádiosenzivity orgánov	J. Bergonie & R. Tribondeau
1907	Preukázané mutácie na ropuchách v dôsledku ožiarenia X lúčmi	C.R. Bardeen
	Fotografická platňa nosená vo vrecku použitá na meranie ožiarenia	R.V. Wagner
	Použitie plynom plnených trubíc na detekciu žiarenia	E. Rutherford
1912	Zavedený medzinárodný rádiový štandard a jednotka Curie	M. Curie
1913	Vylepšená RTG trubica žhavená katóda a wolfrámový terčík dovoľujú zvýšiť použité napätie	W.D. Coolidge
1915	Britská Rentgenologická spoločnosť zverejnila prvé odporúčania pre radiačnú ochranu	

Tab. 3: Vývoj noriem radiačnej ochrany (1902-1915)
(Zdroj: Hinca 2014)

História radiačnej ochrany		
1921	Britská Röntgenologická spoločnosť (British X-ray a Radium protection Commitee) vydáva memorandum - prvá norma pre ochranu pred X-lúčmi	
1922	Použitý foografický film na osobné monitorovanie	G. Pfahler
1925	Navrhnutá dovolená dávka žiarenia Založenie Medzinárodnej komisie pre rádiologické jednotky - International Commission on Radiological Units (ICRU)	A. Mutschller
1927	Genetické aspekty ožiarenia X-lúčmi preukázané	H. J. Muller
1928	Jednotka ožiarenia röntgen (R) bola navrhnutá Založenie Medzinárodnej komisie pre radiačnú ochranu International X-Ray and Radium Protection Committtee (ICRP)	
1929	Prvý prenosný monitor žiarenia	L. S. Taylor
1931	Národný výbor pre radiačnú ochranu (NCRP) v USA schválil jednotku expozície röntgen (R)	
1932	Objav neutrónu	E. Chadwick

Tab. 4: Vývoj noriem radiačnej ochrany (1921-1932)
(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

História radiačnej ochrany	
1934	NCRP navrhol stanoviť hornú prahovú hranicu externého ožiarenia na 0,2 R/deň
1949	Pravidlá radiačnej ochrany boli rozpracované pre obyvateľstvo Prijatý pojem relatívna biologická účinnosť jednotlivých druhov žiarenia a zavedená ekvivalentná dávka rem (rem=10^{-2} Sv).
1954	Prijatá koncepcia ALAPA (as low as practically achievable-tak nízka dávka ako je to prakticky dosiahnuteľné) a neskôr koncepcia ALARA (as low as reasonably achievable – maximálny prínos pri minimálnom riziku)
1977	Doporučenia ICRP 26/1977 Zavedené pravidlá radiačnej ochrany-limitovanie dávok, požiadavka optimalizácie a odôvodniteľnosti, zavedený efektívny dávkový ekvivalent
1990	Doporučenia ICRP 60/1990 Sprísnili sa limity a prístupy k hodnoteniu ožiarenia
2007	Doporučenia ICRP 103/2007 Upresnili sa hodnoty radiačných a tkanivových váhových faktorov na určovanie ekvivalentnej a

	efektívnej dávky
2018	Doporučenia ICRP 87/2018-zachovávajú hlavné principy radiačnej ochrany: odôvodniteľnosť, optimalizáciu a limitovanie ožiarenia

Tab. 5: Vývoj noriem radiačnej ochrany (1934-2018)
(Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie)

3. ZÁVER

Modernú spoločnosť si už nevieme predstaviť bez širokého využitia zdrojov ionizujúceho žiarenia. Ich použitie je rozmanité a môžeme ich nájsť v priemyselnej výrobe (defektoskopy, ožarovače, meradlá, hlásiče, stopové techniky), medicíne (diagnostika a terapia), v jadrovej energetike a v iných oblastiach (veda a výskum, bezpečnostné kontroly poštových zásielok a batožiny pri preprave a pod.). Na druhej strane je potrebné mať poznatky aj o škodlivých účinkoch ionizujúceho žiarenia na organizmus, hlavne v oblasti medicíny, kde každá vyšetrovacia metóda spojená s ionizujúcim žiarením mala by mať zdravotný profit pre pacienta jednoznačne prevažujúci nad rizikami spojenými s príslušnou modalitou. Z týchto dôvodov pri uplatňovaní princípov radiačnej ochrany treba klásť hlavný dôraz na optimalizáciu, odôvodniteľnosť a limitovanie ožiarenia.

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OBČANSKÁ PARTICIPACE V PROCESU EIA

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN THE EIA PROCESS

Ivana Uhlíková

Abstrakt

Rozsáhlá literární rešerše, která se zabývá problematikou zapojování veřejnosti do procesů, které se týkají posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí. Součástí je identifikace motivů, které vedou veřejnost, aby se aktivně zapojovala do těchto rozhodovacích procesů. Je zde popsán právní rámce a příklady z praxe z celého světa, jak byla veřejnost do procesů zapojena.

Klíčová slova: *SEA, občanská angažovanost, Aarhuská úmluva*

Abstract

Extensive literary research dealing with issues of public involvement in environmental impact assessment processes. It includes identifying motives that lead the public to actively engage in these decision-making processes. It describes the legal framework and practice examples from around the world, how the public was involved in the processes.

Key words: *SEA, civic engagement, Aarhus Convention*

1. ÚVOD

Nové stavby a technologie ovlivňují a mění nejen životní prostředí, ale i jednotlivé životy občanů v podobě - jejich zdraví, vztahů, hodnot, majetku, tradic atd. Nezodpovězenou otázkou stále zůstává, jaké jsou skutečné motivy, které vedou veřejnost k tomu, aby se aktivně zapojovala do procesů, které se týkají posuzování vlivů na životního prostředí?

V této souvislosti se nabízí další řada otázek. Zaprvé je třeba zkoumat, má - li veřejnost mít možnost ovlivnit proces posuzování vlivu na životní prostředí? Existuje dostatečný právní rámec, aby se veřejnost mohla zapojit? Je tento právní rámec státem garantován? Je možné se v případě jeho porušení účinně bránit u soudu? Co je potřeba v této problematice zlepšit?

Můžeme zapojení veřejnosti do procesů v oblasti životního prostředí vnímat jako kontrolní systém? Jak lze participační procesy lépe nastavit, aby se i díky nim zvýšila ochrana životního prostředí a demokratických principů? Neméně důležitá je i otázka, zda - li jsou strategie a politiky srozumitelné i pro občana, který není odborníkem na dané téma?

K tomu, aby tyto otázky mohly být uspokojivě zodpovězeny, je nutné vypracovat rozsáhlou rešerši literatury, která se zabývá problematikou zapojování veřejnosti do procesů, které se týkají posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí.

2. CÍLE

Identifikace motivů, které vedou veřejnost, aby se aktivně zapojovala do rozhodovacích procesů v oblasti životního prostředí. Popsání právního rámce a způsobů zapojení veřejnosti.

3. METODIKA

Studium teorie a kritický rozbor dostupné relevantní literatury. Díky historickým analýzám případových studií EIA a SEA, lze popsat způsoby, jakými nevládní organizace a občané používají rozhodovací procesy v oblasti životního prostředí, jako páku pro zkvalitnění výstupů (Shate, 2008).

4. ROZBOR PROBLEMATIKY

4.1 Proč posuzovat vlivy na životní prostředí?

Posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí je nástroj, díky kterému lze zajistit, aby byly tlaky, které jsou způsobované antropogenní činností, udržovány na přijatelných úrovních. K dispozici je mnoho přístupů k environmentálnímu posouzení, které poskytují přehled o udržitelném řízení, které mohou být použity pro různé účely a různé úrovně detailů.

Procesy posuzování můžeme rozdělit na: posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí (EIA), strategické posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí (SEA) a hodnocení dopadů na zdraví (HIA). V rámci všech těchto procesů jsou definovány základní prvky a proměnné, které mohou být používány konzistentně v různých úrovních rozhodování a v různých metodických implementacích. Tento systém pak umožňuje, aby environmentální posuzování začalo na vysoce strategické úrovni, což mělo za následek včasné zvyšování povědomí o životním prostředí a následně informovanější, efektivnější a cílenější hodnocení na úrovni projektů, což má jasný přínos jak pro veřejnost, tak pro vládu (Tamis et al., 2015).

4.2 Právní rámec

Účast veřejnosti při rozhodovacích procesech posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí EIA a SEA je proces, při kterém jsou veřejné potřeby, zájmy a hodnoty začleněny do vládního a korporátního rozhodování (Creighton, 2005).

Ačkoli existují různé definice účasti veřejnosti, všechny obsahují ve shrnutí tři odlišné, ale navzájem propojené kategorie veřejných práv: 1) právo "přístupu k informacím", 2) právo "účastnit se rozhodování" a 3) právo "přístupu ke spravedlnosti" (Pring et al., 2003). Účast veřejnosti na posouzení vlivů na životní prostředí lze definovat jako proces, kterým navrhovaný vývoj a plány podléhají veřejnému přezkumu a připomínkám s cílem zlepšit sociální, ekonomickou a environmentální oblast (Creighton, 2005).

4.2.1 Přehled mezinárodní legislativy

Jedním ze silných environmentálních nástrojů pro posilování environmentální demokracie je uzavření mezinárodní smlouvy, kterou je Aarhurská úmluva (Humlíčková, 2008). Limitující je ale podle Kiss et al. (2006) byrokratický přístup státních orgánů a nedostatek participace státu, což jsou faktory, které snižují možnosti celkového potenciálu využití Aarhuské úmluvy (Kiss et al., 2006). Pro plnění Aarhuské úmluvy je nezbytné stanovit požadavky kladené na příslušné orgány. Jedná se zejména o účinné a včasné informování veřejnosti, stanovení dostatečného časového rámce pro účast veřejnosti (bez opomenutí účasti v raných fázích rozhodovcího procesu) a právo veřejnosti získat relevantní informace zdarma. Příslušný orgán by měl mít povinnost náležitě prozkoumat a vzít v úvahu při rozhodování výsledek, který vzešel z účasti veřejnosti (The United Nations Economic Commision for Europe, 2017).

Z hlediska evropského práva, směrnice o posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí (2011/92/EU) vytvořila referenční rámec pro zavedení systému posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí (EIA) do právních systémů členských států Evropské unie. Směrnice byla základem zavedení povinných etap procesu EIA a vše bylo poté přizpůsobeno vnitrostátním požadavkům, včetně prahových hodnot kritérií pro kvalifikaci projektů v etapách screeningu a stanovení rozsahu. Systém EIA se v jednotlivých zemích mění v závislosti na změnách politických a ekonomických. Ač by všechny země EU měly harmonizovat ustanovení směrnice o EIA a její změny, tak stále existují zvláštnosti v jednotlivých národních právních předpisech. Jde o rozdíly k přístupu k informačním zdrojům, zmírňování sociálně – environmentálních dopadů nebo přeshraniční posouzení dopadů (Galaś et al., 2015).

4.2.2 Přehled legislativy EIA v České republice

V České republice se proces EIA skládá z šesti fází: oznámení záměru, zjišťovací řízení,

dokumentace EIA, posudek, veřejné projednání a stanovisko. Oznamovatel je povinen o svém záměru informovat příslušný úřad. Když je oznámení v pořádku, je příslušný úřad povinen zveřejnit toto oznámení o záměru, a to do 7 pracovních dnů na úřední desku a internet či jiným obvyklým způsobem (místní tisk, rozhlas) ode dne jeho obdržení. Každý občan má právo zaslat své písemné vyjádření k oznámení ve lhůtě do 20 dnů od zveřejnění informace o oznámení (§ 6 zákona č. 100/2001 Sb.). Výsledkem zjišťovacího řízení je závěr, který musí být zveřejněn stejnými způsoby jako oznámení. Závěr musí obsahovat vypořádání všech došlých připomínek od veřejnosti i dotčených úřadů (§ 7 zákona č. 100/2001 Sb.). Po zveřejnění dokumentu běží 30 denní lhůta, ve které se každý může písemně vyjádřit k dokumentaci (§ 8 zákona č. 100/2001 Sb.). Na základě dokumentace a všech vyjádření k ní je zpracováván posudek. Opět má každý právo po dobu 30 dnů se k posudku písemně vyjádřit. Vyjádřit se k posudku lze také na veřejném projednání, které se koná pouze v případě, pokud úřad obdržel nesouhlasné vyjádření k dokumentaci či posudku (§ 9 zákona č. 100/2001 Sb.). V poslední fázi posuzování je vydáno stanovisko, které musí být do 7 pracovních dnů zveřejněno na internetu, úřední desce, v místním tisku či rozhlase (§ 10 zákona č. 100/2001 Sb.) Navazujících řízení, se již nemůže účastnit každý občan jednotlivě, ale za veřejnost pouze obecně prospěšné společnosti a občanská sdružení, jejichž činností je ochrana životního prostředí, veřejného zdraví nebo kulturní památky a také obce dotčené záměrem. Navazujících řízení se mohou účastnit, avšak pokud splnily následující podmínky:

1) podaly písemné vyjádření k oznámení, dokumentaci nebo posudku ve lhůtách stanovených zákonem,
2) příslušný úřad ve svém stanovisku alespoň zčásti zahrnul vyjádření do svého stanoviska,
3) správní úřad rozhodující v navazujícím řízení nerozhodl, že veřejné zájmy, které jsou hájeny výše zmíněnými subjekty, nejsou v navazujícím řízení (Vedralová, 2012).

4.3 Role veřejnosti v rozhodovacích procesech EIA a SEA

Přestože jsou povinné i dobrovolné činnosti z oblasti životního prostředí řízeny vládami nebo vybranými agenturami, tak úspěšné environmentální aktivity se neobejdou bez účasti občanů (Shu – Chiang, et al., 2017).

Účast veřejnosti je v podstatě procesem, kterým jsou veřejné zájmy, potřeby a hodnoty zapojeny do rozhodovacích procesů (Creighton, 2005). Proto by efektivní proces měl zahrnovat občany při rozhodování o záležitostech, které ovlivňují environmentální, sociální a ekonomickou sféru. Také se tvrdí, že se legitimita těchto procesů posílí a kvalita plánování se zlepší, právě prostřednictvím participačního rozhodování (Carver, 2003).

Veřejnost má právo být informována a být aktivně zapojena smysluplným způsobem již ve fázi návrhů, které mohou mít vliv na jejich životy a živobytí a co je ještě důležitější, tak je zapojení jednotlivce a skupin, které jsou pozitivně nebo negativně ovlivněny navrhovaným krokem (Enserink & Koppenjan, 2007).

Zapojení veřejnosti již v začátku plánování projektu zvyšuje pravděpodobnost, že výsledné rozhodnutí bude přijato a že budou minimalizovány nebo alespoň zmírněny případné environmentální dopady. Mezi výhody zapojení veřejnosti patří legitimita rozhodování, posílení demokracie a vyšší šance na dosažení konsenzu tím, že se zvýší různé pohledy od vícero subjektů. Nedílnou součástí je také dobrá transparentnost celého procesu (Higgs et al., 2008).

Účast veřejnosti v rozhodovacích procesech je ukázkou demokracie (Pring et al., 2003). Aby bylo možné kvalitně komunikovat s veřejností a aktivně ji do rozhodování zapojovat, tak je třeba znát odpovědi na mnoho výzkumných otázek. Díky historickým analýzám případových studií EIA a SEA lze popsat způsoby, jakými nevládní organizace a občané používají rozhodovací procesy v oblasti životního prostředí, jako páku pro

zkvalitnění výstupů (Shate, 2012).
Také informační technologie (IT) a geografické informační systémy (GIS) patří k technologiím, které pomáhají zapojit veřejnost do hodnocení životního prostředí a pomáhají v historických analýzách (Connor, 1999).
Metodiky pro zapojování veřejnosti do rozhodovacích procesů vychází z předpokladu, že zúčastněné strany v těchto procesech mají demokratické právo formovat životní prostředí, finanční, sociální a přírodní zdroje. A to vše prostřednictvím přístupu k informacím, zapojením do politických procesů a rozhodovacích procesů. V této souvislosti by měla mít široká veřejnost možnost podílet se na rozhodování (Arnstein, 1969).
Při zapojení veřejnosti je potřeba nových přístupů, které zdůrazňují obousměrnou interakci mezi tvůrci rozhodnutí a veřejností, jakož i diskusi mezi všemi účastníky. Stále komplexnější procesy rozhodování vyžadují informovanější občany, kteří se zamýšlejí nad poskytnutými fakty, zapojují se do diskuse, zvažují varianty a dospějí ke vzájemné shodě nebo alespoň kompromisu, který mohou dodržovat všechny strany (Abelson et al., 2003).

4.4 Zapojení veřejnosti (bariéry vs motivy)

Mezinárodní průzkum (Gonzáles et al., 2008) ukázal, že účast veřejnosti je běžnou praxí v evropských a některých dalších zemích po celém světě. Existuje však řada problémů, které ovlivňují zapojení veřejnosti do procesů EIA / SEA a odborné stanovisko se liší s ohledem na zvolené participační metody.
Veřejnost je často rozdělena do zájmových skupin, geografických společenství a jednotlivců. V důsledku toho by účastnické procesy měly vyhovovat jednotlivým občanům nebo zástupcům skupin lidí, kteří sdílí společný názor (Abelson et al., 2001). Zatím je málo diskutováno, jak souvisí účast veřejnosti v procesech EIA / SEA a účast na tvorbě politiky obecně. Praxe nicméně naznačuje, že ochota občanů se aktivně zapojovat všeobecně chybí, pravděpodobně v důsledku nedostatečných participativních metod, nedostatečného zájmu, času, zdrojů nebo nedůvěry v rozhodovací systémy. Navíc participativní metody často nedokáží kombinovat různé přístupy a zacílit na zájmové skupiny. Namísto toho se veřejné slyšení a workshopy, které poskytují vyšší míru obousměrné komunikace, (Abelson et al., 2001) obecně adresují všem zainteresovaným stranám najednou. Taková setkání bývají nerovnoměrně ovládnuta menšinou lokálních reprezentantů (Carver, 2003, Rugg, 2003), jejichž názory nemusí nutně představovat širší názor místních lidí.
Aby se tomu zabránilo, tak je nutné pochopit důvody konfliktu. Každý z účastníků má svou vlastní povahu, kulturu, hodnoty, přesvědčení, původ, které ovlivňují jeho činnost a motivace. Je nezbytné, aby došlo k pečlivé analýze potřeb všech zúčastněných stran (Randeree &.Faramawy, 2011).
Jednotlivci i skupiny mají tendenci se angažovat pouze tehdy, když je problém přímo ovlivňuje (efekty NIMBY nebo LULU). Proto jsou efekty prostoru, místa, lokality a blízkosti identifikovány jako klíčové faktory pro určení veřejného zájmu u jednotlivých záměrů (Carver, 2003). Dalším potenciálním faktorem, který může přispět ke zvýšení zájmu veřejnosti, bývá podpora médií a interpretace konkrétních otázek. V důsledku toho mají výsledky konzultací s veřejností tendenci odrážet nesouhlasné názory dotčených jednotlivců a skupin. Přestože reprezentativnost a platnost výsledků lze zpochybňovat jak přímou, tak zprostředkovanou účastí (tj. prostřednictvím zástupců) (Allen, 1998), tak aktivní zapojení a začlenění veřejných zájmů stále představuje krok směrem k demokratickému rozhodování, zejména v životním prostředí.
Ve studii Kamio & Huang (2011) došlo k analýzám veřejných konzultací pomocí kvantitativní textové analýzy (QTA), kde se ze zápisů z jednání ukázal pozitivní vztah mezi diskusí o alternativách a smyslem zapojení veřejnosti.
Účast veřejnosti může být považována za samotný cíl. Otázkou je reprezentativnost

zúčastněných stran, transparentnost procesů a dostupnost informací (Buchy & Hoverman, 2000). Dostupnost dobrých zdrojů je zásadní pro kvalitní analýzu (Sovacool, 2014).
Zapojení stakeholders do procesu EIA, zejména zástupců místních dotčených komunit s použitím Q – metodologie (kvalitativní i kvantitativní analýzy) napomáhá, aby se dali zhodnotit klíčové perspektivy a politiky. Z výsledku studie Cotton & Mahroos – Alsaiari (2015) je patrné, že je potřeba vyšší transparentnosti a rozhodovacích pravomocí přímo pro občany (Cotton & Mahroos – Alsaiari, 2015).
Dle Mezinárodní asociace pro občanskou participaci (IAPP, 2008) patří v USA mezi všeobecné hlavní bariéry zapojení veřejnosti do rozhodovacích procesů to, že se veřejnost sama vnímá jako laická, bez možnosti přispět s ohledem na nedostatečné znalosti a to zejména po technické stránce. Také nejsou uvolněny dostatečné finanční prostředky pro účast veřejnosti a není dobře zavedena platforma pro poskytování informací.
Občané by měli být vzděláváni o možnostech, jak se zapojovat do rozhodovacích procesů v oblasti životního prostředí a investoři s nimi musí vést dialog (Shu – Chiang, et al., 2017).
Soubor procesních bariér negativně určuje účinnost posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí. Nedávný výzkum Soria – Lara et al. (2015) se zabýval důvody neúspěšného zapojení zúčastněných stran a neúčinnou účastí veřejnosti v prvních krocích EIA. Přestože akademická literatura vytvořila slibné teorie pro řešení těchto překážek, tak jsou jen zřídkakdy použity a testovány v praxi (Soria – Lara et al., 2015).
Je důležité vědět, jaké informační mezery vnímají v procesu EIA a SEA samotní účastníci. Problémy týkající se poskytování informací můžou hrát významnou roli v množství vznikajících konfliktů, které se týkají životního prostředí (ByongRo & Johyeongu, 2013).
Výsledky studie (Gonzáles et al., 2008) naznačují, že při zapojení informačních technologií se mohou zlepšit tradiční účastnické procesy. Zejména GIS má potenciál zvýšit zapojení veřejnosti prostřednictvím účinnějšího zprostředkování informací. Avšak přístup k těmto technologiím a kvalita dat zůstávají problémem. Kombinace technologií s více konvenčními způsoby shromažďování, vyhodnocování a prezentování dat je považována za řešení (Gonzáles et al., 2008).
Dangi et al. (2015) se zabýval procesem EIA u nově vznikajících skládek v Nepálu. Ve studii byl použit průzkum za použití pozorování a interview. Studie zjistila, že EIA je často připravována nekompetentními zpracovateli a zprávy nejsou kvalitní, příliš technické, většinou zveřejňované v angličtině, přeplněné irelevantními materiály, příliš dlouhé a často obsahují zkopírované informace z jiných dokumentů. Výsledky průzkumu ukázaly, že 91% respondentů bylo nespokojeno s poskytováním informací a pouze 14% bylo spokojeno se zapojením účastí veřejnosti.
Studie Henningsson et al. (2015) zkoumala kromě ekologických aspektů také kulturní a společenské hodnoty, jak je vnímají místní obyvatelé při záměru vybudovat novou dálnici ve Švédsku. Výsledky ukázaly, že lidé předpokládají negativní vliv na ekologické hodnoty v krajině, zatímco u společenských hodnot neočekávají změnu. Vlastníci pozemků slyšeli o participačním procesu, ale jen málokdo se účastnil. Ti, kteří žili do 300 metrů od plánované dálnice byli více aktivní v procesu plánování, než lidé, kteří žili dál.

4.5 Jaký je vliv veřejnosti v rozhodovacích procesech EIA a SEA?

Výhody zapojení veřejnosti do rozhodovacích procesů EIA a SEA jsou zřejmé. Vstupy občanů jsou uznávány jako důležitý zdroj odborných znalostí (Liebow, 1993) a zapojení veřejnosti poskytuje způsob výměny informací o místních podmínkách a hodnotách. Jedná se o obousměrnou komunikaci a interakci s celkovým cílem udržitelnějších rozhodnutí, která jsou podporována veřejností (Connor, 1999). Avšak skutečná míra schopnosti veřejnosti ovlivnit výsledky procesů je stále značně diskutabilní.

Míru zapojení veřejnosti zkoumá např. Nadeem (2011). Snaží se stanovit rámec k vyhodnocení výkonnosti účasti veřejnosti v procesu EIA. Jde o studii na čtyřech vybraných projektech a posuzování 40 atributů. Se zúčastněnými stranami proběhly rozhovory. Vyhodnocení vybraných projektů odhalilo celkově slabý vliv účasti veřejnosti na kvalitu EIA dokumentace a na konečné stanovisko (Nadeem, 2011).

Dle Martina (2007) si občané na celém světě často opakovaně stěžují, že účast veřejnosti při procesu EIA slouží jako zástěrka s cílem bránit předem určené cíle. Místo toho, aby šlo o smysluplnou příležitost, aby dotčená veřejnost mohla ovlivnit rozhodování. Tyto názory přetrvávají navzdory tomu, že existuje mnoho výzkumů, jak zlepšit kvalitu zapojení veřejnosti. Je zde konkrétní analýza jednoho záměru, ze které vychází, že jako překážka pro zapojení veřejnosti byly použito několik metod např. neposkytnutí dostatečných informací, definiční hegemonie v otázkách atd. Tato studie uvádí, že tyto praktiky přetrvávají, protože slouží jako akty síly, které dávají moc dominantním aktérům (Martin, 2007). Dalším problémem v procesu SEA a účasti veřejnosti je otázka načasování. Jak uvádí Matějková (2009) je zveřejnění koncepce včetně dokumentace SEA a veřejného projednání zařazeno až do závěru celého procesu. Veřejností vznesené námitky už ale v těchto fázích nelze do dokumentu zapracovat a zapojení veřejnosti do procesu je tak zcela formální záležitostí.

Účinnost participativních procesů byla široce diskutována v literatuře (Abelson et al., 2001; Connor, 1999; Speller & Ravenscroft, 2005). Přínosy účasti veřejnosti jsou často považovány za samozřejmé. Z tohoto důvodu je někdy špatně formulována potřeba větší účasti veřejnosti (Speller & Ravenscroft, 2005).

I přes zřejmé výhody zapojení veřejnosti, může být průběh procesu neuspokojivý (Moore & Warren, 2006). Přínos občanské angažovanosti bývá i zpochybňován, neboť nelze vždy zaručit, že se podaří nalézt vzájemně přijatelné řešení mezi stranami, které mají protichůdné zájmy (Olander, 2007).

Proces EIA má zahrnuté postupy, aby se veřejnost mohla zapojit. Přesto z mnoha zemí existují důkazy, že tyto ambice často selhávají. Bylo zatím provedeno málo výzkumů z pohledu veřejnosti nebo z pohledu deliberativní demokracie (ta vytváří vysoké nároky na účast a argumentaci) (Soneryd, 2004).

Například v Bulharsku je veřejné slyšení nejběžnějším oficiálním zapojením občanů do procesu EIA. Jde o jednu z možností, jak posílit demokracii v zemi. Slyšení jsou však kritizována, jako nesmysluplná (Almer & Koontz, 2004).

V Thajsku obvykle investoři neřeší obavy místních obyvatel ze zamýšlených projektů, na které je potřebná EIA. Lidé často jako jediné řešení vidí demonstrace. Jako příklad lze uvést studii zapojení veřejnosti při stavbě plynovodu, která proti němu protestovala a nebyla spokojena s procesem EIA. Jsou zde uvedeny návrhy, jak v budoucnosti zlepšit zapojení veřejnosti při jiných projektech (Ogunlata, 2001).

Pro oblast USA lze identifikovat několik studií zabývajícími se schopností veřejnosti ovlivnit procesy EIA. Např, Hourdequin et al., (2012) ve svém článku podotýka, že tradiční mechanizmy pro účast veřejnosti při posuzování vlivů na životní prostředí v rámci USA se ukazují jako neefektivní. Dle studie je zřejmé, že vylepšení EIA participačních procesů nezaručuje lepší environmentální výsledky. Naopak, rozvinutí etických principů (rovné příležitosti v účasti, rovný přístup k informacím, odpovědné jednání a společenský závazek) může vést ke zvýšení zapojení veřejnosti a její spokojenosti s rozhodnutími státní správy.

Stookes (2003) se ve své studii zabývá participací veřejnosti na procesech EIA ve Velké Británii. Řešeno je začlenění EIA do britského územního systému. Je zde jako hodnocení uvedeno, že téměř po dvou desetiletí existence právních předpisů pro EIA, zůstává efektivní účast veřejnosti na důležitých rozhodnutí jen iluzorní. Smysluplná účast veřejnosti v EIA zůstává nejasná (Stookes, 2003).

Zvýšená schopnost šíření informací může poskytnout příležitosti ke zlepšení komunikace směrem k vyšší efektivitě. Neexistují žádné jednoduché odpovědi a v konečném důsledku budou muset být hledány integrované řešení. Trendy pro praxi EIA můžeme rozdělit do čtyře oblastí: 1) složitosti a nejistoty, 2) účinnosti, 3) významnosti a 4) komunikace a participace (Retiefa et al., 2016).

5. ZÁVĚR

V práci bylo identifikováno, co způsobuje bariéry, které veřejnosti brání se více zapojovat do rozhodovacích procesů v oblasti životního prostředí. Mezi tyto bariéry lze zařadit například to, že informace nejsou veřejnosti podávány včas a v dostatečné formě (Buchy & Hoverman, 2000, Sovacool, 2014, ByongRo & Johyeongu, 2013, Dangi et al., 2015, Martin, 2007, Matějková 2009). Dále lze mezi bariéry zařadit i to, že neexistuje variantnost návrhů, tedy veřejnost nemá možnost vybrat nejlepší možnost z několika navržených (Abelson et al., 2003). V neposlední řadě lze za bariéry zapojení veřejnosti do procesů EIA a SEA považovat absenci komunikace s dotčenou veřejností, která není správně určena (Abelson et al., 2001, Carver, 2003, Rugg, 2003, Randeree &.Faramawy, 2011, Carver, 2003, Allen, 1998).

V několika uvedených studiích byly identifikovány motivy, které vedou veřejnost, aby se aktivně zapojovala. V jedné ze studii naráží autor na problém, protože z praxe vyplývá, že ochota občanů se aktivně zapojovat, všeobecně chybí (Carver, 2003). Obecně lze říci, že motivace veřejnosti na účasti procesů EIA záleží na mnoha atributech jako jsou kultura, vlastní povaha, hodnoty, přesvědčení či původ (Carver, 2003, Abelson et al., 2001, Randeree &.Faramawy, 2011). V rešerši je zjištěno, že hlavní motivací je to, když se problém veřejnosti skutečně dotýká (Carver, 2003).

Jsou zde také popsány možnosti způsobu zapojení veřejnosti, které povedou ke zkvalitnění výstupů z rozhodovacích procesů. Obecně je třeba říci, že základem je vzdělávání společnosti o možnostech zapojení veřejnosti do procesů EIA a SEA (IAPP, 2008, Shu – Chiang, et al., 2017). Současně lze doporučit inkoroporaci moderních IT technologií, tak aby byly zlepšeno zapojení veřejnosti do procesů EIA (Gonzáles et al., 2008, Wood, 2005).

V rešerši byl rovněž řešen právní rámec zapojení veřejnosti do procesů EIA. Obecně, pro některé případy lze říci, že právní rámec je nedostatečný, protože neposkytuje občanům příslušné nástroje pro obranu svých zájmů (Soneryd, 2004). Zároveň lze podtrhnout roli Arhuské úmluvy, která zlepšuje právní rámec procesů EIA a SEA (Creighton, 2005, Humlíčková, 2008, Kiss et al., 2006).

Míra vlivu veřejnosti byla v řešerši studována na případech z různých oblastí světa. Byly popsány případy různorodého vlivu veveřejnosti na procesy EIA v USA, EU, Thajsku, či Bulharsku (Soneryd, 2004, Gonzáles et al., 2008, IAPP, 2008, Soria – Lara et al., 2015, Dangi et al., 2015, Henningsson et al., 2015).

Role veřejnosti při účasti lze shrnout do obecné roviny, kdy je role veřejnosti spatřována hlavně jako kontrolní nástroj celého procesu. Úspěšný proces účasti veřejnosti závisí na použitém způsobu zapojení a včasném zapracování participativních postupů do celkového procesu. Některé studie však naznačovaly, že samotná účast veřejnosti neurčuje úspěch; spíše to jsou faktory související s historií problému, kontextem účasti a odborností těch, kteří jsou do procesu zapojeni (Chess & Purcell, 1999, Pring et al., 2003).

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THE COUPLED HEAT AND MOISTURE TRANSPORT IN THE DEFORMED RETAINING WALLS

Lukáš Krupička

Abstract

In this contribution we deal with a mathematical modeling of coupled transport processes in deformable porous media of retaining walls and other constructions. The transport model is based on basic conservation equations and it is completed by the standard balance equations.

Keywords: *mathematical modeling, coupled transport, deformation, porous media, FEM*

1 INTRODUCTION

Hydro thermal processes generally are very important in many fields of interest including civil engineering, agriculture, environmental engineering and soil science. Coupled transport processes with mechanical model allow us to describe problems such as deformation and water infiltration in earth dams, retaining walls or cooling towers in power plants. These models are interesting also from the mathematical point of view as the model is strongly nonlinear. In the last years a considerable effort has been invested into analyses of mathematical problems arising from the coupled transport processes in porous media. Most of these papers deal with numerical analysis of the problem, see [5,11]. Qualitative properties of the equations describing the moisture transport are studied in [3,7].

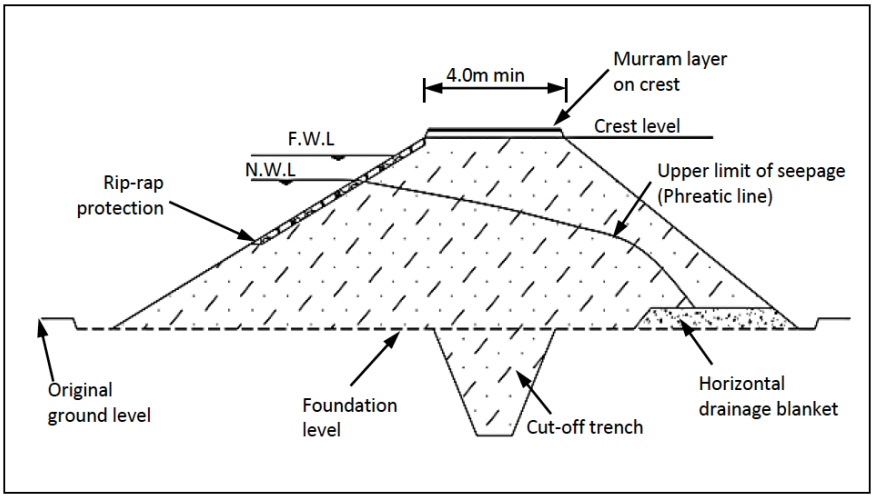


Figure 1: Seepage line through an earth-filled dam

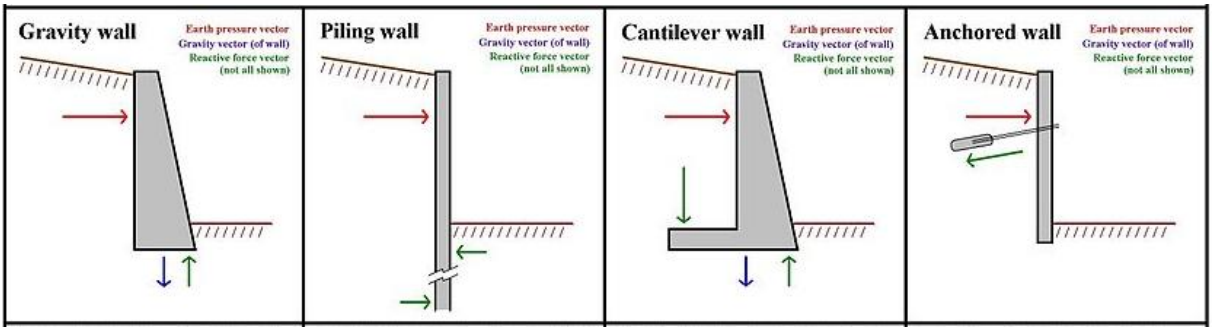


Figure 2: Different types of retaining walls

Several models for coupled heat and water transport phenomena have been introduced (see e.g. [1] [2] [4] [6] [8]). Some models have also been presented and analysed by the author of this contribution including freezing processes. In this contribution we propose a suitable mathematical model describing coupled transport phenomena together with describing deformation of the medium and its influence on transport processes.

The text of the contribution is organized as follows. In the first part we present derivation of the transport coupled model which is based on basic conservation equations. We add some assumptions and constitutive relationships for heat and moisture fluxes. In the next part we describe the elastothermal mechanical model for evaluating the deformation of the porous media. Next we briefly describe the numerical procedure which is being implemented in matlab and we present one simple example in order to illustrate the applicability of the model for engineering issues.

2 TRANSPORT MODEL DERIVATION

The models describing transport processes are based on conservation equations.

3.1 Conservation of mass

The change of the mass content of any phase in an arbitrary volume and the mass flow across its boundary is equal to the sources of mass in the volume. In a differential form we can write

$$\frac{\partial(\Theta\rho)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\Theta\rho\boldsymbol{v}) = f, \tag{1}$$

where Θ [-] is the volume fraction of a phase, in our case moisture (water), ρ [kg m^{-3}] is the phase averaged density, $\boldsymbol{v}$ [ms^{-1}] is the vector of velocity of a phase and f [kg m^{-3} s^{-1}] is the term representing the sources of mass.

3.2 Conservation of energy

The change of the energy content in an arbitrary volume and the heat flow across its boundary is equal to the sources of heat in the volume. In a differential form we can write

$$c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{q} = Q, \tag{2}$$

where c_p [J m^{-3} K^{-1}] is the specific heat, T [K] is temperature, $\boldsymbol{q}$ [J s^{-3}] is the heat flux generally including conduction, convection and radiation and Q [J m^{-3} s^{-1}] is the term representing sources of heat.

3.3 Assumptions

In order to simplify the mathematical model we presume some basic assumptions corresponding to the physical reality:

- the medium consists of liquid water and skeleton;
- there are no sources in the medium;
- heat radiation is neglected;
- we deal with unsaturated porous medium (i.e. zones with negative pressure head [m]. See figure 3 and figure 4). As an example describing the physical meaning of the pressure head we present the water table in the soils.

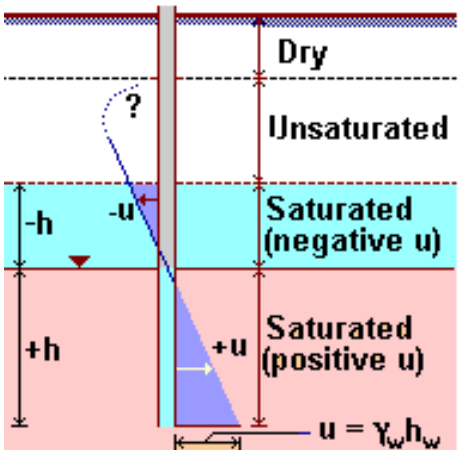


Figure 3: Different saturation zones in porous medium and corresponding pressure head

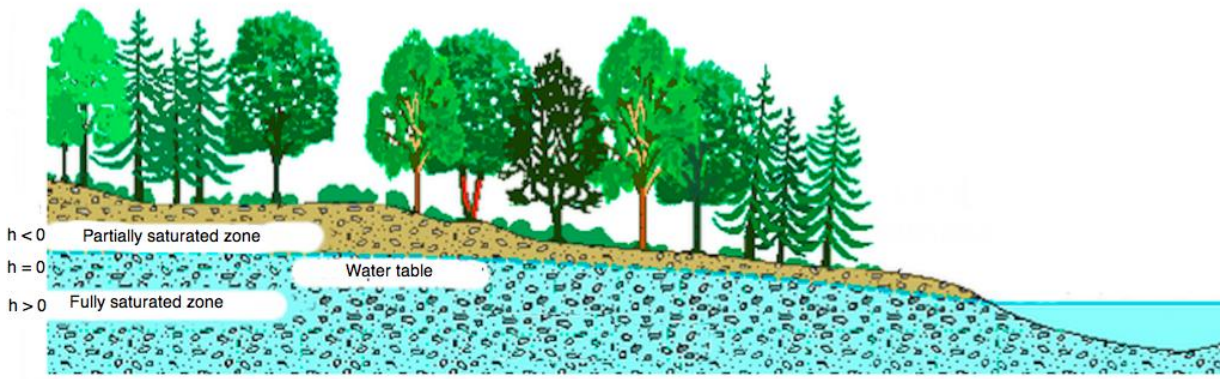


Figure 4: Different saturation zones in porous medium

3.4 Constitutive and thermodynamic relationships for transport model

In this part we introduce the constitutive relationships for the water flow and heat conductive flow and and the relationships for water retention curves by van Genuchten.

Darcy law for moisture flux:

The water flow is described by the modified Darcy law

$$\theta_\ell \boldsymbol{v_\ell} = -K_{Lh}\nabla(h_\ell + z) - K_{LT}\nabla T \tag{3}$$

where K_{Lh} [ms^{-1}] denotes isothermal hydraulic conductivity, h_ℓ [m] is the pressure head, z [m] denotes the vertical coordinate and K_{LT} [ms^{-1}] is the thermal hydraulic conductivity. The contribution of the thermal hydraulic conductivity is neglected here due to its physical irrelevance compared to the isothermal conductivity. (see figures 4 and 5)

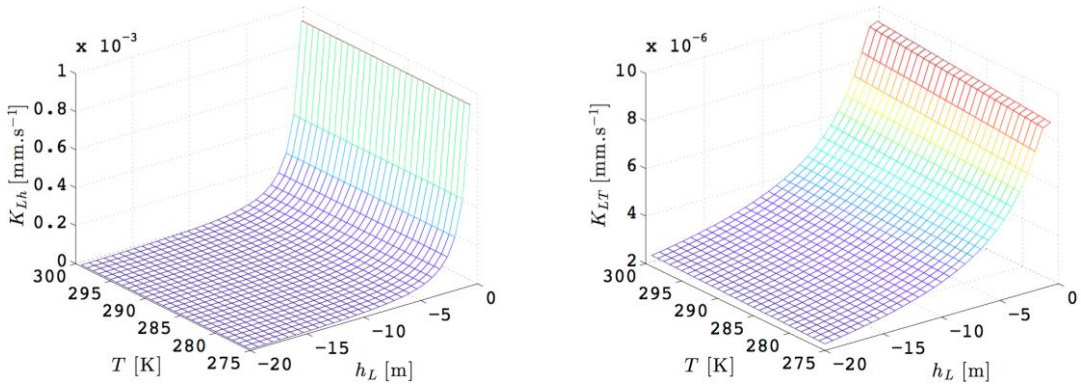


Figure 4: Isothermal and thermal hydraulic conductivity of porous media

The isothermal hydraulic conductivity is given by [9,13]

$$K_{Lh}(h_\ell, T) = K_s K_r(h_\ell) \frac{\nu(25)}{\nu(T)} \tag{4}$$

where K_s [ms^{-1}] is the saturated hydraulic conductivity, K_r [ms^{-1}] is the effective hydraulic conductivity and ν is the cinematic viscosity.

Fourier's law for heat conduction:
The heat conduction is described by the Fourier's law

$$\boldsymbol{q}_{cond} = -\Lambda \nabla T \tag{5}$$

where Λ [W m^{-1} K^{-1}] is the thermal conductivity.

Retention curves:
The relation between the water content and the matric potential of the porous medium is characterized by the standard well known water retention curve

$$\theta_\ell = \Theta(h_\ell). \tag{6}$$

Here we use the relation proposed by van Genuchten [10]

$$\Theta(h) = \Theta_r + (\Theta_s - \Theta_r)[1 + |\chi h|^{n_1}]^{-n_2}, \tag{7}$$

where Θ_s is the saturated water content [-], Θ_r is the residual water content [-], χ [m^{-1}], n_1 [-] and n_2 [-] are parameters.

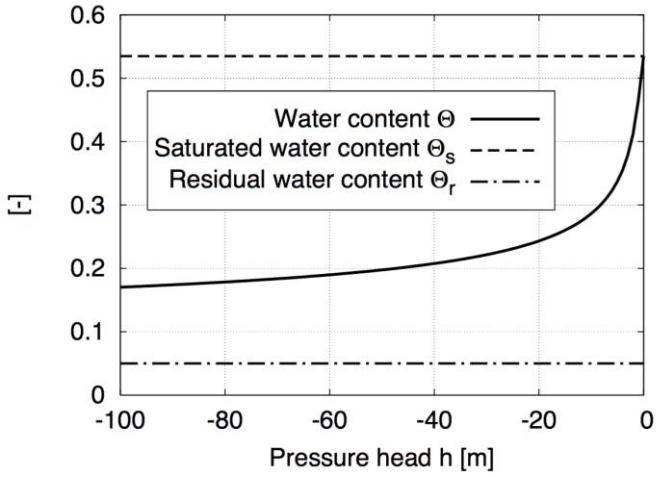


Figure 5: Water retention curve by van Genuchten

3 MECHANICAL MODEL

The mechanical behaviour of the porous media in each time step is described by the elastic model taking into account deformation caused by thermal changes. The basic balance equation reads as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{F}, \tag{8}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ denotes stress tensor and $\boldsymbol{F}$ denotes volume forces. Further we assume standard Hooke´s law of elasticity

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{D}:\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \boldsymbol{D}:(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_m} - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon_t}), \tag{9}$$

Where $\boldsymbol{D}$ denotes elasticity tensor, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_m}$ and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_t}$ is the mechanical deformation and thermal deformation. Using geometry equations and well known Lame´s coefficients we arrive at Lame´s equations

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\lambda + \mu)\,\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{r} + \mu \Delta r_i - ((3\lambda + 2\mu)\alpha \boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathrm{T}) + F_i = 0, \tag{10}$$

where λ and μ are Lame coefficients, α is coefficient of thermal expansion, T_0 is reference temperature and $\boldsymbol{r}$ is displacement vector with components r_x, r_y.

4 COMPLETE MATHEMATICAL MODEL

Let $\vartheta > 0$ be the fixed value and Ω be the domain in $\mathbb{R}^2$, with boundary Γ. Denote $\mathrm{I} = (0; \vartheta)$, $\Omega_\vartheta = \Omega \times I$ and $\Gamma_\vartheta = \Gamma \times I$. The mathematical model consists of the following initial boundary value problem:

$$\frac{\partial \theta(x,u,T)}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (k(x,u,T)\nabla u) \quad \text{in } \Omega_\vartheta \qquad (11)$$

$$c_p(x,u,T)\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (\Lambda(x,u,T)\nabla \mathrm{T}) + c_p^\ell \rho_\ell k(x,u,T)\nabla u \cdot \nabla \mathrm{T} \quad \text{in } \Omega_\vartheta \qquad (12)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathrm{x}_i}(\lambda + \mu)\,\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{r} + \mu \Delta r_i - ((3\lambda + 2\mu)\alpha \boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathrm{T}) = 0 \quad i = 1,2 \quad \text{in } \Omega_\vartheta \qquad (13)$$

$$u = u_D \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{1\vartheta} \qquad (14)$$

$$T = T_D \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{2\vartheta} \qquad (15)$$

$$r_i = 0 \quad i = 1,2 \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{3\vartheta} \qquad (16)$$

$$-(k(z,u,T)\nabla(u + \psi(z,u,T)) \cdot \mathbf{n} = q_\ell \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{4\vartheta} \qquad (17)$$

$$-(\Lambda(z,u,T)\nabla \mathrm{T}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = \alpha_c(T - T_\infty) + q_H \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{5\vartheta} \qquad (47)$$

$$\lambda \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}\, \mathrm{n_i} + 2\,\mu \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_j}\, \mathrm{n_j} = T_i \quad i = 1,2 \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{6\vartheta} \qquad (18)$$

$$u = u_0 \quad \text{in } \Omega \qquad (19)$$

$$\mathrm{T} = \mathrm{T}_0 \quad \text{in } \Omega \qquad (20)$$

Here equations (11)-(12) represent the coupled transport model with unknown pressure head *u* and temperature *T*. Equations (14)-(15) are the Dirichlet boundary conditions for the transport model and equations (17)-(18) are Neumann and Newton boundary conditions on the part of the domain boundary. The equations (19)-(20) represents initial conditions for the transport model. The equation (13) for i=1,2 represents Lame´s equations in two dimensions taking into account thermal deformation, the unknow functions displacements are r_i (e.g. r_x and r_y). Equation (18) describes the mechanical boundary conditions with surface forces *Ti*. And finally equation (16) describes the fixed support.

5 NUMERICAL SOLUTION

We solve the transport problem by means of the FE method with linear approximation. The numerical solution is based on the semi-implicit time discretization which leads to the system of nonlinear equations

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} C_n(X_{n+1} - X_n) + K_n X_{n+1} + R(X_{n+1}) = F_{n+1}, \qquad (49)$$

where $X_{n+1} = (u_{n+1}, T_{n+1})$ is the vector of unknown nodal values of total water content, total pressure head and temperature in time t_{n+1}. This system of equations is solved using Newton method in each time step. The mechanical model is being solved in each time step by means of the FE method with linear approximation as well.

6 ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

In order to illustrate the applicability of the present model, a very simple illustrative example solved using an in-house MATLAB code is presented. We deal with the rectangular retaining wall in two dimensions. The wall is being exposed to an external temperature and moisture and surface forces caused by the soil pressure.

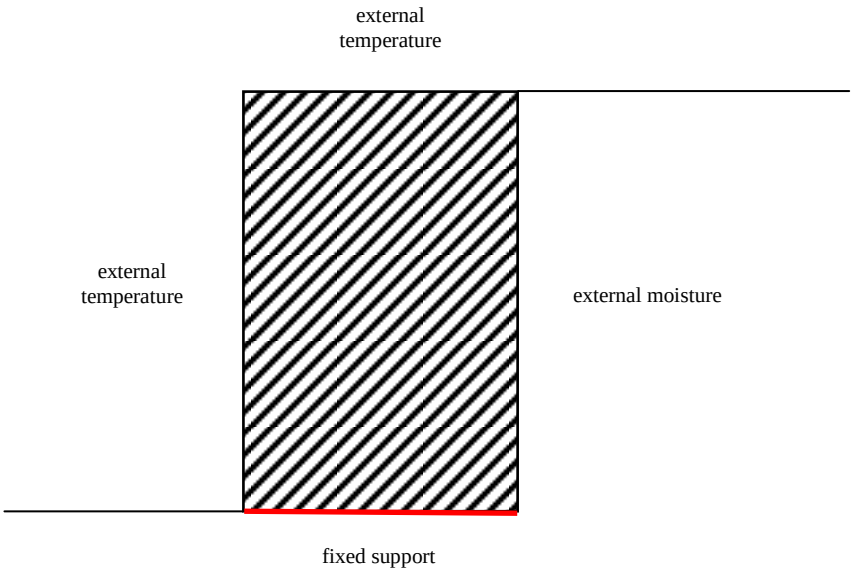
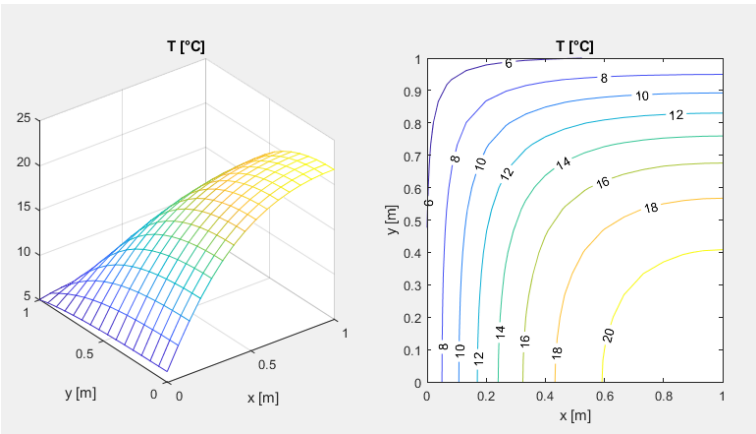


Figure 6: Ilustrative example sketch

We present an example of result which are being plot in each time step in matlab. The improvement of the numerical procedure and matlab code is being analyzed as well as the influence of temperature, moisture retention and deformation on the constitutive relationships.



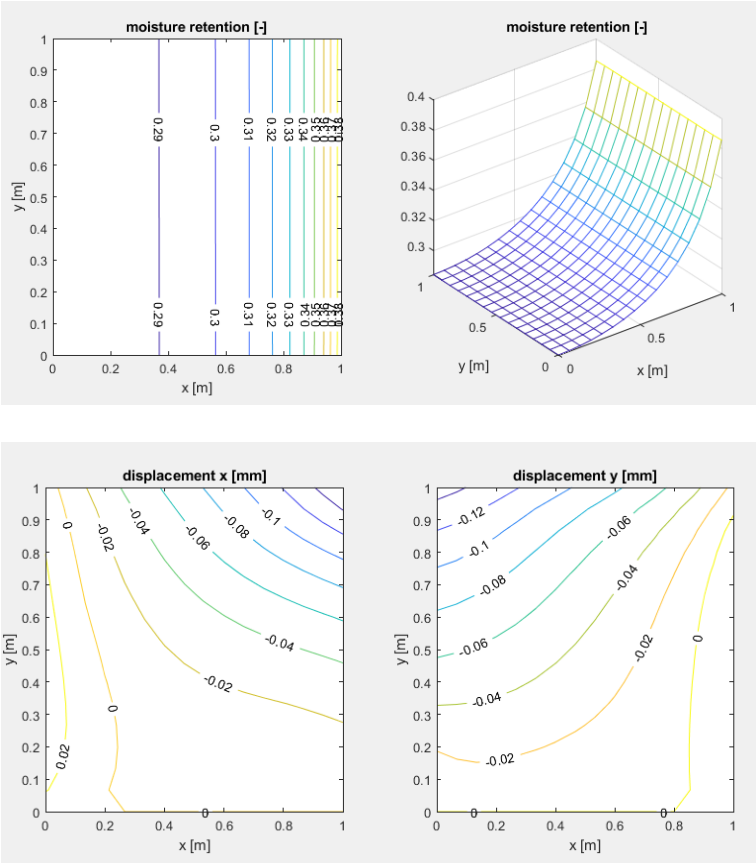


Figure 7: An example of the plot results.

7 CONCLUSION

In this contribution we propose a mathematical model describing coupled transport of mass and heat in deformable porous media. The model is applicable for various engineering issues, as described above. Although the model itself needs further considerable effort to improve its applicability as well as the numerical procedure. This is an objective of my future studies.

Acknowledgement

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LIFE EXPECTANCY AND ASSOCIATED SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS IN THE UNITED STATES AND SLOVAKIA, 1995–2015

Lucia Blazinska, Dominika Plancikova, Veronika Rechtorikova, Patrick O'Dell, Meagan Owens

Abstract

Health and life expectancy vary throughout the world and can be affected by socioeconomic factors. The study has an ecological design. The United States and Slovakia were the countries selected for comparison. Results show that the length of life expectancy is higher in the United States than in Slovakia. The average difference in life expectancy during the selected time period (1995-2015) is around 3.1 years. A more rapidly increasing trend is visible in Slovakia for both men and women. The socioeconomic factors of greatest influence are pension spending and the working age population in both countries. Life expectancy can change over the years and the trends depend on the development in socioeconomic factors. Focusing on the most important factors through health policy intervention will contribute to a higher life expectancy and better quality of life.

Keywords: *life expectancy, socioeconomic factors, the United States, Slovakia*

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines life expectancy (LE) as, "The number of years that a newborn is expected to live if current mortality rates continue to apply" (WHO 2006). Life expectancy at birth is one of the most frequently used statistics in healthcare, and per the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) the increase in average LE can be attributed to "rising living standards, improved lifestyle and better education, as well as greater access to quality health services" (2016). It is important to study LE because it allows us to recognize trends, historical improvements in LE, and to understand the factors that have the most significant impact on a population's health. Without this knowledge it would be more challenging for government and healthcare officials to direct efforts towards the most useful interventions.

The WHO published data on LE at birth in 2015, and globally the average was 71.4 years. This LE varies greatly across high and low-income countries. Per the World Health Statistics Report (2014), the longest LE in the world is among women in high income countries, with a LE above 84 years. The longest is Japanese women at 87 years. In contrast, the lowest LE in the world is in sub-Saharan African countries at only 55 years for both men and women. Studies by the World Health Statistics Report (2014) found that worldwide there is gap between LE for men and women, with women living longer, but this gap is more pronounced in higher income countries. The gap between men and women shows women in high income countries living around six years longer than men. In low-income countries, this gap is reduced to around three years (WHO 2014).

Because there is such a variance worldwide, there is a clear question of what factors are contributing to LE, and which factors have the most significant impact. The Los Angeles County Department of Public Health (LACDPH) states that socioeconomic (SE) factors are the largest single driver of health outcomes, and influence health behaviours that contribute to the health and longevity of an individual. Not only do SE factors affect population health, but they affect how the importance of health is viewed and understood in that population (LACDPH 2013). Studying SE factors in relation to LE gives insight on how to best use non-clinical resources to increase population health. Factors known to impact LE world-wide are

sex, age, education, and Gross National Income per capita (Mondal and Shitan 2013). In a study by Lin et al. (2003) across ethnic groups a shorter LE was linked to being poor, unmarried, unemployed, and less educated.
The goal of this study is to assess and compare LE trends in the United States (US) and Slovakia and to estimate their future values. The study also analyses the influence of SE factors on LE in the US and Slovakia within the years of 1995 through 2015.

2. Methodology

An ecological study was conducted to explore the association between SE factors and LE in Slovakia and the US.

2.1 Data sources

Data were obtained from OECD database (OECD 2017; UNU 2017) and Eurostat (Eurostat, 2017). Based on data availability and findings from previous studies (Khang et al. 2010; Lin et al. 2012) the following SE factors were included in this study: GINI index, gross domestic product (GDP), health spending, pharmaceutical spending, social spending, pension spending, percentage of tertiary educated, employment rate and the percentage of working age population.
Data on LE, GDP and social spending were analysed for the period 1995-2015. Analyses of other variables were based on data availability. Units, data sources and time data availability for each variable are shown in Table 1.

2.2 Definitions of variables

GINI index determines economic inequality in a society and measures the extent to which the distribution of income among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. It ranges between 0 % in the case of perfect equality and 100 % in the case of perfect inequality.
GDP per capita data is measured in millions of US dollars at current prices and purchasing power parities (PPPs).
Health spending measures the final consumption of health care goods and services including personal health care (curative care, rehabilitative care, long-term care, ancillary services and medical goods) and collective services (prevention and public health services as well as health administration) but excluding spending on investments. Pharmaceutical spending covers expenditures on prescription medicines and self-medication, excluding pharmaceuticals consumed in health care settings.
Social expenditure comprises cash benefits, direct in-kind provision of goods and services, and tax breaks with social purposes. Pension spending is defined as all cash expenditures on old-age and survivors' pensions, including early retirement pensions. Population with tertiary education is defined by the percentage of the population ages 25 – 64 who have completed the highest level of education. Employment rate is measured as the percentage of the employed to the working age population. The working age population is defined as those aged 15 to 64 and measured as a percentage of population.

2.3 Data analysis

The time series of LE were assessed by regression coefficient from linear regression for both countries. Linear prediction was used to estimate future values of LE in the years 2016 – 2050. For each predicted value there were confidence intervals (CI) covering 95% probability of estimation. The effects of the selected socioeconomic factors on LE were investigated by the simple linear regression analysis. This was performed to assess the relationship between LE (dependent variable) and selected socioeconomic factors (independent variables). A P

value of < 0.05 was considered significant. Data were analysed using R statistical software, version 3.4.0 (R Core Team 2017).

Table 1

VARIABLE	Unit	Time series	Source
Life Expectancy	years	1995 - 2015	OECD
GINI	0 % - perfect equality, 100 % - perfect inequality	2005 - 2015	OECD/Eurostat
GDP	in USD per capita at current prices and PPPs	1995 - 2015	OECD
Health spending	in USD per capita (using economy-wide PPPs)	2000 - 2015	OECD
Pharmaceutical spending	in USD per capita (using economy-wide PPPs)	2000 - 2015	OECD
Social spending	a percentage of GDP	1995 - 2015	OECD
Pension spending	a percentage of GDP	1995 - 2010	OECD
Tertiary educated	percentage of 25-64 year-old population	2000 - 2015	OECD
Employment rate	a percentage of the employed to the working age population	2000 - 2015	OECD
Working age population	a percentage of population	1995 - 2010	OECD

3. Results

The results show the trend of LE in the US and Slovakia in the time series of 1995 – 2015. Life expectancy prediction explores estimated values to the year 2050. These results are observed also by sex. Selected socioeconomic risk factors are presented in tables with their strength of dependency and significance.

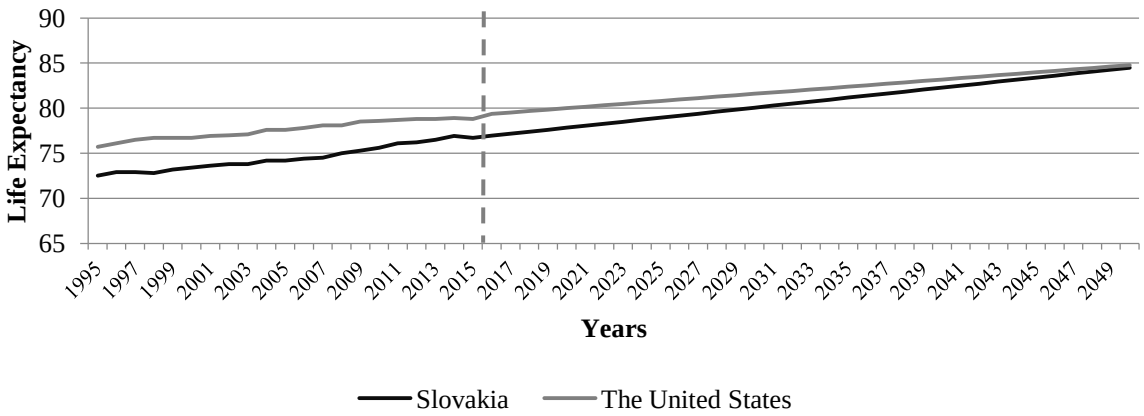

Figure 1: Trend (1995-2015) and prediction (2016- 2050) in life expectancy in the US and Slovakia

The length of LE is higher in the US than in Slovakia (Figure 1). The average difference in LE during the selected time period is around 3.1 years. Over time the difference in LE becomes much lower. The highest value of LE was recorded in 2014 for both countries, (US – 78.9; Slovakia – 76.9). An increasing trend is observed in the US and Slovakia as well. According to regression coefficient, it was proven one year change around 0.16 in the US (95% CI: 0.15-0.17) and for Slovakia, it was 0.22 per year (95% CI: 0.20-0.24), with statistical significance, $p < 0.05$.

Figure 1 contains the estimated values of LE from 2016 to 2050. The values behind the interrupted vertical line (year 2016) are the predicted results. Life expectancy values are

higher for the US in comparison to Slovakia. According to the linear prediction in LE, a faster increasing trend is visible in Slovakia in both men and women. Slovak LE line becomes closer to that of the United States over time. The predicted LE in the United States is 79.4 years (CI95%: 79.2-79.5) in 2016 and 76.9 years (CI95%: 76.7-77.2) in Slovakia for the same year. The difference between the predicted values is 2.4 years. The lowest difference between the countries, 0.3 years, is observed at the end of prediction period (2050). The estimated LE in 2050 for the US is around 84.8 years (CI95%: 84.2-85.4) and 84.5 years (CI95%: 83.7-85.3) for Slovakia.

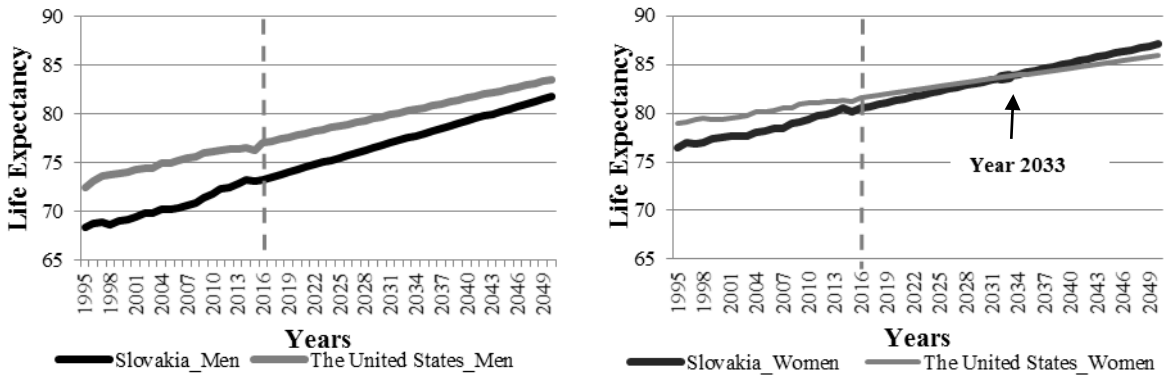

Figure 2: Trend (1995-2015) and prediction (2016- 2050) in life expectancy in the US and Slovakia by sex

The LE value is higher for women in both countries (Figure 2). The recorded difference between men's and women's LE was an average of 5.2 years in the US and 7.8 years in Slovakia. A comparison of LE of men in both countries showed that men in the US are more likely to have a longer LE by 4.4 years compared to Slovak men. Less difference was observed when comparing women, with the average difference being 1.8 years (US – 80.2 years, Slovakia – 78.4 years). The regression coefficient showed that the fastest one year increase in LE was in Slovak men at 0.25, 95% CI (0.23-0.27). The LE of American women increased the slowest, with an average one year change of 0.13, 95% CI (0.12-0.14).
According to the prediction, a comparison of male LE for the year 2016 gave the follow values: 77.1 years (95% CI: 76.9-77.3) in the US and 73.3 years (95% CI: 73.0-73.6) in Slovakia. The difference is 3.8 years in 2016, and 1.8 years in 2050 (US – 83.6 years, (95% CI: 82.7-84.4), Slovakia – 81.8 years, (95% CI: 80.7-82.8)). In comparing female LE, the estimation shows that if the trend continues, in the year 2033 the LE for Slovak women will be higher at 83.81 (95% CI: 83.4-84.3) than for women from the United States at 83.77 (95% CI: 83.4-84.1).

Table 2: Linear relationship between socio-economic variables and life expectancy

Independent variable	country	ß coefficient (CI 95%)	R^2	p-value
GDP	**Slovakia**	0.0002 (0.0002 to 0.0002)	0.970	< 0.001
	USA	0.0001 (0.0001 to 0.0001)	0.954	< 0.001
GINI	**Slovakia**	-0.0067 (-0.5609 to 0.5475)	0.00008	> 0.05
	USA	0.5002 (0.0944 to 0.9061)	0.464	< 0.05
Working age population	**Slovakia**	0.5497 (0.3678 to 0.7316)	0.705	< 0.001
	USA	1.2349 (0.7025 to 1.7673)	0.569	< 0.001
Employment rate	**Slovakia**	0.4747 (0.2276 to 0.7218)	0.528	< 0.001
	USA	-0.3372 (-0.4274 to -0.2469)	0.763	< 0.001
Tertiary educated	**Slovakia**	0.3442 (0.3137 to 0.3747)	0.971	< 0.001

	USA	0.2777 (0.2479 to 0.3075)	0.952	< 0.001
Health spending	**Slovakia**	0.0021 (0.0017 to 0.0024)	0.926	< 0.001
	USA	0.0005 (0.0004 to 0.0006)	0.957	< 0.001
Pharmaceutical spending	**Slovakia**	0.0087 (0.0064 to 0.0103)	0.856	< 0.001
	USA	0.0041 (0.0034 to 0.0049)	0.912	< 0.001
Social spending	**Slovakia**	0.3165 (-0.2127 to 0.8457)	0.076	> 0.05
	USA	0.4561 (0.3342 to 0.5779)	0.764	< 0.001
Pension spending	**Slovakia**	1.7085 (0.5139 to 2.9031)	0.349	< 0.01
	USA	1.4507 (0.5829 to 2.3186)	0.423	< 0.01

Almost all socio-economic factors have been proven to have a statistically significant association with LE in Slovakia, with the exceptions being the GINI index and social spending (Table 2). The GINI index was negatively associated with LE in Slovakia. All other factors were positively associated with LE. The regression result showed a 1.7 year increase in LE for each 0.1 percent increase in pension spending of GDP ($p < 0.05$). The other variables associated with remarkable changes in LE are the working age population (0.55, 95% CI (0.37-0.73), $p < 0,05$), the employment rate (0.47, 95% CI (0.23-0.72), $p < 0,05$) and the tertiary educated population (0.34, 95% CI (0.31-0.37), $p < 0.05$).
All selected variables proved to be significant factors for LE in the US (Table 2). The employment rate was negatively associated with LE All other factors were positively associated with LE. The regression results showed a 1.45 year increase in LE for each increase in one percentage pension spending of GDP ($p < 0.05$) and a 1.23 year increase in LE for each one percent increase in working aged population.

4. Discussion

In our study, we found that the length of LE is higher in US in comparison to Slovakia. The highest LE was observed in 2014 and the trend of LE is increasing in both countries. Estimated LE in 2050 is very similar, at 84.8 years in US and 84.5 years in Slovakia. This in line with the fact that LE has been increasing worldwide since the 1800s due to global modernization and industrialization (Roser and Ortiz-Ospina 2017).
Research has shown that countries of Central Europe (CCE) (Leon 2011) are experiencing an increase in LE, but in the United States the increase has slowed in recent years (CDC 2017). Our findings support a continuation of these trends by showing that the difference between the LE in Slovakia and the US is decreasing, even though it shows there will still be a difference in the year 2050. This difference is only observed for men and the population as a whole. For women, it is projected that in the year 2033 women in Slovakia will have a longer LE than women in the US (83,81 in Slovakia and 83,77 in the US), provided that the trend remains constant during the period.
Over the last three decades there has been significant change in CCE countries, and this has caused more rapid progress in the increased LE (Leon 2011). In the US, the rise in LE has been steady but less rapid in recent decades (National Vital Statistics Reports 2002). According to the CDC, the last two years showed the first decreases in LE for women in the US (CDC 2017). While still living longer than men, the decrease in LE for women in the US is possibly due to a decrease in the progress being made in deaths from heart disease and cancer, as well as increasing national mortality from the opioid epidemic in the US (Khazan 2017).
In Slovakia, LE is increasing more rapidly that it is in US, especially in women. This could be explained by stagnation and even decline of LE after 1970 in CEE, followed by a steady increase after the collapse of the Berlin wall in 1989. Political, social and economic changes could lead to decreases in mortality and increases in LE. Some researchers state that changes in diet and its effects on coronary heart diseases, a decline in alcohol consumption, and the

reduced proportion of smokers are the key drivers of LE increase in CEE (Leon 2011). On the other hand, in the US the LE has been steadily increasing for a century, due in part to an improvement in the treatment of the leading causes of death, such as stroke and heart disease (Crimmins, Preston and Cohen 2011). However, the increase in obesity in high income countries may lead to stagnation or even decline in LE (Leon 2011).

LE was higher in women in both countries. The observed difference between men and women was in average 5.2 years in the US and 7.8 years in Slovakia. LE in US men is higher than that of Slovak men. Compared to women, the lower LE in men is associated with a less healthy lifestyle, substance abuse, road accidents, homicides and risky behaviour, especially in earlier stages of life (Kontis et al. 2017; CDC 2014). Women tend to overestimate risk of any type, but men tend to underestimate risk (Assari 2017). According to CDC (2014) men have almost 12% higher chance of dying from an unintentional injury than women during the ages of 15-34.

The more rapid increase in LE for women can also be caused by work conditions. It has been more common for men to work jobs with higher risk of fatal accidents or work-related deaths (Health and Safety Executive 2017). Almost 35 percent of employed men work in production, transportation, material moving occupations, natural resources, construction, and maintenance occupations work compared to just 6 percent of employed women (The United States Department of Labor 2010; Bureau of Labor Statistics 2012). In addition, studies show that estrogen helps protect women against heart disease by reducing circulatory levels of harmful cholesterol, whereas testosterone increases low-density lipoprotein. But the gap in the LE between men and women is shrinking (Gorman and Reads 2007). With progression of gender roles and the availability of technology, men and women have the opportunity to work a variety of jobs, both low risk and high risk, and to live equally healthy lives.

Employment rate is negatively associated with LE in US. When a person has a job, they are more likely to see their importance in society and in addition to material interests, have a feeling of inner satisfaction. If people are exposed to activity, dynamism, mobility, vitality or reasonable effort in their personal and working life, they tend to maintain mental and physical health more easily (Pour and Ghadermarzi 2012).

But not all employment is linked to an increase in LE. Studies show people exposed to more strenuous, dangerous work are more likely to spend their life in poor health (Platts et al. 2017). There are also statistically significant factors connected with employment and income inequality. One study focusing on LE and cause-specific mortality in 43 European countries found out that there is higher mortality in countries with larger income inequalities (Hu et al. 2015). This could be a reason for the different association between the employment rate and LE in the US and Slovakia.

Research, innovation, and technology have also helped increase the LE. Grootendorst, Pierard, and Shim (2009) suggest that pharmaceuticals have become extremely effective in enhancing LE. Technology helped the healthcare industry improve medical practices through the ease of shared information, more effective and efficient care, and pharmaceutical research and design, which yields more powerful and accurate medications. Technology has also allowed for more effective clinical decision making through better access to accurate information which guides providers to better treatments.

Better health is a result of scientific and health innovations (e.g. medical procedures, drugs, preventive medicine) (Cutler et al. 2006). Science and dissemination of education are related to better health and reduced mortality rate. Therefore, it makes sense that we find a statistically significant association of LE with the amount of the tertiary educated population in both the US and Slovakia. According to our study, higher education is related to higher LE. Several recent studies also found such a correlation (Lacobuta-Cuza 2012; Sasson 2016; van Baal et al. 2016).

Slovakia had a higher percentage of upper educated women from 2005 - 2013 compared to women in the US, but per the OECD the trend of both countries met in 2014. The latest available data from 2015 show a higher percentage in US women (OECD 2018).
Our study also showed that pharmaceutical expenditures and health spending are positively associated with LE in both countries. These associations are also confirmed in a number of other studies (Deshpande et al. 2014; Caliskan 2009; Prados-Torres et al. 2009; Hermanowski et al. 2015). The level of health care expenditures is the highest in high-income countries and the improved health outcomes are reflected in the higher LE (Jaba et al. 2014).
We also found a statistically significant association between LE and several socio-economic factors. One of them is GDP. On average, people living in countries with a higher GDP live longer and the LE increases with real income (Bolt and van Zanden 2013). The most influencing SE factors are pension spending and the working age population in both countries. Increased pension spending could mean that retired adults have more income in their non-working years, thus allowing them a higher quality of life and better access to healthcare. According to Reeves et al. (2017) greater public pension spending is associated with a reduction in unmet medical need in countries with high levels of out-of-pocket expenditures on health.
A larger working-age population means that countries have more financial contributions to the health systems, and a larger population to support the aging in the country. When populations become top-heavy there is an increased burden on the working population to produce the finances, resources, and time needed to care for the elderly, and fewer people able to do so (Ferreira 2016). This results in fewer resources being available in the end of life when resource consumption, especially that of healthcare resources, increases (Alemayehu and Warner 2004).
Limitations of the study should be considered. A key limitation is using data from different international databases (OECD, Eurostat) related to selected factors, where some of data was not identical for the same year. National data sources were not used in the study. Additionally, some data was not available in our selected period of 1995- 2015. We realize the lack of observed risk factors chosen to assess their impact on LE. Prediction was based only on a linear trend, and predictions in other risk factors influencing LE were not considered.

5. Conclusion

Progress in a country's in LE can be influenced by political, social and economic changes. Health conditions and the treatment of the leading causes of death are important factors, as well. The gap between men's and women's LE is shrinking because of progression in gender roles and the availability of technology in the workplace and in health care. A decreasing difference in LE is also observed in countries around the world. We can conclude that though increasing in LE is still challenging for lot of countries, the best way to do so is to discover what factors are most closely associated with increasing LE and focus on them in future strategies and policies.

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ÚNAVA PO CÉVNÍ MOZKOVÉ PŘÍHODĚ – JAZYKOVÁ VALIDIZACE HODNOTÍCÍHO NÁSTROJE

POSTSTROKE FATIGUE – LINGUISTIC VALIDATION OF THE ASSESSMENT TOOL

Vladimír Koutecký, Lenka Mazalová, David Školoudík, Katarína Zakopalová

Abstrakt

Lynch et al. (2007) definuje únavu po cévní mozkové příhodě jako nedostatek energie nebo zvýšenou potřebu odpočinku každý den či skoro každý den. Tato únava současně vede k obtížnostem při vykonávání denních činností. Únavou po CMP trpí 23-75 % pacientů (Lerdal et al., 2011 citováno dle Wu et al., 2015). Cílem ošetřovatelské péče je efektivní zhodnocení tohoto problému za účelem udržení nebo obnovení obvyklé fyzické a duševní zdatnosti (Doran, 2011, s. 144). Únava je problém, který zasahuje do každodenních činností, snižuje pocit emoční pohody; narušuje rodinný a profesní život a snižuje kvalitu života pacienta. Únava také zvyšuje riziko úmrtí pacienta (Doran, 2011; Colle et al., 2006). Cílem projektu, který je dedikován Interní grantovou agenturou Univerzity Palackého v Olomouci, je vytvořit českou verzi "Fatigue Severity Scale", zhodnotit její psychometrické vlastnosti a její použitelnost v podmínkách českého ošetřovatelství. Etické aspekty tohoto projektu byly posouzeny Etickou komisí Fakulty zdravotnických věd Univerzity Palackého Olomouc. Jazyková validace hodnotícího nástroje byla provedena podle pravidel Wild et al. (2005).

Klíčová slova: *Únava, hodnotící nástroj, cévní mozková příhoda, únava po cévní mozkové příhodě*

Abstract

Poststroke fatigue is defined by Lynch et al. (2007) as a lack of energy or increased need to rest every day or almost every day. Poststroke fatigue results in difficulties in doing normal activities of daily living. Almost 23-75 % of patients suffer from poststroke fatigue (Lerdal et al., 2011 cited by Wu et al., 2015). The goal of nursing care is to effectively manage this problem in order to maintain or restore the usual physical and psychical being (Doran, 2011, p. 144). Fatigue is a problem that interferes with everyday activities, reduces the feeling of emotional well-being; disturbs family and professional life and reduces the quality of patient's life. Fatigue also increases the risk of the patient's death (Doran, 2011; Colle et al., 2006). The aim of the project (which is dedicated by an Internal Grant Agency of Palacký University Olomouc) is to create a Czech version of the "Fatigue Severity Scale", to assess its psychometric properties and to evaluate its applicability under conditions of Czech nursing. The ethical aspects of this project were assessed by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Health Sciences of the Palacký University in Olomouc. The linguistic validation of the assessment tool was conducted according to the rules of Wild et al. (2005).

Keywords: *Fatigue, assessment tool, stroke, poststroke fatigue*

1. ÚNAVA PO CÉVNÍ MOZKOVÉ PŘÍHODĚ

Cévní mozková příhoda (dále jen CMP) je celosvětově druhou nejčastější příčinou smrti a nejčastějším důvodem invalidity, potažmo fyzické, psychické a ekonomické zátěže dospělých postižených touto chorobou (Barker-Collo et al., 2007). Podle kritérií Světové zdravotnické

organizace jsou CMP definovány jako rychle se rozvíjející klinické známky ložiskového či difúzního postižení mozku, s předpokládaným původem cévního charakteru, které trvají déle než 24 hodin nebo vedou ke smrti. Na vzniku CMP se podílí také řada rizikových faktorů (ovlivnitelných a neovlivnitelných), mezi něž patří např. kardiovaskulární onemocnění, hypertenze, arterioskleróza, diabetes mellitus, obezita, poruchy srážlivosti krve (Věstník MZ ČR č. 4, 2015; Tyrlíková, Bareš, 2012; Tomek, 2014; Nebudová, 1999).

Únava po CMP (dále jen PSF z anglického Post-Stroke Fatigue) je jedním z častých symptomů, které jsou udávány nemocnými. Únavou po CMP trpí 23-75 % pacientů (Lerdal et al., 2011 citováno dle Wu et al., 2015) a často (z 30 %) i u menších iktů (Annoni et al., 2008). Únavu je poměrně obtížné definovat, a to už z důvodu, že se jedná o fenomén spojující biologické, psychologické a behaviorální faktory; ale také z důvodu, že se jedná o individuální, tedy subjektivní prožitek nemocného. Můžeme ji definovat jako pocit únavy či vyčerpání, které se vyvíjí v souvislosti s psychickou nebo fyzickou aktivitou (nebo oběma), a je spojena s odporem, sníženou ochotou/snahou a nedostatkem energie (resp. potřeba energie je vyšší, než její dodávka). Tento stav je považován za patologický, pokud ovlivňuje či snižuje výkonnost jedince, ovlivňuje kvalitu života. Únava také zvyšuje riziko úmrtí nemocného (Vodvářka, 1999; Barker-Collo et al., 2007; Colle et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2015). Autorky Mota a Pimenta (2006) uvádějí ve svém článku definici, která nám říká, že únava je nepříjemný fyzický, kognitivní a emoční symptom popisovaný jako vyčerpání neustupující po klidové fázi. Výše uvedené definice nám však dávají obecný popis únavy. Lynch et al. (2007) uvádí v závěru svého výzkumu definici únavy u hospitalizovaných pacientů po prodělané CMP, která nám říká, že hospitalizovaní pacienti prožívají únavu jako nedostatek energie nebo zvýšenou potřebu odpočinku každý den či skoro každý den. Tato únava současně vede k obtížnostem při vykonávání denních činností (u hospitalizovaných pacientů se jedná zejména o léčbu) popř. k jejich ukončení právě z důvodu únavy.

Z další literární rešerše zjišťujeme, že z 5 zahraničních studií (Duncan et al., 2014; Schepers et al., 2006, Snaphaan at al., 2011; van Eijsden at al., 2012; Radman et al., 2012 citováno dle Wu et al., 2015) vyplývá, že více jak 1/3 pacientů trpěla únavou při prvotním/úvodním posouzení (obvykle během prvních 3 měsíců). Z této skupiny pacientů pak 2/3 pacientů trpělo únavou přibližně jeden rok po prodělané CMP a zbylá třetina se z ní zotavuje doposud. Studie dále uvádějí informaci o tom, že u osob, u kterých nebyla v úvodní fázi stanovena únava, se pak únava v 12-58 % případech rozvinula v průběhu sledování. Pro porovnání uvádím výzkumy dalších autorů, kteří uvádějí období, ve kterém byla únava hodnocena:

- Leegaard (1983 citováno dle Ingles et al., 1999) ve svém výzkumu zjistil, že až 75 % pacientů v období 6-26 měsíců po prodělané CMP udávají jako jeden z hlavních problémů/příznaků právě únavu.
- Sten et al. (1996 citováno dle Ingles et al., 1999) uvádí ve svém výzkumu, že více než 76 % pacientů si v období 8 měsíců po prodělání CMP stěžuje na únavu (při vlastním vyšetřování deprese po CMP). U zmíněných studií vidíme, že problematika PSF se řešila nejvíce v období 6-8 (resp. 6-26) měsíců.
- Christensen et al. (2008) ve svém výzkumu však přichází (podobně jako Wu et al., 2015) s výsledky vlastního výzkumu, který říká, že u pacientů (přeživší 2 roky po CMP) se klesá „intenzita“ únavy v prvních třech měsících a následně zůstává na konstantní úrovni (v této studii opakovaně hodnotí respondenti v době 10 dní, 3, 12 měsíců a dva roky po prodělané CMP).

Hodnocení únavy a již několikrát zmíněné zahraniční studie pomáhají zdravotnickým pracovníkům k podpoře pacientů, kteří prodělali a přežili CMP v rehabilitaci, zotavování a návratu do běžného života (Kirkevold et al., 2012). K hodnocení únavy bylo vytvořeno mnoho jedno- a vícedimenzionálních nástrojů k hodnocení povahy, závažnosti a dopadu únavy v klinické populaci. Některé z nich používají uzavřené otázky (jako např. „Je únava

Vaším hlavním problémem/hlavní obtíží?“), jiné naopak používají kvantitativní tabulky/skórovací systém. Pro hodnocení PSF není vydán konsensus určující, který nástroj zvolit pro hodnocení PFS. Z 50 známých hodnotících nástrojů/škál se pouze 7 z nich používá k hodnocení únavy u pacientů po CMP. Z dostupné literatury se nejčastěji objevují/opakují následující:

- Visual Analogue (Fatigue) Scale (3 studie);
- Fatigue Severity Scale (5 studií): hodnotí vliv únavy na každodenní život. Obsahuje 9 položek se sedmibodovou stupnicí; výsledné skóre je průměrem z těchto devíti položek. Tento nástroj je nejvyužívanější.
- Individual Strength Fatigue checklist (1 studie): je složen z 8 otázek s možností odpovědět na 7 bodové stupnici.
- The Fatigue Impact Scale: je 40 položkový test (10 položek na oblast fyzickou, 20 položek na oblast psychosociální, 10 položek na oblast kognitivní) se 4 bodovým hodnocením každé položky (Barker-Collo et al., 2007; Colle et al., 2006, Wu et al., 2015).

2. HODNOTÍCÍ NÁSTROJ FATIGUE SEVERITY SCALE

Hodnotící nástroj FSS byl vytvořen v roce 1989 výzkumnou skupinou kolem autorky Krupp ve Spojených státech amerických (Mota and Pimenta, 2006), a byl aplikován na vybrané skupiny pacientů se sklerózou multiplex, lupus erythematodes a kontrolní skupinu zdravých pacientů. Jedná se o 9 položkový dotazník s hodnotící stupnicí Likertova typu s body 1 (naprosto nesouhlasím) až 7 (naprosto souhlasím). Tento nástroj je dle provedených výzkumů jedním z nejpoužívanějších, a to zřejmě z důvodu své jednoduchosti a časové nenáročnosti. (Valko et al., 2008). Z výsledků výzkumu, které publikoval Valko et al. (2008) vyplývá, že při výsledném hodnocení, tedy výsledek FSS rovný či větší než 4 může nasvědčovat o přítomné/svědčící únavě (testováno na 235 pacientech s ischemickou CMP).

Fatigue Severity Scale (FSS, English version)*

	strongly disagree ←						→ *strongly agree*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My motivation is lower when I am fatigued.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
2. Exercise brings on my fatigue.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
3. I am easily fatigued.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
4. Fatigue interferes with my physical functioning.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
5. Fatigue causes frequent problems for me.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
6. My fatigue prevents sustained physical functioning.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
7. Fatigue interferes with carrying out certain duties and responsibilities.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
8. Fatigue is among my three most disabling symptoms.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
9. Fatigue interferes with my work, family, or social life.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

**Patients are instructed to choose a number from 1 to 7 that indicates their degree of agreement with each statement where 1 indicates strongly disagree and 7, strongly agree.* [Krupp et al, Arch Neurol 1989]

Obr. č. 1: Anglická verze FSS, zdroj: Valko et al., 2008, p. 1602

3. JAZYKOVÁ VALIDIZACE

Cílem projektu, jehož cílem byl překlad a jazyková validace anglického dotazníku hodnotícího únavu u pacientů po cévní mozkové příhodě, byl financován z Interní grantové agentury Univerzity Palackého Olomouc s identifikačním číslem IGA_FZV_2017_007. Etické aspekty tohoto projektu byly posouzeny Etickou komisí Fakulty zdravotnických věd

Univerzity Palackého Olomouc a bylo získáno její souhlasné stanovisko s realizací vlastního projektu. Překlad a jazyková validizace hodnotícího nástroje dle pravidel autorského kolektivu Wild et al. (2005). Ten se skládal ze základních bodů:

- Překlad z anglického jazyka do češtiny dvěma překladateli, kteří aktivně ovládají anglický jazyk, a alespoň jeden bude zdravotník s následnou syntézou do 1 verze (PFVC12).
- Překlad syntézy zpět do anglického jazyka dvěma překladateli, kteří se nepodíleli na překladu v bodě 2, a kteří ovládají anglický jazyk, a alespoň jeden bude zdravotník s následnou syntézou do 1 verze (PFVA12).
- Harmonizace a posouzení české verze (PFVC12) panelem expertů, kteří splňují hlavní kritérium a to, že jsou zdravotnickými odborníky zabývající se péčí o pacienty po cévní mozkové příhodě. Panel expertů byl tvořen 2 akademickými pracovníky z oblasti ošetřovatelství a humanitních věd, lékařem specialistou (neurologem) a 2 všeobecnými sestrami, pracujícími na standardním neurologickém oddělení.

Po získání souhlasného stanoviska zdravotnických zařízení s realizací výzkumu proběhlo pilotní testování české verze PFVC12 souborem záměrně vybraných pacientů v počtu 50: 14 žen (28 %) a 36 mužů (72 %) ve věkovém rozmezí 56-92 let. Cílem tohoto pilotního šetření bylo posouzení srozumitelnosti jednotlivých položen předloženého nástroje v podmínkách České republiky, respektive českého ošetřovatelství. Respondenti byli zařazováni podle základních kritérií: věk nad 18 let, prodělaná cévní mozková příhoda, souhlas s účastí ve výzkumu, hospitalizace ve zdravotnickém zařízení Moravskoslezského a Kraje Vysočina. Jednotliví respondenti byli osloveni členy řešitelského týmu. Byli informováni o cílech a průběhu výzkumu a požádáni o stvrzení souhlasu s účastí v šetření svým podpisem na informovaném souhlasu. Tento souhlas byl dokumentován a archivován s ochranou osobních dat dle platné legislativy České republiky. Předložený dotazník byl následně respondenty vyplněn a zhodnocen po stránce srozumitelnosti jednotlivých položek předloženého hodnotícího nástroje. V případě nutnosti byla zajištěna dopomoc nemocnému při vyplňování dotazníku členem řešitelského týmu. Závěrem šetření byla provedena sumarizace uvedených připomínek s následnou topografickou, diakritickou a gramatickou aplikací do české verze PFVC12 s následným označením FCV FSS (viz obrázek 2).

Po jazykové stránce neměli respondenti připomínek. Zazněli však připomínky k obsahu otázek např.:

- Konkretizovat o jakou únavu se jedná (fyzickou, psychickou, somatickou apod.),
- Podobnost otázek 4 a 6,
- Konkretizovat otázku 5 a 7.

Stupnice závažnosti únavy
(z orig. Fatigue Severity Scale)

Pokyny: Zakroužkujte číslo, které nejlépe vystihuje Váši odpověď u jednotlivých tvrzení.
Rozsah hodnocení: 1 = s tvrzením naprosto nesouhlasím, 7 = s tvrzením naprosto souhlasím.

Během minulého týdne jsem zjistil(a), že:	**Hodnocení**						
1. Když jsem unavený, mám nižší motivaci.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Cvičení mi způsobuje únavu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Snadno se unavím.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Únava mi brání ve fyzické aktivitě.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Únava mi způsobuje četné problémy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Kvůli únavě nezvládám souvislejší fyzickou aktivitu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Únava mi narušuje plnění některých povinností a závazků.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Únava patří ke třem nejvíce omezujícím příznakům.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Únava zasahuje do mé práce, rodiny a společenského života.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Hodnocení: Sečtěte zakroužkovaná čísla a součet vydělte devíti. _____

Porovnejte výsledky s následujícími hodnoceními:

Lidé, kteří únavou netrpí, získávají hodnocení okolo 2.8

Lidé s Lupusem mají skóre kolem 4,6

Lidé s Lymeskou boreliózou mají skóre kolem 4,8

Lidé s únavou související s roztroušenou sklerózou mají skóre kolem 5,1

Lidé s chronickým únavovým syndromem mají skóre kolem 6,1

Obr. č. 2 Stupnice závažnosti – finální česká verze FSS

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PSYCHOLOGIE, SOCIOLOGIE, PEDAGOGIKA

PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY, PEDAGOGY

REHABILITATION OF INDIVIDUAL COMPONENTS OF COGNITIVE FUNCTIONS IN SENIORS WITH SELECTED DIAGNOSIS

Michal Vostrý, Karel Pančocha

Abstract

The paper focuses on people with Alzheimer's disease (test results for clients with mild dementia for the presented results). The research includes testing of 20 probands which were divided by an intentional selection into two groups: experimental (active participation on further special-pedagogical and ergotherapeutic, also known as work therapy intervention) and control group (passive participation during intervention). The testing was initiated by entrance examinations with the use of standardized Montreal cognitive test. The same test was then used after the intervention within a framework of output testing and the collected data were then compared with each other. The following results than pointed to the fact, that regular intervention for seniors suffering from Alzheimer's with the use of modern technologies (in this particular case game consoles connected with the Kinect system sensors) and classic "paper and pencil" tests had certain amount of influence on the results of the experimental group, which achieved slightly better results than passive control group which stagnated, or got worse compared with the results at the beginning.

Key words: *Alzheimer disease, elderly education, occupational therapy, special education - intervention, comprehensive rehabilitation*

1. INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease can be defined as a neurodegenerative condition which is followed by atrophy of the brain tissues, which causes the brain to lose its weight (the overall weight of brain is then reduced under 900g to its normal state which is circa 1500g). Senile plaques (also known as neuritic plaques) can then be found on the surface of the cortex, which are caused by a protein composed of amyloid beta peptides (Bradbury, 2007). The more such plaques an individual has on their brain, the worse the cognitive deficit is, symptoms of which are loss of orientation in space and time, disruption of short-term, and subsequently long-term memory (Kumar et al., 2007). The contemporary discussion of the issues tries to slow down the progression of the disease. Even early symptoms should be a warning and force is to choose a suitable activity for cognitive and motor function development (Bennett, 2008). Such individuals then seem less forgetful and are not as much disoriented, as others thus making the condition less severe, however even these slight symptoms should be examined in case of further development of Alzheimer's disease (Topinková, 2005). The more the condition progresses, the more the state of the patient worsens and the intervention itself is then, of course, more difficult (Bennet et al., 2011). If we want to have the best results possible, it is necessary to start with the intervention as soon as possible, meaning from the point of first symptoms of early stages of dementia (Vostrý a Dončevová, 2016). Following the previous theme we can then add the knowledge to the education of senior members of the society, which is today done at universities of the Third Age (U3A). These institutions help develop their technological literacy etc. In many cases the elderly learn how to operate with a computer and what are the pros and cons of using technology. A group of people with Alzheimer's is quite often being neglected, but it is the early stages of this condition which needs to be attended and help clients to activate and support their already disrupted cognitive functions. To have this educative option can then be used as dementia prevention (Tomczyk, 2015). We can also mention one key study which pointed out the use of modern technology

(in this particular case a game console and movement sensor) and video games to help people with disputed cognitive functions. One case study included a female senior (103 years), who was able to support her cognitive functions by the use of a bowling video game. The results and discussion of this study included a conclusion where author states that if cognitive functions are not stimulated enough, the overall health of clients and patients will inevitably deteriorate (Iorfino, 2013).To all of which Vostrý and Dončevová (2016) follow in their study. Their presented results of education intervention with the use of ICT showed that experimental group showed signs of improvement after 6-month intervention. The output result then being recommendations for general practice and for supporting professions which directs professionals to engage patients in regular activation activities using the ICT and similar technologies.

2. METHODS

For the purpose of this particular research the causational research problem was contemplated (Gavora, 2010): What is the influence of the use of gaming consoles on the changes of cognitive function levels among people with dementia (light type of Alzheimer's disease). The goal is then to find out, whether the use of gaming consoles in ergotherapy intervention has any influence on the change of cognitive function levels. The testing itself was then done using a standardized test: Montreal cognitive test which is widely used in ergotherapy for senior members of the society and thus was applied for input and outputs testing. This test includes eight areas (focus and orientation, memory, word production, language, visual and spatial skills, abstraction, etc.) from which we focused on the testing of focus and orientation skills. The results collected in the data sets from input and output testing were provided by a comparison between experimental and control group. The group of probands was divided into experimental (A – which actively participated on our intervention) and control (P – which only used services provided by the institution where they lived) by a loss toss. For the intervention method we decided to use the console X-Box 360 with Kinect system and freeware commercial application Dr. Kawashima´s body and brain. This gaming application is divided into various areas, all of which client is able to control with his/her body movement. ICT is then regarded as an addition to already existing standard ergotherapy (work therapy) procedures, which are usually done in a "paper and pencil" fashion. The research itself took approximately 6months, once a week, each session around 25 mins. In case of this particular study we used a comparison of data with the use of nonparametric statistical method which doesn't require normal (Gauss) data distribution which was due to low number of individual's mere impossible. The statistical analysis contained the difference between input and output results. The difference values were then compared with each other by Mann-Whitney which calculated the effect size to be $\alpha = 0, 05$.

3. RESULTS

During the entrance testing the results were sort of equal, the result values varied in score between 17 to 24 from the overall point count, which related to the normal distribution of data, specifically slight or deep depression. Visible changes were manifested after the output result comparison, where the experimental group (active participants of intervention program) reached higher scores than the control group (passive participation during intervention). The overall point count was slightly better among the first group, which had in average 2 points better results from the beginning, whereas the control group stagnated or had worse scores in some cases even 9 points worse from the initial testing. Based on these results it is possible to say, that experimental groups has improved in their results and therefore reached better results than the control group. The results are shown in the table n. 1 and graph n. 1, 2 a 3, which show the difference between the pretest and the posttest testing in the experimental and

controlling group. On the basis of the data obtained, we can prove that after the experiment, the experimental group achieved better results, compared to the control group, which stagnated, slightly worsened.

Table 1. Montreal cognitive test - difference between in and out testing. E = experimental group, C – controlling group, (source: own)

Coming-in		Coming-out		in and out
Group	Number of points	Group	Number of points	Difference
E	18	E	27	-9
E	17	E	23	-6
E	22	E	24	-2
E	23	E	25	-2
E	22	E	26	-4
E	19	E	25	-6
E	21	E	26	-5
E	21	E	25	-4
E	22	E	23	-1
E	16	E	17	-1
C	18	C	15	3
C	18	C	17	1
C	24	C	21	3
C	22	C	18	4
C	19	C	17	2
C	19	C	15	4
C	24	C	19	5
C	23	C	18	5
C	20	C	16	4
C	23	C	18	5

Figure 1. distribution of difference between input and output testing - Montreal cognitive test: light type - experimental group - pretest (W = 62,5 P-value = 0,359974), (source:own)

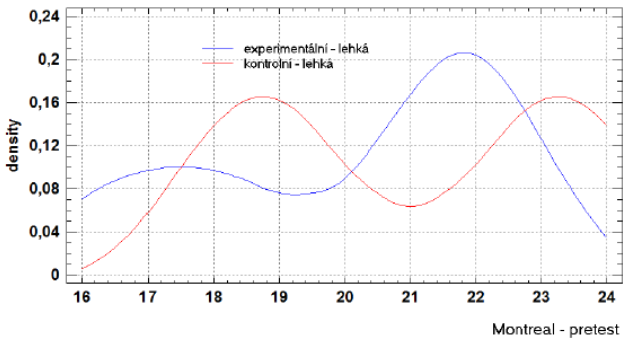


Figure 2 – distribution of difference between input and output testing - Montreal cognitive test: light type - experimental group - posttest (W = 6.0 P-value = 0.000943149), (source: own)

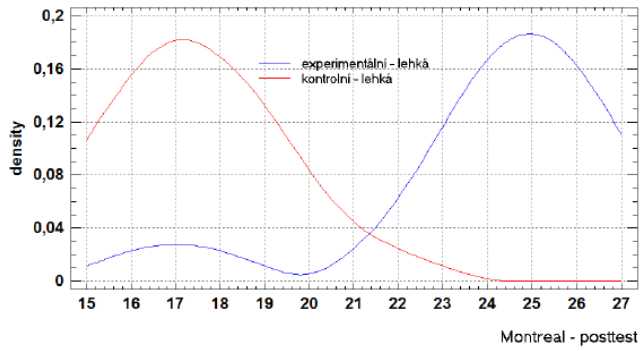
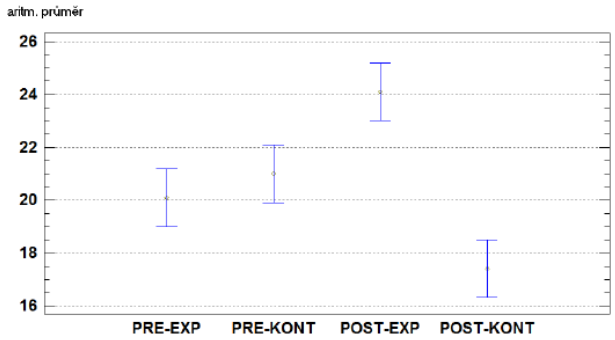


Figure 3 – Arithmetic averages and confidence intervals of the Montreal cognitive test Overall Results (source: own)



4. DISCUSSION

Hátlová (2010) focused her work on psychomotor therapy for people suffering from dementia. Her approach includes exercise units, which are to stimulate an individual properly. The main idea of stimulation was also one of the goals in our study as well. In this particular intervention the stimulation included not only the movement apparatus, but also cognitive functions as well. Thanks to the body movement, probands we able to control a fictional character inside the video game connecting cognitive functions during which they also had to think about their move and use their memory, not to mention the cognitive training itself. Kolářová et al., (2012) in her article describes the work with elderly using the idea and observation of movement during cognitive and movement rehabilitation and states that the observation itself and imagination of movement has a positive influence on the optimal movement performance not only to be used for sportsmen, but also for people after trauma, or other neurological diagnosis. The resulted movement is then described by the individual quality of cognitive functions. These include: orientation in space (using visual and spatial area, which was a part of the rehabilitation process). The results of the study point to the fact, that the use of ICT has a positive effect on improving cognitive functions, based on the results of the experimental group (scored more point at the end using Addenbrooks cognitive test).

5. CONCLUSION

There is not yet any accessible commercial product on the market which could fulfil the nature of cognitive function rehabilitation (Vostrý a Dončevová, 2016). The used product which was at our disposal can be evaluated as very useful. The tool fulfilled all criteria which

were set at the beginning of the study. The only problem to which we have pointed to previously (articles, diploma thesis etc.), being the childish layout of the applications used and the set time limit, which then limits the full use of the application itself. It was the time which played a key role in completing all the tasks, which could not be done in time due to the limit set by the app. That is why only some parts of the app were used. The full potential then could not have been exploited e.g.: create and safe a file of game statistics even when the game goals were not fulfilled. The contemporary world is fully open to modern technologies and that is why a question needs to be raised: if in this area should some products be created which could help seniors, individuals suffering from dementia and all other patients for increasing their life quality in general. Not only that such individuals strive to become a part of the general *populis* (which creates the majority within a society), which uses technologies regularly and actively, but also they could further develop their cognitive skills (Hill, 2000). The study itself was quite complicated at first, when it comes to the negotiated time duration of the intervention, however over time organisational problems vanished completely. Probands (if we don't count in short term illnesses, exhaustion etc.) were with only little trouble participation and with little help were more than able to perform given tasks. As Laver et all., (2017) stated in the management of the behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia, and emphasize that symptoms should be prevented where possible and that, in the first place, non-pharmacological strategies should be used to manage the symptoms.

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EDUKAČNÍ INTERVENCE ZAMĚŘENÁ NA PODPORU MOTORIKY U SENIORŮ S VYBRANOU PROBLEMATIKOU

EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR MOTOR SUPPORT FOR SENIORS WITH SELECTED PROBLEMS

Michal Vostrý

Abstrakt

Příspěvek je zaměřen na seniory s Alzheimerovou chorobou (v tomto případě s lehkým typem) a rozvojem jejich jemné motoriky (zručnost). K samotnému rozvoji je využito ergoterapeutické intervence, jakožto rehabilitační oblast, která se u seniorů plnohodnotně uplatňuje. Využívá např. trénování úchopů pomocí modelových činností nebo k rozvoji jemné motoriky autor využívá moderních technologií (tablet, x-box apod.), které jsou běžnou součástí např. speciální pedagogiky, jejíž prvky se i v tomto případě uplatňovaly. Pro porovnání úspěšnosti intervence jsme využili standardizovaného testu Purdue Pegboard, který byl záměrně vybraným probandům předložen před začátkem intervence a následně po ukončení. Následně byly výsledky vstupního a výstupního testování mezi sebou komparovány.

Klíčová slova: *demence, ergoterapie, jemná motorika, uceleně-rehabilitační intervence, rozvoj motoriky*

Abstract

The paper is aimed at Alzheimer's seniors (in this case the light type) and the development of their fine motor skills (skill). The ergotherapeutical intervention is used as a rehabilitation area, which is fully utilized in the elderly. For example, the use of gripping techniques using modeling activities or the development of fine motoring, the author uses modern technologies (tablet, x-box, etc.), which are a common part of special pedagogy, the elements of which were applied in this case as well. To compare the success of the intervention, we used the standardized Purdue Pegboard test, which was deliberately selected for the probands before the intervention and afterwards. Subsequently, the results of the input and output testing were compared to each other.

Key words: *dementia, occupational therapy, fine motor skills, integrated rehabilitation interventions, motor development,*

1 ÚVOD

Jemná motorika poskytuje jedinci možnost manipulace např. s nějakým předmětem, ale také úzce souvisí s motorikou sdělovací (gesta). Tyto pohyby jsou charakteristické pro člověka moudrého, též označovaného jako homo sapiens sapiens. Díky těmto vlastnostem je schopen tvůrčí činnosti (Véle 1997). Tento stav, kdy jsme plně motoricky aktivní, je však u seniorů vlivem ontogeneze nebo progrese určitého onemocnění (demence) silně pozměněn. Obecně se zpomaluje motorické tempo samotného pohybu a vytrácí se schopnost udělat několik věcí najednou (Štěpánková et al. 2014). V průběhu stáří dochází k involučním změnám ve svalové tkáni, která obsahuje fázická (rychlá) a tonická (pomalá) vlákna. Samotná kapacita fyzických vláken je podmíněna geneticky, rovněž tak i úpony svalových vláken jsou individuálně predisponovány. Následným procesem je tak také ochabování tonických svalů (Holmerová

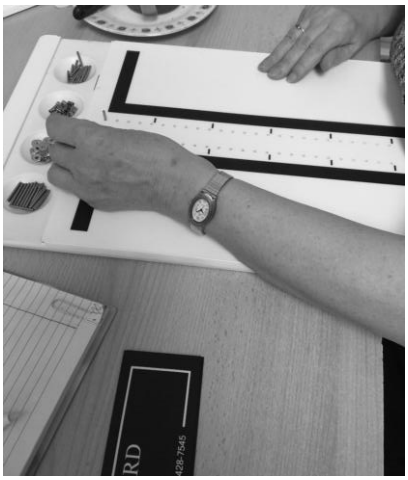
2007). Postupem času dochází k redukci pohybových dovedností a tím i k výrazné pohybové chudosti a hybné monotonii (Suter a Harvey 2011). Stárnutím postupně vázne schopnost vzájemného propojování jednotlivých pohybových činností (také aktů). Je patrno nedokonalé sdružování pohybů. Senior tak musí mnohem častěji zapojovat kortikální kontrolu, soustřeďovat pozornost a vykládat větší volní úsilí, aby zvládl konkrétní činnost při klasické lokomoci či jiné zvolené aktivitě (Špatenková a Smékalová 2015). Pokud již konkrétně budeme charakterizovat samotnou ergoterapii, je důležité zmínit, že podpora a rozvoj motoriky (ať jemné nebo hrubé) je prioritní záležitostí. Pokud zlepšíme kvalitu úchopů a samotné hybnosti v kloubech, můžeme tak jedince podpořit v samostatnosti a soběstačnosti (Krivošíková 2011). Míra soběstačnosti a samostatnosti ovlivňuje tělesný, ale také psychický stav jedince. Tím se podporuje také jeho socializace v rámci pobytového zařízení, ve kterém se nachází. Obecně je důležité zaměřit se nejen na rozvoj jemné motoriky, ale také na podporu hrubé motoriky spolu s kognitivními funkcemi, které jsou u osob trpících jakýmkoliv typem demence postupně narušovány (Opatřilová 2008). U Alzheimerovy choroby dochází k neurodegenerativnímu procesu, který je doprovázen atrofií mozku. Mozek tak ztrácí na váze a hmotnost je redukována pod 900 g oproti normálnímu stavu, který činní zhruba 1300 g (Kumar et al. 2007). Čím více progrese postupuje, tím je následně také spolupráce náročnější. Nejen, že se jedná o kognitivní deficit (narušení orientace, paměti, řeči apod.), ale také o narušení motoriky, kterou je důležité podporovat z důvodu udržení samostatnosti a soběstačnosti daného klienta (Vostrý a Dončevová 2016).

1.1 Metodologie výzkumu

Pro výzkum jsme využili 10 (označení A – J) probandů ve věkovém rozpětí 68-75 let. Prvotním kritériem byla stejná diagnóza (Alzheimerova choroba – lehký typ), která byla stanovena ve velmi podobném období (maximální rozpětí 4 měsíců). Výběr byl záměrný, jelikož námi stanovená kritéria byla velmi konkrétní. Celkově se nám podařilo najít 15 probandů, kteří splňovali podmínky, avšak 5 z nich spolupráci odmítlo. Zbylých 10 probandů se tak plně účastnilo naší intervence. Jednalo se o 100 % žen. Provedli jsme vstupní testování jemné motoriky pomocí Purdue Pegboard testu. Jedná se o test, který v praxi ergoterapie hodnotí jemnou motoriku a zručnost. Součástí testu je hodnocení úchopu, manipulace s kovovým kolíkem a jeho následné zasunutí do testové desky. Hodnotíme pravou a levou ruku zvlášť a je také možné vyšetřit obě horní končetiny při úkolu kompletování. Sledujeme rychlost a přesnost provedení úkolu, který následně bodově hodnotíme. Pro běžné testování pravé a levé ruky je nastaven 30 sekundový čas, na kompletování pak 60 sekund. Obvykle se testování provádí 3x za sebou, což nám zvyšuje spolehlivost testu (Krivošíková, 2011). Cílem našeho výzkumu bylo *zjistit, zda pravidelná ergoterapeutická intervence za využití ICT a klasických postupů (pracovní listy, modelové činnosti apod.), má vliv na rozvoj jemné motoriky u osob trpících lehkým typem Alzheimerovy choroby*. Výzkumná hypotéza pak zněla: *Pravidelná ergoterapeutická intervence povede ke zlepšení jemné motoriky u vybraných probandů trpících lehkým typem Alzheimerovy choroby.*

K samotné intervenci a edukaci jsme využili klasických ergoterapeutických postupů na rozvoj jemné motoriky (trénování úchopů, navlékání korálků, posilování svalů ruky apod.) a následně jsme intervenci doplnili samotným využitím tabletu spolu s pracovními listy, které jsou hojně využívány ve speciální pedagogice se zaměřením na rozvoj jemné motoriky. Zaměřili jsme se tak na trénování pohybů, které podporují rozvoj jemné motoriky. Zpočátku probandi kreslili pouze hrubé obrazce (kruhy, čáranice apod.) postupem intervence pak docházelo k zaměření na dokonalejší kresbu spojenou s psaním tiskací abecedy (Wallen a Walker, 1995). Průběh naší terapie trval půl roku vždy 1x týdně. Probandi byli předem seznámeni s tím, co je na terapii čeká a tak se naše intervence stala doplňkem služeb, které nabízela instituce, ve které jsme mohli testování provést. Na samotné intervenci se tak podílel

jak samotný výzkumník tak jím pověření asistenti, kteří byli předem zaúkolováni, aby byla zajištěna kontinuita ergoterapeutické intervence.
Samotný průběh testování je zaznamenán na obrázku č. 1 a 2, kde si můžeme všimnout precizního, drobného úchopu u klientky ve věku 75 let s diagnózou Alzheimerova choroba – lehkého typu.



Obr. č. 1 a 2 *– Testování pomocí testu Purdue Pegboard, začátek testování: klientka prvotně musí uchopit kovové kolíky a následně je vsouvat do připravené testové desky. Terapeut měří čas – 60 sekund. (zdroj: vlastní)*

1.2 Výsledky výzkumu

Pro interpretaci našich výsledků jsme využili volby komparace, kde uvádíme počet získaných bodů do 60 sekund. Za každé správné vložení kolíku s ostatními předměty získává klient 4 body, pokud stihne jen část, tím i úměrně ubývá počet bodů. Tabulka č. 1 nám popisuje výsledky vstupního vyšetření testem Purdue Pegboard před zahájením naší intervence. Probandi dosahovali velmi podobné úrovně výsledků. Maxima dosáhl proband označen jako G s průměrným počtem bodů 7,33/60 sekund. Minimum bodů získalo 7 klientů s výsledným průměrným počtem bodů 5,67/60 sekund. V tabulce č. 2 jsou zaznamenány výsledky výstupního vyšetření testem Purdue Pegboard po 6 měsíční ergoterapeutické intervenci, která byla cíleně zaměřena jak na rozvoj jemné motoriky (pomocí pravidelných cvičení a aktivit), tak také na podporu kognitivních funkcí klientů. Z výsledků je patrné statisticky významné zlepšení u sledovaných klientů (P = 0,021). V tomto případě lze za nejlepší výsledek považovat získání průměrného počtu bodů 8,00 bodů/60 sekund. Důležité však vzhledem k diagnóze probandů je, že nikdo z testovaných probandů nezaznamenal zhoršení stavu v komparaci s výsledky vstupního vyšetření. Rozdílnost mezi vstupním a výstupním hodnocením nám ukazuje graf č. 1.

Tabulka č. 1 *– Vstupní vyšetření pomocí Purdue Pegboard – Alzheimerova choroba – lehký typ (zdroj: vlastní)*

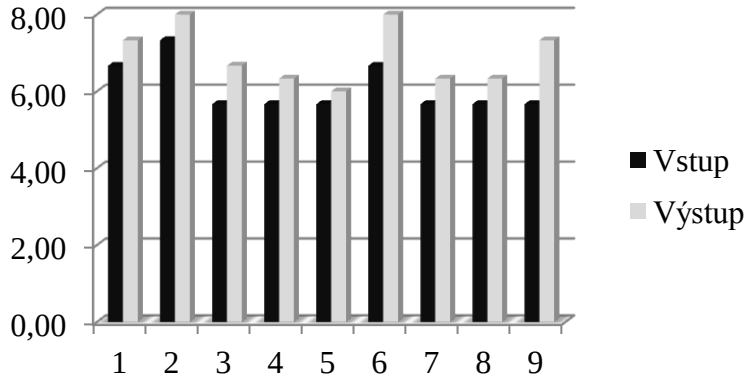
Vstupní testování				
Proband	**Pokus 1**	**Pokus 2**	**Pokus 3**	**Průměr**
A	7	7	8	**7,33**
B	8	8	8	**8,00**
C	7	6	7	**6,67**
D	7	6	6	**6,33**

E	6	6	6	**6,00**
F	9	7	8	**8,00**
G	7	6	6	**6,33**
H	6	6	7	**6,33**
I	7	6	6	**6,33**
J	8	7	7	**7,33**

Tabulka č. 2 *– Výstupní vyšetření pomocí Purdue Pegboard – Alzheimerova choroba – lehký typ (zdroj: vlastní)*

Výstupní testování				
Proband	**Pokus 1**	**Pokus 2**	**Pokus 3**	**Průměr**
A	7	6	7	**6,67**
B	7	7	8	**7,33**
C	5	6	6	**5,67**
D	6	5	6	**5,67**
E	5	6	6	**5,67**
F	7	7	6	**6,67**
G	5	6	6	**5,67**
H	6	6	5	**5,67**
I	6	6	5	**5,67**
J	7	6	6	**6,33**

Graf č. 1 *– Komparace výsledků mezi vstupním a výstupním testování pomocí Purdue Pegboard testu: Alzheimerova choroba – lehký typ (zdroj: vlastní)*



2 ZÁVĚR

Při naší ergoterapeutické intervenci a následné edukaci došlo ke statisticky významnému zlepšení oproti vstupnímu vyšetření a to u všech testovaných probandů. Domníváme se, že pravidelná aktivizace seniorů má své nezastupitelné místo v oblasti samotného ergoterapeutického působení. Naším cílem bylo zlepšení jemné motoriky klientů s diagnózou Alzheimerova choroba lehkého typu a zároveň ověření možnosti využití testu Purdue Pegboard u tohoto typu klientů v praxi. Obecně je problematika seniorů velmi diskutovaným tématem, mnohdy si je spojujeme právě s navyšujícím se kognitivním deficitem a zpomaleným motorickým tempem. Tyto složky lze plně aktivizovat pravidelným cvičením. U seniorů obecně je vhodné spojovat prvky kognitivní rehabilitace a pohybové terapie a tím spojit vše do jednoho uceleného procesu (Gillen 2008). Na základě zde zmiňovaných

výsledků, které byly získány od 10 vybraných probandů, můžeme říci, že pravidelná aktivizace tohoto typu klientů má pozitivní účinky na rozvoj jejich jemné motoriky, což prokazují výsledky vstupního a následně výstupního hodnocení za pomoci standardizovaného testu, který poukazuje na bodové zlepšení u všech probandů, kteří se aktivně účastnili naší intervence. Závěrem tak chceme podotknout, že jedince trpící Alzheimerovou chorobou, je důležité neustále edukovat a podporovat k jejich rozvoji nejen po kognitivní stránce, ale také motorické. Za využití ucelené rehabilitace tak na klienty můžeme působit po stránce psychologické, pedagogické, sociální a léčebné. Což je ideální kombinace, která by měla být vždy upřednostňována.

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ŽIDOVSKÁ TEMATIKA VE VÝUCE – GOLEM

JEWISH THEMES AT SCHOOL – GOLEM

Markéta Pokorová

Abstrakt

Práce volně navazuje na předešlý text zabývající se novými náměty do výuky literatury, tentokrát je však specificky zaměřena na postavu Golema. Skrze pečlivé studium vybraného fenoménu bylo zjištěno, že jde o ideální průřezové téma, jehož odkaz se nachází ve světe robotů a klonů, v moderních seriálech, komiksech, v manze či v počítačových hrách, díky čemuž lze studenty skrze to, co je jim blízké, poučit o židovské legendě efektivně, a přitom zábavně.

***Klíčová slova**: Židé, Golem, školství*

Abstract

The work is loosely linked to the previous text dealing with new topics in literature teaching, but this time it is specifically focused on the theme of Golem. Through a careful study of the chosen phenomenon, it has been found that this is an ideal cross-sectional theme linked to robots and clones, modern series, comics, manga and computer games which makes it possible for students, through what is close to them, to teach them the Jewish legend effectively as well as with fun.

***Kea words**: Jews, Golem, education*

1 GOLEM JAKO UMĚLÁ BYTOST

1.1 Golem jako proměnná

Už od nepaměti se lidé, z různých důvodů a s různou mírou úspěšnosti, pokoušejí stvořit umělý život[1]. I v golemovských legendách se kýžený proces zrcadlí, ba co víc, právě v nich bývá zdárně završen. Golem je tak svým způsobem splněným lidským snem, zároveň však osudy této postavy přivádí na přetřes otázku etiky a stávají se inspirativním námětem.

Zatímco v původních verzích příběhu dochází v rozhodující moment k zneškodnění neovladatelného „monstra“, moderní adaptace připodobňují přetržené pouto k „duševnímu osvobození“ a znovuzrozenému „individuu“ dopřávají lepší úděl. Stěžejní zápletka, v níž poslušná „loutka“ náhle přestane dbát pánových nitek, si tak udržuje nadčasovou platnost.

1.2 Biblický trupel

Poprvé bylo slovo „golem“ použito v žalmu 139., konkrétně v 16. verši, kde se jím myslel „zárodek“, „embryo“ respektive „věc beztvará posud nezformovaná do vyhraněné podoby.“ Autoři Bible kralické lexém přeložili jako „trupel“[2]: „*Trupel můj viděly oči tvé, v knihu tvou*

[1] Už ve Starověkém Egyptě byly jako součást pohřební výbavy využívány tzv. vešetby (hliněné sošky fungující jako zástupci/sluhové zemřelého). I slavná terakotová armáda, posmrtný doprovod čínského císaře, měla po vyslovení příslušné magické formule obživnout. Mezopotámci rovněž usilovali o tvorbu hliněného pomocníka a ve východních zemích se lidé opakovaně pokoušeli vdechnout život sochám Buddhy.

[2] V tomto případě jde o hapax legomenon, tedy o slovo, které se v textu vyskytuje pouze jednou.

všickni oudové jeho zapsáni jsou, i dnové, v nichž formováni byli, když ještě žádného z nich nebylo.“[3]

Dle výkladu exegeta[4] Šeloma Ben Jicchaka[5] řečeného Raši byl vůbec prvním golemem v tomto slova smyslu Adam v krátkém období mezi tím, kdy Bůh stvořil jeho tělo, a než mu vdechl život[6]. Oproti tomu první zmínky o golemovi jakožto o homunkulovi[7], a tedy o umělém člověku, pochází jednak z traktátu *Sanhedrin* v tzv. *Babylonském talmudu*[8], především pak ze spisu *Sodej rozaja* (Tajemství tajemství) Eleazara Ben Jehudy z Wormsu[9] v komentáři k *Sefer jecira* (Kniha Stvoření).

1.3 Golem a kabalisté

Židovská mystika[10] převážně pracuje s idejí božské podstaty písma a slova. To ostatně prozrazuje úvodní pasáž *Tanachu*[11], která říká, že na začátku všeho stálo slovo. Podle kabalistů tak existuje skryté jméno Boží, obsažené v *Tóře*[12], jehož prostřednictvím může praktikující mystik napodobit stvoření. Nikdy nebude schopen téhož, co učinil Hospodin, totiž přivést na svět plnohodnotnou živou bytost, správná kombinace písmen Božího jména však dokáže oživit bytost umělou.

Leo Pavlát[13] dodává: „*Podle díla Sefer jecira (Kniha utváření) jsou písmena hebrejské abecedy ve smyslu materiálním i energickém a jejich kombinace umožňuje stvořit svět v celé jeho rozmanitosti. Odtud také pochází idea golema jako umělé bytosti stvořené člověkem. Právě v komentářích k tomuto dílu z 12. - 13. století se objevují první návody na stvoření golema.*“[14]

Podle Gershoma Sholema[15], profesora Hebrejské univerzity v Jeruzalémě a zakladatele moderního akademického studia kabaly, již ve 12. století došlo k prvním iniciovaným mystickým obřadům zaměřeným na tvorbu umělé bytosti.

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[3] Ž 139, 16. Bible kralická, Brno: Levné knihy, 2010, str. 505, ISBN: 978-80-7309-138-5.

[4] Řeč je o tzv. exegezi neboli výkladu uměleckého textu. V původní teologické tradici bylo interpretováno Písmo Svaté, přičemž exegetický spisovatel byl „vykladačem“ složitého biblického textu.

[5] Raši (1040-1105), významný aškenázský exegetický spisovatel, jehož komentáře k Talmudu a téměř ke všem knihám Starého zákona jsou dodnes považovány za korektního a srozumitelného průvodce staorzákonní literaturou. Soubor jeho komentářů k Tóře byl první hebrejskou tištěnou knihou (1475) a často bývá součástí rabínských edicí Tanachu.

[6] Příběh Adamův je podrobně popsán v Genesis (první z pěti knih Starého zákona).

[7] Z lat. „človíček“.

[8] Kapitola 39b popisující Adama nejprve jako uměle stvořeného panáka, který de facto poslouchá Boží příkazy (až do incidentu s jablkem).

[9] Významný židovský učenec a exeget (1165-1230), autor řady učených spisů.

[10] Kabala, hebrejsky קבלה ,doslova „přijatá tradice“. Kabalisté (mystikové) žijí příkladně v souladu s talmudickými předpisy, čímž se snaží maximálně přiblížit Bohu. Kabalisté studují a naplňují Boží přikázání. Významným centrem židovské mystiky se stalo město Safed v Galileji, kde se dodnes nacházejí hrobky slavných mystiků (Rabbi Akiva).

[11] Židovská Starý zákon. TaNaCh – akronym, který vznikl z počátečních písmen názvů jednotlivých spisů: Tóra (תורה (Učen ,Zákon Nevi'im (נביאם (ProrociKtuvim (כתובים Tanach bývá označová .(Spisy ;
také jako Mikra (מקרא)."Čtení"neboli "Tora"Někdy se celý Tanach sjednocuje pod názvem

[12] Tóra (תורה Zákon, Učení) Jedná se o prvních 5 knih Starého zákona: Genesis (בראשית *Be-rešit)*, Exodus (שמות *Šemot)*, Leviticus (ויקרא *Va-jikra)*, Numeri (במדבר *Ba-midbar)*, Deuteronomium (דברים *Devarim*). Někdy se tímto názvem označuje celý Tanach včetně Proroků (*Nevi'im* נביאם(a Spisů (*Ktuvim* כתובים).

[13] PhDr. Leo Pavlát se narodil v Praze v roce 1950. Je českým/židovským novinářem, spisovatelem a diplomatem, prvním a současným ředitelem Židovského muzea v Praze. Působil jako český velvyslanec v Tel Avivu, psal fejetony pro BBC. S Českým rozhlasem spolupracuje na tvorbě pořadů zabývajících se židovskými tradicemi, připravuje i rozhlasový pořad pražské židovské obce Šalom Alejchem.

[14] VLČEK, Martin, 2006. Záhady české historie. *Naše rodina* [online] 2006, 38 (11) [citováno 21. 3. 2017]. Dostupné z: http://www.rodinaonline.cz/article.php?clanek=1.

[15] 1897- 1982, Izraelský filosof a historik a jeden z předních myslitelů 20. století, zakladatel moderního akademického studia kabaly, vyučoval na Hebrejské univerzitě, pocházel z Německa.

„*Potom vezmi sklenici plnou čisté vody, vezmi malou lžíci a naplň ji prachem… nasyp prach do vody a jemně foukej během sypání na hladinu vody. A když začneš foukat na první lžíci, odříkávej písmena Božího jména, hlasitě, na jeden nádech, dokud duch nevyjde s dechem a tvář měj obrácenou k zemi. Začni s vrškem hlavy, dokud neskončíš prvních osm domů, abys ochránil hlavu…A budeš odříkávat druhých osm domů, abys ochránil tělo podle příkazu… A budeš odříkávat třetích osm domů, abys ochránil údy a duši. A pak se výtvor zjeví…*“[16] psal ve 13. století Abrahám Abulafia[17]. Za pomoci holotropní dýchání a správné koncentrace bylo podle španělského kabalisty možné upadnout do stavu mystického transu, jenž umožňoval konat zázraky.

Profesor Sholem dokonce naznačoval, že ve své době patřila výroba golema k tzv. zasvěcovaným rituálům:„*Vytváření golemů bylo jakýmsi testem duchovního a náboženského vývoje kabalistů a prubířským kamenem jejich schopností.*“[18]

1.4 Tajemství šému

Pakliže kabalista tajné přízvisko boží objeví a napíše správnou kombinaci písmen na listinu, stává se majitelem tzv. šému. V některých legendách je zapotřebí tento pergamen vložit golemovi do úst, načež obr ožívá. Po odstranění šému panák opět ochabuje. Další „zrození“ golema spočívá ve vyrytí konkrétních slov na jeho čelo[19]. Šém lze rovněž pověsit na tabulce na krk.

Jindy musí majitelé šémů specifický kód nahlas přečíst[20]. S touto verzí pracuje současná americká autorka Helene Weckerová ve své knize *Golema a džin v New Yorku*[21]. V jedné ze scén dostává mladý rabínův učedník Avram za úkol zhotovit golema z připravené hroudy hlíny: „*Starý rabín mu podal kousek papíru, na kterém byla napsána krátká věta. Avram s bušícím srdcem ta slova pronesl. Onen malý tmavý předmět se v tu chvíli posadil, rozhlédl se kolem a pak se postavil a začal pochodovat po desce stolu.*“[22] Učedník tedy uspěje a začíná svému neuměle splácanému golemovi rozkazovat. Jakmile však panáček dostává za úkol zabít pavouka, přestává dbát dalších povelů a dál pustoší věci kolem. Jediným východiskem je umělou bytost za pomoci jiné větné kombinace zlikvidovat: „*Jakmile golem najde zálibu v ničení…dokážou ho zastavit jen slova, která ho zničí…všichni sdílejí tutéž základní podstatu…Jsou to nástroje člověka a jsou nebezpeční. Když zlikvidují, své nepřátele, obrátí se proti svým přátelům. Jsou to stvoření pro nejnutnější případy.*“[23]

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[16] MACKERLE, Ivan. Hledání golema. *Ivan Mackerle*. [online]. 2009 [citováno 21. 3. 2017]. Dostupné z: http://www.mackerle.cz/news/hledani-golema/.

[17] Sefardský kabalista (1240 – 1291), který se mimo jiné pokusil přimět papeže Mikuláše III. ke konverzi k judaismu.

[18] MACKERLE, Ivan. Hledání golema. *Ivan Mackerle*. [online]. 2009 [citováno 21. 3. 2017]. Dostupné z: http://www.mackerle.cz/news/hledani-golema/.

[19] Nejznámějším klíčem pro oživení obra touto cestou se stal hebrejský výraz pro „pravdu“, a tedy „emet“. K deaktivaci pak stačí umazat první písmeno. Z pravdy se tak rázem stává „smrt“ – „met“. Právě tímto heslem oživuje svého sluhu rabín z pohádek bratří Grimmů.

[20] V takové případě jsou vyžadovány dvě grafické kombinace, jedna pro uvedení golema do provozu a druhá pro jeho zastavení.

[21] Kniha z roku 2013 byla přeložena do více než sedmnácti jazyků a těší se značné oblibě. Dílo popisuje „životní“ úděl golemy Šavy, jejíž pán zemřel na sklonku 19. století během plavby z Gdaňsku do NY, a džina Ahmada vysvobozeného v témže městě i v tutéž dobu z lahve po více jak tisíci letech avšak stále uvězněného v lidském těle. Weckerová se v mnohých ohledech řídí historickými fakty, vědeckými nálezy i původními legendami.

[22] WECKEROVÁ, Helene. *Golema a džin v New Yorku*. 1. vyd. Praha: Dobrovský, str. 139. ISBN: 978-80-7306-616-1.

[23] WECKEROVÁ, Helene. *Golema a džin v New Yorku*. 1. vyd. Praha: Dobrovský, str. 140. ISBN: 978-80-7306-616-1.

1 GOLEM JAKO UMĚLÁ INTELIGENCE

2.1 Zrod robota a klonu

Jak z textu vyplývá, tvorba umělé bytosti mohla představovat jakousi „maturitu“ kabalistů. V úplných začátcích byl navíc golem určen k chrámové službě. Jiné využití umělé bytosti bylo považováno za rouhání.

Později začal trupel pomáhat v domácnosti. Spektrum úkolů, jež umělý tvor zastával, bylo v takovém případě široké. Čas od času majitelé šémů svými požadavky dokonce překračovali práh konvencí. Šelomo ibn Gabirol si v 11. století vytesal dřevěnou služebnou bytost ženského pohlaví, s níž podle udání sousedů „prováděl všeliké nemravnosti“[24].

Nejednalo se ale vždy jen o výrobu bezmezně oddaného sluhy, otroka na klíč. S golemovskými příběhy jsou spjata jména jako Judel Rosenberg, Chajim Bloch či Elie Wiesel[25], kteří posunuli symboliku dál. Tito autoři vložili do legendy nový motiv, a totiž: hliněný panák vzniká jako nástroj na ochranu obce před falešnými nařčeními z rituální vraždy.

V díle Gustava Meyrinka golem symbolizuje úzkost, je doslovným zhmotněním očekávaného zla. V románě *Golem* z roku 1910 totiž postava vystupuje jako předzvěst asanace židovského ghetta, jako démon, jemuž nelze uniknout: „*Vždy jednou za lidskou generaci proběhne Židovským městem jakási duchovní epidemie, zmocňuje se lidských duší za účelem, který nám zůstává skryt, a jejím vlivem vznikají – stejně jako fata morgana – obrysy charakteristické lidské bytosti, která tu snad kdysi žila a žízní po uskutečnění tvaru.*“[26]

Se zásadní novinkou v pojetí golema přichází osvícenství. Golema jakožto účinnou zbraň nově tvoří (většinou šílený) vědec, astronom či dokonce mechanik. Instrument v podobě oživené sochy má původně sloužit jako ochránce, pomocník či dárce, nicméně situace se brzy vymyká kontrole a je potřeba zakročit.

Přesun z „mystična“ k fyzice, od čaroděje k vědátorovi, umožňuje záměnu čistě židovských pánů za světské postavy, jak vypráví například M. Shellyová ve *Frankesteinovi*[27]. Vzniká tak půda pro mnohé dnešní příběhy, v nichž golem není principiálně postavou prázdnou s předem vyhraněným osudem.

Své o tom věděl i Karel Čapek. V *Rossumových universálních robotech* (1921) rozebírá otázku vyšších citů strojů velmi podrobně a vkusně. Zároveň varuje před nebezpečími spojenými s moderní technologií: „*Nikdy už lidstvo nebude s Roboty hotovo, nikdy jich neovládne –* “[28]

2.2 „Zgolemovaná“ společnost - komiks, seriál, manga

Posun z duté masy hlíny k propracovanému stroji souvisí mimo jiné s preferencemi společnosti po průmyslové revoluci. Zatímco náboženstvím a kouzly prosycená období starověku a středověku byly skvělým podhoubím pro židovské legendy, století páry a

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[24] Otázkou možného obcování s umělými bytostmi se teoreticky zabývali zejména autoři komentářů ke Knize stvoření. Ti se ve svých názorech rozcházeli. A tak zatímco v popsaném případě bylo jednání Gabirola odsouzeno a jeho figurína byla rozebrána, jiný učenec tvrdil, že na styku s golemem, ani na jeho případném zabití, není nic špatného, neboť se nejde o lidské tvory, tudíž nedochází k porušení desatera.

[25] Narozen 1928 v Rumunsku. Prošel Osvětimí, osvobozen byl v Buchenwaldu. Působil jako překladatel ve Francii, v 90. letech odešel do NY, stal se profesorem filosofie a náboženství v Bostonu a předsedou americké rady na paměť obětí holocaustu, bojoval proti znevažování historických událostí, napsal několik knih (autobiografický román *Noc*) na golemovské téma, je nositelem Nobelovy ceny za literaturu.

[26] MEYRINK, Gustav. Golem. 6. vyd. Praha: Argo, 2005, str. 34. ISBN: *9781873982914*.

[27] Autorka sama v úvodu knihy přiznává, že ji inspirovaly německé romantické strašidelné příběhy. Bratři Grimmové, jejichž dílo vycházelo touž dobou, se golemovskými legendami zabývali podrobně a není tudíž vyloučeno, že právě jejich verze mohla Shellyovou zaujmout.

[28] ČAPEK, Karel. RUR*: rossum's universal robots*. Praha: Artur, 2004. Edice D, str. 62. ISBN 80-86216-46-2. Dostupní také zde: https://web2.mlp.cz/koweb/00/03/34/75/81/rur.pdf.

vynálezy Edisona, Bella a dalších odváděly pozornost k továrnám a strojům. Ne nadarmo tak použil Chajim Bloch v knize *Der Prag Golem* slova „vergolemt“, doslova „zgolemovaný“, pro charakteristiku doby po první světové válce. Z umělé bytosti se stává umělá inteligence, z golema vzniká robot. A od robota není daleko k počítači či ke klonu.
Neotřelým způsobem se k problematice staví filmové studio Universal prostřednictvím akčního hrdiny *Terminátora* (1984, Cameron). Za vůbec prvního robota se schopností samostatného myšlení a cítění je mnohými považován přeprogramovaný policejní droid *Chappie* (2015, Blomkamp), hrdina stejnojmenného akčního snímku z roku 2015. Dětští diváci se s golemem seznamují v podobě *Čísla 5* (1986, Badham), robotů z *Ocelové pěsti* (2011, Levy), Rodneyho z *Robotů* (2005, Wedge, Saldanha) nebo *Wall.e.ho* (2008, Stanton).
Milovníci komiksů vzpomenou na *Avangera*[29] jménem Vision a na jeho stvořitele, robota Ultrona, nebo na současnou mangu (anime) *Attack on Titan*[30]. Ve všech případech se potýkáme buď s charaktery stvořenými za pomoci mimozemské technologie[31], nebo s tvory záhadného původu, často s jasným cílem mstít se lidské rase.
Komiks však nezanevírá ani na golema původního, čehož je důkazem série *Golem* od studia Olydri (poprvé vyšlo v dubnu 2016), *The Golem Retwins* od C. S. Gebinové (2008), texty *Golem* H. Golsteinové (paperback 2013) a stejnojmenný titul A. Lexe Leunga. Děj posledního komiksu se odehrává na konci devadesátých let v Sarajevu po vyvrcholení balkánského konfliktu. Profesor okultních věd Srdjan Zivojin vyrábí golema, neboť obyvatelé města potřebují ochránit. Situace se však vymkne kontrole. Golem se rovněž objevuje v sérii izraelského autora Eliho Esheda[32] (2003) či v dílech Michaela Chabona.
Podobně jako golem se chová také postava jménem Gumby z komiksu Boba Burdona. Nelze také opominout postavu Galaktického golema (vytvořená L. Luthorem), jenž bojuje v jedné z mnoha kapitol se *Supermanem*.
V souvislosti s *Fantastickou čtyřkou*, přiznal v roce 2002 Jack Kirby, jeden z tvůrců, že se nechal u postavy nazvané v originále „The Thing“ inspirovat hebrejskými legendami, jež mu vyprávěla jeho matka, původem Židovka: „*Byla plná legend, které sama psávala. Všechno dramatizovala, měla velkou představivost, o všem jsme mluvili a mluvili a ona si pro mě vymýšlela příběhy. Myslím, že styl, jakým tvořím komiksy, je přímo inspirovaný tím, jak na mně působila.*“[33]
V dubnu 2004 vyšel komiks pojmenovaný *Monolit* odehrávající se v New Yorku 30. let, jehož hrdinou se stal golem uhnětený J. Plamiottim, J. Grayem a P. Winsladem. Ten zůstával mnoho let v zajetí domu, než jej po své babičce zdědila Alice Cohenová, drogově závislá prostitutka.
Těm, jež lákají postapokalyptické scénáře, případně se zajímají o vědecké pokusy, neunikají snímky typu *Ostrov* (2005, Bay), *Hvězdné války* (1977, Lukas) hemžící se uměle produkovanými klony, a nakonec ani moderní seriál *Černé zrcadlo* (2011, Brooker).
Příběhy Černého zrcadla na sebe nenavazují, spojuje je však téma „mediální svět 21. století a jeho nebezpečí“. V úvodní epizodě 2. řady, v originále nazvaném *Be Right Back*, tak ovdovělá žena podléhá svým citům a zakoupí si nově nabízenou službu. Počítačový program

[29] Hrdinové studia Marvel, výjimečné osobnosti se specifickými schopnostmi ochraňující Zemi před zlem.
[30] Autor Hajime Isayama, vydávaná od roku 2009 do prosince 2016. Lidská rasa byla napadena neznámými obry a přežívá v několika opevněných městech. Léta míru ukončuje útok šedesátimetrového golema na město Maria, jejž proti výpadu neuchrání ani dosud nepřekonané zdi.
[31] Někteří záhadologové si existenci golema snaží vysvětlit prostřednictví mimozemské civilizace. Golem pro ně představuje jakéhosi „robota oplácaného vrstvou hlíny“.
[32] Současný izraelský filmový a televizní tvůrce, autor komiksů a kulturní popularizátor, který prostřednictvím golema popisuje vývoj komiksového žánru v zemi.
[33] Volný překlad, originál dostupný zde: http://www.comicmonsters.com/modules.php?name=Content&pa=showpage&pid=962.

prostřednictvím facebookových, mailových a dalších videí a zpráv, které kdy její muž poslal a natočil, vytváří simulaci manželova „já“[34].
Padne-li hovor na klony, mnozí si vzpomenou i na bláznivou komedii *Jako vejce vejci* (1996, Ramis), v níž stavební inženýr Doug bojuje s nedostatkem času za pomoci svého umělého dvojníka. Bohužel, ani ten nestíhá plnit zadané úkoly a situaci řeší tvorbou dalšího golema…
Pakliže jsem zmínila *Star Wars*, nelze v souvislosti s tématem opominout dva dnes již legendární roboty, R2D2 a 3PO, kteří rovněž posunuli hranici vnímání umělé bytosti recipientem. Podobně učinil i maniodepresivní Marwin ze *Stopařova průvodce po galaxii* (1979, Adams) či superchytrý/á Holy operující v rámci *Červeného trpaslíka* (1988 – 2016, Grant, Naylor) nebo počítačově naprogramovaný Rimmer (hologram) z téhož britského sitcomu. Cestu k obecenstvu si našla i vesmírná auta, tzv. *Transformers* (2007, Bay), robot Gortem ze snímku *Den, kdy se zatavila země* (1951, Wise), nebo apokalyptický *Jox* (1989, Gordon).
Srdce mnohých získal nedokončený robotický mladík ztvárněný Johnym Deppem, tzv. *Střihoruký Edward* (1990, Burton). Vynálezce svého golema nestačil dotvořit, neboť během práce dostal infarkt. Edwardovi tak zůstaly místo rukou nůžky. Nesmrtelný homunkulus dlouho žije osiřele na skále nad městem, nakonec však najde porozumění a lásku.
Do jaké míry může golem ovlivnit své jednání, řeší i detektivní příběh Alexe Proyase *Já, robot* (2004). Přítel detektiva Spoonera doktor Hogenmillera páchá sebevraždu, nicméně Spooner pojímá podezření a začne událost prošetřovat. Brzy zjišťuje, že lékař se stal obětí spiknutí. Mohl však vraždit robot, na nějž důkazy ukazují? Hned v úvodu snímku jsou citovány 3 zákony robotiky: „*1. Robot nesmí ublížit člověku nebo svou nečinností dopustit, aby bylo člověku ublíženo. 2. Robot musí uposlechnout příkazů člověka, kromě případů, kdy jsou tyto příkazy v rozporu s prvním zákonem. 3. Robot musí chránit sám sebe před poškozením, kromě případů, kdy je tato ochrana v rozporu s prvním nebo druhým zákonem.*“[35]
Pravidla ve svých dílem stanovil Isaak Asimov, světově proslulý autor židovského původu. Poprvé vyšla v roce 1942 v povídce *Hra na honěnou* a dnes jsou označována za dogma science fiction. V Chicagu budoucnosti (2035), kde se odehrává příběh filmu, jsou všechny služebné stroje programovány tak, aby jednaly ve shodě s trojicí základních požadavků. Nejednal by tedy robot – násilník - v rozporu se svým nastavením? Vyzrál někdo na propracovaný systém? A co když se stroje naopak rozhodly zásady dodržovat do nejmenšího detailu?
Samostatnou kapitolu tvoří počítačový svět *Matrixu* (1999, Wachovski), v němž lidstvo slouží pouze jako zdroj tepla, zatímco reálný „život“ se již odehrává ve světě strojů. Zajímavě je téma převahy počítačů zpracováno i ve snímku *Náhradníci* (2009, Mostow) a do jisté míry také ve filmu *Gamer* (2009, Neveldine, Taylor).
Vzájemné ovlivňování života lidí a strojů se zrcadlí i v příběhu tzv. *Harcord Henryho* (2015, Naishuller, natočeno „ich formou“). Ten se narodil jako člověk, nicméně po té, kdy byl vážně zraněn, přišel na svět podruhé, a to jako cyborg[36] s robotickými končetinami, jejichž funkčnost lze zajistit pouze implantací kybernetické pumpy přímo do srdce.
V japonské manze *One piece*[37] se objevuje pirát Kuma, jehož v pozdějších epizodách přetváří geniální vědec Vegapunk na robota: vzor pro mariňácké bojové stroje.

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[34] Moderní technologie je nejen schopna reagovat pro ženu známým způsobem v rámci běžné konverzace, nýbrž dokáže napodobit manželův hlas, v pozdější fázi si vdova objednává golema v podobě umělého dvojníka zesnulého. V závěrečné scéně se však dokonalá aplikace neprokáže, neboť stroj nedokáže správně vnímat emocionální rozpoložení své partnerky a reaguje v rozporu s tím, jak by očekávala. Až v tu chvíli si hrdinka uvědomuje, do jaké míry se nechala počítačem ovlivnit, umělé náhrady se vzdává a začíná truchlit.
[35] Já, robot (2004, Proyas). Text rovněž zde: http://www.robouniversum.wz.cz/zakony.html.
[36] Bytost s organickými i mechanickými částmi těla.
[37] Manga Oličiró Oda o chlapci, který touží stát se pirátským králem.

Ornamentální nápis „emet“ nosí na svých laclových kalhotách rovněž tzv. Nejstarší golem, postava moderní mangy *Soul Eater*[38]. Typický homunkul se dvěma očima, kulatou hlavou a velkými zuby, jehož tělo je však vyrobeno z hlíny a celkově převyšuje živé druhy[39], se v sérii objevuje ve 26. epizodě 24. kapitoly (The Oldest Golem). Čarodějnice Arachne jej zneužívá jako úkryt své duše před bohem smrti.
Za zmínku jistě stojí i současný seriál *Westworld* (2016, Nolan). Zábavní park plný umělých stvoření funguje jakožto relaxační zóna pro lidské návštěvníky, ale s vývojem technologií a s postupem času se stává noční můrou pro „golemy“, kteří získávají pojem o vlastním já a vnímají velmi dobře, co se kolem odehrává[40]. Divák zároveň přemýšlí o tom, do jaké míry by byla podobná hra morální, přestože by „neživí“ zůstali všech citů zbaveni.

2.3 Golemky a robotky – genderové vyvážení

Umělá bytost v čase mění svoji náturu. Až do 20. st. se s pojmem golem pojil v zásadě jen hrdina mužského pohlaví, dá-li v tomto smyslu o pohlaví hovořit. Fenoménem moderní doby lze nazvat snahy o genderové vyvážení. Na řadu proto přicházejí tzv. golemy a robotky.
Zatímco Werich v *Císařově pekaři* podobnou možnost nastiňuje (falešné golema Sirael ztvárněná lidskou herečkou), Helene Weckerová pracuje se „skutečnou“ umělou ženou: „*Měla však duši? Na pohled byla odpověď jasná: ne. Jen Všemohoucí mohl obdařit nějaké stvoření duší, tak jako svým božským dechem vnukl duši Adamovi. Kdežto golemu nevytvořil bůh, ale člověk. Jakýkoliv duch, kterého mohla mít, by byl nanejvýš dílčí, jen pouhý úlomek. Kdyby ji obrátil v prach, byl by to neoprávněný akt zničení; nedalo by se to však hodnotit jako vražda. Ona biblická ujištění však bledla tváří v tvář samotné golemě…*“[41]
David Mitchell, autor bestselleru *Atlas mraků*, z dívky Sonmi-451 dokonce činí bohyni budoucnosti po té, kdy je ochotna obětovat se pro lepší vyhlídky svých přátel. Alex Garland se rovněž specializuje na robotky. Ve snímku *Ex machina* (2014) tak dostává prostor Ava, jež je výsledkem unikátního technologického experimentu a jejíž komunikační schopnosti dokáží i odborníky vyvést z konceptu.
Loňský rok se navíc nesl ve znamení úspěšné mangy *Ghost in the shell*. Děj se odehrává ve futuristickém Japonsku, kde veřejný pořádek hlídají roboti společnosti Hanka Robotics. Hlavní hrdinkou[42] je robotka z elitního týmu Sekce 9, ve filmové verzi (2017, Sanders) ztvárněná S. Johanssonovou.
Jinou známou mangou (anime), v níž vystupuje golema, je *Bleach*[43]. Její jméno zní Nemu Kurocuči. Jedná se o umělou bytost, již stvořil Korocuči jako svoji asistentku. Její modifikované tělo je imunní vůči různým druhům jinak smrtelných zranění. Nemu tak mimo

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[38] Manga Acuši Ókuba, vycházela mezi lety 2003- 2013. Děj se odehrává ve fiktivní škole, kde jsou lidé se schopností transformace ve zbraň cvičeni v boji proti čarodějnicím. Manga existuje i ve verzi anime, přičemž jeden díl se odehrává v Praze. Nejstarší golem navíc není jediným svého druhu v příběhu.
[39] Podle některých názorů byl golem z mangy Soul Eater po fyzické stránce inspirovaný postavou Leatherface ze snímku Texaský masakr motorovou pilou.
[40] Jedna z mnoha teorií hovoří o seriálu jako o biblické alegorii. Anthony Hopkins alias doktor Ford, zakladatel a kreativní ředitel parku, je zde svým způsobem vsazen do role „Spasitele“. Robotka Dolores představuje pokoušenou Evu, jejímž Adamem je věrný Teddy. Černý jezdec (William) představuje hada pokušitele (charakter podlý, ne však zcela negativní), centrum labyrintu (Arnoldova hádanka) symbolizuje strom pravdy (jablko poznání). Svoji roli hraje také fakt, že umělá stvoření Westworldu (stejně jako první lidé v Edenu), se ocitají před svými stvořiteli nazí. V tomto případě by scénáristé dávali zapravdu exegetům, a totiž: Adam a Eva se z homunkulů v lidi postupně vyvinuli.
[41] WECKEROVÁ, Helene. *Golema a džin v New Yorku*. 1. vyd. Praha: Dobrovský, str. 173. ISBN: 978-80-7306-616-1.
[42] Text se robotka hemží. Zajímavé jsou například robogejši.
[43] Šónem manga Tita Kuba, do roku 2012 vyházela v českém překladu Anny Křivánkové. Byla ohodnocena jeko 4. nejoblíbenější anime příběh. Získala řadu ocenění.

jiné funguje jako schránka jedů a léků. Svého pána němě následuje a plní všechny jeho příkazy.
V současné době jsou výraznými golemovskými hrdinkami jednak Dolores a Madam Meave ze seriálu *Westworld* či počítačový program A.L.I.E., založený vědkyní Baccou v seriálu *100*. Z dřívějška lze zmínit robotku Evu, partnerku Wall.e.ho či Cappy, životní lásku Rodneyho z animovaných Robotů. V rámci komiksu mohu připomenout tzv. „Working Girl", golemu vytvořenou na zakázku magazínu HEEB.
Nakonec právě humanoidní robotka Sofia[44] je považovaná v současnosti za nejiteligentnější umělou bytost světa. Při rozhovorech, jež poskytla během své návštěvy na Týdench inovací v Praze[45], prozradila, že ačkoliv jako stroj je bezpohlavní, ženský design ji nevadí, označila se dokonce za feministku. Na otázku, v čem vidí největší rozdíl mezi roboty a lidmi, reagovala prosbou: „*To mi řekněte vy!*" Sofia také prohlásila, že o Praze už mnohé slyšela. Mimo jiné to, že právě tam vzniklo slovo robot, což ji nadchlo.

2.4 Počítačové, deskové a jiné hry

Při tvorbě herních hrdinů autoři často sahají do legend a narazí-li na obra nevídané síly, jásají. Golema je navíc zapotřebí stvořit (což mnohý herní plán po svých účastnících vyžaduje) a jeho chování je do jisté míry stabilní, tedy žádoucí. Zároveň má jaksi v popisu práce se občas kontrole vymknout, tedy jedná se o ideální herní charakter.
Výše zmíněného využili například tvůrci PC (a rovněž anime) *Pokémon*[46]. Golem pokémonů existuje hned několik druhů. Vyskytují se na hornatých územích nebo pod povrchem a mají schopnost „zakuklení". Mohou se zvětšit, ale při styku se vzduchem se smrští a zalézají zpět pod zem. Jejich krunýř (vypadají jako velké neohrabané želvy) nepoškodí ani granát. Poprvé se objevili v díle the *Bridge Bike Gang*.
Postava Golem také figuruje v rámci oblíbené PC hry *Minecraft*[47]. Chodí zde pouze po vesnicích, je přátelská k jejím obyvatelům, imunní vůči útokům, topení i pádu.
V roce 2016 byla uvedena na trh počítačová hra s názvem *Golem*. Její tvůrci ze studia Moonbot, majitelé Oscara v kategorii krátkých animovaných filmů, se byli inspirovat v Praze: „*Podle autorů hry je golem ve své podstatě předobrazem pro ještě mnohem slavnější fiktivní umělé bytosti, jako je Frankenstein(ovo monsturm) nebo Terminátor. Jeho legenda je týmž příběhem o oživlém stroji, který se obrátil proti svému stvořiteli. V tomto případě však golem nemá být jen neohrabaným služebníkem, ale spíše válečným strojem, který má pomoci Prahu uchránit před invazí šlechtického rodu Borgiů.*"[48]
Dragon Quest, v současnosti jedna z nejúspěšnější konsolových her, má také svého golema a nejen jednoho. V rámci příběhu se lze setkat s hrdinou Kamenným, Zlatým, ba dokonce Čokoládovým, jenž má na čele růžovým písmem vyryto slovo „Láska". Postava nechybí ani

[44] Sofia (z řeckého výrazu „moudrost") byla poprvé aktivována v roce 2015, jejím tvůrcem je David Hanson (Hanson Robotics), jež původně zamýšlel vytvořit robota vhodného pro asistenci v sociálních službách. Sofia jako první robot získala státní občasntví (Saudská Arabie). Více zde: https://www.irozhlas.cz/veda-technologie/praha-sophia-robot-selfie_1805141932_rez.
[45] Každoročný celorepubliková událost k podpoře inovací, letos se konala v Praze mezi 14. a 20. květnem.
[46] Inteligentní bytost známá z japonských videoher společnosti Nintendo, později přenesená rovněž do animovaného světa.
[47] Hru vyvinul v roce 2009 Švéd Marcus Persson. Základní verze spočívá ve snaze hráčů přežít v nehostinném světě pouze s využitím přírodních zdrojů.
[48] Více zde: http://praha.idnes.cz/golem-ozije-v-americke-pocitacove-hre-z-historicke-prahy-pku-/metro.aspx?c=A130210_142826_co-se-deje_mpe.

ve světově uznávaném *Warcraftu*[49]. Opět se lze setkat s vícerem typů golemů. Využívaní jsou zejména ti Váleční, ale ve hře se objevují i obři Nebeští.
Hovoříme-li o deskové zábavě, lze zmínit karetní hry *Warlock Deck* a *Heratstone Deck*, v nichž figurují např. Anima Golem, Lotus Golem, Druid Golem apod. Stolní hra *Golem* existuje také[50].
I známá mobilní hra *Clash Royal Cards* obsahuje figuru Golema. Je popisován jako extrémně silná postava s destrukčními schopnostmi. Stejná společnost produkuje i aplikaci *Clash of Clans*, v níž lze hrací postavičku Golema zakoupit jak na útok, tak na obranu. V tomto případě se jedná o obra kamenného s mohutnýma rukama a fialovýma očima. Golem se rovněž pohybuje ve hře *Terraria Xbox*, přičemž k jeho zneškodnění je zapotřebí speciální klíč.
Golem jako zbraň však není jen otázkou her. Například čaroděj Saruman z pera J. R. R. Tolkiena[51] vytváří své skřetí vojáky za pomocí dávných zaklínadel a hroud hlíny. Na slavnou legendu, konkrétně na její pražskou verzi, narážejí také tvůrci detektivní řady *Sherlock*[52], jednoho z nejúspěšnějších seriálů současnosti, když se ve druhém díle první sezóny objevuje sériový vrah Golem pocházející z východu a ohromující každého svou velikostí. Nakonec i mezi golemem a krvelační *Živými mrtvými*[53] by se jistě pár paralel našlo?
Golemův odkaz nacházíme v beletrii, hudbě, ve výtvarném umění, v sochařství, v moderních seriálech, filmech, komiksech, v manze, v počítačových hrách, je otcem robotů a klonů… Studenti jsou dnes golemy doslova obklopeni, čímž získáváme ideální průřezové téma, o němž je možné hovořit nejen v hodinách literatury, historie či filosofie, ale dokonce i v předmětech přírodovědných či v souvislosti s informačními technologiemi a mechanikou[54]. Proč toho tedy nevyužít? Proč žákům neukázat, že Golem není jen fantom rudolfínské Prahy a že židovská tématika dokáže být „in“?

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[50] Vrchní posuvný herní plán představuje pohled do chodeb a čtyř barevných komnat tajemného hradu. Cílem hry je projít tři pokoje soupeřů, získat jejich klíče a dosáhnout svou figurkou na barevně shodný terč s písmenem G – šém.
[51] Řeč je o jedné ze záporných postav z trilogie Pán prstenů.
[52] Seriál na motivy detektivních románů Sira A. C. Doyla je zasazený do moderního Londýna. Sherlock Holmese pracuje s nejnovějšími výdobytky technologie, neztrácí však na svých dedukčních schopnostech ani na typickém charakteru. Právě on diváky seznamuje s pražskou legendou.
[53] Děj postapokalyptického komiksu/seriálu sleduje osudy hrdinů, jejichž svět ovládla „zombie“ epidemie.
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KYBERŠIKANOVANIE AKO CELOSPOLOČENSKÝ PROBLÉM V KONTEXTE SLOVENSKEJ LEGISLATÍVY

CYBERBULLYING AS A SOCIO-CULTURAL PROBLEM IN THE CONTEXT OF SLOVAK LEGISLATION

Vladimíra Hladíková

Abstrakt

Príspevok sa zaoberá problematikou elektronického šikanovania a má charakter teoretickej štúdie. Hlavným cieľom príspevku je poukázať na kyberšikanovanie ako negatívny fenomén elektronickej komunikácie a upriamiť pozornosť na jeho legislatívne vymedzenie a dôsledky nielen z psychického, ale i právneho hľadiska. V príspevku bola využitá najmä hermeneutická a fenomenologická metóda, ako i ďalšie všeobecné vedecké metódy. V prvej časti príspevku sú vymedzené základné teoretické východiská kyberšikany a jej definovanie z rôznych autorských prístupov. Ťažiskom príspevku je druhá kapitola orientujúca sa na uchopenie predkladanej problematiky v kontexte slovenskej legislatívy. Autorka sa zamerala na špecifikovanie právnych aspektov a dôsledkov aj v súvislosti s osobitými formami kyberšikany (happy slapping, kyberstalking a kybergrooming).

Kľúčové slová: *kyberšikana, legislatíva, dôsledok, happy slapping, kyberstalking, kybergrooming.*

Abstract

The paper deals with the issue of electronic bullying and has the character of a theoretical study. The main objective of the contribution is to point to cyberbullying as a negative phenomenon of electronic communication and to draw attention to its legislative definition and its consequences not only from the psychological but also from the legal point of view. In the paper, the hermeneutic and phenomenological method, as well as other general scientific methods, were used. The first part of the contribution defines the basic theoretical background of cyberbullying and its definition from different authorial approaches. The center of gravity is the second chapter focused on the grasp of the presented issue in the context of Slovak legislation. The author focused on specifying legal aspects and implications for specific forms of cyberbullying (happy slapping, cyberstalking and cybergrooming).

Key words: *cyberbullying, legislation, consequence, happy slapping, cyberstalking, cybergrooming.*

1 KYBERŠIKANOVANIE

S premenou a modernizáciou spoločnosti dochádza i k premene mnohých sociálnych javov, vrátane šikanovania. Najmä v poslednej dekáde sa tak do zorného poľa odborníkov dostáva jej modifikovaná podoba, spojená s rozvojom informačných a komunikačných technológií, označovaná ako kyberšikana. Ako upozorňuje K. Vágnerová a kol. (2009, s. 91), aj pre komunikačné technológie však platí, že podobne, ako všetky vynálezy môžu byť zmysluplne využívané, ale aj nebezpečne zneužívané. Obdobné stanovisko má aj M. Kohut (2008, s. 26): „*Technológie poskytujú zradné zbrane, ktoré nemajú limity, hranice, svedomie. Internet zmenil svet informačnej spoločnosti a urobil život v industrializovaných krajinách jednoduchším. Predstavuje však psychologickú zbraň nepredstaviteľnej sily*“.

Podobne, ako pri tradičnej (offline) forme šikanovania, aj pri kyberšikanovaní môžeme postrehnúť, že neexistuje jedna univerzálne platná a všeobecná definícia tohto pojmu. Jednotlivé pokusy o vymedzenie kyberšikanovania variujú od autora k autorovi, majú však isté spoločné menovatele, ktoré sa snaží väčšina odborníkov vo svojich teóriách obsiahnuť. Za autora pojmu kyberšikana je považovaný Kanaďan Bill Belsey, podľa ktorého klasickej definície (2004, s. 1) kyberšikana „*zahŕňa použitie informačných a komunikačných technológií na podporu úmyselného, opakovaného a nepriateľského správania jednotlivca alebo skupiny, ktorého cieľom je poškodiť ostatných*".

Kyberšikana je tiež vymedzená ako šikana, ktorá je realizovaná prostredníctvom e-mailu, IM, chatovacích miestností, webových stránok alebo zasielaním správ a obrázkov na mobilný telefón. Jej jasné definovanie je však náročné z dôvodu použitia veľkého množstva metód, ako ju realizovať (Kowalski et al., 2008). Slovenská odborníčka na túto problematiku K. Hollá (2013, s. 14) definuje kyberšikanu ako správanie, ktoré zahŕňa sužovanie, ohrozovanie, ponižovanie, prenasledovanie alebo iné negatívne správanie jednotlivca alebo skupiny s využitím internetu, interaktívnych a digitálnych technológií alebo mobilných telefónov. Úmyslom tohto správania je ublížiť obeti formou všeobecných urážok, homofóbnych, sexistických, rasistických a iných diskriminačných predsudkov, pričom medzi agresorom a obeťou existuje značný nepomer v IKT zručnostiach a obeť je dlhodobo vystavená negatívnemu online materiálu. V Krejčí (2010, s. 3) dopĺňa, že toto ublíženie či poškodenie môže byť ako zámerom útočníka, tak dôsledkom napr. nevhodného vtipu, nedorozumenia, nedomyslenia dôsledkov zo strany útočníka a podobne. Obeť je poškodzovaná opakovane, či už pôvodným agresorom alebo osobami, ktoré sa do tohto procesu zapojili neskôr. Komplexnú definíciu, ktorá zahŕňa všetky v súčasnosti uznávané nutné aspekty pre identifikáciu kyberšikany navrhli M. Price a J. Dalglish (2010, s. 51): „*Kyberšikana je kolektívne označenie foriem šikany prostredníctvom elektronických médií, ako je internet a mobilné telefóny, ktoré slúžia k agresívnemu a zámernému poškodeniu používateľov týchto médií. Rovnako ako tradičná šikana, i kyberšikana zahŕňa opakované konanie a nepomer síl medzi agresorom a obeťou*".

Napriek dlhoročnému skúmaniu tohto javu a jeho aspektov stále existujú značné problémy pri jeho vymedzení a vedú sa diskusie, či kyberšikana predstavuje elektronickú premenu starého problému – šikany alebo ide o jedinečný fenomén. Analýzou a komparáciou jednotlivých definícií však môžeme predikovať, že charakteristika kyberšikany je založená na existujúcich definíciách tradičnej šikany. Pri oboch formách (offline aj online) šikanovania je možné indikovať spoločné charakteristické atribúty, ku ktorým patrí úmysel, opakovanosť, nepomer síl, poškodenie (Hollá, 2016, s. 12). M. Kolář (2011, s. 83) v tejto súvislosti tiež dodáva, že kyberšikanovanie patrí do základných a pravých foriem šikanovania. L.Dědková-D.Šmahel (2013, s. 49) uvádzajú, že kyberšikana je síce nový fenomén, pretože sa odohráva v novom, online prostredí, ale často je veľmi pevne prepojená s reálnym svetom. Na to poukazujú i viaceré longitudiálne výskumy (napr. Jose a kol., 2012; Willard 2007; Li, 2007), ktoré hovoria o tom, že obete tradičnej šikany sa často stávajú i obeťami kyberšikany, zatiaľ čo naopak tento vzťah nie je taký obvyklý. Za vznikom kyberšikany tak môžu stáť narušené vzťahy v reálnom svete, ktoré sa týmto spôsobom prejavujú aj v kyberpriestore.

Kyberšikana je s tradičnou šikanou nerozlučne spätá, zdieľa preto jej základné rysy a prejavy. Tieto charakteristiky však v kyberpriestore nadobúdajú trochu inú podobu. Podľa A. Černej (2013, s. 21) má kyberšikanovanie päť základných atribútov:

- realizuje sa prostredníctvom elektronických médií;
- opakovanosť;
- zámernosť agresívneho aktu zo strany útočníka;
- mocenská nerovnováha;
- obeť vníma toto konanie ako nepríjemné, ubližujúce.

Opakovanosť môže byť zaisťovaná nielen samotným agresorom, ale napr. i publikom (svedkami). Každý nový komentár, ktorý sa objaví pod urážlivou fotografiou, statusom či videom, je určitou formou opakovania agresie, podobne ako „Like“ napríklad na sociálnej siete Facebook či kliknutie na ikonu červeného srdca na Instagrame. Opakovanosťou môžeme rozumieť aj preposielanie zraňujúceho obsahu, opakované prehrávanie ponižujúceho videa a podobne.

Mocenská nerovnováha, teda nerovné rozloženie síl medzi agresorom a obeťou, má v kyberpriestore tiež inú podobu – zatiaľ čo pri offline šikane ide najmä o fyzickú prevahu agresora, u kyberšikany sa prejavuje tým, že útočníkovi viac menej nie je možné zamedziť v prístupe k obeti. Mládež a adolescenti, ktorí bývajú najrizikovejšou skupinou kyberšikanovania, sú v súčasnosti označovaní ako generácia *always on* (vždy pripojená). Ak sa obeť akokoľvek snaží agresorovi vyhnúť (opustí profil, stránku), agresor si väčšinou dokáže obeť znovu nájsť. Podobne, pokiaľ poškodený využije niektorú z technických možností obrany (napr. nahlásenie agresora, ktoré by malo viesť k zablokovaniu jeho účtu), nikto nezaistí, aby si útočník nevytvoril účet nový. Naviac aj samotná anonymita agresora už zo svojej podstaty vytvára túto nerovnováhu – pokiaľ nevieme, kto na nás útočí, mám len veľmi obmedzené možnosti sa brániť. A. Černá (2014, s. 122) dodáva, že v prípade kyberšikanovania je ďalším závažným prvkom mocenskej nerovnováhy aj *publicita*. Objavuje sa aj u offline šikany, kedy napríklad na zosmiešňovanie spolužiaka prihliada celá trieda. V kyberpriestore však môže táto publicita rásť do obrovských rozmerov – obeť (a v podstate ani agresor) netuší, kto všetko môže hanlivý obsah vidieť a často ani nedokáže nijak zamedziť jeho ďalšiemu šíreniu. Podľa autorky sa ukazuje, „*že médium ako také nie je až tak dôležité, a že to, čo obete považujú za najviac zraňujúce u tradičnej a kyberšikany je práve publicita*“.

Rovnako v porovnaní s tradičnou šikanou pri kyberšikane zostáva úmyselné ubližujúce konanie zo strany agresora a predovšetkým s tým súvisiace vnímanie tohto konania ako nepríjemného a ubližujúceho pre obeť. Pokiaľ však vnímanie negatívneho charakteru agresorovho správania chýba, nehovoríme o kyberšikane, ale môže ísť napríklad o prejav istého (priateľského) doberania. Pri kyberšikane a tiež aj tradičnej šikane sa často v teórii môžeme stretnúť s ich diferenciáciou na priamu a nepriamu. Niekde sa tiež uvádza, že kyberšikana je sama o sebe nepriama, nakoľko sa realizuje prostredníctvom technológií. Černá sa však prikláňa k názoru, že i pri kyberšikanovaní sa môžeme stretnúť s útokmi priamymi (nadávky na fórach, výhražné sms, umiestňovanie znevažujúcich fotografií a videí na internet) a nepriamymi (vylúčenie zo skupiny, krádež identity, zverejnenie dôverných informácií a pod.). Nepriama kyberšikana sa môže prejaviť i tak, že agresor zdanlivo nič neurobí, ale využije pre svoj zámer inú osobu alebo funkcie, ktoré kyberpriestor ponúka – napríklad nahlási obsah patriaci obeti ako nežiaduci či chybný. Obeť potom čelí situácii, kedy jej administrátor zruší alebo zablokuje účet. Takejto forme kyberšikany sa v odbornej literatúre hovorí kyberšikana v zastúpení (angl. *cyberbullying by proxy*).

2 KYBERŠIKANA AKO CELOSPOLOČENSKÝ PROBLÉM A JEHO LEGISLATÍVNE HĽADISKO

Je zrejmé, že kybernetické šikanovanie môžeme označiť ako závažný spoločenský problém. Ide o taký fenomén, ktorý môže zasiahnuť v podstate kohokoľvek, kto je používateľom kyberpriestoru – deti, dospelých, rodičov i pedagógov. Kyberšikanovanie má samozrejme výrazný psychický a emocionálny dopad na obete. J. Šmahaj (2014, s. 43) formuluje niekoľko dôvodov, prečo je možné na tento jav nahliadať ako na spoločenský problém:

- ohrozuje deti, študentov, dospelých, viac špecifické profesie, náhodné obete;
- vyžaduje aktívny prístup škôl, školského systému;
- do riešenia kyberšikany sa zapája celý rad odborníkov a inštitúcií;

- kladie dôraz na prevenciu a vzdelávanie – žiakov, rodičov, pedagógov i iných špecialistov;
- zahŕňa záujem politikov a vlády;
- vyžaduje medzinárodnú spoluprácu a výskum;
- je nákladná – najmä v súvislosti s realizáciou výskumu v tejto oblasti a možností jej prevencie a zníženia negatívnych dôsledkov;
- týka sa oblasti práva a legislatívy.

Ak hovoríme o legislatívnej úprave kyberšikany v Slovenskej republike, môžeme skonštatovať, že slovenská legislatíva pojem kyberšikanovanie nepozná. V súčasnosti neexistuje na Slovensku žiadny zákon, ktorý by evidoval pojem kyberšikana, sexting či kybergrooming. Naša legislatíva tieto pojmy nedefinuje, to však neznamená, že by šikanovanie prostredníctvom online technológií, šírenie intímnych záberov či lákanie detí na schôdzku (za účelom sexuálneho zneužitia) nemalo žiadne právne dôsledky. Veková hranica trestnej zodpovednosti je na Slovensku 14 rokov, v prípade trestného činu sexuálneho zneužívania 15 rokov. Ak sa chceme v trestnoprávnej rovine voči kyberšikanovaniu brániť, na jeho jednotlivé prejavy môžeme aplikovať viacero paragrafov Zákona č. 300/2005 Z.z (Trestného zákona):

- Nebezpečné prenasledovanie, tzv. stalking (§ 360a Trestného zákona);
- Vydieranie (§ 189 Trestného zákona);
- Nátlak (§ 192 Trestného zákona);
- Sexuálne zneužívanie (§ 201, § 201a, § 201b Trestného zákona);
- Ohováranie (§ 373 Trestného zákona);
- Poškodzovanie cudzích práv (§ 376 Trestného zákona);
- Detská pornografia – výroba (§ 368 Trestného zákona);
- Detská pornografia – rozširovanie (§ 369 Trestného zákona);
- Detská pornografia – prechovávanie a účasť na detskom pornografickom predstavení (§ 370 Trestného zákona);
- Ohrozovanie mravnosti (§ 371, § 372 Trestného zákona);
- Ohrozovanie mravnej výchovy mládeže (§ 211 Trestného zákona).

Medzinárodný portál orientovaný na problematiku kyberšikany www.*cyberhelp.eu* okrem vyššie uvedených súvislostí uvádza, že od 1. septembra 2011 je u nás prenasledovanie (stalking) trestným činom. Hrozí zaň trest odňatia slobody až na jeden rok, v obzvlášť závažných prípadoch až do troch rokov. § 360a Trestného zákona definuje podstatu trestného činu nebezpečného prenasledovania nasledovne:

„*Kto iného dlhodobo prenasleduje takým spôsobom, že to môže vzbudiť dôvodnú obavu o jeho život alebo zdravie, život alebo zdravie jemu blízkej osoby alebo podstatným spôsobom zhoršiť kvalitu jeho života, tým, že*

a. *sa vyhráža ublížením na zdraví alebo inou ujmou jemu alebo jemu blízkej osobe,*
b. *vyhľadáva jeho osobnú blízkosť alebo ho sleduje,*
c. *ho kontaktuje prostredníctvom tretej osoby alebo elektronickej komunikačnej služby, písomne alebo inak proti jeho vôli,*
d. *zneužije jeho osobné údaje na účel získania osobného alebo iného kontaktu, alebo*
e. *ho inak obmedzuje v jeho obvyklom spôsobe života,*

potrestá sa odňatím slobody až na jeden rok.“ Trestným činom sa tak stalo aj nebezpečné prenasledovanie prostredníctvom internetu či mobilného telefónu, teda nami spomínaný kyberstalking.

Pri jave zvanom kybergrooming je situácia odlišná – Trestný zákon tento pojem nepozná, avšak jeho podstatu popisuje § 201a: „*Kto prostredníctvom elektronickej komunikačnej služby navrhne dieťaťu mladšiemu ako pätnásť rokov osobné stretnutie v úmysle spáchať na ňom trestný čin sexuálneho zneužívania alebo trestný čin výroby detskej pornografie, pričom*

sám nie je dieťaťom, potrestá sa odňatím slobody na šesť mesiacov až tri roky." Trestné je tak už samotné navrhnutie schôdzky, pričom k sexuálnemu zneužitiu prísť nemusí. Sexuálnym zneužívaním sa rozumie súlož s osobou mladšou ako 15 rokov alebo jej zneužitie iným spôsobom (aj v prípade, že dotyčná osoba so súložou súhlasí).
Ďalšou rizikovou skupinou sú intímne fotografie či videá a ich distribúcia v kyberpriestore. Vzájomné posielanie takýchto materiálov u dospelých osôb samo o sebe trestným činom nie je. Pokiaľ však ide o dieťa, (t.j. osobu mladšiu ako 18 rokov), z naoko nevinných záberov sa stáva nebezpečný trestný čin – výroba a rozširovanie detskej pornografie. Ostražití by mali byť aj rodičia zverejňujúci na internete fotografie, na ktorých sú ich deti nahé či v plavkách. Hoci nekonajú so zlým úmyslom, skúsenosti ukazujú, že sa tieto zábery veľmi rýchlo dostanú k skupinám zameraným na detskú pornografiu. Fotografie a videá zhotovené za účelom sextingu sa často stávajú prostriedkom kyberšikany – zverejnenie záberov bývalého partnera z pomsty, vydieranie, nátlak a iné. Je tiež dôležité upozorniť, že podľa Trestného zákona je dieťaťom každá osoba mladšia ako 18 rokov. Z toho vyplýva, že materiály zhotovené v rámci sextingu medzi deťmi staršími ako 15 rokov sú tiež považované za detskú pornografiu, a to aj napriek tomu, že pohlavný styk sa od 15 rokov veku za trestný čin už nepovažuje (dostupné na:http://cyberhelp.eu/sk/introduction/legal_aspects).
Za zaujímavé v legislatívnom kontexte považujeme spomenúť aj happy slapping. V Slovenskej republike happy slappingové konanie nie je trestným činom, ale nie je ani beztrestné. Napr. situácie, kedy agresor bezdôvodne napadne okoloidúcu obeť, zatiaľ čo je natáčaný spolupáchateľom, a následne spolu umiestnia video na internet, môžu byť posúdené pravdepodobne hneď ako niekoľko trestných činov: napr. ublíženie na zdraví (§ 155 Trestného zákona) (pri ochrnutí a inej podobnej ujme na zdraví), neprekazenie trestného činu (§ 341 Trestného zákona) a neoznámenie trestného činu (§ 340 Trestného zákona) (zo strany pomocníka), následne neposkytnutie pomoci (§ 177 Trestného zákona). Vždy však záleží na konkrétnom priebehu konania. Do úvahy preto pripadá napr. aj podnecovanie k nenávisti voči skupine osôb alebo k obmedzovaniu ich práv a slobôd (§ 424 Trestného zákona), ohrozovanie mravnej výchovy mládeže (§ 211 Trestného zákona), schvaľovania trestného činu (§ 338 Trestného zákona), podnecovanie k trestnému činu (§ 337 Trestného zákona) a iné. Menej závažne konanie najčastejšie súvisí s niektorým z priestupkov proti občianskemu spolunažívaniu. Niektoré európske štáty majú happy slapping priamo zakotvený vo svojich trestných kódexoch, napr. vo Francúzsku sa na happy slapping pozerá rovnako ako na trestný čin akým je znásilnenie a hrozí zaň až 5 rokov väzenia (dostupné na: http://www.eisionline.org/index.php/sk/ss-zlpas-blog).
V súvislosti s kyberšikanovaním môžeme hovoriť aj o trestných činoch týkajúcich sa extrémistických materiálov (ich výroba, rozširovanie či prechovávanie) alebo týkajúcich sa hanobenia národa, rasy a presvedčenia či podpory a propagácie skupín smerujúcich k potláčaniu základných ľudských práv a slobôd. S kyberpriestorom vyššie vymenované trestné činy súvisia predovšetkým a najčastejšie v tom zmysle, že je možné ich realizovať (prejavovať náklonnosť, podporovať, rozširovať, propagovať a podobne) verejne – teda aj prostredníctvom počítačových sietí. V týchto prípadoch môžu byť k prešetreniu konania z legislatívneho hľadiska využité nasledujúce paragrafy Trestného zákona:

- Podpora a propagácia skupín smerujúcich k potlačeniu základných práv a slobôd (§ 421, § 422 Trestného zákona);
- Výroba, rozširovanie a prechovávanie extrémistických materiálov (§ 422a, § 422b, § 422c Trestného zákona);
- Popieranie a schvaľovanie holokaustu a zločinov politických režimov (§ 422d Trestného zákona);
- Hanobenie národa, rasy a presvedčenia (§ 423 Trestného zákona);
- Podnecovanie k národnostnej, rasovej a etnickej nenávisti (§ 424 Trestného zákona);

- Podnecovanie, hanobenie a vyhrážanie osobám pre ich príslušnosť k niektorej rase, národu, národnosti, farbe pleti, etnickej skupine alebo pôvodu rodu (§ 424a Trestného zákona) (dostupné na: http://kybersikanovanie.sk/index.php/legislativa).

S uvedenými fenoménmi súvisí aj niekoľko ďalších právnych ustanovení, ktorých cieľom je ochrana a rozvoj dieťaťa, poskytnutie vzdelania a rovnakých šancí na edukáciu, boj proti sociálnemu vylúčeniu a prevencia kriminality. K takýmto právnymi predpisom patrí: Dohovor o právach dieťaťa, Listina základných práv a slobôd, Charta základných práv Európskej únie, Zákon č. 245/2008 Z.z o výchove a vzdelávaní (školský zákon), Zákon č. 305/2005 Z.z. o sociálnoprávnej ochrane detí a sociálnej kuratele, Zákon č. 122/2013 Z.z o ochrane osobných údajov a tiež aj Zákon č. 583/2008 Z.z. o prevencii kriminality a inej protispoločenskej činnosti.

Potešujúce je, že aj krajina ako Slovensko sa neustále snaží o posilnenie kybernetickej bezpečnosti. V roku 2016 vznikol pri Bezpečnostnej rade SR nový výbor – Výbor pre kybernetickú bezpečnosť. Jeho cieľom je príprava a koordinácia opatrení zameraných na zachovanie bezpečnosti kybernetického priestoru Slovenskej republiky. V roku 2014 vláda Slovenskej republiky schválila materiál s názvom Príprava Slovenskej republiky na plnenie úloh v oblasti kybernetickej obrany**,** a o rok neskôr prijala kľúčový strategický dokument - *Koncepciu kybernetickej bezpečnosti Slovenskej republiky na roky 2015 – 2020*, ktorá v náčrte inštitucionálneho rámca navrhla Národný bezpečnostný úrad za ústrednú inštitúciu kybernetickej bezpečnosti. Konkrétne návrhy z koncepcie sa premietli do novelizácie kompetenčného zákona – Zákona o kybernetickej bezpečnosti, ktorý je v súčasnosti v pripomienkovom konaní. Pripravovaný zákon by mal upraviť:

1. pôsobnosť orgánov štátnej správy na úseku kybernetickej bezpečnosti;
2. práva a povinnosti fyzických osôb a právnických osôb v oblasti kybernetickej bezpečnosti;
3. pôsobnosť a požiadavky na útvary pre riešenie bezpečnostných incidentov v kybernetickom priestore;
4. rámec notifikácie a riešenia bezpečnostných incidentov v kybernetickom priestore;
5. klasifikáciu informácií a kategorizáciu informačných systémov;
6. minimálne požiadavky na bezpečnosť jednotlivých kategórií informačných systémov počas ich životného cyklu;
7. proces riadenia informačnej bezpečnosti;
8. kontrolu bezpečnosti a audit bezpečnosti;
9. spôsobilosti a vzdelávanie v informačnej a kybernetickej bezpečnosti;
10. zodpovednosť a sankcie za porušenie povinností (Vyskoč, 2017).

3 ZÁVER

Spoločenská realita upozorňuje na nový sociálny fenomén negatívneho charakteru, ktorým je kyberšikana. Kybernetické šikanovanie patrí medzi sociálno-patologické javy, ide o agresívne správanie, ktoré sa dáva do kontextu s používaním informačných a komunikačných technológií a nových médií a mediálnej komunikácie. Uvedený jav je potrebné vnímať širokospektrálne, patria do neho negatívne formy správania a konania pod vplyvom používania elektronických médií a komunikácie cez ne.

Ako sme poukázali, fenomén kyberšikanovania naozaj možno vnímať v celospoločenskom kontexte. Cieľom predkladaného príspevku bolo poukázať na tento fenomén aj z hľadiska jeho vymedzenia v legislatívnom kontexte. Považujeme tiež za dôležité informovať a upozorňovať na tieto problémy aj širšiu verejnosť, pedagógov, deti a rodičov tak, aby sa prispelo k eliminácii tohto nežiaduceho javu v čo najväčšej miere a zároveň dospieť k prijatiu prísnejších opatrení a sankcií aj v rámci trestnoprávnej zodpovednosti za takéto agresívne správanie. Možnosti eliminácie kyberšikany má v rukách každý z nás. Zdôrazňujeme však, že

k prevencii a eliminácii agresie a nevhodného správania (aj v kyberpriestore) je okrem úpravy legislatívy potrebná najmä kooperácia medzi rodičmi, pedagógmi ale i rôznymi odborníkmi, ako i realizovanie prevenčných projektov a opatrení na regionálnej, národnej i medzinárodnej úrovni.

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ROZVÍJENÍ PŘÍRODOVĚDNÉ GRAMOTNOSTI U ŽÁKŮ 1. STUPNĚ ZÁKLADNÍ ŠKOLY V KONTEXTU MEZINÁRODNÍCH VÝZKUMŮ

DEVELOPMENT OF SCIENTIFIC LITERACY OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY SHOOL IN THE CONTEXT OF INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

Jan Tirpák, Jiří Škoda

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se zaměřuje na rozvíjení přírodovědné gramotnosti u žáků prvního stupně základní školy v kontextu mezinárodních výzkumů. Provedený výzkum se zaměřil na komparaci výsledků mezinárodního šetření TIMSS (*Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study*), zjišťující úroveň vědomostí a dovedností žáků 4. a 8. ročníků povinné školní docházky v matematice a přírodních vědách. Pozornost byla zaměřena na korelaci vybraných výsledků dotazníkových položek odpovědí žáků z České republiky a Finska zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu. Příspěvek reflektuje klíčové aspekty související s tímto výzkumem a poskytuje také určitý náhled na pojem přírodovědné gramotnosti v rámci primárního vzdělávání.

Klíčová slova: *přírodovědná gramotnost, TIMSS, základní školy, komparace, ČR, Finsko*

Abstract

The paper focuses on the development of natural literacy in primary school pupils in the context of international research. The research focuses on the comparison of the results of the international study of TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), which identifies the level of knowledge and skills of pupils of 4th and 8th years of compulsory school attendance in mathematics and natural sciences. Attention was focused on the correlation of selected results of questionnaire items of pupils 'answers from the Czech Republic and Finland focusing on the pupils' relationship to the teaching of natural science, depending on their assessment of the management of the learning process. The contribution reflects the key aspects of this research and provides some insight into the notion of natural literacy in primary education.

Key words: *scientific literacy, TIMSS, elementary schools, comparison, Czech Republic, Finland*

1 PŘÍRODOVĚDNÁ GRAMOTNOST V KONTEXTU MEZINÁRODNÍCH VÝZKUMŮ

Přírodovědná gramotnost (scientific literacy nebo také science literacy) je celosvětově rozšířeným pojmem, který je v odborné literatuře užíván již téměř přes pět desetiletí. Přesto se zatím na mezinárodní úrovni nedosáhlo všeobecné shody o tom, co vše se pod tímto pojmem skrývá.

Obecné cíle přírodovědného vzdělávání však směřují k využívání poznatků a metod přírodních věd pro inspiraci a rozvoj dalších oblastí lidské aktivity. Žákovi představují současně přírodní vědy jako neoddělitelnou a nezastupitelnou součást lidské kultury. Tyto obecné cíle vedou žáka k tzv. přírodovědné gramotnosti (scientific literacy). Ta je

definována jako schopnost využívat přírodovědné vědomosti, klást otázky a na základě důkazů vyvozovat závěry, které vedou k porozumění přírodnímu prostředí a usnadňují rozhodování, která se týkají přírodního prostředí a změn, jež v něm nastávají v důsledku lidské činnosti (Píšová a kol., 2011). Toto vymezení podporuje myšlenku, že podstatné je, aby byli žáci schopni hodnotit a vytvářet teorie na základě pozorování přírodních jevů, objektů a procesů a na základě experimentální činnosti s nimi.

Pokud bychom se zaměřili na kurikulum České republiky, kterým je pro povinné vzdělávání Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání (RVP ZV, 2005), pojem přírodovědná gramotnost se v žádné jeho části nevyskytuje. Oblast přírodovědného vzdělávání je v RVP ZV vyjádřena prostřednictvím vzdělávací oblasti Člověk a příroda a v ní se pracuje s takovými kategoriemi, jako je charakteristika, cílové zaměření a vzdělávací obsah oblasti (vymezený očekávanými výstupy a učivem), nikoli ale s kategorií přírodovědná gramotnost. V rámci toho je pozornost u žáků primární školy zaměřena především na poznávání okolního světa a hledání odpovědí na různé problémy a otázky, které přináší sám život (Čabalová; Podroužek, 2013). Poznávání reálného světa bylo v učebních osnovách tradičně zařazováno do struktury učebních předmětů v primární škole především pro získávání hotových poznatků o přírodě, technice a společnosti, avšak již méně pro získávání dovedností nutných pro poznávání reálného světa a emocionálního vztahu k přírodě. A právě vnímání přírody, podporování praktického poznávání přírody a kontakt s ní se zdá být pro přírodovědné vzdělávání, respektive počáteční vyučování přírodních věd, zásadní otázkou. V této souvislosti lze vymezit cíle a principy přírodovědného vzdělávání s důrazem na tyto základní momenty, jako je porozumění základním přírodovědným pojmům, teoriím a schopnost analyzovat a řešit problémy za pomoci využití vědeckých postupů. Dále pak umět se rozhodovat v běžných životních situacích a rozvíjet usuzování, přemýšlení o jevech, procesech, schopnost pracovat s informacemi. V neposlední řadě aktivizovat žáka v přírodovědné výuce a zavádět tzv. badatelsky orientované vyučování. Podporovat integrování přírodovědného obsahu v předmětech o přírodě a společnosti a kultivovat osobnost dítěte v oblastech: emocionálního prožívání, estetického, etického a environmentálního vnímání, cítění a stanovit klíčové (základní) učivo, které překoná jednostrannou scientistní koncepci vzdělávání. Je zřejmé, že aby žák dosáhl vytyčených aspektů přírodovědné gramotnosti, musí umět vyhledávat a třídit informace, propojovat je a systematizovat, musí umět operovat s obecně užívanými přírodovědnými termíny, využívat různé znaky a symboly, uvádět je do souvislostí, propojovat poznatky z více vzdělávacích oblastí. Měl by také získat dovednost samostatně pozorovat, experimentovat, získané výsledky porovnávat, kriticky posuzovat, hodnotit a vyvozovat z nich závěry do budoucnosti (Altmanová a kol., 2011). Všechny tyto uvedené atributy jsou v RVP ZV přisuzovány kompetenci k učení. Dále by měl žák být schopen rozpoznat a pochopit problémové situace vztahující se k přírodovědné problematice v jeho okolí, tyto problémy na základě získaných vědomostí a dovedností či vlastní zkušenosti samostatně logicky řešit, a to pokud možno nejefektivnější cestou. Své způsoby řešení by měl kriticky reflektovat. Tyto aspekty jsou přisuzovány v RVP ZV kompetenci k řešení problémů. Při dosahování přírodovědné gramotnosti se žák přirozeně neobejde bez schopnosti formulovat své myšlenky a názory v logickém sledu a tlumočit je, ať už formou výstižného ústního, či písemného sdělení. Řadu prvků přírodovědné gramotnosti nedosáhne rovněž bez schopnosti pochopení různých typů textů či obrazových materiálů (kompetence komunikativní). Nabytí všech kompetencí (do různé míry) žáky, je pro naplňování cílů přírodovědné gramotnosti nutnou podmínkou. Platí ovšem zároveň, že samotné cíle přírodovědné gramotnosti napomáhají rozvoji klíčových kompetencí žáků. Kompetence totiž nestojí stranou vzdělávacího obsahu, aktivit nebo činností žáků, naopak jsou na jejich základě rozvíjeny. Z hlediska naplňování aspektů přírodovědné gramotnosti jsou zásadní vzdělávací oblasti Člověk a jeho svět, Člověk

a příroda, Člověk a společnost, Člověk a svět práce a Člověk a zdraví. Neopominutelný význam má rovněž Matematika a její aplikace a Informační a komunikační technologie.

Při formulování významu pojmu přírodovědné gramotnosti se jeví jako přínosné využít pojetí a výsledky mezinárodních výzkumů (projektů) přírodovědné gramotnosti (především PISA - *The Programme for International Student Assessment*, TIMSS - *Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study*). V rámci nich totiž k jistému způsobu vymezení došlo (Blažek; Příhodová, 2016). Ve výzkumu PISA 2015 (*The Programme for International Student Assessment)* je pojem přírodovědné gramotnosti charakterizován v zásadě jako schopnost přemýšlet a jednat ve všech věcech související s přírodními vědami a jejich principy jako aktivní občan. Přírodovědně gramotný člověk je schopen a ochoten zapojit se do věcné debaty o přírodních vědách a technologiích, k čemuž musí mít následující dovednosti. Vysvětlovat jevy vědecky, tedy rozpoznávat, nabízet, hodnotit vysvětlení různorodých přírodních jevů a technologií. Dále pak vyhodnocovat a navrhovat přírodovědný výzkum. Umět popisovat, hodnotit přírodovědná zkoumání a navrhovat vědeckovýzkumné otázky. V neposlední řadě vědecky interpretovat data a důkazy. Analyzovat a vyhodnocovat různé podoby dat, tvrzení a důkazů a vyvozovat odpovídající vědecké závěry. Gramotnost je v tomto ohledu založena na intelektuálních schopnostech jedince, jenž jsou determinovány vnějším, především sociálně-kulturním prostředím, výchovou a vzděláváním. Na základě definice OECD a výzkumů PISA (Píšová a kol., 2011) byly vymezeny tři základní složky přírodovědné gramotnosti. Mezi ně patří přírodovědné znalosti a pojmy (*scientific knowledge or concepts*), přírodovědné dovednosti (*scientific processes*) a situace a kontext, ve kterých jsou znalosti a dovednosti používány (*situation and kontext*). Rámcové vymezení přírodovědné gramotnosti je komplexní v tom smyslu, že zahrnuje všechny tyto složky. V prvé řadě je nutné právě aktivní osvojení si základních pojmů zákonů, principů, hypotéz, teorií a modelů přírodních věd. Následně je však nutná také schopnost žáků využívat přírodovědné poznatky a metody v praktických situacích a v kontextu, v rozhodování při řešení různých praktických či sociálních problémů (Roberts, 2007).

V projektu TIMSS 2015 (*Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study)* se pojem přírodovědné gramotnosti explicitně nevyskytuje. Z hlediska rámce hodnocení v přírodních vědách je však TIMSS založeno na dvou složkách: obsahové a operační. Obsahová složka vymezuje učivo. Operační složka popisuje dovednosti, které by měli žáci prokázat při řešení úloh a zodpovídání otázek v testu. Mezi obsahové oblasti patří: vědy o živé a neživé přírodě a nauka o Zemi. Z hlediska operačních aspektů se jedná: o prokazování, používání znalostí a uvažování (Tomášek a kol., 2016).

Námi uvedená vymezení přírodovědné gramotnosti jsou sice rámcová, ale všechny aspekty a jejich složky, které tvoří uvedená vymezení, jasně určují, co je považováno za podstatné z hlediska rozvoje kvalitního přírodovědného vzdělávání žáků. Existuje celá řada dalších definic charakterizujících přírodovědnou gramotnost. Domníváme se však, že uvedené, dostatečně vystihují podstatu a povahu přírodovědné gramotnosti. Byly vybrány zcela záměrně tak, aby se doplňovaly, nepřekrývaly a dostatečně danou problematiku vystihovaly. Domníváme se, že hlavním cílem moderního přírodovědného vzdělávání je vytváření přírodovědné gramotnosti u žáků. Její podstatu chápeme v tom, že žák je schopen využívat svých vědomostí a ty následně využívat v situacích a v kontextu praktického života, jež mu umožní lépe a hlouběji poznávat reálný svět, který ho obklopuje.

1.1 Rozvíjení přírodovědné gramotnosti u žáků 1. stupně základní školy

Přírodovědné disciplíny, společně s matematikou, technikou a moderními technologiemi jsou bezesporu důležitou součástí života dnešní společnosti a představují základnu úsilí člověka

o vědecké poznání okolního světa. V tomto ohledu přírodní vědy prošly v posledním půlstoletí zcela zásadní proměnou a to nejen v rovině poznatkové, nýbrž také v rovině samotných metod a postupů svého výzkumu.

Přesto výuka přírodovědných předmětů na základních školách v České republice prochází v současné době etapou jakéhosi hledání identity a nalézání kompromisů (Škoda, 2005). Na jedné straně jsou bouřlivě se rozvíjející přírodovědné obory jako vědní obory. Na straně druhé pak výuka přírodovědných předmětů, jen velmi zvolna a neochotně inovuje svůj obsah vzdělávání. Na jedné straně se setkáváme se značným rozvojem obecných inovativních a modernizačních trendů ve výuce, které jsou výrazně akcentovány v obecné didaktice, ale pronikají i do oborových didaktik jednotlivých přírodovědných předmětů. Na druhé straně se v praxi stále setkáváme s vyučovacími postupy stejnými po celá desetiletí. Z hlediska těchto trendů můžeme ještě zaznamenat, a to nejen v České republice, dlouhotrvající malý zájem studentů o studium přírodovědných, technických a matematických oborů (Janoušková a kol., 2014).

Domníváme se, že klíčovým faktorem v této souvislosti je vytváření a pozitivní rozvoj postojů k přírodním vědám již na úrovni primárního vzdělávání, což může mít příznivé dopady do budoucího osobního i profesního rozvoje jedince. Je nutné si totiž uvědomit, že primární vzdělání je obsahově otevřeným systémem umožňujícím dítěti přejímat a integrovat různé informace z prostředí, ve kterém žije (Brtnová Čepičková, 2005). Primární vzdělání umožňuje dítěti tohoto věkového období interakci se světem a zároveň plní propedeutickou funkci pro další vzdělávání dítěte. Ústředním problémem učení o přírodě se v primární škole stává pochopení světa, včetně nás samých. Přírodovědné vzdělávání tak přispívá k rozvoji gramotnosti ve smyslu gramotnost – vzdělání – utváření si obrazu o světě – chápání významu světa. Tento svět se však rychle a zásadně mění a vyvíjí a tím klade vyšší a nové nároky na vzdělávání. Vzdělání však v současné společnosti prochází mohutným rozvojem. Na jedné straně existuje výrazné směřování k tomu, že vzdělávání ve světě se globalizuje. Na druhé straně trvá situace, kdy vzdělávací systémy ve světě jsou velmi specifické, jedinečné, vzájemně odlišné (Průcha, 1999). Ve vzdělávacích systémech jednotlivých zemí a to i těch, které jsou si jinak velmi podobné například svými ekonomickými či sociálními parametry, se stále uchovává mnoho zvláštních, individuálních rysů. Oba tyto protichůdné trendy – globalizace či internacionalizace a současně uchovávání vlastních specifičností, jsou příznačné pro vývoj národních vzdělávacích systémů.

Pro naše výzkumné šetření byl vybrán výzkum TIMSS, protože první sběr dat tohoto projektu proběhl v roce 1995 a poslední šestý cyklus v roce 2015. Česká republika se v roce 2015 zapojila pouze v rámci šetření žáků 4. ročníků ZŠ v celkovém počtu 159 základní škol s více než 5000 žáky a jejich rodiči, téměř 350 učiteli a 159 řediteli škol (Tomášek a kol., 2016). Je nutné také říci, že údaje o vzdělávacích výsledcích žáků jsou sbírány spolu s řadou dalších informací, například o organizaci výuky, o podmínkách a způsobech výuky a o kvalitě kurikula. To umožňuje zasazení samotných výsledků do širšího kontextu, který poskytuje komplexní obrázek o výuce přírodovědných oborů v zemích účastnících se výzkumu. Díky tomu, že šetření TIMSS probíhá v pravidelných čtyřletých cyklech, poskytuje projekt zúčastněným zemím také ojedinělou příležitost sledovat vývoj ve vzdělávacích výsledcích žáků v matematice a v přírodních vědách společně s empirickými informacemi o podmínkách výuky v těchto předmětech v dlouhodobém horizontu. Řada zemí proto výsledky této studie využívá jako jeden z podkladů pro zlepšování výuky ve sledovaných oblastech.
Pozornost v rámci našeho výzkumného šetření byla zaměřena na korelaci vybraných výsledků dotazníkových položek odpovědí žáků z České republiky a Finska zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu. Kdybychom si měli říci pouze základní čísla a základní informace o finském vzdělávacím systému,

pak bychom asi soudili, že se velmi blíží k české edukační rovině, případně že jsou nastaveni daleko segregativněji (Zilcher, 2016). Finští žáci chodí do školy v sedmi letech. Žáci mají možnost navštěvovat přípravný ročník v šesti letech, který však není povinný. První stupeň trvá šest let a druhý stupeň tři roky. Následně mají žáci možnost jít na odbornou školu, nebo na klasickou střední školu. O přijetí na typ střední školy rozhodují výsledky v testech posledního ročníku. Škola nabízí každý den obědy pro všechny zdarma. Pro představu 25 % všech žáků na prvním stupni a 16 % žáků na druhém stupni je v pásmu speciálně pedagogické podpory. Ze všech žáků je 8,1 % v plném speciálním vzdělávání. Finsko naopak vypadá, že má světový rekord v počtu žáků, kteří mají speciálně pedagogickou podporu, a toto číslo se bude stále zvyšovat. Na druhou stranu je nutné nahlížet na speciálně pedagogickou podporu jinak, nežli je tomu stále u nás. Žáci, kteří přijímají podporu od speciálních pedagogů, nejsou považováni za znevýhodněné, ale pouze potřebují občasnou výpomoc ve vzdělávání. Finsko tak dosáhlo nejen jedněch z nejlepších výsledků v průzkumech PISA, ale také nejmenších rozdílů na světě mezi svými nejslabšími a nejnadanějšími žáky. Jako vhodný model podpory se ve Finsku jeví organizace výuky tzv. pull-out modelem. Pull-out, neboli vyjmutí žáka z výuky může být definováno jako vzdělávání žáka s aktuální potřebou podpory v jiné třídě, kde žák pracuje se speciálním pedagogem v době, kdy v jeho třídě probíhá běžná výuka. Takto se může vzdělávat individuálně jeden žák nebo například skupinky po pěti. Pokud má žák závažnější problémy, tak je možnost doporučit žákovi plnou podporu ve speciální třídě, což však potřebuje důslednou diagnostiku a prozkoumání konkrétního dítěte. Pokud je žák přeřazen do speciální třídy s maximální podporou, tak ve většině případů zůstává ve stejné škole, avšak ve speciální třídě dané školy. Řada odborníků potvrzuje, že právě kontinuální podpora všech žáků, kteří občasnou podporu potřebují, má přímý vliv na úspěšnost finských žáků ve výsledcích hodnocení PISA. Dalším důvodem vysokých výsledků hodnocení žáků může být i vysoká kvalifikace finských učitelů. Všichni finští učitelé musejí být aprobovaní a ukončit magisterské studium před nastoupením do zaměstnání.

1.2 Výsledky a jejich diskuse

Námi provedený výzkum se zaměřil na korelaci výsledků dotazníkových položek odpovědí 5202 žáků z České republiky a 4971 žáků z Finska v rámci šetření TIMSS 2015 zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu. Vyhodnocení vybraných oblastí znázorňují následující tabulky.

Tabulka 1: Vyhodnocení korelací odpovědí zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu učitelem v oblasti *„Učitel umí přírodovědu dobře vysvětlit“* - Česká republika

V přírodovědě se naučím mnoho zajímavého	0,4475
Přírodověda mě učí, jak věci ve světě fungují	0,4450
Přírodovědu mám rád/a	0,3967
Těším se na hodiny přírodovědy	0,3853
Přírodověda patří k mým oblíbeným předmětům	0,3615
Baví mě učit se přírodovědu	0,3596
Rád/a dělám přírodovědné pokusy	0,3013
Nejraději bych se přírodovědu neučil/a	-0,2407
Přírodověda je nudná	-0,3459

Zdroj: vlastní zpracování

Tabulka 2: Vyhodnocení korelací odpovědí zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu učitelem v oblasti *„Učitel umí přírodovědu dobře vysvětlit“* – Finsko

V přírodovědě se naučím mnoho zajímavého	0,3052
Přírodověda mě učí, jak věci ve světě fungují	0,2941
Přírodovědu mám rád/a	0,2618
Rád/a dělám přírodovědné pokusy	0,2547
Baví mě učit se přírodovědu	0,2493
Těším se na hodiny přírodovědy	0,2492
Přírodověda patří k mým oblíbeným předmětům	0,2148
Nejraději bych se přírodovědu neučil/a	-0,1895
Přírodověda je nudná	-0,2184

Zdroj: vlastní zpracování

Z výsledků je patrná jasná korelace vztahu žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na řízení učebního procesu učitelem. Na tomto místě je proto nutné říci, že na úrovni primárního vzdělávání, kdy se utvářejí samotné základy přírodovědné gramotnosti a vztah žáků k této výuce se jako důležitý faktor ukazuje role učitele při motivaci k přírodovědnému vzdělávání. K tomu, aby se však člověk mohl stát učitelem přírodních věd, což jej odliší od učitelů ostatních předmětů, a aby si zachoval své profesní dovednosti, jsou nezbytné podle Eurydice (2011) určité kompetence typické pro přírodní vědy. Pro vědy je charakteristické především modelování, tj. vytváření kopií skutečnosti, často v abstraktní nebo matematické podobě, která klade důraz na konkrétní rysy skutečnosti. Dalšími příznačnými rysy přírodních věd jsou specifická epistemologie či způsob získávání znalostí, používání praktických prací (zejména laboratorních cvičení) i další atributy. Domníváme se, že tyto dovednosti, kompetence a schopnost vyučovat tyto aspekty přírodních věd musejí být součástí jakési povinné výbavy učitele přírodních věd. Pro výuku přírodních věd mají navíc svůj zvláštní význam všeobecné pedagogické kompetence, jako učení se prostřednictvím argumentace a používání metod založených na bádání. V tomto ohledu je proto nutné si uvědomit, že vzhledem k velké šíři a rozmanitosti pojmů spojených s povahou přírodních věd nemusí krátká seznámení s nimi během vzdělávání učitelů primárního stupně vést k jejich dostatečnému pochopení tak, aby bylo ovlivněno správné chování nových učitelů při výuce přírodních věd. Doposud se uskutečnilo jen málo nových výzkumů na téma (kontroverzního) vztahu mezi znalostmi učiva učitelů přírodních věd a jejich pedagogickou praxí. Pokud se však podíváme na složení českých učitelů na prvních stupni základních škol, tak to podle zjištění projektu TIMSS, zůstává v průběhu času zhruba stejné (tab. 3). Za posledních osm let se mírně prodloužila délka praxe a od roku 2011 nepatrně ubylo nejmladších učitelů, snížil se podíl učitelů ve věkové kategorii 40 až 49 let a naopak vzrostl podíl učitelů starších 50 let. V České republice je nadprůměrný podíl učitelů s délkou praxe nad 20 let (50 %) a podprůměrný podíl učitelů v kategoriích 5 až 10 let (10 %) a méně než 5 let (10 %) (Tomášek a kol., 2016).

Tabulka 3: Změny ve složení pedagogického sboru na českých školách od roku 1995, TIMSS 2015 – 4. ročník

Rok šetření	**Délka praxe**	**Procento žáků (%), které vyučují**						
		ženy	**muži**	**učitelé z věkové kategorie**				
				do 29 let	**30 - 39**	**40 - 49**	**50 - 59**	**60 a více**
1995	22,5	94,0	6,0	12,8	23,0	19,7	38,8	5,7
2007	17,2	90,6	9,4	10,9	24,0	39,9	22,3	2,9
2011	18,8	95,3	4,7	11,9	18,2	39,6	27,9	2,4

2015	20,1	95,3	4,7	8,8	18,7	29,3	37,0	6,2

Zdroj: Tomášek a kol., 2016

Délka praxe je zajisté relevantnější charakteristikou učitelské profese, než samotný věk (Průcha, 2006). Je nutné totiž uvážit zejména to, že většina učitelů v systému základního vzdělávání jsou ženy, z nichž opět většina tráví kratší či delší dobu na mateřské dovolené, takže délka jejich pedagogické praxe se tím zkracuje. Proto je v mezinárodních komparacích vhodnější operovat s délkou praxe při vyšetřování vlivu učitelských charakteristik na edukační procesy a jejich výsledky, než pouze s věkem učitelů. Musíme však konstatovat, že otázka vlivu délky praxe učitelů na vzdělávací výsledky jejich žáků, respektive na kvalitu edukačního procesu vůbec, dosud není na základě komparativních analýz zcela vysvětlena.

Další sledovanou oblastí byl zájem žáků o to, co učitel při výuce přírodovědy říká. Námi zjištěné výsledky (tab. 4-5) opět spolu úzce korelují. Zastáváme v tomto názor, že právě primární vzdělávání hraje velmi důležitou roli při vytváření vztahů žáků k výuce přírodovědy. Z výsledků vyplývá, že žáci mají zájem o tuto výuku, pokud ji učitel umí dobře vysvětlit a žáky zajímá.

Tabulka 4: Vyhodnocení korelací odpovědí zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu učitelem v oblasti *„Zajímá mě, co učitel říká“* - Česká republika

Přírodovědu mám rád/a	0,4339
Těším se na hodiny přírodovědy	0,4280
V přírodovědě se naučím mnoho zajímavého	0,4103
Přírodověda patří k mým oblíbeným předmětům	0,4094
Baví mě učit se přírodovědu	0,4018
Přírodověda mě učí, jak věci ve světě fungují	0,3576
Rád/a dělám přírodovědné pokusy	0,3127
Nejraději bych se přírodovědu neučil/a	-0,2768
Přírodověda je nudná	-0,3582

Tabulka 5: Vyhodnocení korelací odpovědí zaměřených na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu učitelem v oblasti *„Zajímá mě, co učitel říká“* - Finsko

V přírodovědě se naučím mnoho zajímavého	0,4175
Přírodovědu mám rád/a	0,4005
Těším se na hodiny přírodovědy	0,3928
Baví mě učit se přírodovědu	0,3859
Přírodověda mě učí, jak věci ve světě fungují	0,3661
Přírodověda patří k mým oblíbeným předmětům	0,3456
Rád/a dělám přírodovědné pokusy	0,3402
Nejraději bych se přírodovědu neučil/a	-0,3207
Přírodověda je nudná	-0,3471

Avšak jsme svědky dlouhodobě klesajícího zájmu o studium přírodních věd a matematiky. Někteří autoři zmiňují jednu z hlavních příčin neatraktivnosti studia přírodních věd především způsoby, kterými se vyučují ve školách (Brtnová Čepičková, 2013). Jedním z motivačních faktorů je podpora přirozené zvídavosti žáků. Tu je možné probudit u žáků mnoha způsoby, například samotným zájmem učitele o svůj obor. Dále pak aktivním zapojováním žáků do výuky a ukazovat, jaký význam příslušný obor má ve skutečném světě. Propojovat

poznatky v rámci integrované výuky a věnovat se konkrétní aplikaci učiva. S pojmy zvídavost, motivace, aktivita a aktivizace se úzce pojí činnost žáka a učitele ve výuce. Aktivita však sama o sobě není cílem edukace, poněvadž by mohlo jít jen o aktivitu vnější nebo zdánlivou, která nepřispívá k dosažení vyššího stupně osobnostního rozvoje. Aktivizace žáků v edukačním procesu znamená zaměření na rozvoj osobnosti, na růst kompetencí, na dosahování stále vyššího obzoru. Metod, které rozvíjí motivaci žáků ve vyučování je nepřeberné množství a souvisí především s tvořivostí v organizování výuky. To, kterou metodu nebo způsob vzbuzení a rozvoje motivací si zvolí, záleží na učiteli. Volba metody či způsobu by měla být ovlivněna zejména obsahem vyučování a dále přiměřeností věku žáků. Na prvním stupni by měl učitel zejména respektovat přirozené potřeby žáků. Z důvodu krátkodobé pozornosti je však nutné během výuky obměňovat organizační formy i vyučovací metody a volit zejména takové, které mají na žáky aktivizující vliv.

2 ZÁVĚR

Příspěvek se snažil zaměřit na rozvíjení přírodovědné gramotnosti u žáků prvního stupně základní školy v kontextu mezinárodních výzkumů. Pozornost byla zaměřena na korelaci vybraných výsledků dotazníkových položek odpovědí žáků z České republiky a Finska v rámci šetření TIMSS 2015, které byly zaměřeny na vztah žáků k výuce přírodovědy v závislosti na jejich hodnocení řízení učebního procesu. Z výsledků vyplývá, že žáci mají zájem o tuto výuku, pokud ji učitel umí dobře vysvětlit a žáky zajímá. Příspěvek reflektuje klíčové aspekty související s tímto výzkumem a poskytuje také určitý náhled na pojem přírodovědné gramotnosti v rámci primárního vzdělávání.

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THE TEACHER'S INTENTIONS IN THE TEACHING OF ART EDUCATION VERSUS DRAWING OF A CHILD OF PRE-SCHOOL AGE

Blanka Lehotayová, Daniela Valachová, Monika Kepičová

Abstract

Teaching, unlike other areas of human experience, is presented through its own practical dimension. One of the ways to analyse the teacher's intentions in teaching is a qualitative research methodology. Understanding and interpreting the phenomenon of the concept of the teacher´s teaching using grounded theory is a process of three stages of coding. Coding is the basic mechanism for transforming the structured data into an expert context. The basic elements of an inductive methodological approach are concepts, categories and claims that capture conceptual relationships. The open, axial and selective coding applications are presented as examples of two identified categories - automation and motivation.

Keywords: *grounded theory, qualitative research, child of pre-school age, artistic expression, teacher*

1 THEORETICAL PARADIGMA

The teacher as a key subject of the teaching process ensures its adequate conditions. The teacher's understanding of teaching is a general strategy for the teacher´s thinking and action that aims to achieve the set goal.

The educational activities of the teacher in artistic activities (aimed at graphomotor skills development, which is a set of psychomotoric activities of an individual involved in drawing and writing) must necessarily be adapted to the development of child´s drawing. The graphomotor maturity of a child is closely related to the level of drawing development. The drawing is influenced by the level of sensomotorics, gross and fine motor skills and overall movement coordination. It evolves from simple shapes to more complex ones.

2 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM

Child's artistic expression shows the level of graphomotor skills. The basis for improving qualitative relationships in child´s drawing and subsequent initial writing appears in the targeted and systematic development of graphomotor skills in art activities of the children of pre-school age. The research intention has been to acquire, recognize and interpret what the professional activity of the nursery school teacher is in the teaching of art education (What causes the didactic decisions of the teacher in the art activities? What goals does the teacher have in the teaching process?).

2.1 The realization of the research

The aim of the presented research was to identify, understand and interpret the teaching method of the teacher in the development of graphomotor skills in children. Based on the aim, the research question has been formulated: "How is the teaching of graphomotor skills in kindergartens implemented?"

The research method of in-depth interview was used in the qualitative survey. This was a non-standardized questioning of the research subjects through several open questions. We conducted a semi-structured interview during the survey. The questions suitable for the qualitative research met the specific criteria - they were broad enough, they did not describe the objectively given phenomenon, but examined the nature of the phenomenon from the

perspective of the participant. The open questions were formulated with the intention of uncovering the study of the development of graphomotor training. The main or core questions addressed the central themes of the research to acquire the key information interconnected to the research issues. The aim was to identify and understand the attitudes of the teachers in teaching, so we considered it natural to ask about things, phenomena, events of their professional life (R. Švaříček, K. Šeďová et al., 2007; M. Miovský, 2006; J. Plichtová , 2002; B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová, 2018).
The research data was provided by the teachers of pre-primary education - the selection of the research subjects was deliberate. We made only a direct interview. The number of the survey respondents was topped up during the processing of the data due to the lack of the desired saturation level. A total number of 7 teachers participated in the research. In addition to the written recordings, we also used the audio record. Based on the digital recording, we created a transcript.

2.2 The methodology of the investigation

One of the qualitative methodology designs is grounded theory. Grounded theory has a systematic, inductive methodological approach that aims to create a product in the form of theory." Grounded theory is inductively derived from an explored phenomenon that it represents," says A. Strauss, J. Corbin (1999, p. 14). The process of systematic data collection and analysis is based on the search for the concepts related to an examined phenomenon. Throughout the survey, not only a continuous collection of the research material, but also its analysis and interpretation throughout the examination is important. The aim of the research data analysis is to identify relationships, to search for identical and different characteristics and to generalize them. By systematical organizing the obtained data, a set of generic categories and their characteristics can be expected. The goal is to create the specification of the conditions under which the phenomenon is observed, the description of the interactions that are associated with it, the interpretation of the consequences and the subsequent definition and conception of the theory.

2.3 The elaboration of the research material

The analytical techniques of grounded theory are formed by a coding process that passes through three stages - open, axial and selective coding. Coding is understood as the basic mechanism of transforming the structured data into an expert context. Each of these types of coding has its logic and its own analytical procedures. In the first step, we conducted an analysis of the research data through **open coding**, as a possible identification of the structures related to the research issues. Open coding, according to A. Strauss, J. Corbin (1999, p. 42), is a process of analyzing, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing the data. Based on a thorough study of the obtained data from a written interview, we created conceptual labels. While naming the expressions we used the procedure of asking the basic questions for the coding "Who? When? Where? What? How? How much/many? Why? " and their subsequent comparison (A. Strauss, J. Corbin, 1999; R. Švaříček, K. Šeďová, 2007; B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová, 2018). The questions were chosen selectively, according to the contents of the paragraph and also in relation to the research question. Our intention was to create conceptual labeling of the phenomena, which lies not only in their recognition and understanding, but also in the subsequent correct interpretation of the findings. We wrote the code names in the record of the research data concurrently with bounding the units. Each code unit was assigned a code in the form of a label. We understood the coding as a procedure by which we attempted to specify the variables that will form the basis of future theory.

Having completed the initial analysis, in the next phase we saturated particular information into the individual categories. The categorization was carried out by asking, "What does it seem to be?" The category was created by a class of concepts based on their clustering while comparing them, when we found out that they concern the similar phenomenon. Creating a categorized code list was a universal input into qualitative analysis.
We proceeded with the three-level analysis, which is typical of grounded theory (R. Švaříček, K. Šeďová, 2007).

Tab. 1: The steps to create the categorization. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

LEVEL	ANALYSIS FUNCTION	EXAMPLE
1. DATA UNIT	INDICATOR	*„..I don´t want to disgust him right at the beginning ... you don´t do it well, you cannot do it, don´t do it. I'll tell him: you've done it, let's try it together like this...“* AL, line15
2. CODE	CONCEPT	EXTERNAL MOTIVATION
3. CATEGORY	VARIABLE	MOTIVATION

Using open coding, the data was analyzed, conceptualized, and organized in a new way several times. We continued to work with the prepared fragments. By comparing and sorting the meaning units and the concepts contained in them, we tried to find out whether they are not overlapping in meaning and if they concern just certain phenomena. Subsequently, we created separate distinct entities.

Tab. 2: The demonstration of categories´ codes - automation and motivation. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

CATEGORY	CODE
AUTOMATION	REPETITION, RITUALS, AUTOMATION OF MOVEMENT
MOTIVATION	INTERNAL MOTIVATION, EXTERNAL MOTIVATION, INTEREST IN ACTION

We determined the individual categories based on their specific qualities, which we divided into individual dimensions. The category contains the features or characteristics that formed its qualities. Each quality varied within a certain range, which means that each occurrence had its dimensional profile. By grouping several dimensional profiles, a certain regularity arose. According to A. Strauss, J. Corbin (1999, p. 49), the "dimensional profile shows the specific qualities of the phenomenon under the given conditions". The qualities of the categories and their dimensions are made easier in the table below.

Tab. 3: The dimensional range of the categories of the qualities. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

CATEGORY	FEATURES	DIMENSIONAL RANGE
AUTOMATION	skill cycle	high – low regular – irregular
MOTIVATION	impulse effect	positive – negative high – low

In the following tables, we show a clear occurrence of the units and codes pertaining to a particular category. The units were identifiable in the data obtained from all the interviews.

Tab. 4: The category of automation with its significant units and codes. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

CATEGORY	UNITS AND CODES
AUTOMATION	*Firstly, warm up the hand; draw a particular pattern first in the air, then on the carpet. To warm up the entire upper limb. Then they do it on the board. When they go to the tables, at the beginning they all just use their fingers on the paper, then a pencil. They know exactly what will follow./* RITUALS
	... the more often the child gets involved, the faster the child gets better./ REPETITION
	Even though children know the exact sequence of graphomotor activities, they still enjoy doing it./ RITUALS
	I'm observing if the motion in graphomotorics is automatized./ AUTOMATION OF MOVEMENT

Tab. 5: The category of motivation with its meaning units and codes. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

CATEGORY	UNITS AND CODES
MOTIVATION	*A variety of different activities offer me the guarantee that the kids will have fun. I know them and I know what to offer./* EXTERNAL MOTIVATION, INTERNAL MOTIVATION
	I always motivate children, I encourage them and I try to attract them with the activities I plan./ EXTERNAL MOTIVATION
	I think motivation is very important for a child ... /MOTIVATION
	When I see that they enjoy it. Mainly the training exercises ... /I WANT TO ACT
	I don´t want to disgust him right at the beginning ... you don´t do it well, you cannot do it, don´t do it. /INTERNAL MOTIVATION

The created form of codes and categories provided an option to create a conceptual line in the subsequent axial coding method by creating an organized relationship between the categories. Axial coding contained a set of procedures that followed open coding by the linking the categories and subcategories (A. Strauss, J. Corbin, 1999; P. Gavora, 2006; R. Švaříček, K. Šeďová, 2007). The data was merged in a new way through the created link.

Tab. 6: The categories and subcategories used in paradigmatic models. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

	SUB-CATEGORY	CATEGORY
WHO?	INTERACTIVE RELATIONSHIP	TEACHER´S STRATEGY, CHILD
WHAT?	INTENTION	GRAPHOMOTORICS
HOW?	DIDACTIC REALITY	DIAGNOSTICS, INTERACTION, LEARNING, ACCEPTANCE, MOTIVATION
WHY?	MEANING	AUTOMATION, SIGNIFICANCE, SELF-REFLECTION

The subcategories were drawn into their categories using something that A. Strauss and J. Corbin (1999) call a paradigmatic model.

The following part provides a preview of a detailed description of the relationship between the subcategories and categories through the coding paradigm. Before we created the final version, we had searched for the connection in coherence. In the simplified schema, we provide an overview of the categorization of the interrelated relationships, which we describe in detail below.

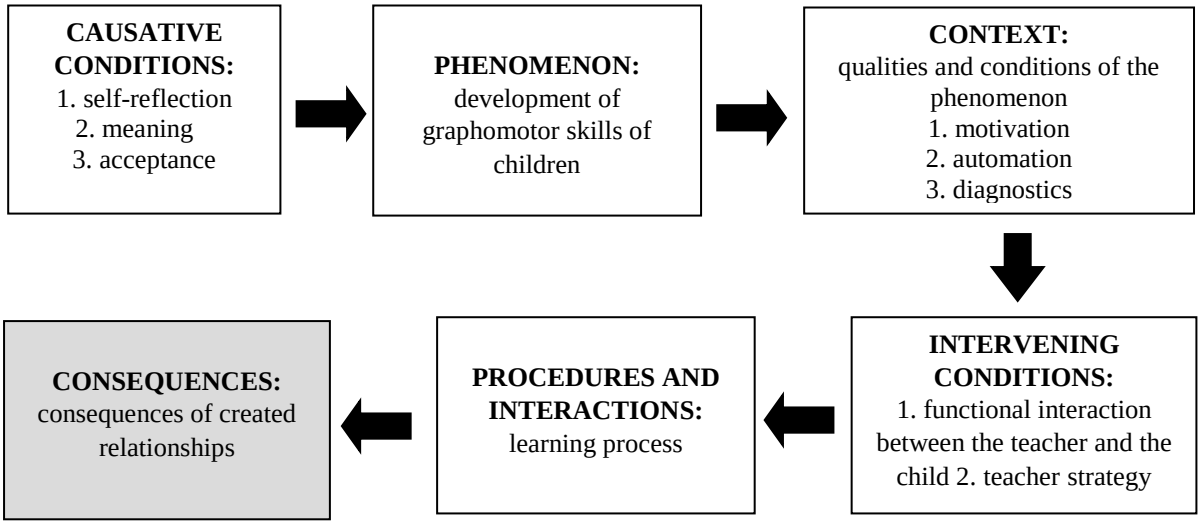

Diagram 1: The organized relations in paradigmatic models in axial coding. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

The causative condition of self-reflection was put in relation to context - motivation. We focused on the motivation category from the point of view of the teacher´s motivation and the child´s motivation. The quality of motivation - the impulse had a dimensional range in the positive and negative position in the created scale. This property was clearly identifiable in the data and had a major effect on the recipient, in our case the teacher and the child. It was frustrating for the teacher when the child did not want to carry out the planned activities, which the following statement presents: *"When I am in a hurry, then I can see the imperfection of my work, because I did not manage to do what I had intended."* We intentionally distinguished between internal and external motivation while coding. The teachers described internal motivation as meaningful activities from the perspective of the child. In the case of the child of pre-school age, it was quite easy for the teacher to transform external motivation into internal one. An example of the appropriate motivation was the teacher's statement: *"I cannot draw it and anyway, it's so ugly," then it is my role to encourage and motivate children.* The interest of the child in an activity determines the activity and experience of the child based on the match between internal and external motivation. The motivation in the form of activity in the development of graphomotor skills was effective if the contents of the activity became a goal of the activity itself. The child's demotivation in the process was noted if the teacher did not accept the child's interest in the activity. *"Natalia's interest in the drawing was obvious. On the other hand, Peter was bored, he drew quickly and without any interest".* The child became also demotivated if the teacher performed a repetitive activity that the child was not able to do: "*When I see that the children have a problem, they have to redraw the things they weren´t able to do. I will tell them: "Tell me what is missing there?" And then the children draw it. I always take one child and let him draw ".* The teacher in the recorded data considered motivation as an offer of varied activities, as something the children "enjoy" doing. If the teacher accepted the combination of motivation and the development of graphomotor skills in children as a fun activity, we are

convinced that the learning effect on the child cannot be guaranteed. For this reason, motivation is a category which usage in teaching was emphasized in connection with a specific goal and the acceptance of the current developmental level of the child. It was achieved by the teacher's deliberately planned diverse activities. The causative condition – meaning was put in relation to context - automation. It was made up of the categories of repetition, rituals, automation of movement. Automation was assigned the quality - skill. Dexterity is a mechanical and limited activity. It is based on repetition. Another feature is a cycle. The dimensional scope for the specified quality was regularity and irregularity. An unambiguous dimensional scale confirmation was a regularity that was tied to all the respondents' replies. According to the relationship we had created, we added another dimensional scope of the cycle property and it was legitimate - unnecessary. In this sense, the cycle as a property of automation was legitimate for us. It was in the case if the preparatory activities created a complex development of graphomotor skills in children in terms of the thematic interconnection and the interconnection of motor skills, hearing and visual perception. A cycle of inconvenient and inadequate preparatory exercises was unnecessary in the dimensional scale.

Axial coding was an interesting phase of analysis for us. The different strategies of the teacher´s access through teaching as possible indicators related to the learning of children in graphomotor skills development were linked to different types of causative conditions. They were created by meaning categories: meaning, self-reflection, and acceptance. The teacher´s access strategies were linked to the different contexts that formed the automation and motivation categories related to the subcategory of didactic reality.

Tab. 7: The defined consequences of the created axial coding relationships. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

CAUSATIVE CONDITION	**PHENOMENON**	**CONTEXT**	**PROCEDURES OR INTERACTIONS**	**CONSEQUENCES**
self-reflection	graphomotorics	motivation	teaching based on teaching by doing and learning	interest of the child
meaning	graphomotorics	automation	teaching based on rituals as repetitive activities in the development of graphomotorics	coordinated and automated motion during drawing

Selective coding was the process where we chose a central category that was systematically referenced in relation to other categories. The central category was a central phenomenon around which all other categories were integrated. The integration in the final analysis did not differ from axial coding but was performed at a higher abstract level of thematic analysis (A. Strauss, J. Corbin, 1999; R. Švaříček, K. Šeďová, 2007; E. Severini, D. Kostrub, 2018). In the axial coding process, we also sought the evidence of differences and we gained a greater variability and compactness of the theory.

In the diagram, we present relationships between the categories that were redrafted to the form, where we managed to create an interlaced and coherent line more clearly.

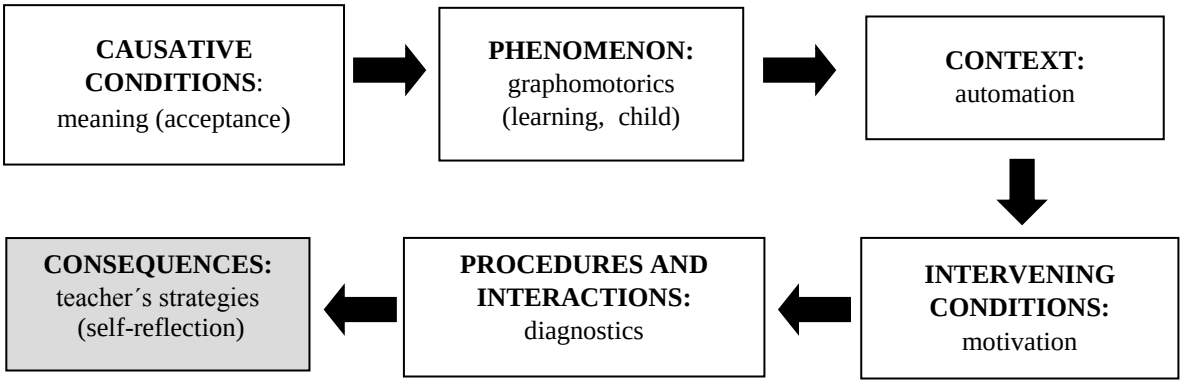

Diagram 2: The skeleton of the story in the organized relationship of the paradigmatic model. B. Lehotayová, D. Valachová (2018)

The construction of the theory is presented in the example of two categories. The context in this relationship considered as automation was characterized by the qualities of skill and cycle. Dexterity as a mechanical action in drawing is based on repetition. The dimensional scale has a value of skill characterized as high and low. From our point of view, the property of automation was a significant value, which we identified as a cycle. In the dimensional scale of this property there is a range - regularity and irregularity. In the research data, we only identified regularity.

An increased repetition rate was recorded if the child was unable to record a graphomotor sign properly. The teacher´s intervention in this form did not lead to the desired outcome. In this case, the didactic indications are not considered to be didactically effective. This type of intervention is an example of stagnation in the development and possible demotivation of the child. The irregularity in the development of graphomotor skills was not recorded in any expression. Another cycle property that we created during axial coding consisted of a value-based dimension on the dimensional scale: legitimate-unnecessary. The repetitive activities as a well-established cycle have been put in relation to the teacher's strategies. The level of justification was identified if the preparatory activities carried out by the teacher were a comprehensive development of graphomotor skills in the children.

However, a few responses presented the regularity of the realized activities as unnecessary. They had a form of inconvenient and inadequate preparatory workouts. Intervening condition - motivation was an important factor in relation to the teacher and the child. Knowing the level of the development of each child, the teacher should have requirements slightly above the abilities of the child to link motivation with the diagnosis. On the basis of the findings, we have identified the teacher's efforts to engage the children with a diverse range of activities without a demonstrable differentiation in the level of their development. The teacher should start from what the children can do, from their questions, problems, ambitions, showing them the continuity of what children can reach. Both simple or challenging task can demotivate the child. Motivation itself depends on accentuating the diagnostic findings. The obtained research data identifies that children perform graphomotor activity on the basis of external motivation, because according to the diagnostic findings the teacher's intervention has not been proved.

3 CONCLUSION

The subjects of the research can identify motivation and automation and they can realise their consequences. The impact of both categories appears to be equally important in the children without visual talent as well as in the children with artistic talent. To achieve correct

graphomotor habits and skills in a child - grabbing and holding a pencil, keeping the line, maintaining the correct pressure on the pad, etc. requires the acceptance of several factors. It seems appropriate to provide space for graphic activities that enrich the child with new experience and experiences with graphic signs, patterns or motifs.

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GRATITUDE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO CREATIVE PERSONALITY AND RESILIENCE IN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Katarína Greškovičová, Veronika Boleková

Abstract

The aim of the research was to examine the interrelationships between creativity, resilience and dispositional gratitude in university students (N=286, age m=21.18, SD = 2.16) that were internal students at Pan-European University. In order to measure creative personality, we used the Creative Personality Scale and Openness to experience from NEO-FFI. Resilience was measured by the Resilience Scale and gratitude by the Gratitude Questionnaire. We empirically supported the hypothesis about the positive relationship between resilience and gratitude. Moreover, we found a weak relationship between gratitude and creative personality. We also suggested shared characteristics of creative and resilient personality. Cluster analyses showed three types from which we concluded that lower levels of resilience and gratitude are very important aspects.

Key words: *gratitude, creative person, resilience*

1 INTRODUCTION

In order to contribute to the overall picture of the human psyche and to restore balance in the field of scientific psychological research, representatives of the current trend of positive psychology focus on the health and strengths of individuals and groups (Seligman, Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Their aim is to promote beneficial prosperity, increase personal well-being and quality of life. The two key areas of interest in this rapidly evolving approach include creativity and resilience.

The creative personality is characterized by emotional instability, internal motivation, the need for originality, friendliness, flexibility or ambition (Martinsen, 2011). Increased creativity is also associated with a higher degree of openness to experience (Chamorro-Premuzic, Reichenbacher, 2008). In this research, we focused on creative personality that can be perceived as a person that possesses not only openness to experience but three other aspects, namely personality traits associated with creativity (self-confidence, unconventionality, inventiveness), situational factors of various environments (acceptance of challenge, freedom, spontaneity, risk, engagement), and problem solving (intelligence, divergent thinking, insight, complexity of thinking, independence in thinking). The latter three aspects of the creative person can be measured by the Creative Personality Scale (Goncy, Waehler, 2006).

Creativity is also related to coping with the demands of the environment or life adversity. Linking creativity and resilience is implied by Runco's (2007) definition of creativity which is depicted as the core of human adaptability. Similarly, Richards (2007) considers the originality of ordinary life as the basic ability for survival. The concept of resiliency as a personality characteristic expresses the ability of a dynamic and adequate self-regulation of the individual, which allows highly resilient people to adapt more quickly to changing circumstances due to their readiness and flexibility (Block, Kremen, 1996). Wagnild and Young (1993) state that the basis of resilience as a personality is personal competence, acceptance of self and life. Based on the qualitative research of women who have successfully

mastered extreme burden, they suggested a specific instrument for measuring the resilience thus defined (Wagnild, Young, 1993).

With the advent of positive psychology, experience of gratitude is also becoming its salient part. It has become not only the subject of many empirical researches in the field but also a part of several theoretical concepts, such as the classification of strengths of character and virtues (Peterson, Seligman, 2004), the broaden-and-buid theory (Frederickson, 2004) and the new concept - savoring (Bryant, Veroff, 2007). Gratitude is defined as a positive emotional response to the gift (Emmons, Crumpler, 2000) or the benefit that an individual gains from the good intentions of another person (Tsang, 2006). Dispositional gratitude represents an affective feature or a general tendency to respond with gratitude to favour and affection of others (McCullough et al., 2001). It has four basic dimensions (Emmons, McCullough, Tsang, 2003): intensity (the degree of usual experience of gratitude), the frequency of gratitude, the extent or number of life events for which a person is grateful at the time, and the density or the number of persons to whom the individual is grateful. These dimensions can be explored by the Gratitude Questionnaire GQ-6 (McCullough, Emmons, Tsang, 2002).

In the paper, we focus on the relationship of gratitude to resilience and creativity. The leading idea of the research was the Broaden-and-Build Theory, which assumes that positive emotions extend the repertoire of individual thinking and behaviours, thus enabling to build and expand one´s personal resources. In accordance with this theory, we can assume that gratitude as a positive emotion contributes to the expansion of cognitive schemes and flexibility of thinking (Fredrickson, 2004). It positively correlates with openness and its individual dimensions, which suggests that the grateful people have a rich inner world and imagination. The theory also provides a theoretical framework for understanding the relationship between gratitude and resilience. According to the author, people who are grateful have available a wider variety of behavioural options and coping mechanisms. Gratitude allows a person to change one´s mind and, even in situations of stress, it helps to focus attention on the contribution of the event and the importance of positive aspects of everyday life. At the same time, it leads to a reciprocal altruism that helps build up lasting resources of friendship and social relationships.

The aim of the research was to find out how creativity and resilience are related to the dispositional gratitude. By verifying the formulated hypothesis and responding to the research questions, we want to support the Broaden-and-Built Theory and build empirical evidence.

RQ1: Does the dispositional gratitude relate to the level of creativity?

Gratitude allows a person to perceive positive aspects of the stress situation and can serve as an important coping strategy. Therefore, we assume its relationship with resilience and based on empirical evidence of foreign authors (Dwiwardani et al., 2014; Ruini, Vescovelli, 2013; Frederickson, 2004), we formulate the following research hypothesis:

RH1: We expect a positive linear relationship between dispositional gratitude and resilience.

Providing an empirical picture of the relationship between resilience and creativity is the second major objective of the presented research. Frederickson (1998) does not explicitly assume the relationship between resilience and creativity in her Broaden-and-Built Theory. Due to the insufficient theoretical background and ambiguity of the research conclusions (Boleková, Szobiová, 2013; Szobiová, 2011, 2015; Szobiová, Kuklišová, 2013) we will consider our research in this field as exploratory and formulate the research question:

RQ2: Is there a relationship between creativity and resilience?

2 METHODS

2.1 Research sample

286 participants from Pan-European University aged 18 to 40 participated in the study (M = 21.18, SD = 2.16). 85 participants from the Faculty of Mass Media (29.7%), 99 from the Faculty of Psychology (34.6%) and 102 from the Faculty of Law (35.7%). First (30.8%), second (47.2%), and third (22.0%) year students of bachelor´s level that were internal students took part in the study. The research sample consisted of 82 (28.7%) men and 204 (71.3%) of women.

2.2 Methods of data collection

In order to measure creative personality, we used two questionnaires.

The Creative Personality Scale (Goncy, Waehler, 2006) serves to measure personality traits typical of people with a high level of creativity. It assesses creativity in three areas: Personality traits associated with creativity, Situational factors of various environments and Problem solving. 30 items are scored on a 6-point Likert scale. The theoretical range of the scale is 30-180. The higher the summary index, the more creative person is.

We also used the Openness to experience from the NEO-FFI Personality Five-factor Inventory (Costa and McCrae, 1992, by Ruisel, Halama, 2007), which contains 12 items with a 5-point Likert Scale (a participant can score between 12 and 60 points). High score on the scale means a tendency to intellectual curiosity, searching for new ideas and unconventional values, independence, inventiveness, fantasy, active imagination or aesthetic sensitivity (Ruisel, Halama, 2007).

The Resilience Scale by Wagnild and Young (1993) is designed to measure individual resilience, or personality characteristics, which represent the core of resilience - mental equilibrium, meaningfulness, endurance, reliance on oneself and existential loneliness (Portzky, Wagnild et al., 2010). It contains 25 items with a 7-point scale and its theoretical range is from 25 to 175. The higher the summary index, the more resilient a person is.

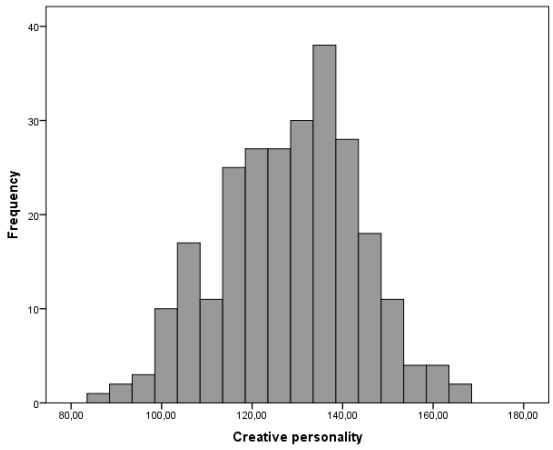
The Gratitude Questionnaire GQ-6 by McCullough, Emmons, and Tsang (2002) allows us to assess the differences between individuals in the degree of dispositional gratitude, i.e. in the tendency to respond graciously to the positive experience, goodness or favour of other people. The scale includes 6 claims aiming at experience and expression of dispositional gratitude in common life. Each item measures the intensity, frequency and density and gradient at 7-point Likert scale. The theoretical range of the scale is from 6 to 42. The higher the summary index, the more grateful a person is.

3 RESULTS

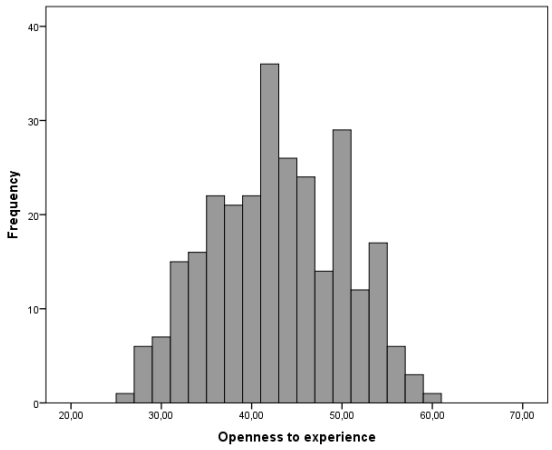
3.1 Creative personality

In Creative Personality Scale, more than two-thirds of the participants accounted themselves as intelligent (77.2%), able to improvise in diverse situations (75.5%) and be critical to other people's work (66.8%). On the other hand, most of the participants did not agree (1st and 2nd point on the Likert scale) that there is the lack of entertainment (77.5%), of freedom in choosing activities and activities (72.3%) or spontaneity (65.8%). Personality characteristics Openness is most often expressed by the desire for knowledge and knowledge (80.6%), by an intensive experience of art perception (57.2%) and by playing with theories and abstract ideas (52.1%). Up to 81.1% of participants disagree with the claim that in the case of moral decisions we should take into account the views of our religious authorities.

We have found a good inner consistency of the Creative Personality Scale (α = .808). The value of the coefficient of internal consistency of the Openness reached the value α = .677.



Graph 1 Histogram of the variable Creative personality in the research sample, source: authors



Graph 2 Histogram of the variable Openness to experience in the research sample, source: authors

Data in the Creative Personality Scale are normally distributed (Graph 1). The theoretical range range is 30-180 points, the empirical range 86-165 points (M = 128.11, SD = 15.26). Data in the Openness (NEO-FFI) are not normally distributed (Graph 2). Participants could receive from 12 to 60 points on the scale. The empirical range in our research was from 26 to 60 points. More than half of the participants received scores ≥ 42 points. Descriptive statistics of individual dimensions are shown in Tab. 1.

Tab. 1: Descriptive statistics of the creative personality variables, source: authors

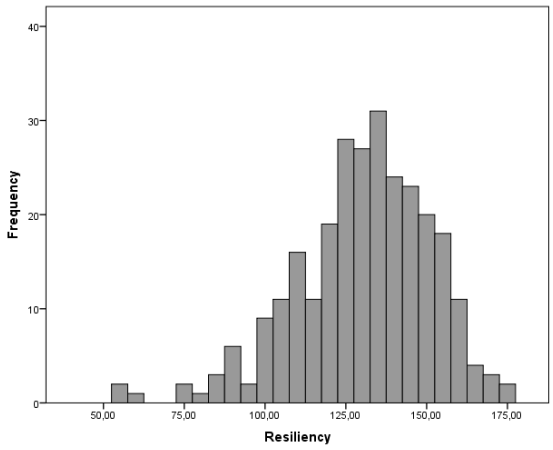
		Creative personality	Situational factors	Personality traits	Problem solving	Openness to experience
Mean		128.11	22.19	44.54	48.57	42.28
Std. Error of Mean		.95	.23	.33	.41	.44
Median		129.00	23.00	45.00	49.00	42.00
Std. Deviation		15.26	3.91	5.40	6.82	7.27
Minimum		86.00	10.00	29.00	29.00	26.00
Maximum		165.00	30.00	59.00	66.00	60.00
Percentiles	25	118.00	19.50	41.00	45.00	37.00
	50	129.00	23.00	45.00	49.00	42.00
	75	139.00	25.00	48.00	53.00	48.00

3.2 Resilience

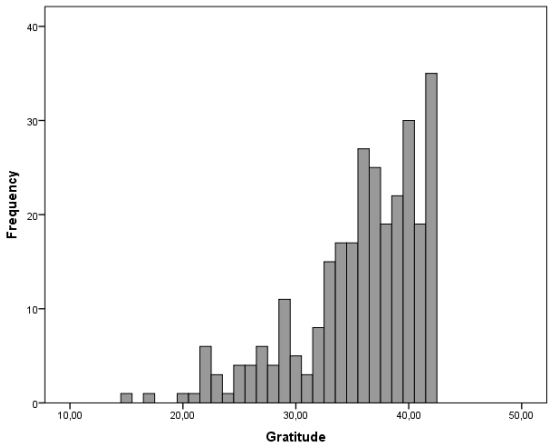
Empirical indicators of resilience were 25 items in the Resilience Scale. Participants in the research sample (72.3%) often experience pride because they have already done a number of important things in their lives. They consider their life to be meaningful (72.5%). Resilience is also associated with the ability to find amusement in everyday matters (75%). Up to 233 (81.5%) participants considered themselves as independent if the situation so requires (marked 6th and 7th point on the Likert scale). On the other hand, several students in the research sample expressed strong or moderate disapproval (ie they marked the 1st and 2nd point) with items expressing only occasional consideration of the meaning of existence (32.2%), less frequent accepting of things (25.1%) and sticking to things they can not do anything about (18.5%). Each item strongly correlates with the overall score and the scale is internally consistent (α = .908).

The theoretical range of the Resilience Scale is 25-175 points, the empirical range is 55-175 points. The average score for participants in our research is M = 130.29 (SD = 20.88). Descriptive statistics are displayed in Tab. 2. Data do not have a normal distribution (Graph

3). Therefore, in further analyzes, we work with the median, which for the whole sample is Mdn = 132.



Graph 3 Histogram of the variable Resilience in the research sample, source: authors



Graph 4 Histogram of the variable Gratitude in the research sample, source: authors

3.3 Gratitude

The degree of gratitude was measured by 6 empirical indicators in the Gratitude Questionnaire. The participants (88.1%) strongly agreed with the claim that there was much in their lives that they should be grateful for (marked 6th and 7th point on the Likert scale). They strongly disagreed that there is a lack of things which they could be grateful for and a need for longer time to be able to experience gratitude to someone or something. The questionnaire is internally consistent (α = .769). Data in the Gratitude Questionnaire does not have a normal distribution (Graph 4). The theoretical range can be 6 - 42 points, empirical was 15- 42 points. More than half of the participants received scores more than ≥ 37 points (Tab. 2).

Tab. 2: Descriptive statistics of the variales Resilience and Gratitude in the research sample, source: authors

		Resilience	Gratitude
Mean		130.29	35.84
Std. Error of Mean		1.26	.31
Median		132.00	37.00
Std. Deviation		20.88	5.28
Minimum		55.00	15.00
Maximum		175.00	42.00
Percentiles	25	120.00	33.00
	50	132.00	37.00
	75	144.00	40.00

3.4 Relationship between gratitude, creative personality and resilience

We found a weak, but not negligible, relationship between Gratitude and Creative personality (r_s = .203), from which the strongest relationship was with the Situational factors (r_s = .284). The relationship between Gratitude and Openness was weak (r_s = .127). Gratitude correlated positively with Resilience (r_s = .273). The correlation coefficients are displayed in Tab. 3.

In the next step, the participants were divided into four categories based on 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles in the Gratitude in order to compare Creative personality and Resilience level. 1st group represents scores less than 25th percentile and 4th group scores above 75th percentile (Tab. 4). The group of participants with the lowest degree of Gratitude reached the lowest scores not only in Creative personality (Mdn = 124.46) but in Resilience (Mdn = 125.75) as

well. On the other hand, participants with the highest degree of Gratitude reached also the highest levels of Creative personality (Mdn = 132.81) and Resilience (Mdn = 138.20).

Tab. 3: Values of correlation coefficients between indicators of creativity and gratitude

	Gratitude
Creative personality	**,203****
Personality traits	**,129***
Situational factors	**,284****
Problem solving	**,144***
Openness	**,127***
Resilience	**.273****

*p < .05 ** p < .01

Tab. 4: Level of Creative personality (M) and Resilience (Mdn) according to categories of gratitude

Gratitude	Creative personality	Resilience
1	**124.46**	**125.750**
2	127.08	129.500
3	129.91	136.200
4	**132.81**	**138.200**
Total	128.18	132.333
r_m	.194	.262

There is a strong and positive relationship between Resilience and Creative personality (r_s = .584). Correlation coefficient values indicate that Problem solving is in the closest relationship with Resilience (r_s = .504). We found a moderate relationship between Resilience and Situational factors (r_s = .453) and Personality traits (r_s = .441). There is no linear relationship between Openness and Resilience (r_s = .047).

Tab. 5: Correlation matrix between Resilience nad Creative personality/Openness

	Creative personality	Situational factors of various environments	Personality traits associated with creativity	Problem solving	Openness to experience
Resilience	**.584****	**.441****	**.453****	**.504****	.047

** p < .01

Tab. 6: Final Cluster Centers

	Cluster		
	1	2	3
Zscore: Resilience	.53668	-1.08165	-.29340
Zscore: Gratitude	.24443	-1.48469	.43267
Zscore: Openness	.28750	-.13181	-.36836
Zscore: Personality traits associated with creativity	.62348	-.63409	-.70444
Zscore: Situational factors of various environments	.60509	-.94716	-.47311
Zscore: Problem solving	.59459	-.50625	-.71620

At the end of data processing, we created three empirical types of participants by K-means cluster based on their mutual similarity (we worked with the Z-scores of individual variables in the analysis). The most numerous group represents the first type (N = 126), which is characterized by positive values of all examined characteristics, with scores in the Creative personality and Resilience variable being higher than the Gratitude and Openness scores, the level of which is relatively low in this type. The second type (N= 76) is characterized by a markedly reduced degree of the examined characteristics and, namely, the most striking is the low level of Resilience, Gratitude and Situational factors.The third type of participants (N = 76) is characterized by a slightly reduced level of individual aspects of Creative personality and Resilience, but a positive value in the Gratitude (Tab. 6).

4 DISCUSSION

The aim of the research was to examine the interrelationships between creativity, resilience and gratitude. Fredrickson (2004) regards a major contribution of gratitude to resilience in building social resources that can be used as a source of copying. Her theory is in line with the evolutionary perspective, in which gratitude is a part of the natural selection process: it increases the willingness to help others and leads to upstream reciprocity that contributes to survival (Nowak, Roch, 2007). As a consequence of the acquired skills in interpersonal communication and social interaction, it is easier for highly grateful people to get support (Ni et al., 2015). Wood, Froh and Geraghty (2010) report that people with a high degree of gratitude perceive and process stressful situation through specific cognitive schemes that make any helping behaviour interpret as more valuable and altruistic. In our research, we have empirically supported the hypothesis about the positive relationship between resilience and dispositional gratitude (RH1).

We found a weak relationship between dispositional gratitude and creative personality (RQ1) with the strongest relationship between gratitude and situational factors that include freedom, risk, challenge. Our findings are supported by other authors (Neto, 2007; McCullough, Emmons, Tsang, 2002; Wood, Joseph, Maltby, 2008), but these have found a strong relationship of gratitude and openness. The discrepancy can result from usage of different tools that cover different aspects of concepts.

Previous research on relationship between creativity and resilience has led to inconsistent findings. Slovak authors (Szobiová, 2011; Szobiová, Kuklišová, 2013) who measured creativity by the test of divergent thinking have not found the relationship. On the other hand, in our previous research (Boleková, Szobiová, 2013) highly creative adolescents achieved higher scores in the Resilience Scale than their less creative peers. Our results suggest that resilience is associated with creative personality, especially with problem solving, but also with situational factors and personality traits associated with creativity (RQ2). Based on individual empirical indicators of creative personality and resilience, we assume that the following characteristics are applied in the creative process as well as in solving problems and copying with the burden: perseverance and resolution to draw plans to a successful end, flexibility of thinking and the ability to look at the situation in various ways, ingenuity and spontaneity, smart ways of solving problems, a wide range of interests and activities, pleasure from challenges, willingness to take risks, profound engagement with action, pride in success, self-acceptance and self-confidence, automony, self-reliance, determination.

Interesting results were shown in case of the K-means cluster analysis where we grouped three types. The most numerous group is characterized by the positive values of all the examined characteristics, though values are less than 1 Z score. On the other hand, the second type is characterized by a reduced degree of the examined characteristics. Remarkedly low levels of resilience and gratitude together with a low degree of situational factors refer to a type that does not risk, does not see a situation to be a challenge, is not spontaneous, does not respond graciously to the positive experience, does not rely on oneself, lacks mental equilibrium, meaningfulness, endurance. These two types are not supprising and follow the line of theory (Frederickson, 2004; Martinsen, 2011; Richards, 2007; Runco, 2007) as well as empirical studies (Block, Kremen, 1996; Goncy, Waehler, 2006; Chamorro-Premuzic, Reichenbacher, 2008). The third type of participants is characterized by bidirectional characteristics- positive value of gratitude while other characteristics are negative, especially personality traits and problem solving, even though that these values are still less than 1 Z score. We concluded that people that are average (-1 up to +1 Z score) in creative personality, openness and resilience, feel average dispositional gratitude. On the other hand,

less resilient people (less than -1 Z score) can find it difficult to be grateful or accept situations, feel free, spontaneous, risk and engaged in situations. Even though that these types are specific to our research, they provide us with an unusual perspective on a combination of resilience and gratitude that seems to be important.

We interpret the presented results with respect to several limits of the research. The level of gratitude was measured by the Gratitude Questionnaire, which includes six items. The Slovak translation of the scale is internally consistent. However, we found a slight correlation between the sixth item (*Long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone.*) and the overall score. We agree with the authors of several foreign researches in which this item proved to be problematic and who state that its wording is probably too abstract and difficult to understand for young people (Froh et al., 2011) and its grammatical formulation is not common in the everyday language (Gulliford, Morgan, Kristjánsson, 2013). Chen et al. (2009) further conclude that the lack of diverse experience in a young person's life does not allow an adequate assessment of the significance of this claim. The issue of this item may also lie in a formulation that emphasizes the future while the other items relate to the current gratitude for what one currently has. We also assume that selected formulations of items (for example *I have so much in life to be thankful for*) require a deeper reflection that, given the limited administration time, might not have been present. The question also remains whether an adequate assessment of the degree of gratitude or resilience in emerging adulthood requires the encounter with a situation that would attract the attention of the participants to these important areas of human experiencing and copying. For future research, we also emphasize the need to carefully consider the choice of individual tools for measuring creativity and the combination of multiple self-assessment methods with measurement tools of current creative performance.

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KARIÉROVÝ KOUČING V EDUKAČNOM PROSTREDÍ

CAREER COACHING IN EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Beáta Ľubová

Abstrakt

Autorka sa v príspevku zaoberá implementáciou kariérového koučingu do edukačného prostredia. Kariérový koučing považuje za efektívnu metódu zvýšenia vnútornej motivácie žiaka v oblasti prípravy na budúce povolanie. Obsah príspevku je rozčlenený do troch kapitol, v ktorých autorka uvádza ukážky z praktickej implementácie koučovania v priebehu vedenia integrovanej tematickej výučby a z realizácie overovania efektívnosti metódy vzhľadom na uplatniteľnosť absolventov na trhu práce.

Kľúčové slova: *trh práce, kariérový koučing, vzdelávanie.*

Abstract

The author examines the implementation of career coaching in educational environment. Career coaching is considered to be an efficient method of improving the inner motivation of a student in regards to the preparation to their future job occupation. The contents of the paper are divided into three chapters, in which the author introduces examples of the practical implementation of coaching in the process of integrated thematic education. A chapter is then devoted to proving of efficiency of the method in terms of employability on the job market.

Key words: *job market, career coaching, education*

1 KARIÉROVÝ KOUČING

1.1 Základné pojmy

Koučing – sprevádzanie: je štruktúrovaný proces založený na partnerskom vzťahu medzi koučom (sprievodcom) a koučovaným (klientom).

Technika kladenia otázok GROW – G = cieľ, R = realita, O = možnosti, W = voľba. Kladením otázok smerujeme klienta k formulovaniu krátkodobých a dlhodobých cieľov.

Klient v edukačnom prostredí je žiak, ktorý je v centre našej pozornosti aj v oblasti kariérového sprevádzania. Každý učiteľ, s ktorým sa žiak - klient stretáva v rámci edukačného procesu sa stáva jeho kariérovým sprievodcom (koučom).

Koučing nie je výučba ani kurz. Kouč nie je radca (postup, ktorý je správny pre poradcu, nemusí byť správny pre klienta), jeho hlavnou úlohou je, v rámci pedagogického pôsobenia zvyšovať motiváciu žiaka k spoznaniu seba samého a k aktívnemu prístupu k životu.

2 IMPLEMENTÁCIA KARIÉROVÉHO KOUČINGU DO EDUKAČNÉHO PROCESU

2.1 Zdôvodnenie potreby zavádzania kariérového koučingu do edukácie

Slovensko v miere nezamestnanosti mladých ľudí obsadzuje popredné miesta v rebríčkoch krajín EÚ. Rozhodujúcim faktorom, ktorý priamo ovplyvňuje trh práce a zamestnanosť, je štruktúra národného hospodárstva Slovenska. Približne 50% rozlohy Slovenska sa využíva poľnohospodársky (2,5 mil ha); priemyselná výroba tvorí na Slovensku približne 73% všetkých tržieb (Mihálik, 1994). Obidve odvetvia aj pri vysokej nezamestnanosti mladých ľudí vykazujú najväčší deficit pracovnej sily. Vzniká tu disproporcia medzi ponukou a

dopytom pracovnej sily, hlavne v strojárstve a ostatnej kovospracujúcej výrobe, elektrotechnike, automobilovom priemysle, v textile a odevníctve, potravinárstve, v poľnohospodárstve, lesnom hospodárstve a rozvoji vidieka a v ďalších súvisiacich odvetviach. Trh práce na Slovensku vyžaduje ľudí s technickou, alebo prírodovednou kvalifikáciou, pričom inovácie neustále kladú zvýšené požiadavky na nové schopnosti a zručnosti zamestnancov aj na najnižších pozíciách. Tradičný školský systém nestíha pružne reagovať na požiadavky trhu a produkuje nezamestnateľných mladých ľudí. Platí to najmä pre stredoškolsky odborne vzdelaných mladých ľudí, ktorí tvoria 80% všetkých nezamestnaných vo veku do 29 rokov. Napriek faktu, že nezamestnanosť mladých ľudí je dlhodobým problémom, v priebehu rokov 2007-2013 došlo k jej výraznému zvýšeniu na úroveň, ktorá predstavuje závažný sociálno-ekonomický problém. Následne sa vzniknutá situácia riešila aktívnymi opatreniami trhu práce – dotáciami pre začínajúcich drobných podnikateľov, dotáciou pracovných miest pre zamestnávateľov mladých ľudí do veku 29 rokov.

Formou krízovej intervencie vo vzdelávacom prostredí, pri riešení problémov s nezamestnanosťou absolventov stredných škôl je zavedenie kariérového koučingu do edukačného procesu, naprieč vzdelávacími oblasťami. Kariérový koučing predstavuje metódu, ktorej cieľom je zvýšiť vnútornú motiváciu žiaka k štúdiu a príprave na povolanie. Táto príprava nie je statická, ukotvená na formálnych prístupoch, ale naopak, ide o dynamickú prípravu založenú na interakcii a systematicky poskytovanej spätnej väzbe.

Cieľom koučovania je zvyšovanie zodpovednosti. Prijatie osobnej zodpovednosti úzko súvisí s dosiahnutím vyššej výkonnosti. Ak prijmeme zodpovednosť za naše činy, zvýši sa naše odhodlanie podávať lepšie výkony a dosahovať pracovné úspechy v budúcnosti. Whitmore (2004) tvrdí, že koučovanie je nástrojom optimalizácie potenciálu a výkonu ľudí. Jeho podstatou je docieliť lepšie vnímanie reality a zvýšenie zodpovednosti. Vnímanie reality a zodpovednosť sú dva faktory, ktoré ovplyvňujú výkonnosť a spôsob myslenia. Dopson (2015) tvrdí, že cieľom koučovania je zlepšovanie výkonnosti jedincov v tom, čo robia, aby boli schopní sa čo najlepšie a najrýchlejšie prispôsobiť zmenám, ktoré sa v našej spoločnosti dejú. Podľa autora je nevyhnutné celoživotné učenie, ktoré je neodmysliteľnou súčasťou koučovania. Práve vďaka učeniu sa dosahujú ciele stanovené v procese koučovania. Ak žiakom ukážeme zmysel procesu vzdelávania (učenia)sa, môžeme si byť istí, že budú robiť pokroky rýchlejšie (Wicks, 1984). Ak sa pozeráme na koučovanie z hľadiska efektivity vzdelávacích aktivít, rozvoja žiakov, môžeme očakávať zvyšovanie ich výkonnosti, vyššiu spokojnosť a motiváciu koučovaných študentov.

3 BEST PRACTICE

3.1 Ukážky z realizácie kariérového koučingu v edukačnom procese

Hlavné oblasti pre aplikáciu kariérového koučingu vo výučbe predmetov ANJ a SJL sú:

- Profesijná identita žiakov.
- Hrdosť žiakov na tradície a súčasnosť študovaného odboru.
- Pozitívny vzťah k práci.

Výučba literatúry by mala z veľkej časti obsahovať prácu s textom. Práca s textom vytvára priestor pre utváranie správnych životných postojov žiaka a pozitívne ovplyvňuje jeho hodnotovú orientáciu.

Aktivita: Tvorba vlastného obrazu pri prijímaní rozhodnutia o budúcej profesii prostredníctvom výberu a následnej analýzy literárnych diel.

Postup: Použijeme metódu prevrátenej výučby. Učiteľ zadá žiakom úlohu vyhľadať literárne diela, v ktorých sa opisuje snaha aspoň jednej z literárnych postáv stať sa remeselníkom alebo je v diele podaný opis, ako remeslo pomohlo v živote jednej z postáv, prípadne sa v danom literárnom žánri rozoberá spôsob rozhodovania mladých ľudí, čo ďalej, akým profesijným smerom sa budú uberať.

Aplikované metódy: tzv. prevrátená výučba - fáza evokácie, koučing (GROW) - fáza reflexie.
Cieľ aktivity: rozvoj kompetencií žiaka v oblasti funkčnej gramotnosti, zvýšenie vnútornej motivácie žiaka pre výkon budúceho povolania, túžba uplatniť sa na trhu práce.
Ukážky zo žiackych prác:

- Jerome David Salinger – Kto chytá v žite (príbeh nerozhodného a zmäteného adolescenta)

Román The Catcher in The Rye bol uverejnený v roku 1951 a spočiatku vyvolával nadšenie, ale aj vlnu odmietania. Kniha opisuje pár dní Holdena Caulifielda, šestnásťročného chlapca, ktorý má problémy s výberom školy. Za svoj krátky život stihol vystriedať tri stredné školy, z ktorých ho vždy po čase vyhodili pre neprístojné správanie a slabý prospech. Jeho štvrtá škola je Pencyho súkromná stredná škola, ktorá je podľa Holdenovho názoru preplnená bohatými pokrytcami. Príbeh je písaný retrospektívne a začína sa odvíjať v zime. Rozprávač, samotný Holden, tvrdí, že nasledujúce udalosti sa odohrali počas štyroch dní pred Vianocami. Jeden z prvých motívov, ktorý sa v románe objavuje, je neustála kritika Holdenovho okolia. Mimo toho, že sa do deja vnárame retrospektívne, kniha je písaná očami „ja"rozprávača, teda udalosti opisuje sám Holden z vlastného pohľadu. Z tohoto vyplýva, že málokedy dostávame objektívne informácie a naopak, často z Holdenových výpovedí cítime citové zafarbenie.´Holden začína svoje rozprávanie kritikou školy.
Citácia z diela: „And underneath the guy on the horse's picture, it always says: "Since 1888 we have been molding boys into splendid, clear-thinking young men." Strictly for the birds. They don't do any damn more molding at Pencey than they do at any other school. And I didn't know anybody there that was splendid and clear-thinking and all. Maybe two guys. If that many. And they probably came to Pencey that way."
V prvom riadku ukážky je možné vidieť, že Holdenov štýl rozprávania je vyslovene neformálny „ And underneath the guy on the horse…", pričom používa veľa slangových výrazov typu „ Strictly for the birds" a vulgarizmov „They don't do any damn more molding…". Tento štýl rozprávania sa nesie cez celý román a je jednou z jeho základných charakteristík. Cieľovou skupinou románu je veková skupina adolescentných mladých ľudí, ktorí, prirodzene, vo svojom veku vidia mnohé veci a udalosti kriticky.
Toto správanie reflektuje povahu samotného Salingera. Rovnako ako Holden, aj on mal problémy prispôsobovať sa rutine stredných škôl a tiež mal problémy s prospechom a správaním. Jediný predmet, z ktorého mal nadpriemerný prospech, bol anglický jazyk a literatúra (ktorej sa neskôr aj venoval). V 50-tych rokoch ešte v USA neexistovala platforma, ktorá by pomáhala riešiť problémy s výberom povolania, a školský systém nebol schopný poskytovať pomoc študentom v oblasti plánovania kariéry. Dôvod, prečo sa Holden nedokáže udržať na škole, rovnako ako Salinger, nie je zakotvený v jeho akademickej neschopnosti, ale tento problém skôr vyplýva z neexistujúcej infraštruktúry na riešenie kariérnych problémov.

- Moll Flandersová - Príklad chýbajúceho kariérového poradenstva

Defoov ďalší známy román sa nazýva „The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders". Už samotný názov naznačuje charakter románu a jeho štylizáciu. Defoe na rozdiel od diela „The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe" využíva formu rozhovoru, ba takmer až interview. Román sa začína autorským predhovorom. Prvé riadky románu sú venované nasledovnému prehláseniu „The world is so taken up of late with novels and romances, that it will be hard for a private history to be taken for genuine, where the names and other circumstances of the person are concealed, and on this account we must be content to leave the reader to pass his own opinion upon the ensuing sheet, and take it just as he pleases."
Výťah z: Daniel Defoe. „The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders." 1995 z originálu 1722.
Defoe ako prvé naznačuje, že ide o súkromnú históriu, „private history", čo v období, v ktorom žil, nebol známy, ani často používaný žáner. Dá sa povedať, že okrem románotvorby

bol Defoe aj priekopníkom reportáží, o čom svedčí napríklad jeho dielo "The Journal of The Plague Year" alebo románová reportáž o búrke storočia „The Storm".
Román opisuje životnú púť ženy, Moll Flandersovej, od jej narodenia až po jej smrť. Je to teda autobiografický román písaný z pohľadu prvej osoby. Napriek tomu je možné považovať román aj za istý druh reportáže alebo rozhovoru, keďže informácie zapisuje a spracováva samotný Defoe. Je ťažké posúdiť, do akej miery je príbeh nefalšovaným svedectvom, a kde začína literárne spracovanie.
Príbeh Moll začína rozprávaním o jej narodení a o podmienkach života, ktoré ju čakali. Autor odkrýva skutočnosť, že ju jej matka opustila.
Moll vysvetľuje, že každé opustené dieťa v iných krajinách je podporované legislatívou, ktorá mu zabezpečuje ubytovanie, výchovu, stravu a vyučenie. Priznáva, že v takomto ústave nebola a keďže sa nevyučila, nebola schopná zabezpečiť sa poctivou prácou.. Vo veku 6 mesiacov je jej matka transportovaná do Ameriky . Následne sa Moll potuluje so skupinou nomádskych Rómov, až pokým ju v Colchestri nezachytí miestna sociálna služba, ktorá ju neskôr odovzdala do rúk staršej miestnej ženy.Tá sa špecializovala na výuku opustených detí. V tomto špeciálnom útulku sa Mollin život na istú dobu vracia na správnu cestu. Sestra sa o Moll stará, vychováva ju a šatí.
„This woman had also had a little school, which she kept to teach children to read and to work; and having, as I have said, lived before that in good fashion, she bred up the children she took with a great deal of art, as well as with a great deal of care." (Citát z: Daniel Defoe. The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders. 1995 z originálu 1722).
Moll v úryvku vyššie opisuje starostlivosť o deti v útulku. Je vhodné poznamenať, že útulok deti nielenže prichýlil, ale taktiež im poskytoval základy praktického vzdelávania "she kept to teach children to read and to work". Sestra sa o Moll starala, až pokým nedosiahla vek 8 rokov, čo vtedy bývalo štandardné obdobie na začatie práce. Keď dosiahla vek 8 rokov, musela si hľadať prácu a tradičná voľba detí z útulku bola stať sa slúžkou. Sektor služieb, ale Moll vôbec nevyhovoval. Moll v prvom rade tvrdí, že v danom veku nebola schopná takmer vôbec u niekoho slúžiť a nemala kompetencie na to, aby pracovala ako služobníčka. Bola maximálne schopná chodiť po "vybavovačkách" a drieť v kuchyni, pričom ani jeden z týchto životných štýlov jej nevyhovoval. Sama priamo a presne tvrdila "I had a thorough aversion to going to service - prácu slúžky som neznášala" a nedokázala sa zmieriť s tým, že by mala byť sluhom u niekoho iného. Moll sa snažila vyhnúť sa nútenej práci v služobníctve všetkými možnými prostriedkami. Prehovárala svoju opatrovníčku, aby si ju nechala v útulku a ona za výmenu bude pre ňu pracovať. Objasňuje, že opatrovníčka jej umožnila vyučiť sa za priadku a poukazuje na fakt, že v Colchestri je dostatok voľnej práce v jej obore. Dúfa, že si ju opatrovníčka ponechá a bude pre ňu môcť veľmi tvrdo pracovať. Moll je teda dievča, ktorú nebaví práca v obore služieb a skôr sa chce zamerať na remeslo. Na Moll je obdivuhodné to ,že ako chudobné dievča, finančne odkázané na svoju opatrovníčku, si dovoľuje klásť podmienky jej ďalšieho osobnostného vývoja. Pre Moll je teda najvyšším dosiahnuteľným stupňom a zároveň životným cieľom: samostatnosť a remeslo.
Po tom, ako miestne šľachtičné zistili, že Moll už nedostáva sociálne dávky od úradu, začali jej nosiť extra prácu. Moll vykonávala viacero remesiel.
„…as I grew up they brought me work to do for them, such as linen to make, and laces to mend, and heads to dress up, and not only paid me for doing them, but even taught me how to do them;" (Citát z: Daniel Defoe. "The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders." 1995 z originálu 1722.)
V úryvku vyššie sú popísané viaceré profesie, ktoré Moll vo svojom veku zvládala alebo sa im priučila. Išlo najmä o prácu s ľanom, opravu tkanín a parochní.
Moll chýba „personálny tréning", a to hlavne v oblasti zvládania stresových situácií. V reálnom prostredí ako napríklad vo firmách alebo školách sa často zamestnanci alebo

študenti dostávajú do stresových situácií, ktoré často nedokážu riešiť korektne, z čoho vyplýva rad ďalších problémov. Situáciu Moll nezvládla a podľahla Vo svojom popise podobne "all my spirits flew about my heart". Bratova prítomnosť a jeho čiyn majú na Moll zničujúci efekt a znemožňujú jej prijímať vlastné rozhodnutia.
"Indeed, I had preserved the elder brother's bonds to me, to pay #500, which he offered me for my consent to marry his brother; and this, with what I had saved of the money he formerly gave me, about as much more by my husband, left me a widow with about #1200 in my pocket."
(Citát z: Daniel Defoe. "The Fortunes and Misfortunes of the Famous Moll Flanders." 1995 z originálu 1722.)
V úryvku vyššie rekapituluje Moll svoj finančný stav po smrti manžela. V prvom rade upozorňuje, že peniaze, ktoré jej dal starší brat, si s rozvahou šetrila a z nich jej zostalo okolo 500 libier, čo v tej dobe bola veľká suma. Ďalej priznáva, že jej manžel odkázal ešte 1200 libier ako pozostatok pre vdovu. Tieto finančné prostriedky Moll dokázala sústrediť čiastočne aj vďaka základnej finančnej gramotnosti a schopnostiam vo finančnom manažmente (podnikanie v oblasti remesiel). Peniaze, ktoré dostala vo forme úplatku od staršieho brata, si starostlivo uschovala, keďže sama vedela, že osud ženy v tej dobe je nevyspytateľný. Ďalšou osobnou charakteristikou Moll je jej pragmatickosť. Manželovu smrť a jej následky opisuje s chladnou hlavou a v princípe bez citu. Sama tvrdí, že tento spôsob vyjadrovania je ovplyvnený ľahostajnosťou k manželovi, ku ktorému nebola veľmi citovo naviazaná.
Moll v ďalšom svojom živote hľadá niekoho, kto je remeselník s dušou urodzeného pána. Snaží sa upozorniť na potrebu spájania remeselných zručností s výchovou. Jej postoj je pochopiteľný, keďže v triede šľachtického rodu prežila falošnú lásku a sklamanie. Je logické, že hľadá istý druh normalizácie v zmene jej preferencií. Neskôr uznáva, že sa znova nechala povrchnou analýzou oklamať ("but I betrayed myself") , pričom v nasledujúcich statiach opisuje svoj život s týmto obojživelným remeselníkom - obchodníkom s látkami.

Rozbor vypracoval študent IV. Ročníka SOŠ, odbor informatika, 2015.

3.2 Reflexia

- *Čo žiak získal pre úspešné uplatnenie sa na trhu práce?*
- *Aké vedomosti, kompetencie a zručnosti získal vypracovaním tohto prehľadu?*
  Žiak vytvoril vlastný pohľad na literárne diela. S tým súvisí rozvoj tvorivosti, zmysel pre inovácie, zodpovednosť, ktorá sa prejavila v práci s detailom, schopnosť hľadať súvislosti, schopnosť objavovať a orientovať sa v informáciách, zbehlosť v anglickom jazyku, aktívny prístup, rozvoj zdravého sebavedomia.
- *Implementácia koučovacích techník – GROW vo fáze reflexie:*

Autorom techniky GROW je Sir John Whitmore, ktorý objasnil základy koučovania. Technika GROW je postup kladenia otázok. Dá sa aplikovať pri individuálnom aj skupinovom koučingu.

Tab. 1 Koučovacia technika GROW, zdroj: Ľubová, 2017

G	*GOAL*	*Cieľ: Aké životné ciele mal(a) hrdina (ka) literárneho diela? Aké sú Vaše predstavy o možnostiach, ktoré máte po absolvovaní štúdia?*
R	*REALITY*	*Realita: Aký je súčasný stav?* *Koho sa to týka?* *Aké sú hlavné prekážky?* *Aké kroky je potrebné urobiť pre zmenu?* *Aké faktory ovplyvňujú vaše rozhodnutie?* *Čo ešte potrebujete?*
O	*OPTIONS*	*Možnosti: Aké možnosti máte?*

		Čo by ste ešte mohli urobiť? *Aké sú prínosy?* *Čo všetko môžete urobiť pre naplnenie vašich predstáv?* *Ako sa dajú uvedené možnosti medzi sebou kombinovať?* *Ktoré z riešení vám najviac vyhovuje?*
W	*WHAT,* *WHEN,* *WHO,* *WILL*	*Voľba: Čo chcete urobiť?* *Kedy to chcete urobiť?* *Aké prekážky by mohli nastať?* *Ako tieto prekážky prekonáte?* *Akú podporu potrebujete?* *Ako ju získate?* *Aké dielčie kroky treba urobiť?* *Kedy plánujete ukončenie?*

3.3 Náhľad do kvantitatívneho overovania efektívnosti metódy koučingu v edukačnom procese

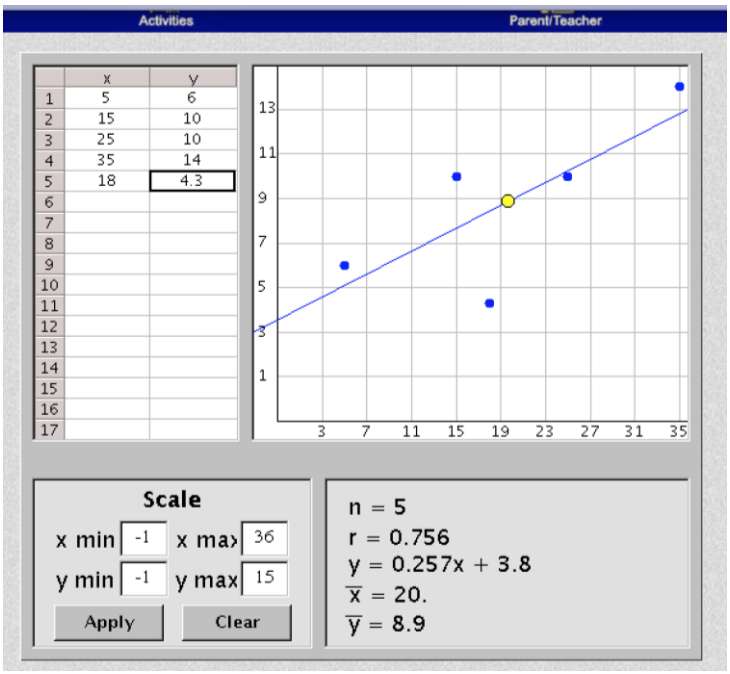
Ukážka z realizovaného výskumu

Hypotéza: Predpokladáme, že implementácia metódy kariérového koučingu do edukačného procesu zvýši uplatniteľnosť absolventov na trhu práce v období do 6 mesiacov po ukončení štúdia.

Súbor predstavoval 60 absolventov štúdia na strednej škole, ktorí sa zamestnali vo svojom odbore do 6 mesiacov po ukončení štúdia. Výberový súbor (náhodný výber) tvorila vzorka 40 absolventov programu: Metóda koučingu v edukačnom prostredí (rôzny počet absolvovaných hodín programu), ktorí sa zamestnali vo vyštudovanom odbore v období 6 mesiacov po ukončení štúdia.

Tab. 2 Uplatniteľnosť na trhu práce a metóda kariérového koučingu, zdroj: Ľubová, 2018

Počet absolvovaných hodín v poslednom ročníku štúdia s realizovanou metódou koučingu (premenná x)	Uplatniteľnosť na trhu práce – zamestnanie **v odbore** získane do 6 mesiacov po ukončení štúdia (premenná y). (absolútna početnosť)
Do 10 hodín	6
11 – 20 hodín	10
21 – 30 hodín	10
Nad 31 hodín	14



Obr. 1: Bodový graf, zdroj: Ľubová, 2018

Korelačný koeficient dosahuje kladnú hodnotu, r = 0,756. Získaná korelácia medzi hodnotami 0,7 - 0,9 je považovaná za veľmi veľkú (pozitívna korelácia medzi premennými x a y). Regresný koeficient dosahuje kladnú hodnotu (0,257), čo znamená pozitívnu závislosť medzi premennými x a y. Hodnota signifikácie je menšia jako 0,05.
Zo zrealizovaného kvantitatívneho výskumu, ktorý pozostával zo štatistického overovania piatich hypotéz korelačnou analýzou vyplýva, že implementácia metódy kariérového koučingu do edukačného procesu zjednoduší proces uplatnenia sa absolventa strednej školy na trhu práce.

3 ZÁVER

Kariérový koučing môžeme popísať ako edukačnú metódu vychádzajúcu z potrieb, ktoré predstavujú medzeru medzi tým, čo na jednej strane požadujú zamestnávatelia od absolventov škôl, a na druhej strane tým, čo umožňuje dnešný vzdelávací systém poskytnúť žiakom.
Kariérový koučing v edukačnom procese je reakciou na súčasné trendy trhu práce, akými sú:

- Globalizácia trhu práce (zvýšené nároky na komunikačné schopnosti absolventov).
- Snaha o minimalizáciu nákladov firmy a s tým súvisiaca snaha o maximálnu flexibilitu a univerzálnosť zamestnanca.
- Zvýšené nároky na samostatnosť v rozhodovaní a zodpovednosť pri prijímaní rozhodnutia.
- Zvýšené nároky na mäkké kompetencie zamestnanca (soft skills), a iné.

Podstatou koučovania je zlepšenie vnímania reality a zvýšenie zodpovednosti klienta v rôznych oblastiach jeho života (Whitmore, 2004). Uvedomenie si reality vedie k rozvoju schopností a zručností, a to tým, že „vynáša na povrch“ a zdôrazňuje jedinečné telesné a duševné atribúty každého človeka, posilňuje sebadôveru, vedie k samostatnosti a k rastu dôvery vo vlastné sily.
V príspevku uvádzam, v skrátenej podobe, príklad z realizácie koučovania v procese integrovanej tematickej výučby predmetov slovenský jazyk a anglický jazyk.
Možnosti implementácie metódy kariérového koučingu sú rozsiahle, integrujúce poznatky z rôznych vzdelávacích oblastí (Ľubová, 2016).

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SKÚMANIE DIDAKTICKÝCH KOMPETENCIÍ BUDÚCICH UČITEĽOV V OBLASTI JAZYKOVEJ A LITERÁRNEJ GRAMOTNOSTI

EXAMINATION OF DIDACTIC COMPETENCES OF FUTURE TEACHERS IN THE LANGUAGE AND LITERARY GRADITY

Milena Lipnická, Eva Cvitkovičová

Abstrakt

Príspevok je výsledkom riešenia projektu KEGA č. 013UMB-4/2017 s názvom *Tvorba kurikula v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti v novoakreditovanom bakalárskom štúdiu*, ktorého zodpovednou riešiteľkou je doc. PaedDr. Milena Lipnická, PhD. Príspevok vznikol v spolupráci školiteľky a doktorandky v študijnom programe predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky. Autorky v príspevku prezentujú ciele a výstupy vedecko-výskumného projektu. Informujú o cieľoch, metódach a organizácii výskumu. Do príspevku autorky zaradili ukážky z výskumných nástrojov – dotazníkov a testu vedomostí.

Kľúčové slová: *gramotnosť, kompetencie, študenti, vysoká škola*

Abstract

The contribution is a result of KEGA project no. 013UMB-4/2017 entitled Creation of a curriculum in the area of linguistic and literary literacy in a newly-accredited bachelor study, whose responsible researcher is doc. PaedDr. Milena Lipnická, PhD. The contribution was created in co-operation with supervisor and doctoral student in the study program of pre-school and elementary pedagogy. The authors present the aims and outputs of the research project. They inform about the objectives, methods and organization of research. They included previews from the research toolbars – questionaire and the knowledge test.

Keywords: *literacy, competencies, students, higher education institution*

1 PREDSTAVENIE VEDECKO-VÝSKUMNÉHO PROJEKTU

Pridelenie dotácie z Kultúrnej a edukačnej grantovej agentúry Ministerstva školstva, vedy, výskumu a športu Slovenskej republiky umožnilo realizovanie projektu KEGA 013UMB/2017 s názvom *Tvorba kurikula v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti v novoakreditovanom bakalárskom štúdiu* (2017-2019).

Vypracovanie a podanie vedecko-výskumného projektu spôsobili hlavne dva dôvody. V novoakreditovanom bakalárskom štúdiu predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky bolo potrebné inovovať:

1. kurikulum vzdelávania študentov v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti,
2. proces skúmania a rozvíjania didaktických kompetencií študentov v predmetnej oblasti.

Za týmto účelom bolo potrebné vytvoriť modernú učebnicu s metodikami. Určené budú na výučbu povinného predmetu Jazyková a literárna gramotnosť v materskej škole a základnej škole a s ním súvisiacich voliteľných predmetov (bližšie tabuľka 1).

Tabuľka 1: Študijné predmety, pre výučbu ktorých budú učebnica a dve cvičebnice vypracované v projekte

Skratka predmetu	Názov predmetu v študijnom programe Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.)	Rok/semester	Rozsah výučby P – S – C - Opx
1d – JLG	Jazyková a literárna gramotnosť v MŠ a ZŠ	1 – L	2 – 2 – 0 – 0
1d – LDM	Literatúra pre deti a médiá	2 – Z	1 – 2 – 2 – 0
1d – RJK	Rozvíjanie jazykových kompetencií v MŠ	2 – Z	0 – 2 – 0 – 0
1d – RJK	Rozvíjanie jazykových kompetencií v ZŠ	3 – Z	0 – 2 – 0 – 0

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie

Učebnica a dve cvičebnice s metodikou ako kurikulum budú zamerané na rozvoj didaktických kompetencií študentov – budúcich učiteľov v materských školách a vychovávateľov školských klubov detí vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia v predprimárnom a primárnom vzdelávaní. Kurikulum bude postavené na najnovšom teoretickom a výskumnom poznaní:

- ontogenetických aspektov detskej psychiky a reči,
- lingvodidaktických aspektov integračnej komunikačno-kognitívnej a zážitkovej koncepcie rozvíjania jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v materských školách a školských kluboch detí,
- obsahu novoprijatých štátnych vzdelávacích programov a metodík pre predprimárne a primárne vzdelávanie (2016),
- didaktických kompetencií študentov v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti pre rozvíjanie jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí.

Kurikulum bude tvorené multidisciplinárnym tímom odborníkov. Jeho tvorba bude podporená vzdelávacími a výskumnými aktivitami. Spolupracovať v nich budú riešitelia projektu, odborníci z iných vysokých škôl, cviční učitelia materských škôl, cviční vychovávatelia školských klubov detí a študenti predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky.

2 CIELE PROJEKTU

Hlavným cieľom projektu je na základe teoretického poznania a výskumných zistení vypracovať modernú vysokoškolskú učebnicu s dvomi cvičebnicami ako kurikulum rozvoja didaktických kompetencií študentov v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti v novoakreditovanom študijnom programe Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.) pre rozvoj jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v materských školách a školských kluboch detí.

Čiastkové výskumné ciele projektu

C 1 Analyzovať ontogenetické, psychodidaktické, pedagogické, lingvistické a lingvo-didaktické teórie rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti, jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v predprimárnom a primárnom vzdelávaní ako východisko pre výskum didaktických spôsobilostí študentov a teoretickú bázu vysokoškolskej učebnice.

C 2 Kriticky posúdiť obsah novoprijatých štátnych vzdelávacích programov a metodík pre predprimárne a primárne vzdelávanie (2016) vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia a porovnať ho s výsledkami analýzy najnovších teoretických východísk riešenej problematiky.

C 3 Vypracovať dotazník a realizovať výskum názorov cvičných učiteľov materských škôl a vychovávateľov školských klubov detí na optimálnosť vzdelávacích štandardov štátnych kurikúl a úroveň didaktických kompetencií študentov (Bc. štúdia) vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia.

C 4 Vytvoriť nástroje diagnostikovania a výskumu didaktických kompetencií a vzdelávacích potrieb študentov v novoakreditovanom študijnom programe Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.) v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti pre rozvoj jazykových a

komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v materských školách a školských kluboch detí v súlade s inovovanou štátnou koncepciou predprimárneho a primárneho vzdelávania.
C 5 Skúmať vstupné didaktické kompetencie a vzdelávacie potreby študentov študijného programu Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc., 1. roč. ZS) v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí predškolského a mladšieho školského veku prostredníctvom dotazníka a obsahovej analýzy portfólií zo seminárov.
C 6 Zistiť priebežnú a výstupnú úroveň didaktických kompetencií študentov študijného programu Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc. 2. – 3. roč.) v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí predškolského a mladšieho školského veku.
C 7 Publikovať výskumné zistenia vo vedeckých a odborných publikáciách, periodikách a zborníkoch doma a v zahraničí.

Čiastkové vzdelávacie ciele projektu
C 8 Zorganizovať sympózium pozvaných odborníkov v problematike, v rámci neho navrhnúť a publikovať odporúčania pre tvorbu vysokoškolskej učebnice a cvičebníc.
C 9 Zorganizovať seminár pre študentov a cvičných učiteľov o aktuálnom teoretickom poznaní a možnostiach pedagogickej praxe v oblasti rozvoja jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí a žiakov prostredníctvom integračnej kognitívno-komunikačnej a zážitkovej koncepcie.
C 10 Zorganizovať workshop zameraný na uplatňovanie vnútrozložkovej, medzizložkovej, medzipredmetovej, prierezovej a kompetenčnej integrácie v rozvíjaní jazyka a komunikácie, kognitívnych a metakognitívnych kompetencií detí/žiakov v MŠ a ŠKD pre študentov a cvičných učiteľov, vychovávateľov z pedagogickej praxe.
C 11 Zapracovať výsledky kritickej analýzy teórií a výskumné zistenia do obsahovej štruktúry učebnice a dvoch cvičebníc pre povinný predmet Jazyková a literárna gramotnosť v materských a základných školách a s ním súvisiace voliteľné predmety v programe Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.).
Medzi ciele tohto projektu sme nezahrnuli revidovanie ani kompenzovanie doteraz publikovaných prác v tejto oblasti. Považujeme ich za hodnotné a užitočné. Pedagogická, ontogenetická, lingvistická a lingvodidaktická literatúra bude slúžiť členom projektu na štúdium. Podľa jeho výsledkov skvalitnia a zefektívnia dosahovanie cieľov projektu.

3 VÝSTUPY Z PROJEKTU
Dosiahnutie plánovaných výskumných a vzdelávacích cieľov v projekte prinesie očakávané výsledky – výstupy z projektu. Na celé obdobie trvania projektu sú plánované viaceré, konkretizované sú v 2. tabuľke.

Tabuľka 2: Plánované výstupy z projektu

Názov výstupu	Opis výstupu	Rok/roky realizácie
Sebahodnotiace dotazníky a vedomostné testy	Slúžili na skúmanie sebahodnotenia didaktických kompetencií študentov a preukázanie vlastných vedomostí v predmetnej oblasti.	2017
Dotazníky pre cvičných učiteľov a cvičných vychovávateľov	Slúžili na skúmanie názorov a skúseností v oblasti didaktických kompetencií a vedomostí študentov v predmetnej oblasti na praxi.	2017
Sympózium pozvaných odborníkov	Sympózium slúžilo na diskusiu v oblasti potrieb, nových trendov, skúseností, názorov a výskumných zistení v problematike.	2017
Výskumné zistenia	Budú priebežne publikované vo vedeckých a odborných publikáciách, periodikách a zborníkoch doma a v zahraničí.	2018-2019
Seminár pre študentov, cvičných učiteľov a	Na seminári bol diskutovaný aktuálny stav pedagogickej praxe a možnosti metodickej práce v predmetnej oblasti.	2018

vychovávateľov		
Workshop pre študentov, cvičných učiteľov a vychovávateľov	Workshop bol zameraný na odskúšanie metód a foriem práce v oblasti rozvíjania jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí.	2018
Zborník príspevkov zo sympózia	Príspevky prezentované v odbornej diskusii na sympóziu boli publikované v zborníku spolu s odporúčaniami pre projekt.	2018
Vysokoškolská učebnica	Vysokoškolská učebnica bude kurikulom v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti vyučovanej v povinných a výberových predmetov.	2019
Vysokoškolská cvičebnica s metodikou I. (MŠ)	Bude metodikou rozvoja didaktických kompetencií študentov pre rozvoj jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v materských školách.	2019
Vysokoškolská cvičebnica s metodikou II. (ŠKD)	Bude metodikou rozvoja didaktických kompetencií študentov pre rozvoj jazykových a komunikačných spôsobilostí detí v školských kuboch detí.	2019

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie

V tabuľke sú vyznačené výskumné výstupy v projekte. Ďalej sú podrobnejšie predstavené v súlade s výskumnými cieľmi a harmonogramom realizácie projektových aktivít.

4 SKÚMANIE DIDAKTICKÝCH KOMPETENCIÍ ŠTUDENTOV

Prioritou a východiskom tvorby vysokoškolskej učebnice a cvičebníc bol výskum. Výskumnú vzorku tvorili všetci študenti denného aj externého štúdia bakalárskeho stupňa v študijnom programe Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.). Vďaka účasti študentov všetkých ročníkov možno porovnať postupnosť rozvoja didaktických kompetencií študentov od úvodu štúdia (1. ročník Bc.), jeho priebehu (2. ročník Bc.) až po koniec štúdia (3. ročník Bc.). Možná je i komparácia názorov študentov na vlastné didaktické kompetencie v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti s ich vedomosťami, napríklad, či je sebahodnotenie študentov vyššie/nižšie v porovnaní s úrovňou ich vedomostí. Výskumný projekt približuje 3. tabuľka.

Tabuľka 3: Ciele, metódy a časový harmonogram výskumu v projekte

Ciele výskumu	Metódy výskumu	Výskumná vzorka	Harmonogram
Zistiť **vstupné** didaktické kompetencie a vzdelávacie potreby študentov predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí predškolského a mladšieho školského veku.	Seba hodnotiaci dotazník Vedomostný test	Študenti bakalárskeho študijného programu Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika, **1. ročníka** v zimnom semestri.	september – október 2017
Zistiť **priebežné** didaktické kompetencie a vzdelávacie potreby študentov predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí predškolského a mladšieho školského veku.	Seba hodnotiaci dotazník Vedomostný test Obsahová analýza portfólií z praxe	Študenti bakalárskeho študijného programu Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika, **2. ročníka** v zimnom semestri.	september – október 2017
Zistiť **výstupné** didaktické kompetencie a vzdelávacie potreby študentov predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí predškolského a mladšieho školského veku.	Seba hodnotiaci dotazník Vedomostný test Obsahová analýza portfólií z praxe	Študenti bakalárskeho študijného programu Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika, **3. ročníka** v zimnom semestri.	september – október 2017
Zistiť názory cvičných učiteľov materských škôl a vychovávateľov	Dotazník	Cviční učitelia materských škôl	máj - jún 2018

školských klubov detí na optimálnosť vzdelávacích štandardov štátnych kurikúl a úroveň didaktických kompetencií študentov (Bc. štúdia) vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia.		a vychovávatelia školských klubov vedúci pedagogické praxe študentov výskumnej vzorky.	

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie

Skúmanie didaktických kompetencií a dedukovanie vzdelávacích potrieb študentov v predmetnej oblasti prebehlo v rovnakom čase na začiatku štúdia (1. ročník Bc.), v priebehu štúdia (2. ročník Bc.) a po intenzívnom rozvíjaní didaktických kompetencií študentov na konci štúdia (3. ročník Bc.).
Na ilustráciu uvádzame príklady položiek výskumného nástroja *Dotazník na sebahodnotenie didaktických kompetencií študentov v oblasti rozvíjania jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí v materskej škole a školskom klube detí*.

Moje vedomosti o metodike nácviku čítania a písania v primárnom vzdelávaní hodnotím ako: a) výborné b) veľmi dobré c) dobré d) dostatočné e) nedostatočné.
Skúsenosti s realizáciu edukačných aktivít a hier rozvíjajúcich jazykové a komunikačné spôsobilosti detí som získal/získala: a) na strednej škole počas praxe, b) v letných táboroch, c) v starostlivosti o dieťa v rodine, susedstve, d) zamestnaním v materskej škole, e) inde – napíšte kde:

Ďalej uvádzame príklady položiek výskumného nástroja zameraného na zisťovanie úrovne poznania teoretických východísk oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti s názvom *Test vedomostí o rozvíjaní jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti detí v materskej škole a školskom klube detí pre zisťovanie vzdelávacích potrieb študenta*.

Čitateľská gramotnosť je spôsobilosťou človeka: a) vnímať písaný text a rozumieť jeho obsahu, pamätať si ho, rôzne spracúvať a využívať, b) rozpoznávať významy textov a reprodukovať ich vo vzdelávacích aj životných situáciách, c) aktívne, zmysluplne a účelne používať hovorený a písaný jazyk v sociálnej komunikácii, d) aktívne poznávať komunikačné zámery iných, chápať prečítané a tvorivo ho interpretovať.
Dieťa sa učí jazyk v štyroch vzájomne prepojených jazykových rovinách: a) lexikálnej, morfologickej, fonetickej, pragmatickej, komunikačnej, kompetenčnej, b) lexikálno-sémantickej, morfologicko-syntaktickej, foneticko-fonologickej, prakticistickej, c) lexikálno-sémantickej, morfologicko-syntaktickej, foneticko-fonologickej, pragmatickej, d) lexikálno-sémantickej, morfologicko-anekdotickej, foneticko-fonologickej, pragmatickej.
Nácvik čítania a písania v 1. ročníku základnej školy na Slovensku prebieha: a) analyticko-induktívnou metódou, b) analyticko-syntetickou metódou, c) genetickou metódou, d) globálnou metódou e) analyticko-genetickou metódou.

Vo výskume bola a ďalej bude uplatnená kvantitatívna aj kvalitatívna stratégia zisťovania a overovania údajov a získaného poznania. Výskumné zistenia boli spracované v TAP systéme. TAP systém umožnil rýchle a efektívne overovanie vedomostí študentov aj zber, spracovanie a vyhodnotenie údajov z dotazníkového výskumu. Výskumné zistenia budú ďalej analyzované, štatisticky vyhodnotené, opísané, porovnávané a zovšeobecnené pre potreby vytvorenia kvalitnej vysokoškolskej učebnice s cvičebnicami.

5 SKÚMANIE NÁZOROV CVIČNÝCH UČITEĽOV A VYCHOVÁVATEĽOV

Súčasťou výskumu je zisťovanie názorov cvičných učiteľov a vychovávateľov. Učitelia materských škôl a vychovávatelia školských klubov detí participujúci na realizovaní povinnej pedagogickej praxe študentov z predškolskej a elementárnej pedagogiky (Bc.) sú významnou súčasťou prípravy študentov pre ich budúce profesijné uplatnenie. Ich názor považujeme za dôležitý a preto sú súčasťou výskumnej vzorky realizovaného projektu. Spoločne so zisťovaním ich názoru na didaktické kompetencie študentov vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia sme prostredníctvom dotazníkovej metódy skúmali aj ich názor na optimálnosť vzdelávacích štandardov štátnych kurikúl v tejto oblasti. Výskumné nástroje boli vytvorené zvlášť pre učiteľov materských škôl a vychovávateľov školských klubov detí, ale s porovnateľnými dotazníkovými položkami. Na tvorbe nástrojov participoval celý projektový tím. Učitelia a vychovávatelia mali možnosť vyjadriť svoju mieru súhlasu/nesúhlasu na uvedené výroky prostredníctvom Likertovej škály. Pre ilustráciu uvádzame príklady výrokov z dotazníka určeného cvičným učiteľom materských škôl a vychovávateľom školských klubov detí.

Tabuľka 4: Príklady položiek dotazníka zisťovania názorov cvičných učiteľov materských škôl a vychovávateľov školských klubov detí na optimálnosť štátnych kurikúl a úrovne didaktických kompetencií študentov v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti.

Oblasti zisťovania	Učitelia materských škôl - položky	Vychovávatelia školských klubov detí - položky
Názory na optimálnosť štátnych kurikúl vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia	Je správne, že v materskej škole sa podľa Štátneho vzdelávacieho programu pre predprimárne vzdelávanie v materských školách (2016) rozvíjajú u detí spôsobilosti aj v podoblasti písaná reč?	Je správne, že žiaci v ŠKD podľa výchovného programu (2008) v rámci vzdelávacej tematickej oblasti samostatne píšu domáce úlohy zo slovenského jazyka a literatúry.
	Všetky výkonové štandardy Štátneho vzdelávacieho programu pre predprimárne vzdelávanie v materských školách (2016) vo vzdelávacej oblasti Jazyk a komunikácia sú primerané vývinovým možnostiam detí v predškolskom období.	Výchovné štandardy jednotlivých tematických oblastí výchovy sa dostatočne zameriavajú na rozvoj reči a komunikácie žiakov v ŠKD.
Názory na didaktické kompetencie študentov v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti	Praxujúci študenti tvorivo plánujú vzdelávacie aktivity na rozvoj hovorenej reči.	Praxujúci študenti dokážu v ŠKD metodicky správne viesť žiakov pri príprave na vyučovanie zo slovenského jazyka a literatúry.
	Praxujúci študenti vhodne uplatňujú žánre literatúry pre deti vo vzdelávacích aktivitách.	Praxujúci študenti vhodne uplatňujú žánre literatúry pre deti vo výchovno-vzdelávacích aktivitách v ŠKD.

Oslovili sme spolu 23 učiteliek z 12 materských škôl, v ktorých počas akademického roku 2016/2017 prebiehala prax študentov odboru Predškolská a elementárna pedagogika (Bc.). Ďalej sme oslovili 26 vychovávateliek z 13 školských klubov detí rovnako participujúcich na praxi študentov. Spolu bolo oslovených 49 respondentov, čo je v tomto prípade základný súbor výskumnej vzorky. Dotazník bol distribuovaný osobne v rámci realizovaných aktivít (odborný seminár, workshop) a tiež prostredníctvom pošty. Aktuálne prebieha zber výskumných údajov.

6 ZÁVER

Vedecko-výskumný projekt má viaceré prínosy, pre študijný program, študentov, vysokoškolských učiteľov aj cvičných učiteľov materských škôl a vychovávateľov školských klubov detí. Je inovatívne zameraný. Dosiahnutím cieľov projektu vznikne viacero užitočných výstupov pre vysokoškolské vzdelávanie, vedu a výskum. Aktuálne vychádza zborník vedeckých prác zo sympózia. Skúmanie didaktických kompetencií študentov cez sebahodnotenie a preukázanie vedomostí v oblasti jazykovej a literárnej gramotnosti prinieslo mnoho podnetných zistení. Tieto budú následne štatisticky spracované, interpretované, diskutované aj publikované.

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NĚKTERÉ Z MOŽNOSTÍ VYUŽITÍ DRAMATICKÉ VÝCHOVY VO VČASNÉ INTERVENCE PRO DĚTI S ŠPECIÁLNÝMI EDUKAČNÝMI POTŘEBAMI

SOME OPPORTUNITIES MAKE US OF DRAMATIC EDUCATION IN EARLY INTERINTION OF FOPR CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCTIONAL EQUIPMENTS

Marta Achimská

Abstrakt

Jednou ze základních podmínek pro existenci lidské společnosti, je připravit děti na život ve společnosti. Neposlední připravit a přispět dramatické výchovy. Dramatická výchova má významný podíl znovuobjavovaní potencionálu výukových her pro děti. Využití prvků výuku- proces- učení dává prostor pro dítě i pro jeho celkový rozvoj osobnosti. Pre skvalitnenie dramatickej výchovy je potrebné stále sa učiť, zdokonaľovať a získavať nové poznatky. Dramatická výchova má výrazný motivačný a edukačný potenciál vo vzťahu k ľudským hodnotám.

***Kľúčové slová**: dramatoterapia, dramatická výchova, rolová hra, špeciálne výchovno-vzdelávacie potreby, tvořivá dramatika, dramatická hra, improvizácia, tvořivosť, metód*

Abstract

One from foundation conditions of existence human society is preparation of children for life in society. Dramatic education contribute to this preparation. Dramatic education has expresive concern in resumption play of educational potential with children. Make use of element´s in educational – educated process provides space for child and for his overall developmend of personality. For quality dramatic education is required learn of periodical learn of improve and get a new cognition. Dramatic education has expesive potential of motivation and education in reference to human significances.

***Key words**: dramatherapy, dramatic education, role play, special education need, creative drama, dramatic play, improvisation, creativy, methods*

1. Dramatická výchova – vymedzenie pojmu

Každý, kdo se stará o děti dnes, dříve či později význam slov dramatik a dramatické setkání problém, výtvarné výchovy. Tvůrčí spisovatel, který je řízen určité zásady a pravidla, což vyžaduje principy činnosti, přiměřenost individuálním přístupem, povědomí, čitelnosti a trvanlivost. Dramatické výchovy k nám přišla z Británie, kde to má podobu Drama v oblasti vzdělávání. v adjektíve vyšší stupeň realizácie jednotlivca v pedagogickom a umeleckom procese a v substantíve zahŕňa signály dramatizácie, so všetkými predtým uvedenými atribútmi javu. Drama v tomto spojení v angličtině vnímána jako druh hry, konkrétní metodu pro získávání vědomostí. Jinými slovy, to je strukturované drama, nebo u projektů s využitím dramatických her. Při výkladu tohoto pojmu dochází také v anglicky mluvících zemích, význam obvyklé nedorozumění. Podle B. Šimonovej (1997), pojetí tvůrčí dramatik, je chápáno jako soubor metod a prostředků, které mohou podpořit a realizovat kreativní řešení životních situací, tvůrčí učení osnov ve škole, vzdělávání učitelů, manažerů ,vzdělávání příjemce umění, interpretace uměleckého díla, dramatizáciu text, herecků, režijnú a

dramaturgickú příprava, vytvoření inscenačného tvar, vytváří umělecké dílo (literární, výtvarné, hudební). Základní prostředky dramatické výchovy v dramatoterapii je hra. Podle E. Machkovej (1992) pro metody můžeme považovat výklad, improvizace a role hrát hry. Tento termín je používán se odkazovat na mimoškolní aktivity v oblasti zájmu práce. Tvořivá dramatika, jehož obsah splňuje také jako doplněk terapeutických metod. Psychologové používají v psychosociální výcvik. Má svou dlouhou tradici dětského divadla a malé javiskových formy. Dramatické vzdělání byl zájem o E. Machkovej, která je považován za priekopníčku dramatické výchovy a ve vzdělávání v české republice, kde tvořivou dramatiku považován za primárně pro umělecké vzdělávání, která může přinést dětem radost, obohatit o své vlastní zkušenosti, navodit uvolnění, zprostředkovat nové poznatky a zkušenosti v oblasti osobní a sociální vývoj dítěte.

2. Úlohy a význam dramatické výchovy pro děti se speciálními edukačnými potřebami

Divadla, vzdělávání se mimořádně efektivní strategie učení, zkušenosti, zkušenosti, zkušenosti, osobní aktivní, aby sociální jevy, činy, vztahy, situace, mimo reálnou situaci. Řízení a vstup do dramatického procesu, učitel se stává osoba, partner, organizátor a rádce. E. Machková (1998) uvádí, že pozemek, který drží diváka v napětí a účastníci tvořivé dramatiky povede ke změně jejich chování, na jejich názory. Ne méně důležitou součástí obou oblastech je herec z divadla a herec v tvořivé dramatiky. Herec vstupuje do role, proto se do kůže fiktivní osoba. Jeho důležitou schopností je schopnost podílet, vcítenia v jiného člověka, na jeho problémy. Účastník tvořivé dramatiky učí pouze schopnost vcítit se. V tvůrčí dramatike není nutné, aby znaky přes nějaký vývoj.

Dítě je v procesu zapojení technicky čeká, ale v průběhu času, technické dovednosti dostavuje, což se odrazí v konečné podobě, které často za následek veřejných vystoupení. V současné době, využití dramatických činností v různých vzdělávacích zařízení a inštitúciach věnuje více a více pozornosti, kde je drama realizován jako předmět, metoda, nebo náhodný prvek. Podle K. Majzalnovej (2011) v případě zdravotně postižených lidí ke splnění cílů, je důležité vzít v úvahu specifické vlastnosti, a proto, zvláštnosti, je důležité pro děti, aby rozvíjet své vlastní speciální způsob, jak self-výraz. Pro zrakově postižené děti je přes dramatizácie a využití dramatických technik v divadle, jsme se zaměřit na rozvoj smyslů, vnímání okolí,speciální pozornost. Věnujeme velkou pozornost na fyzické a prostorové orientace, řeč těla (mimika, gestikulácia), kontakt s partnerem, k praxi komunikace prostřednictvím řeči. Hlavní centrum dramatických činností je verbální složka, proto začíná s dialogy, dále využívaju rytmické cvičení v bezpečné oblasti. Při hraní příběhy, dramatizáciach používáme dobře známý prostor (vytvořil fázi), a předměty (rekvizity). Pro osoby s mentálně postižené K. Majzlanová (2011) uvádí, že základní princip tvorby dramatických činností je hra jako činnost dobrovolná. Dítě je hra, hra herců přijmout imaginární "jako". Hry v divadle má své pravidla velmi volně, měnící se podle současných požadavků na divadlo, podle požadavků tvůrce a jejich záměry.

Podle E. Machkovej (1992) v tvůrčí dramatike jsou pravidla hry mnohem jednodušší, protože odstraňuje vnější pozorovatel. Jde o to, že hráči mezi sebou dohodli na společném tématu a že všechny souvislosti dohovorené "jako". Dramatická hra může sloužit jako jeden z nohých kroky v používání poradenského systému a může mít různé formy. Může to být etuda, improvizace s dějem, kolektivní improvizace, v níž půjde o kontaktování hráčů, pantomíma, improvizovaný dialog, atd., Všechny tyto formy mají společné řízení, dejovosť. Jednotlivé hry nemusí být komplexní. Jako celek se upozornit na jeden z deklarovaných cílů. Jak jsme již zmínili, na základě improvizace v tvůrčí dramatike jako terapie je vzájemné působení znaků, který navazuje na příběh.

Vzájemné akce jsou na základě akce a reakce lidí. Jednou z forem naší existence, hraní rolí, a že jakmile se pár již během dne: ráno jsme se členy rodiny, později jsme kolegové, zatímco

učitelé, podriadením, školitel. Tyto role jsme hrát pomocí širokého rejstříku, znamená, neverbální, pantomimicko – fyzické, slovní, zvukové. Žádnou roli, však nelze zvládnout bez odborné přípravy. I v roli rodiče, partnera, učitele, nadřízeného. Cíle dramatické výchovy podle k. E. Machkovej (1992) jsou zaměřeny na jednotlivé oblasti možných dopadů na dramatické aktivity. Podobně, jako pro úlohy, je kladen velký důraz na rozvoj osobnosti dítěte v souvislosti s kolektivní a individuální činnosti, rozvoj sociálních vztahů, výchovu aktivitu a kreativitu. Úspěchy v dramatické aktivity jsou závislé na koncentraci a představivost dětí. Jsme děti mít čich nejvíce zajímá, co je pro ně zajímavé. Dramatoterapeutický proces umožňuje prezentovat, provést a negativní postoje. Podle R. B. Heiningovej (1993) prostřednictvím tvořivé dramatiky můžeme rozvíjet jazyk a komunikace, sebaexpresiu, dovednosti, talent a talent, schopnost řešit problémy, budovat pozitivní sebepojetí, empatie, pojmy, slova, významy, hodnoty a postoje, vztah k divadlu, sociální porozumění. Tvořivá dramatika je v současné pedagogické teorie chápána různě. Člověk je obklopen spoustou faktů, podle toho, co dělá, co to ovlivňuje, které je svědkem. Protože napětí, silné zážitky, a pak je schopen tyto skutečnosti, pozorovat, napodobovat, představovat je a hrát na ně.

2.1 Poradenství při využívání dramatické výchovy v edukačnom proces pro osoby se speciálními edukačnými potřeby

V tvůrčí dramatike velmi důležité inšpiračným zdroj pro děti je divadlo, protože oba systémy jsou stejně zaměřené na vyjádření řízení osob a řešení konfliktů, se kterými jednotlivé lidé setkávají jeden na druhého a musí být překonány. V tomto bodě, nicméně, my můžeme jak název aktivity stejně jako další jiné, protože divadlo má vliv na komunikaci mezi herci a diváky a oživení dramatik se zaměřuje na poskytování největší množství zkušeností všech zúčastněných. Velkou výhodou tvořivé dramatiky je, že se může zúčastnit kdokoliv. Jeho hlavním cílem je rozvoj jednotlivce. V případě divadla je nezbytné, aby jeho účastníci mají přesně stanovené možnosti z výše uvedeného vyplývá, cílem tohoto umění a zprostředkování písemného oznámení srozumitelnou formou a diváka.

Podle K. Majzlanovej (1999) pokud se v procesu tvůrčí dramatiky obdrží účastníci na výsledný tvar, divák je v průběhu přípravy představení na jednom z posledních míst. Tak umělecké činnosti v případě tvořivé dramatiky poskytuje prostor pro sebevyjádření, zkoumání individuální tvořivost a konečný tvar je pouze doplňkem k této činnosti. Další společný prvek, jak uvádí K. Majzlanová (2007) obě entity pohybující se ve fiktivním světě, je o vizualizaci něco, co existuje v daném okamžiku pouze na základě společné úmluvy. Při pohledu na výkon, jeho účastníci vytvořili jsme fikci jako realitu, kterou můžeme přenést do skutečného světa. V případě dobré výkony, divák aktivně účastní, a to tak, že děj je zažívá a zároveň ví, že výkon končí a fikce se rozpustí. Můžeme říci, že vytváří napětí mezi realitou a fikcí, která je podstatou přitažlivosti divadla a důvod pro jeho existenci. Zmíněné napětí je také základem tvořivé dramatiky. Pokud má mít jeho činnost pro dítě význam, musí korespondovat s realitou, tj. s realitou kolem nás. Individuální cvičení, improvizace, proto by mělo být provedeno s ohledem na tuto skutečnost a také by měl respektovat jejich celé skupiny.

Podle E. Machkovej (1997), pokud má vzniknout děj, na začátku musí být situace, což je dramatické, tak situace je vztah dvou nebo více prvků v určitém prostředí, za určitých okolností a pro určité podmínky. Pokud se situace je dramatická, musí být přítomen konfliktní vztah, jehož podstatou bude setkání dvou vůlí, a toto setkání bude vyžadovat řešení .

V tvůrčí dramatike není nutné, aby znaky přes nějaký vývoj. Dítě je v procesu zapojení technicky čeká, ale v průběhu času, technické dovednosti dostavuje, což se odrazí v konečné podobě, které často za následek veřejných vystoupení. V současné době, využití dramatických činností v různých vzdělávacích zařízení a inštitúciach věnuje více a více pozornosti, kde je drama realizován jako předmět, metoda, nebo náhodný prvek. Podle E. Machkovej (2007) chápat v této cestě hovoříme o dramatické výchově nebo kreativní dramatike. Známý je jeho

aplikace v psychoterapii, ve speciální a léčebné pedagogiky v Rámci K. Majzlanovej (1999) s ohledem na cílený výběr dětí do skupin, kde zohadňujú terapeutické pravidla, mluvíme o dramatoterapii. Jak je uvedeno v E. Machková (1992), divadelní výchova umožňuje rozvoj osobnosti jako celku, vyzvednutí prakticky a model sociální role, rozvíjet aktivity, schopnost komunikace, potřeby, návyky, tvořivost

3. Včasní intervence

Včasný intervence teda zásah nebo stimulace se týká první aktivní stimulace dítěte při podezření na opožděný nebo narušený psychomotorický vývoj. V časných intervencí, jsou informace z pozorování považovat za významné, protože nabízejí retrospektívny rekord v evoluci hry, hrovej činnosti.

Podle B. Kováčovej (2011) v průběhu pozorování dítěte, matka zpracovávat informace, ze které později odborník může využít informace pro vytvoření motivačního programu. Záměr hry na téma rodiny je včasná identifikace problémů v připojené. Na začátku intervence, důraz je kladen na podporu úrovně kvality komunikace v rodině s dítětem vyžaduje, abyste včasné péče. Záměr rodiny her je podpora a rozvoj rodičovských kompetencí. Rodiče vytvořit podmínky pro optimální vztah a výchovu. Raná intervence pro děti je systém podpory pro děti s vývojovými retardáciami a/nebo zdravotním postižením, a jejich rodinami. Vývinová porucha u dítěte se mohou v průběhu času způsobit další komplikace. Podle M. Horňákovej (2010) zásady včasné intervence je poskytnout vhodnou terapii pro postižené děti tak, aby se minimalizovaly jejich postižení a maximalizovat jejich šanci na dosažení normální vývoj. Včasný zásah začíná od narození nebo první diagnózy a pokračuje až do věku 6 let, v některých zemích až do dospělosti. Obsahuje speciální pedagogika, terapie, rehabilitace, sociálních služeb, stejně jako podpora rodiny prostřednictvím adekvátní informace, advokacie a emocionální podporu.

Hlavním cílem predprimární vzdělávání je dosáhnout optimální perceptuálnomotorickú vylepšení, kognitivní a emocionálně-sociální úroveň jako základ připravenosti pro školní vzdělávání a pro život ve společnosti. Výchozím bodem je jedinečnosti dítěte, aktivního učení a začleňování se do skupiny a členy týmu. Cíle předškolního vzdělávání tak, aby splňovaly potřeby dítěte sociální kontakt s vrstevníky, s cílem usnadnit dítěti hladké adaptaci na změněné prostředí (mateřské a základní školy), podporovat vztah dítěte k poznávaniu a učení hry, rozvíjet cílevědomě, systematicky a v tvůrčí atmosféře, osobnost dítěte v psychomotorickej, poznávací, sociální, emocionální a morální oblasti, brát v úvahu různé sociálně-kulturní a sociálně-ekonomické zázemí dítěte, uplatňovat a chránit práva dítěte ve spolupráci s rodinou zakladatel a jiných institucí (zachování etických princip kooperace) při respektování potřeb dítěte, získat důvěru rodičů v jednotlivých vzdělávacích poradenství a nasměrovat jejich pozornost na pozitivní projevy v chování vašeho dítěte a, pokud je to nutné, být zaměřena na další profesní poradenství s dalšími odborníky. Brzy podporu pro děti se zdravotním postižením je holistickou metodou včasného zásahu a prevence dlouhodobé snížení u dětí do 6 let věku. Včasná podpora pro děti byl představen na konci sedmdesátých let v Evropě různé právní, organizační a vzdělávací příležitosti.

3.1 Význam a druhy rané intervence

Dítě se učí prostřednictvím aktivní interakce s prostředím. Příjemná činnost má tendenci se opakovat, a proto získává stále více komplexní zážitek. Podle Ostatníkovej (2010) neuronálnej úrovni musí být udělena tzv. neuronálne síť řízení, který mozek používá pro správu . Vývinový model, který využívá dramatický projev v procesu vzdělávání a včasné intervence, může být popsán jako vývinovo orientované dramatoterapiu. V dramatoterapii je obvyklý terminus technikus — vývinový model dramatu, které K. Majzlanová (1999) popisuje jako "životní cesta dítěte prostřednictvím sociální, kulturní a psychologické aspekty

života", kde, dramaticky, proces, který dítě a jeho oko1ie část, "má určitou vývojovou kontinuitu previazanú zážitky a zkušenosti dítěte a prostředí, v němž existuje". Na základě vývinovo orientované dramatoterapie je hra, s dramatickým prvkem, který je postupně metamorfuje na dramatické hry jako cenný činnost, která podporuje spontánnost, uvolnění, a efektivní spolupráce v oblasti vzájemné interakce v oblasti vzdělávání a rané intervence. Od narození dítě poznává skutečný svět a věci v něm tedy svět věcí a vztahů. Plně se projevuje, vyjadřuje své pocity, touhy, úsilí.

3.2 Rané intervence pro děti se speciálními edukačnými potřeby

Dítě se speciálními edukačnými potřeby má důsledky fyzické, smyslové a psychické poruchy, narušené komunikační schopnosti, poruchy učení, chování a pozornosti, což způsobuje dítě problém v edukácií a v autoedukácií. Všechny vyžadují zvláštní pomoc z edukátorov. Metodické změny v obsahu edukácií tyto edukátorov jsou podporovány rodiči a pomáhala při vzdělávací činnosti dítěte. V aplikaci tvořivé dramatiky u dětí se speciálními edukačnými potřeby, je důležité si uvědomit, že tyto děti mají stejné potřeby jako ostatní zdravé děti. Na začátku, vývinovo orientované dramatoterapie, jako pojem podpora v oblasti vzdělávání a rané intervence, je v raných fázích používání dramatický prvek. Podle B. Kováčovej (2011) jde o vývoj dítěte které formy do dramatické akce, která je specifická pro dramatickou hru. Brzy dramatoterapeutická intervenční dítěte zprostředkovává uznání světa. Popsaná koncepce podpory působí aktivizujúco, podporujúco, později stimulujúco, až nakonec napĺňajúceho podstatě včas korigovaného prob1ému. Zásahu B. Kováčovej (2010) se zaměřuje v rámci popsán koncept podpory pro zotavení z vývojových potřeb dítěte s důrazem na vytvoření optimální vývoj dítěte. Základním předpokladem pro pozitivní dopad při uplatňování drama, dramatické struktury ve výchově a vzdělávání dětí, respektovat potřeby přijetí, potřebu komunikovat a vyjádřit se.

Děti s mentálním postižením, které se projevují pod průměrem, rozvoji obecné inteligence. Rozvoj v jiných oblastech, nebo psychických funkcí, dosud zaostává. Děti s mentálním postižením vyžadují systematičtější řízení, názorny výklad požadavků, častější opakování a zvracení dramatické označování. Při načítání improvizace čerpat zejména v počáteční činností na témata, které jsou jim známy. Velký význam, jsou non-motion technologie, zejména etuda, prostřednictvím které individuální bychom se naučit být si vědom, jak to vnímá okolí. Sociální chování můžeme trénovat pomocí zdarma dramatizácie. U těchto dětí jsou vhodné pro kratší dramatizačné útvary (texty, básně, písně, známé pohádky. Stimulující a korektívny dopad loutky a loutkové divadlo mají v dětí, u dětí s mentálním postižením zdůraznit. A., Hučíková, a. J. Záborský (1996), kteří s nimi žijí v této oblasti jednat. Integrace dramatické aktivity se provádí prostřednictvím posílení rodičovských kompetencí v rodině, přes rodiče. Důležité je podporovat rozvoj dítěte, kde je nutné klást důraz na dramatické výchovy. Prostřednictvím dramatické výchovy se dítě má možnost poznávat svět.

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PŘÍPADOVÁ STUDIE: SUBJEKTIVNÍ INTERPRETACE PROCESU OSAMOSTATNĚNÍ Z DĚTSKÉHO DOMOVA

CASE STUDY: SUBJECTIVE INTERPRETATION OF THE INDEPENDENCE PROCESS FROM FOSTER HOME

Mária Zelik Leitner

Abstrakt

Proces osamostatnenia je zvyčajne pre odchovancov z Detských domovov náročnou životnou situáciou. Cieľom tejto štúdie bolo zistiť zo subjektívneho hľadiska participanta, čo tento proces uľahčovalo a ako participant interpretuje svoje uplatnenie v živote. Participant bol do výskumu vybraný na základe zámerného výberu. Kritériá výberu boli: stále zamestnanie, stále bývanie, ukončená kvalifikácia pre výkon zamestnania. Dáta boli získané na základe pološtrukturovaného interview a následne boli analyzované prostredníctvom interpretatívnej fenomenologickej analýzy.

Kľíčová slova: *proces osamostatnenia, odchovanci z Detských domovov, interpretatívna fenomenologická analýza*

Abstract

The independence process is usually complicated life situation of fosterling. The aim of study was to explore from subjective aspect, what makes this process easier and how participant interprets his integration into adult life. The participant of the study was selected purposefuly. Criteria of selection was: stable employment, stable housing and finished qualification for occupation. The data was collected from semi-structured interview and consequently analyzed means interpretative phenomenological analysis.

Key words: *independence process, fosterling from Foster home, interpretative phenomenological analysis*

1. ÚVOD

Odchovanci z Detských domovov patria k skupine ľudí ohrozených sociálnym vylúčením. Vzhľadom na špecifiká výchovy v Detských domovoch odchovancom často chýbajú potrebné sociálne zručnosti a motivácia pre úspešné začlenenie sa do spoločnosti (Brániková in Jurovichová, 2015) a svoju rolu zohrávajú aj pôvodné príčiny, kvôli ktorým boli jednotlivci umiestení do Detského domova (psychická deprivácia v ranom detstve, trauma a pod.). V súčasnosti je možné sledovať v tejto oblasti mnohé zlepšenia. Hlavné ťažisko zmien na Slovensku spočíva predovšetkým v transformácii Detských domovov na rodinný typ, ktorý odchovancom umožňuje lepšiu prípravu na bežný život (Škoviera, 2015) a rôzne podporné programy po opustení Detského domova (napr. Domovy na polceste). Tieto snahy o zlepšovanie ústavnej výchovy a lepšie začlenenie odchovancov do života charakterizuje dôraz na individuálny prístup (Spišáková-Pecinová, 2015).

Okrem systémových zmien uskutočnených na pomoc pri osamostatňovaní, sa rozvíja aj oblasť poznatkov. Najmä v poslednom desaťročí prebehli rozličné výskumy zameriavajúce sa identifikovanie kľúčových problémov v tejto oblasti. Výskum Nadácie pre deti Slovenska (in Kelčíková, 2009) identifikoval, že odchovanci Detských domovov majú najväčšie ťažkosti v nasledujúcich oblastiach: nájdenie bývania, zamestnania, získanie kvalifikácie/vzdelania,

osobnostné predpoklady spracovať náhle zmeny a prípadné ťažkosti, miera slobody rozhodovania/pocit ohrozenia.
Tieto faktory vo významnej miere ovplyvňuje systém starostlivosti o dieťa v Detskom domove, ktorý u neho podnecuje čo najväčšiu mieru adaptácie na normy tejto inštitúcie. Odvrátenou stranou tohto výchovného prístupu je nižšia miera samostatnosti a nedostatok príležitostí k slobodnému rozhodovaniu (Juhászová, 2014).
Podľa Kulhánkovej a kol. (in Jurovichová, 2015) charakterizuje deti z Detských domovov nižšia úroveň ašpirácie, ktorá sa prejavuje najmä v tom, že absolvujú vzdelanie nižšej úrovne, než na akú majú kapacitu. Problémom odchovancov po odchode z Detského domova je podľa Kovaříka (ibid.) aj absencia hlbších vzťahov a citové zázemie.
Náročnosť situácie odchovancov z Detských domovov potvrdzujú aj longitudinálne štúdie v tejto oblasti. Podľa Matějčeka (in Juhászová, 2014) majú odchovanci z Detských domovov častejšie problémy v spoločenskom uplatnení sa, v partnerských vzťahoch a vyskytuje sa u nich vyššia miera kriminality. Tieto zistenia podporuje aj výskum Gjuričovej (in Běhounková, 2012) podľa ktorého sa až u 56% odchovancov z Detských domovov v Čechách vyskytla trestná činnosť počas prvého roku po odchode z Detského domova.
Aj napriek vyššie spomínaným negatívnym faktorom, ktoré sťažujú osamostatnenie sa z Detského domova, existujú viaceré pozitívne prípady jednotlivcov, ktorí sa dokázali osamostatniť a začleniť do spoločnosti. Podobne ako pri zlyhaní (Běhounková, 2012), aj v prípade úspechu možno usudzovať, že spočíva na synergickom efekte osobnostných charakteristík odchovancov a vplyvov prostredia (vzťah s vychovávateľmi, príprava a pod.).

Cieľom štúdie je bližšie skúmanie skúsenosti osamostatňovania u odchovancov Detských domovov. Okrem toho je zameraná na hľadanie vplyvov podporujúcich úspešné začlenenie sa do života.

2. VÝSKUM

Výber respondenta prebehol zámerným spôsobom. Za týmto účelom boli oslovené viaceré organizácie, ktoré sa venujú odchovancom z Detských domovov (Domovy na polceste, ...), prostredníctvom ktorých boli skontaktovaní potenciálni záujemci. Do výskumnej vzorky bol napokon zaradený jeden participant na základe nasledujúcich kritérií: stále zamestnanie, stále bývanie, ukončená kvalifikácia pre výkon zamestnania. Tieto kritériá boli stanovené na základe výskumu „Problém odchodu mladých ľudí z detského domova“(in Kelčíková, 2009), podľa ktorého majú odchovanci z Detských domovov najčastejšie problémy v týchto oblastiach.
Zber dát prebiehal v máji 2018 formou pološtrukturovaného rozhovoru, ktorého obsahom boli nasledujúce témy: popis detstva, vzťahy s vychovávateľmi, významné osoby v živote, proces osamostatnenia, zdroje zvládania ťažkostí, plány do budúcnosti.
Dáta boli následne analyzované formou interpretatívnej fenomenologickej analýzy.

3. VÝSLEDKY

3.1 Anamnéza

Pán X. má 31 rokov, je slobodný, má ukončené vysokoškolské vzdelanie a pracuje v pedagogickej oblasti. Na svoju biologickú matku si nepamätá, do Detského domova bol umiestnený ako 6-mesačný, najskôr bol umiestnený v dojčenskom ústave, následne bol v Detskom domove rodinného typu, kde žil až do svojich 18 rokov. Neskôr bol umiestnený v klasickom Detskom domove, odkiaľ sa osamostatnil a začal študovať na univerzite. Vo svojom voľnom čase sa angažuje v snahe o zlepšovanie systému Detských domovov. Pôsobí veľmi aktívne a jeho nadšenie pre zmenu aktuálneho systému Detských domovov sa objavuje počas celého rozhovoru. Hovorí vecne, racionálne až vedecky, bez náznakov emócií. Jeho

prejav pôsobí sebavedome, rozhodne, energicky, niekedy až bojovne – akoby „v nasadení za správnu vec“.

3.2 Analýza

3.2.1 Pojmy „systém výchovy“ a „vychovávatelia“

Podľa pána X. zohrali významnú úlohu pri príprave na život a osamostatnenie sa jeho vychovávatelia a systém výchovy v Detskom domove Y. Vo svojich spomienkach na detstvo a dospievanie vyjadruje obdiv ku svojim vychovávateľom a súhlas so systémom, v ktorom bol vychovávaný. Na opis spôsobu výchovy používa slová „systém“ či „režim“.

„Čo sa mi páčilo u našich (vychovávateľov) bolo, že mali určitý systém, ktorý musel fungovať. A ten fungoval veľmi dobre. Mali určitý systém a proste režim práce. Aj mi tak hovorili, že keby neni ten systém, tak je tam proste anarchia, je tam bordel. To musí byť aj v rodine, je tam jedno dieťa, či dve, či dvanásť... musí byť určitý systém.“

Pojmy „systém“ a „vychovávatelia“ sa v naratíve pána X. takmer prelínajú. Vychovávatelia v úlohách rodičov sú pre neho akoby zosobnením systému.

„*Preto hovorím, že to bol dobrý systém, lebo z nás nevychovávali nejakých nevychovaných Cézarov – spratkov, nejakých rozmaznaných. Bola to aj taká... nie tvrdá výchova, ani nie spartská, ale taká dobrá, zdravá. Tak bolo to dobre, pretože oni vedeli, že raz tie brány musíme opustiť, nemôžeme tam byť do nekonečna. ... Pripravovali nás aj do života, že ten svet nie je gombička. Tam museli byť fundovaní odborníci.“*

Citovosť a vzťahy sa v naratíve pána X. objavuje skôr akoby v teoretickej rovine. O vzťahoch s vychovávateľmi hovorí prevažne vo všeobecnej rovine.

„*Na nových vychovávateľov sa ťažko zvykalo. K citovej väzbe tam nedošlo... nemalo ako dojsť*.“

Niekedy sa však v rozprávaní vyskytujú aj opisy vzťahových skúseností. Zvlášť oceňuje zážitky, pri ktorých mu jeho vychovávatelia prejavovali záujem a pozornosť. Priznáva nedostatok citovosti spôsobený špecifickým vzťahom medzi vychovávateľmi a deťmi v Detskom domove.

„*Tam to trošku abstinovalo, ale nezazlievam to, hovorím, z fyzického hľadiska sa to nedá, tá žena by sa zničila, keby to (=citové správanie voči deťom) mala absolvovať každý večer 365 dní do roka*.“

Na druhej strane „systém výchovy v Detskom domove“ je pre neho akoby vyjadrením záujmu zo strany štátu, či odborníkov.

„*Bol tam systém, oni vedeli do čoho idú, bol tam tím odborníkov, psychológovia... ktorí vytvárali túto koncepciu...*“

„(vychovávatelia) museli prejsť cez psychotesty.... A keď prešli, to neznamenalo, že ich automaticky zoberú.“

Pri opise života v Detskom domove oceňuje materiálne aspekty života a lepšie možnosti.

„*My niekedy sme sa mali lepšie ako deti z biologických rodín. My sme sa naučili základy lyžovania, plávania, proste všetko*.“

Tieto aspekty výchovy v Detskom domove boli významné v živote pána X. aj v súvislosti s jeho osamostatnením a začlenením do spoločnosti – podľa vzoru svojho vychovávateľa sa neskôr rozhodol pre vysokoškolské štúdium v tejto oblasti, kde zúročil aj záujmy, ktorým sa venoval počas pobytu v Detskom domove.

3.2.2 Osobnostné vlastnosti, ctižiadostivosť

Pán X. vysvetľuje svoje úspešné osamostatnenie sa aj svojimi osobnostnými vlastnosťami - húževnatosťou a ctižiadostivosťou.

Ja mám jednu vlastnosť, že ja čo poviem, to docielim. Ja si idem za svojim. Ja si stanovím cieľ a idem si za ním. Ja keď som odchádzal (z Detského domova Y) tak som im povedal, že

odchádzam, tú Vysokú školu vyštudujem... oni mi neverili...Ja som ctižiadostivý. Ja si idem za svojím. Myslím, že je to dobrá vlastnosť. Ja nelavírujem, ja si idem za svojím.
Aj tieto osobnostné aspekty dáva do určitého vzťahu so systémom výchovy v klasickom Detskom domove. Na jednej strane je podľa neho výchova a režim v Detskom domove rodinného typu vychováva k väčšej húževnatosti, na inom mieste hovorí, že režim a systém výchovy v klasickom Detskom domove môže u osamostatnených mladých spôsobiť nechuť k sebadisciplíne. Jeho odpoveď sa akoby oblúkom vracia od osobnostných vlastností k obdivu voči systému v Detskom domove.
Ja som bol vždycky zapálený a mal som ctižiadostivosť...Je to vo mne. To musí mať človek v sebe. Buď to máte v sebe, alebo nemáte... Veľa tých detí (v Detskom domove) sa ľutuje a viete, ja som vždy toho názoru, že neľutuj sa, treba makať a zamakať a potom výsledky prídu... to ovocie príde. ... ľútosť ešte nikomu nepomohla, obzvlášť si myslím u týchto detí, čo sú v domovoch, tam je aj dosť zlá ľútosť, pretože ten svet je zlý a oni keď odídu z domova, tak oni budú mať rýchle nástrahy, tam ich bude chcieť niekto okoňovať. Oni si kompenzujú to, čo im v detstve chýba. Oni si kompenzujú, že v tom Detskom domove je určitý režim a zrazu majú voľnosť.

3.2.3 Svetonázor, spiritualita

Prekonávanie prekážok je pre pána X. akoby „životnou filozofiou“. Akoby boli ťažkosti integrálnou súčasťou života, ktorá mu dodáva špecifickú kvalitu.
Niekedy menej je viac. Ja to viem z vlastnej skúsenosti, lebo ja som nemal veľa.
Ja som si prešiel všeličím. Ale ja hovorím, že ani ten Ježiš to nemal ľahké na tejto Zemi. A nie len on, ale aj iní, ktorí to niekam dotiahli.
Významným zdrojom zvládania ťažkostí spojených s osamostatnením sa je pre pána X. aj spiritualita. Jeho spiritualita nemá podobu inštitucionalizovaného náboženstva, skôr ju vyjadruje slovami: „niečo musí byť“ alebo „bolo mi to súdené“.
Ja som prosil, aby mi to vyšlo. Prosil som, aby som aj urobil vysokú školu. Tak som si potom povedal, že niečo fakt musí byť. Tak ako sa hovorí proste a dostanete. ... na vysokej škole som spoznal také osobné dotknutie...
Ja som sa dosť tak pýtal, že Detský domov Y vychoval cez 1000 detí a prečo práve ja som to začal riešiť? ...Ja som išiel na niektoré veci strategicky... že keď zobereme, že vychovalo cez 1000 detí, ale tých 1000 detí žilo v starom systéme, ale ja som zažil dva systémy. Asi mi to malo byť súdené.

3.2.4 Šťastie na ľudí

Ďalší aspekt úspešného osamostatnenia sa by sa dal pomenovať ako akési „šťastie na ľudí“. Tento aspekt tiež súvisí so spiritualitou – „osudom“, ktorý týchto ľudí priviedol do cesty.
Ja som natrafil na dobrých ľudí. Fakt som mal šťastie na ľudí a mávam čím ďalej tým viac šťastia na ľudí. Proste mal som to šťastie, že som natrafil na dobrých ľudí a tí ľudia si ma používali. Nejak mi to vyšlo.

4. DISKUSIA

Na základe interpretatívno-fenomenologickej analýzy boli v rámci subjektívnej interpretácie osamostatnenia sa identifikované určité významné témy (systém výchovy, špecifické vlastnosti, svetonázor, spiritualita, tzv. šťastie na ľudí) a ich vzájomné vzťahy a súvislosti.
Predchádzajúce výskumy (napr. Běhounková,2012) uvádzali, že na úspešné osamostatnenie vplývajú tak osobnostné aspekty jednotlivca, ako aj vplyvy výchovného prostredia. V našom výskume možno pozorovať rovnaké tendencie, ktoré sa prelínajú a je ťažké ich vzájomne rozlíšiť(vplyv systému výchovy na rozvoj osobnostnej vlastnosti – subjektívny obdiv, nadšenie voči systému výchovy). V prípade pána X. je možné identifikovať tri významné

„sily“, vďaka ktorým sa dokázal úspešne osamostatniť: systém výchovy, osobnostné vlastnosti a svetonázor, významní ľudia.
Poznatky získané prostredníctvom tejto štúdie majú výrazne obmedzené možnosti aplikácie vzťhľadom na charakter výskumnej vzorky, no veríme, že môžu predznamenať ďalší smer výskumu.

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FORMS OF CYBER-BULLYING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF PRIMARY AND HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS AS CYBER-AGGRESSORS

Miriam Niklová, Jana Makúchová

Abstract

This study presents the results of an empirical research carried out in selected primary and high schools in Slovakia in 2017. The aim of the study is to describe individual forms of cyber-bullying in terms of sex and age-specific aspects of cyber-aggressors. The research sample consisted of 1,004 respondents aged 10–20 years (AM 14.9). For the empirical data collection, the method of survey was used in form of a standardised written questionnaire according to S. Hinduja and J. W. Patchin (2010). The study focused on the most common forms of cyber-bullying and their identification from the pupil cyber-aggressor's point of view in terms of their sex and age. Statistically significant differences were observed in the forms of cyber-bullying in the following areas from the aggressor's perspective: identity theft, insulting/humiliating using a video, threatening and intimidating the victims in favour of the boys.

Keywords*: cyber-bullying, cyber-aggressor, pupil, school*

1 INTRODUCTION

The development of information and communication technologies brought many benefits, but also a number of risks, including cyber-bullying. Cyber-bullying is a form of bullying using electronic media, such as the Internet and mobile phones, with the intention to inflict aggressive and deliberate harm on the media user. Both, bullying and cyber-bullying is characterised by repeated behaviour and power imbalance power between the aggressor and the victim (M. Price – J. Dalgleish, 2010, p. 51). According to the World Health Organisation (2016, p. 14), cyber-bullying includes repeatedly inflicted physical, mental and social harm and occurs in a social environment, often in the school environment, where young people gather, as well as in the online environment. N. Hunter (2012, p. 6) considers cyber-bullying to be an activity which uses force or threat to persecute people with the intention to harm them. Cyber-bullies can hide their identity. Victims of cyber-bullying are ridiculed by a large group of people, and thanks to the virtual possibilities, the frequency of bullying with sexual undertones is increasing. Whereas the traditional bullying-related violence, provides people with the opportunity to escape from the situation, in cyber-bullying it is difficult to escape, because the negative content about the victim can be seen by all Internet users (Taşkin, 2014).

Cyber-bullies can be divided into three groups: aggressors, victims and bystanders or onlookers. An online cyber-aggressor is referred to as e-aggressor. The e-aggressors are characterised by the following features: they spend a lot of time online, receive little attention from their parents and are quite good at using complex Internet applications. They are also bullies in the real life. K. Hollá (2010, p. 30–31) provides the following typology of e-bullies:

- The angel of vengeance – typical for children who were bullied themselves or are trying to protect a bullied friend.
- The power-hungry cyber-bully – typical for children who exert their authority and power and want to show it off. Bullies are often girls, but also the physically less fit children who are not very popular in the group.
- The mean girls – typical for bored children looking for entertainment.
- The inadvertent cyber-bullies – respond disproportionately to hateful and provocative messages without realising the consequences of their actions.

Cyber-bullies often desire to bully someone, yet they do not want to be involved in the traditional form of bullying. They are aware of the fact, that in traditional bullying, their position in the group could be harmed, they could be revealed, whereas cyber-bullying can be a good way to achieve their goals. Cyber-bullying is easier to accept for the aggressor, because they do not necessarily have to witness the actual impact of their actions (Černá, 2003, pp. 66–67).

2 FORMS OF CYBER-BULLYING IN TERMS OF SEX AND AGE OF THE CYBER-AGGRESSORS

2.1 Characteristics of the research objectives and methodology

The aim of the research was to map and analyse cyber-bullying among pupils of primary and high schools in the Slovak Republic. The objective was to determine the relationships among the forms of cyber-bullying in terms of sex and age of primary and high school pupils.

The empirical research was carried out from January to April 2017. The empirical data were collected using a questionnaire consisting of scale-based questions the pupils were to evaluate each item on a 0–4 scale. The scale included the following possibilities: 0 = never 1 = once, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = every day; the pupils were also required to express their dis/agreement with the statements provided using yes/no answers. The data collection method combined a standardised *Cyberbullying and online aggression* questionnaire inspired by S. Hinduj and J. W. Patchin (2010), tested on a pupil group with a similar age in the United States. Custom items were added to the questionnaire since the standardized questionnaire did not include all social networking sites and mobile applications currently available for installation.

2.2 Characteristics of the research sample

The research sample consisted of 1,004 pupils of primary (394 pupils) and high schools (610) aged 10–20. Detailed figures on the type of school, age and sex are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to the type of school

Type of school							
primary school		**grammar school**		**vocational school**		**TOTAL**	
n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
394	32.24	210	20.92	400	39.84	1004	100

Table 2: The distribution of respondents in terms of age and sex}

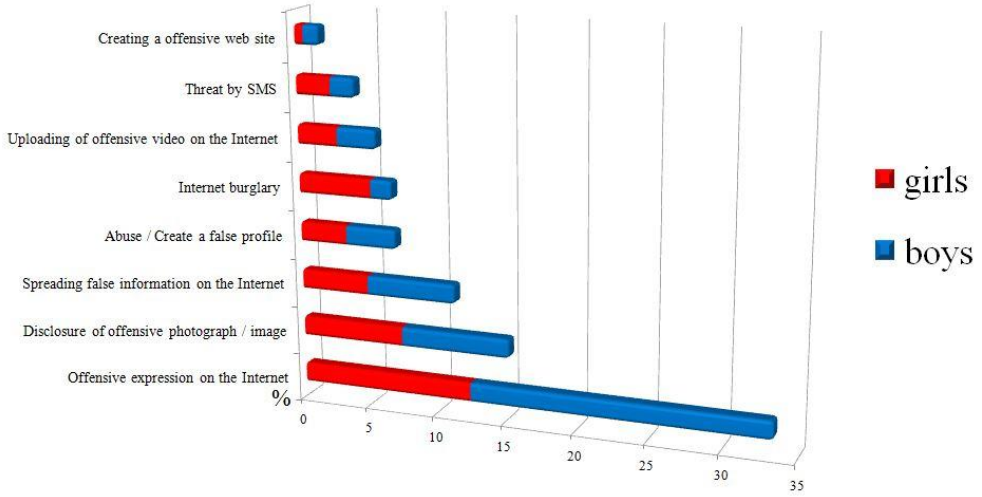
Alternatives	**Sex**				**TOTAL**	
	boys		**girls**			
Age	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**N**	**%**
10	17	37.77	28	62.23	45	4.48
11	57	50.89	55	49.11	112	11.16
12	30	39.47	46	60.53	76	7.57
13	55	51.87	51	48.11	106	10.56
14	38	50.67	37	49.33	75	7.47
15	48	54.55	40	45.45	88	8.76
16	72	42.11	99	57.89	171	17.03
17	60	38.96	94	61.04	154	15.34
18	54	48.65	57	51.35	111	11.06

19	32	57.14	24	42.86	56	5.58
20	8	80	2	20	10	1
TOTAL	471	46.92	533	53.08	1004	100

Most respondents attended vocational schools – 400 pupils (39.84%) and primary schools – 394 pupils (39.24%). 210 students attended grammar schools which represents 20.92% of the total number of respondents. In terms of the sex, the majority of respondents were girls – 533 (53.08%). There were 471 boys, which represents 46.92%. The most numerous groups included pupils aged 16 years (17.03 %), 17 years (15.34%), 11 years (11.16%) and 18 years (11.06%).

2.3 Research results

The Graph 1 shows the percentage of the particular forms of cyber-bullying from the cyber-aggressor's perspective.



It can be stated that the most common manifestation of cyber-bullying from the cyber-aggressor's perspective included *posting rude/insulting statements about someone on the Internet* represented by 33.40%, in the favour of boys (21.00%). This is followed by *posting rude/insulting photographs/pictures of another person* (15.20%); hereby, the proportion of girls (7.80%) and boys (7.40%) was relatively similar. The third most common form of bullying was *disseminating untrue information about someone on the Internet* (11.30%), more often referred to by girls (6.40%).

The aim of the research was to identify whether the correlation between the sex and individual forms of cyberbullying is of statistical significance. The results are presented in Table 3. The table presents the arithmetic average, standard deviation as well as the minimum and maximum values pertaining to the forms of cyber-bullying in relation to the pupil's sex.

Table 3: Cyber-bullying forms distributed according to pupils' sex

Alternatives		Rude/insulting speech on the Internet	Posting a rude/insulting photograph/picture	Posting a rude/insulting video on the Internet	Creating a rude/insulting website	Disseminating untrue information on the Internet	Threats via SMS	Threats via the Internet	Abuse/creation of a fake profile
Boys	**AM**	0.36	0.11	0.04	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.10	0.05
	SD	0.808	0.445	0.289	0.113	0.338	0.289	0.465	0.318
	Min.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Max.	4	4	4	2	4	3	4	4
	N	471	471	471	471	471	471	471	471
Girls	**AM**	0.16	0.11	0.03	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.02	0.05
	SD	0.472	0.439	0.196	0.198	0.366	0.211	0.207	0.270
	Min.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Max.	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4
	N	533	533	533	533	533	533	533	533
Total	**AM**	0.25	0.11	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.03	0.06	0.05
	SD	0.659	0.441	0.244	0.164	0.353	0.251	0.354	0.294
	Min.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Max.	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4
	N	1004	1004	1004	1004	1004	1004	1004	1004
Test results	**Z**	-4.020	-0.129	-0.157	-0818	-1.008	-0.965	-3.398	-0.117
	p	0.000	0.897	0.413	0.313	0.335	0.038	0.001	0.907

Based on the Mann-Whitney test results, regarding the sex, a statistically significant difference can be observed between these two forms of cyber-bullying: *rude/insulting speech on the Internet* and *threats via the Internet*. In both cases, it was found that boys prefer these forms of cyber-bullying.

The Table 4 presents the statistically significant difference among the various forms of cyber-bullying using the Kruskal-Waliss test.

Table 4: The inference indicator of the statistically significant difference among the forms of cyber-bullying from the cyber-aggressor's point of view

	Chi-square	**p**
Rude/insulting speech on the Internet	39.525	0.000
Posting a rude/insulting photograph/picture	40.340	0.000
Posting a rude/insulting video on the Internet	26.035	0.004
Creating a rude/insulting website	8.165	0.613
Disseminating untrue information on the Internet	28.660	0.001
Threats via SMS	8.194	0.610
Threats via the Internet	22.471	0.013
Abuse/creation of a fake profile	25.742	0.004

In terms of age, a statistically significant difference was confirmed in five forms of cyber-bullying: *rude/insulting speech, posting rude or insulting photograph/picture, posting rude/insulting video, disseminating false information and creation of a fake profile.* In terms

of the forms of cyber-bullying, a statistically significant difference was observed mainly in pupils aged 18-20 years. In the Table 5, the average order of the selected forms of cyber-bullying is presented in which the statistically significant differences were observed in terms of pupils' age.

Table 5: Average ranking of selected forms of cyber-bullying in terms of the age of the cyber-aggressors

age	rude/insulting speech			posting a rude/insulting photograph/picture			posting a rude/insulting video		
	Mean rank	AM	SD	Mean rank	AM	SD	Mean rank	AM	SD
10	432.07	0.04	0.298	475.36	0.02	0.149	488.00	0.00	0.00
11	445.18	0.05	0.226	468.86	0.01	0.94	492.46	0.01	0.94
12	453.34	0.12	0.541	471.59	0.05	0.459	494.57	0.01	0.115
13	495.61	0.23	0.606	478.33	0.03	0.167	492.71	0.01	0.097
14	487.32	0.21	0.622	484.51	0.05	0.280	488.00	0.00	0.000
15	505.52	0.26	0.669	498.74	0.10	0.430	493.68	0.01	0.107
16	528.28	0.33	0.726	523.63	0.19	0.584	508.45	0.04	0.199
17	516.87	0.30	0.733	506.42	0.10	0.365	504.22	0.03	0.178
18	543.64	0.39	0.765	545.40	0.22	0.546	515.24	0.07	0.322
19	549.12	0.45	0.893	546.40	0.29	0.756	542.33	0.21	0.731
20	615.30	0.50	0.707	516.85	0.20	0.632	537.95	0.10	0.316

age	disseminating untrue information			creation of a fake profile		
	Mean rank	AM	SD	Mean rank	AM	SD
10	474.00	0.00	0.000	485.00	0.00	0.000
11	474.00	0.00	0.000	489.44	0.01	0.094
12	487.47	0.07	0.471	498.36	0.07	0.471
13	478.92	0.02	0.194	489.69	0.01	0.097
14	501.09	0.08	0.359	505.54	0.08	0.395
15	502.71	0.08	0.346	501.94	0.03	0.183
16	529.61	0.14	0.438	511.35	0.06	0.290
17	506.64	0.05	0.342	504.47	0.05	0.238
18	523.25	0.11	0.340	493.95	0.02	0.134
19	509.95	0.13	0.574	538.93	0.18	0.636
20	523.45	0.10	0.316	586.05	0.30	0.675

3 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The study examines the mutual relationships between the sex and age of cyber-aggressors and the cyber-bullying forms. It has been shown that the most common form of cyber-bullying is rude/insulting speech on the Internet – denigration, provocation and online attacks. It was statistically proved that mostly boys and pupils aged 18–20 incline to aggressive behaviour in the cyberspace.

Boys and girls seem to take different roles in cyber-bullying. In general, research results concerning cyber-bullying are inconsistent; the differences are not clear-cut. In some studies boys were identified as cyber-bullying aggressors more frequently (e.g. Q. Li, 2006; R. Slonje and P. K. Smith, 2013; K. Kopecký et al., 2015; K. Hollá, 2016, 2017; M. Dulovics, 2017; S. Hinduja and J. W. Patchin, 2016) however, in other studies, girls prevailed (e.g. Kowalski et

al., 2008; Schneider et al., 2012). Research shows that boys are more prone to physical aggression in comparison to girls; in the online environment, boys use threats of physical aggression and happy slapping more often than girls. On the other hand, girls use verbal skills to express their aggression more often than boys (S. Hinduja and J. W. Patchin, 2016). In general, it can be stated, that the boys are more often in the position of cyber-aggressors.

In 2013–2015, K. Hollá (2016, 2017) studied sexting and cyber-bullying; she found out that in boys the probability of becoming a cyber-aggressor is 7.37 times higher than in girls. In most cases, cyber-bullying occurs among boys aged 17. The most common forms of attack they used included sending rude/insulting messages (28.90%), false information (24.30%) and sharing compromising photographs on the Internet (19.60%). The research of the *Centre for the Prevention of Risky Virtual Communication* also identified boys as the more frequent cyber-aggressors.(K. Kopecký, R. Szotkowski, V. Krejčí, 2015). According to the research results, boys acted as the cyber-aggressor more often (e.g. identity theft – 63.67% boys, 36.33% girls; insulting/humiliating someone using video – 61.97% boys, 38.03% girls; threatening and intimidating – 57.68% boys, 42.32% girls). The verbal attacks were an exception, in this case girls acted as the cyber-aggressors more often (52.29% girls, 47.71% boys).

In M. Dulovics's research (2017) carried out among pupils of primary and high schools, the statistically significant differences in sex were found in the following forms of cyberbullying – *posting insulting photographs, threatening and insulting someone via chat, vulgar or offensive speech in the on-line environment* – more frequently among boys in all three cases. Cyber-bullying via *chat* was noticed in 27 (46.6%) boys and 8 (21.1%) girls, 23 (39.7%) boys and 3 (7.9%) used offensive language in the communication on the Internet. 3 (5.2%) cyber-aggressors have created a fake profile on the behalf of another person. All of them were high school students. Outing was carried out by 8 (7.3%) cyber-aggressors; 5 (8.6%) were boys and 3 (7.9%) girls. Happy slapping was performed by 2 (3.5%) boys in the research sample. These were high school students in their 2nd and 3rd year of studies.

S. Buelga, M. J. Cava, G. Musitu a E. Torralba (2015) stated in their study that 69 (5%) of students committed a serious and recurring form of cyber-bullying. The authors revealed significant differences between the cyber-bullying forms preferred by either sex: *cyber-stalking, posting insulting videos and photographs that can harass or harm the victim.* The boys scored higher in all of them. Social exclusion represented an exception, girls preferred it statistically more often than boys.

K. Hollá and H. Hanuliaková (2017) researched the relationship between the student's social status in the class and their role as the cyber-victim or cyber-aggressor. The research sample consisted of 1,118 pupils of Slovak primary and high schools (45.50% boys and 55.50% girls). It was found out that both groups of respondents (boys and girls) pertain to the same statistically significant category: *I am making fun of the others.* Among boys, the behaviour *making fun of others and rude behaviour* shows that they may become cyber-aggressors or victims of cyber-crime. The self-assessment of girls indicates they may become cyber-aggressors and cyber-victims at the same time due to lies and gossip spreading in the class.

The UK Safer Internet Centre (2017), which studied a sample of 1,500 children and young people aged 8–17 in the UK, found out that more respondents aged 13–17 years (45%) have experienced cyber-bullying as victims or aggressors than respondents aged 8–12 years (32%).

R. Slonje, P. K. Smith, and A. Frisen (2012) found out that girls were more likely to become cyber-aggressors at a younger age, whereas there was no difference in the probability of becoming cyber-aggressors between girls and boys as they got older.

C. Barlett and S. M. Coyne (2014) observed statistically significant differences in terms of the sex and age. Among younger respondents, it was confirmed that girls were more involved in cyber-bullying than boys. As they got older, the probability of boys being involved in cyber-bullying increased – in late adolescence and at the university.

Cyber-bullying, as a socio-pathological phenomenon in the contemporary society, and its various forms in the on-line environment made up of different technologies daily influence pupils in primary and high schools. It is widespread not only in the school environment, but also everywhere the pupils can live their "virtual" lives. The cyber-space (often) provides an anonymous opportunity for the pupils to behave aggressively on the Internet.
Cyber-bullying represents a serious socio-pathological phenomenon. It requires special attention, mainly in terms of prevention. The cyber-bullying prevention must occur across the country and involve a number parties including parents, teachers and the whole community with the aim to stop cyber-bullying at the very beginning. These efforts should focus especially on children and young people with the biggest predisposition to become bullied. In this respect, it is very effective to build a community where young people learn strategies to deal with anger, strengthen positive behaviour and sense of social cohesion within the community (Bullying, a prevention toolkit, 2011, p. 7).
Teaching staff as well as vocational training experts participate in the prevention in the schools. In terms of school prevention of the media addiction, it is very important to develop pupils' media competence by means of media education. Media education is based on a non-directive approach in the form of a cross-sectional topic or a separate subject; its aim is to teach pupils to evaluate, select and use information as well as to develop their social skills, especially their critical thinking. An inspiration for teachers could be provided by the publication titled "Mediálna výchova v predmete etická výchova/Media Education in Teaching of Ethics", which is a part of the APVV project No. 14-0176 titled "Didaktické prostriedky uľahčujúce implementáciu vybraných prierezových tém do vyučovania etickej výchovy na druhom stupni základných škôl/Didactic Tools Facilitating the Implementation of the Selected Cross-Curricular Topics in the Lessons of Ethics for Grades 5 to 9 at Primary Schools." It is also very important to develop the pro-social behaviour in pupils to prevent aggressive behaviour. The authors, M. Niklová, J. Stehlíková and M. Šajgalová (2017), created worksheets for elementary school pupils titled *"Rozvíjanie prosociálneho správania žiakov základných škôl/The Development of Pro-Social Behaviour in Primary School Pupils"* as well as the methodological material titled *"The Pro-Social Development in Students through Ethical Education" (2017)* for teachers. It is a multimedia didactic material allowing teachers to work with students in a more flexible and interactive way.

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MOŽNOST VYUŽITÍ VRSTEVNICKÉHO VYUČOVÁNÍ PRO POCHOPENÍ VÝZNAMU A SOUVISLOSTÍ VYBRANÝCH ENVIRONMENTÁLNÍCH FENOMÉNŮ

POSSIBILITIES OF USING PEER TEACHING TO UNDERSTAND THE MEANING AND LINKS BETWEEN SELECTED ENVIRONMENTAL CONCEPTS

Věra Pavlátová

Abstrakt

Příspěvek seznamuje s návrhem a evaluací environmentální didaktické stolní hry „Třídění a recyklace - s trpaslíky a bez práce“ určené pro žáky 1. a 2. stupně ZŠ, jež byla tvořena a realizována metodou projektové výuky a vrstevnického vyučování. Navrhli ji, vytvořili a realizovali žáci Ekotýmu ve věku 14 – 18 let pro své spolužáky. Žáci získali informace o třídění i předcházení odpadu, recyklaci a vermikompostování jinými formami a metodami, než byli zvyklí. Hra byla realizována se 174 žáky od 4. do 9. třídy ZŠ, hodnocení hry probíhalo formou evaluačního dotazníku. Byl zjištěn statisticky významný rozdíl v hodnocení hry v závislosti na pohlaví i v závislosti na ročníku žáků.

Klíčová slova: *didaktická hra; environmentální výchova; vrstevnické vyučování; třídění odpadu; recyklace*

Abstract

The article introduces a proposal and evaluation of an environmental didactic board game "Sorting and Recycling - with dwarves and without work" intended for pupils of the primary and lower-secondary school, which was created and implemented by the method of project teaching and peer education. It was designed, created and implemented by Eco-team students aged 14-18 for their classmates The pupils gained information on sorting waste and waste prevention, recycling, and vermicomposting using other forms and methods than they were used to. The game was implemented with 174 pupils from the 4th to 9th grade of the primary and lower secondary school, the evaluation of the game took place in the form of an evaluation questionnaire. There was a statistically significant difference in gender evaluation of the game depending on the age of the pupils.

Key words: *didactic game; environmental education; peer education; waste sorting; recycling*

1. ZÁKLADNÍ VÝCHODISKO

Základním východiskem pro tvorbu didaktické hry byly výsledky našeho kvantitativního výzkumu pohledu učitelů (Pavlátová & Kroufek, 2018) a žáků 1. a 2. stupně ZŠ na obtížnost v pochopení významu vybraných environmentálních fenoménů vyskytujících se v kurikulu a v učebnicích pro základní školy. Výzkumným nástrojem u učitelů (N = 60) byl dotazník, ve kterém se respondenti ke každému fenoménu (celkem 20 environmentálních fenoménů vybraných na základě analýzy učebnic) vyjadřovali na pětistupňové Likertově škále, kombinovaný s rozhovorem. U žáků 1. a 2. stupně (N = 1341) byl zvolen kvantitativní výzkum v podobě dvoufázového kognitivního testu (otevřené odpovědi, následně volba odpovědi). Pohled učitelů a žáků byl u některých fenoménů shodný (například u fenoménů:

biomasa, rašelina, kras, symbióza, katalyzátor, doubrava, koks…), u některých fenoménů byl ale diametrálně odlišný. Například fenomén „recyklace“ vnímali respondenti - učitelé jako ve výuce často používaný, bezproblémový a jasný. Výsledky kognitivních testů však ukázaly, že 47 % respondentů – žáků vnímá recyklaci jen jako ekvivalent třídění odpadu, ne jako jeho opětovného využití. K podobnému výsledku došel ve svém výzkumu na slovinských školách i Glazar a spol. (1998). V příspěvku se z našeho kvantitativního výzkumu budeme tedy věnovat zejména fenoménu recyklace.

1.1 Fenomén recyklace v kurikulu

Předmětem analýzy našeho výzkumu byly učebnice pro 1. stupeň ZŠ z nakladatelství Nová Škola, Alter, Fraus, Prodos a Fortuna Praha (celkem 18 učebnic), pro 2. stupeň to bylo nakladatelství Fraus, Septima a Fortuna Praha (celkem 12 učebnic). Celkem jsme analyzovali 30 učebnic, u 28 byla uvedena doložka MŠMT, která by měla být garancí jejich celkové kvality a souladu s RVP ZV (NÚV, 2017). Fenomén *recyklace* se objevoval v učebnicích prvouky pro 3. ročník, přírodovědy pro 4. a 5. ročník, přírodopisu pro 9. ročník, chemie pro 8. i 9. ročník a zeměpisu pro 9. ročník (Pavlátová & Kroufek, 2018). Také byl tento fenomén rozebírán ve specializovaných učebnicích pro výuku environmentální (případně ekologické) výchovy (Kvasničková, 1997; Matějček, 2007; Šimonová, 2013), které bývají na základních školách k dispozici jako studijní opora pro žáky a učitele.

V analyzovaných učebnicích byla rozebírána zejména recyklace odpadů (hlavně plastů a papíru) a kovů; v přírodovědě pro 5. ročník a v přírodopisu pro 9. ročník byla ovšem zařazena i recyklace elektrárenského popílku a jeho využití ve stavebnictví. V RVP ZV (NÚV, 2017: s. 71, 137) je *recyklace* součástí učiva vzdělávacího oboru chemie (využívání druhotných surovin, recyklace surovin) a průřezového tématu „Environmentální výchova“ – okruh „Lidské aktivity a problémy životního prostředí“ a „Vztah člověka k prostředí“ (druhotné suroviny, řešení odpadového hospodářství). Také je to možný námět v dokumentu Doporučené očekávané výstupy (DOV) pro environmentální výchovu (Pastorová et al., 2011; Činčera, 2011: s. 60, 62) – (zacházení s odpady od minulosti po současnost, třídění odpadu a využití druhotných surovin).

1.2 Fenomén recyklace a jeho miskoncepce

Podle respondentů (R) učitelů základních škol (N = 60) se žáci setkávají s fenoménem *recyklace* průběžně po celou školní docházku a nečiní jim žádný problém, jsou schopni vysvětlit na příkladech. Velkou výhodu v pochopení viděli R z „Ekoškol“, jež se věnují nadstandardně třídění odpadu i recyklaci. Zřejmě proto se v našem výzkumu stala *recyklace* nejsnadněji pochopitelným fenoménem (Pavlátová & Kroufek, 2018). Výjimečně R poukazovali na možnost omezení žáka na pohled recyklace jen jako na třídění odpadu (pletou si recyklaci s tříděním odpadu). K tomuto závěru došel ve svém výzkumu i Glazar et al (1998), kde slovinským žákům činilo problém vysvětlit důvody třídění odpadu a princip vzniku recyklovaného papíru, ačkoliv druhy odpadu ovládali dokonale.

Tento závěr jsme ovšem potvrdili v kvantitativním výzkumu s žáky základních škol (N = 1341), kdy 47 % respondentů – žáků vnímá recyklaci jen jako ekvivalent třídění odpadu, ne jako jeho opětovného využití.

Zároveň jsme z odpovědí na otevřené otázky kategorizovali i jisté miskoncepce v dětském pojetí tohoto fenoménu. Kategorizovali jsme dle Rady pro vysokoškolské vzdělávání (Undergraduate Science Education, 1997; In Šindelková & Plucková, 2015, s. 210) a Doulíka & Škody (2008: s. 80) a fenomén recyklace (odpověď na otázku: „Co je to recyklace?“) se objevil v těchto kategoriích:

- Miskoncepce vzniklé na základě podobnosti slova (zde mohou mít potíže zejména žáci se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami):

    - „reklamace“
    - „…že udělají něco nového tím, že to reklamují“
    - „předvádění“ (možná popletení s fenoménem „imitace“)
    - „společné zpívání“ (možná popletení s fenoménem „recitace“)
- Miskoncepce vzniklé špatným pochopením učiva:
    - „třídění odpadu“ – takto odpovídalo 628 respondentů (47 %)
    - „popelnice, kam třídíme odpad“
    - „recyklujeme do popelnic“
    - „když se něco rozloží“
    - „každý odpad má vlastní popelnice“
- Miskoncepce vzniklé na základě vlastního vysvětlení:
    - „cyklus; koloběh“ (v testu obodováno jako částečně správná odpověď)
    - „…že papíry popíšeme z obou stran místo jedné, abychom ušetřili stromy“ (jedná se spíše o předcházení vzniku odpadu)
    - „…když se něco používá několikrát“ (jedná se spíše o předcházení vzniku odpadu)
    - „rozbíjení různých věcí“
    - „když ti někdo nerozumí, tak mu to vyrecykluješ“

2. VRSTEVNICKÉ VYUČOVÁNÍ

Výsledky výzkumu jsme diskutovali i na schůzce Ekotýmu naší školy (Biskupské gymnázium, ZŠ a MŠ Bohosudov) a zeptali se žáků Ekotýmu na jejich názor a případné řešení. Žáci Ekotýmu jsou zapojeni do mezinárodního programu Ekoškola, který funguje na pozitivním efektu vrstevnického vzdělávání (Pavlátová, 2018). Na školách zapojených v Ekoškole je vytvořen Ekotým složený z žáků, učitelů i dalších zaměstnanců školy, který naplňuje metodiku "7 kroků Ekoškoly“ (Schneiderová a kol., 2012) a zaměřuje se zejména na lokální problémy udržitelného rozvoje, svou činností ovlivňuje ostatní vrstevníky, snižuje ekologický dopad školy a svého jednání na životní prostředí, zlepšuje prostředí ve škole i jejím okolí. Metodiku tohoto programu lze ve školách velmi efektivně využít při naplňování výstupů environmentální výchovy (NÚV, 2017).

Principem vrstevnického vyučování je přirozené ztotožnění jedince s někým, kdo mu je blízký věkem, zájmy, sociálním zázemím či životním příběhem; kdo má schopnost ho v jeho názorech a postojích ovlivňovat. Výhodou této formy vzdělávání ve škole je to, že spolu žáci mluví „stejným jazykem“, efektivně a srozumitelně si učivo předávají. Proto často pochopí látku rychleji a žák, který má za úkol ji naučit ostatní nebo jim předat svou zkušenost, se s ní samozřejmě seznámí naprosto perfektně (Codlová, 2016). Dítě se vždy snadněji učí od jedinců s obdobnou asociační strukturou, jako má samo (Škoda & Doulík, 2011, s. 13).

V ČR se stejně jako v zahraničí využívá vrstevnického vyučování v peer programech k prevenci sociálně patologických jevů, ať to jsou programy s tematikou návykových látek (Nešpor, 2003; Ayaz & Açil, 2015), či sexuálního života a pohlavně přenosných chorob (Rydlo, 1995; Maas & Otte, 2009; Harold, 2011; Al-Iryani, 2013). V zahraničí se využívá s pozitivním efektem vrstevnického vyučování i v oblasti environmentální výchovy a udržitelného rozvoje (Arnold a kol. 2009; Carrico & Riemer, 2011; de Vreede a kol., 2014).

3. METODOLOGIE

Princip vrstevnického vyučování jsme využili i pro pochopení významu a souvislostí ve fenoménu *recyklace*. Ekotým přišel s nápadem vytvořit stolní ekologickou hru, ve které by žáci problematiku třídění a recyklace pojali jinými formami a metodami, než jsou zvyklí. Tvorba a evaluace stolní hry byla vytvořena projektovou metodou, jednalo se o spontánní, střednědobý projekt (Valenta, 1993, s. 5-6; Švecová, 2001, s. 13; Kratochvílová, 2009, s. 48;

Coufalová, 2010, s. 10-11; Jezberová, 2011, s. 8). Ekologickou hru jako platnou strategii pro environmentální vzdělávání využívá ve svém výzkumu i Mariza et al (2011).
Nejprve se žáci zamýšleli nad koncentrační ideou projektu (Kratochvílová, 2009), jako je např. téma, název, smysl, výstup, cíl a cílová skupina projektu. Téma zvolili třídění a recyklace, výstup stolní ekologickou didaktickou hru s názvem „Třídění a recyklace - s trpaslíky a bez práce“. Využili žákům již známou pohádku „Sněhurka a sedm kontejnerů“, která byla výstupem jejich předchozího projektu (Pavlátová, 2017) a trpaslíky, jež měli na starost určitý druh odpadu, nakreslili na hrací pole. Postupovali jsme tedy dle Ráčka (2013, s. 20), kdy prvním motivačním faktorem každé hry je název. Ten by měl být zajímavý, „úderný“, trochu tajemný a může být také případně doplněn i o vysvětlující podtitul. Aby mohl název plnit svou motivační funkci, je potřeba jej zveřejnit dopředu, což jsme splnili.
Didaktickou hru můžeme definovat jako seberealizaci žáků, řízenou určitými pravidly a sledující výchovně-vzdělávací cíle (Vališová & Kasíková, 2011, s. 209). Její předností je stimulační náboj, neboť probouzí zájem, zvyšuje angažovanost žáků na prováděných činnostech, podněcuje jejich tvořivost, spontaneitu, spolupráci i soutěživost, nutí je využívat různých poznatků a dovedností, zapojovat životní zkušenosti (Průcha, 2013, s. 52). Každá didaktická hra musí mít svůj didaktický cíl, jasná pravidla a obsah (Maňák, Švec, 2003; Kotrba, Lacina, 2007).
Pravidla této hry spočívala v tom, že hrací pole tvoří plocha s políčky. Každý z hráčů (ideálně 4 hráči) má jednu figurku různé barvy, o kostku se střídají. Dále hráči poskládají na sebe stejně barevné kartičky (2 hromádky). Hráč hází kostkou a ze startu putuje figurkou po trase. Hází vždy jen jednou. Pokud hráč doputuje na barevné políčko označené číslem, musí zodpovědět otázku, kterou mu z libovolné kartičky položí spoluhráč. Když odpoví správně, posune se o 1 políčko vpřed, když špatně, tak o 1 políčko vzad. Pokud hráč doputuje na barevné políčko označené písmenem, splní aktivitu na příslušně označené kartičce (označené stejným písmenem jako políčko). Vyhrává ten hráč, který co nejdříve dorazí do cíle.
Otázky ve hře byly s volbou odpovědi, například: Kolik dvoulitrových PET lahví je potřeba na výrobu 1 trička? a) 5 b) 8 c) 11 správná odpověď: a); Kolik let se rozkládá žvýkačka? a) 10 let b) 50 let c) 80 let správná odpověď: b); Kolik spotřebuje průměrný Čech papíru za rok? a) asi 140 kg b) asi 250 kg c) asi 320 kg správná odpověď: a).
Příklad aktivit použitých ve hře: Odnesl jsi velkou krabici od nové lednice do oranžového kontejneru. Posuň se o 3 políčka dopředu; Spolužák odhodil na zem ohryzek. Odneste ho raději spolu do vermikompostéru, nehraj 1 kolo.; Japonští vědci objevili bakterie, které umí požírat plast. To je skvělé, posuň se o 3 políčka dopředu…
Žáci při tvorbě hry využívali svých znalostí, knih, internetu, časopisů, konzultace s pedagogy. Zpracované informace ještě reflektovali použitím metody Buzz Groups (Sitná, 2009, s. 76). Obrázek 1 nám ukazuje zmiňovanou stolní hru.

Obr. 1: Ukázka stolní ekologické hry „Třídění a recyklace - s trpaslíky a bez práce“

S žáky jsme také vytvořili evaluační dotazník, ve kterém respondenti odpovídali sami za sebe na otevřené otázky; zda se jim hra líbila či nelíbila a proč, co se při hře naučili, jakou známkou (jak ve škole; 1 bylo nejlepší hodnocení a 5 nejhorší) by ji ohodnotili, zda třídí či netřídí odpad ve škole, doma a proč. Svou hru Ekotým představil spolužákům od 4. do 9. třídy základní školy a zahrál si ji s nimi.

V příspěvku hledáme odpověď na následující otázky:

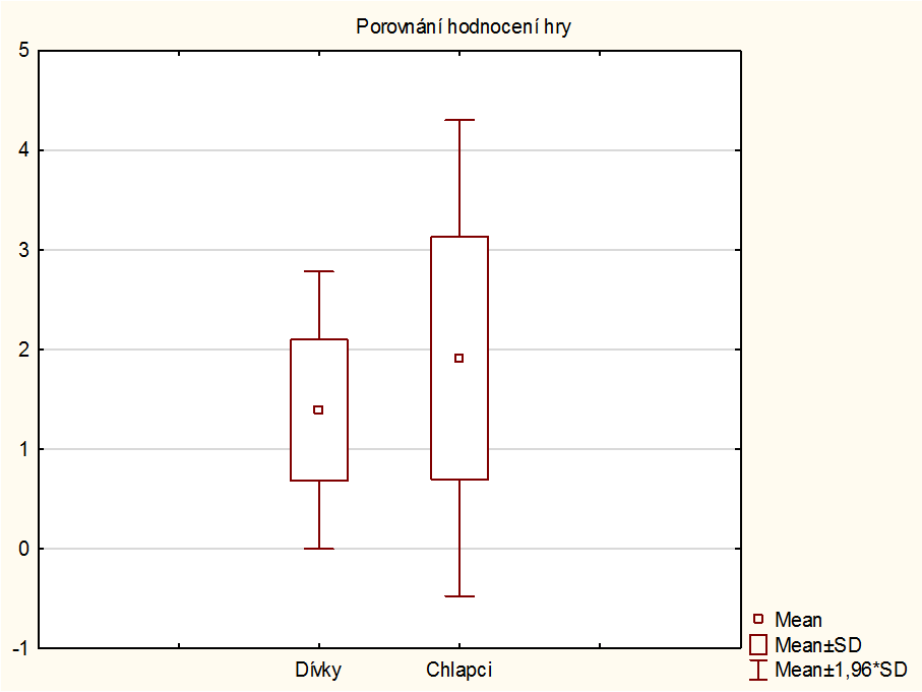
a) Hodnotí lépe vytvořenou ekologickou hru dívky nebo chlapci?
b) Hodnotí lépe vytvořenou ekologickou hru žáci 1. nebo 2. stupně ZŠ?
c) Co se žáci realizací hry naučili z oblasti třídění a recyklace nového?

4. VÝSLEDKY A DISKUSE

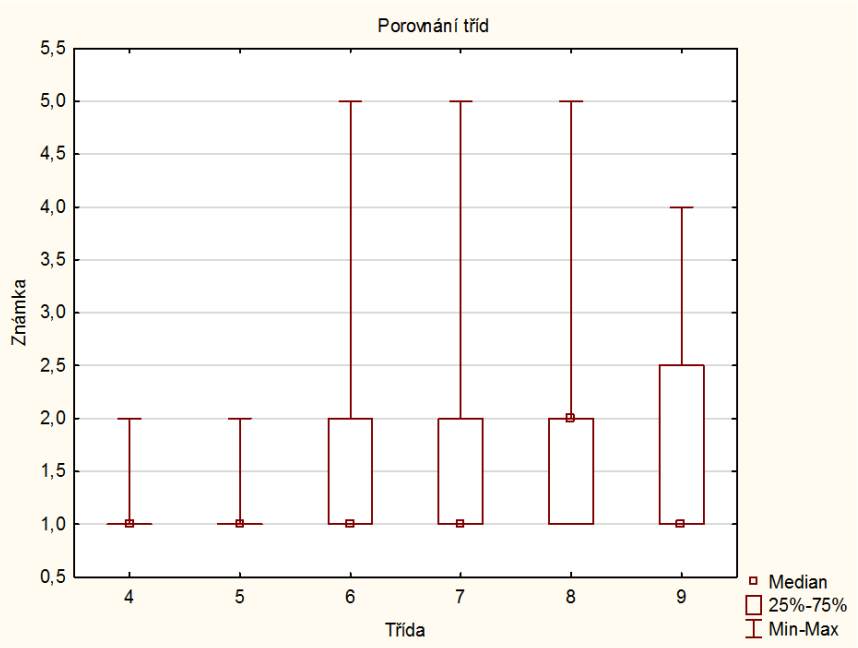
Hra byla tvořena 15 členy Ekotýmu ve věku 14 – 18 let od ledna 2018 do dubna 2018, realizována v květnu 2018 se 174 žáky od 4. do 9. třídy ZŠ, hodnocení hry probíhalo formou evaluačních dotazníků.

Evaluační dotazníky byly zpracovány metodami deskriptivní a induktivní statistiky (Gavora, 2010). Hypotéza, že data pochází z normálního rozdělení, byla zamítnuta (Shapiro-Wilk W = 0,662; p < 0,001), pro následné analýzy proto byly využity neparametrické metody induktivní statistiky, konkrétně Mann-Whitney U test a Kruskal-Wallisův test. Byl zjištěn statisticky významný rozdíl v hodnocení hry v závislosti na pohlaví (dívky hodnotily hru lépe než chlapci; p = 0,009; viz obr. 2) i v závislosti na ročníku žáků (viz obr. 3).

Obr. 2: Porovnání hodnocení hry v závislosti na pohlaví



Obr. 3: Porovnání hodnocení tříd



Hodnocení hry známkami (čím nižší známka, tím lepší hodnocení hry) se statisticky významně liší mezi 8. třídou a 4. ($p = 0{,}00009$), 5. ($p = 0{,}0001$) a 6. třídou ZŠ ($p = 0{,}048$).
Vytvořená ekologická hra se líbila 82,6 % dívek a 69,5 % chlapců; nelíbila se 2,2 % dívek a 7,3 % chlapců, zbytek žáků nedokázal toto posoudit.
Děvčata nejčastěji uváděla, že se jim líbilo na hře vše, že se naučily něco nového, líbily se jim otázky a úkoly, propracovanost hry, že se nemusely učit, že byla hra zábavná, hravá a naučná, líbil se jim design hry a jména trpaslíků. Děvčatům se nelíbilo, že se někdy musela dle aktivit vrátit na začátek hry, nebo že prohrála, či něco nevěděla a že byl někdy hluk ve třídě.

Chlapci nejčastěji uváděli, že se jim líbilo na hře vše, líbily se jim otázky a vtipné úkoly, zpracování a nápad hry, že se nemuseli učit, že hráli v týmech a byla zábava. Chlapcům se také nelíbilo vracení na začátek hry (ale pokud se vraceli soupeři, tak se jim to velmi líbilo), že některé otázky byly těžké a že někteří spoluhráči podváděli. Jeden chlapec ze 7. třídy v dotazníku uvedl, že hra je úplně zbytečná vzhledem k současnému stavu ČR.
Žáci se díky hře nejčastěji naučili, jak dlouho se v přírodě rozkládají různé druhy odpadků; že se z plastu dají recyklovat mikiny a spacáky a kolik PET lahví se na to spotřebuje; do jakého kontejneru se vyhazuje bublinková obálka a kelímek od jogurtu; co je to rašelina a že hoří; že lidé vyhazují spoustu odpadu do moří a oceánů.
80,4 % dívek uvedlo, že ve škole třídí odpad; doma jej však třídí 77,2 % děvčat a 78, 3 % rodičů děvčat.
63,4 % chlapců uvedlo, že ve škole třídí odpad; doma jej však třídí 67 % chlapců a 70 % rodičů chlapců.
Ve škole žáci třídí odpad hlavně proto, že mají ve třídách barevně rozlišené koše, že chodí do Ekoškoly, třídit má smysl, chrání tím planetu. Ve škole netřídí hlavně proto, že prý neprodukují žádný odpad, nebo je to nebaví, či jsou líní. Doma třídí odpad proto, aby bylo čisto, chrání přírodu a planetu, nebo je k tomu nutí rodiče. Doma netřídí hlavně proto, že mají jen jeden koš na vše, nebo je to nebaví.

5. ZÁVĚR

Příspěvek ukazuje jako možnou cestu usnadňující žákům pochopení environmentálních fenoménů využívání vrstevnického vyučování ve výuce. Stejně jako ve výzkumu Marizy et al (2011) jsme použili ekologickou hru z hlediska její kreativity a inovace v učení jako platnou strategii pro environmentální vzdělávání. Žáci Ekotýmu vytvořili pro své spolužáky stolní ekologickou didaktickou hru, se 174 z nich si ji i postupně zahráli. Hodnocení hry probíhalo formou evaluačního dotazníku. Bylo statisticky prokázáno, že hru lépe hodnotí dívky než chlapci, a také žáci 1. stupně ZŠ oproti žákům 2. stupni ZŠ. Respondenti shledali hru přínosnou i díky novým a zajímavým poznatkům z oblasti třídění a recyklace odpadu.
Žáci Ekotýmu nepodcenili evaluaci projektu, ale ani motivaci žáků ke hře. Právě dobrá motivace ke hře může i z velice jednoduché hry učinit hit. A samozřejmě to platí i naopak, dobrá hra může vyznít naprázdno, pokud do ní hráči nejsou dostatečně vtaženi (Ráček, 2013, s. 20).

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VÝTVARNÁ TVORBA UPRCHLÍKŮ: KLAMNĚ TICHÁ UDÁLOST

FINE ART MADE BY REFUGEES: AN ILLUSIVELY CALM EVENT

Eva Kaličinská

Abstrakt
Text představuje studii, jež se na základě dat z kvalitativního výzkumného šetření mezi migranty, kterým byla udělena mezinárodní ochrana nebo doplňková ochrana a základními školami, snaží popsat, jak vypadá vyučování výtvarné výchovy ve školách, kam chodí žáci cizinci. Specificky se přitom zaměřuje na skupinu rodičů, kteří můžou mít ke zmíněné vzdělávací oblasti Umění a kultura výhrady nebo naopak je pro ně výtvarná tvorba důležitá. Vykresluje, jak se k problematice diverzity staví učitelé výtvarné výchovy vybraných základních škol.
Klíčová slova: *uprchlík, inkluze, vzdělávací oblast umění a kultura, transkulturalita, speciální výtvarná výchova*

Abstract
The text represents a study that attempts to describe the tuition of art education in schools where foreign pupils go to, based on data from a qualitative research survey among migrants granted international protection or supplementary protection and elementary schools. Specifically, it focuses on a group of parents who may have reservations about the Arts and Culture area mentioned above, or on the contrary, those who find creative work important. It draws an image of the way art teachers at selected elementary schools are involved in the issue of diversity.
Key words: *refugee, inclusion, educational field of art and culture, transculturality, special art education*

1 INKKLUZE V HODINÁCH VÝTVARNÉ VÝCHOVY

Do práce učitelů výtvarné výchovy se téma migrace čím dál více promítá (sociální, kulturní zázemí a náboženské přesvědčení některých žáků). Školy se řídí Rámcovými vzdělávacími programy, které také definují, jak má probíhat vzdělávání žáků se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami.

„Za žáky se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami jsou považováni žáci se zdravotním postižením (tělesným, zrakovým, sluchovým, mentálním, autismem, vadami řeči, souběžným postižením více vadami a vývojovými poruchami učení nebo chování), žáci se zdravotním znevýhodněním (zdravotním oslabením, dlouhodobým onemocněním a lehčími zdravotními poruchami vedoucími k poruchám učení a chování) a žáci se sociálním znevýhodněním (z rodinného prostředí s nízkým sociálně kulturním postavením, ohrožení sociálně patologickými jevy, s nařízenou ústavní výchovou nebo uloženou ochrannou výchovou a žáci v postavení azylantů a účastníků řízení o udělení azylu“ (RVP ZV 2013, s. 126).

Společenství, ve kterém žijeme se vyznačuje mnohem větší diverzitou než dříve. Uvědomění si toho fenoménu znamená zaměřit se komplexně na celou žákovskou populaci (inkluzivitu ve výuce, funkční kurikulum, účinné vzdělávací strategie aj).

Katedra výtvarné výchovy Pedagogické fakulty MU v devadesátých letech iniciovala vznik výtvarných ateliérů ve střediscích Správy uprchlických zařízení MV. Petr Kamenický pomohl nejen ateliery materiálně vybavit, pomoci s personálním výběrem výtvarníků, ale dal místu i nějakou vizi a směřování. V roce 2008 KVV PdF MU (v rámci mezioborových vztahů)

otevřela program Speciální výtvarná výchova zaměřený nejen na výtvarnou výchovu, ale i na rozvíjení kompetencí v práci se sociálně znevýhodněnými skupinami. Žadatelé o mezinárodní ochranu tvořili jednu ze zmíněných skupin.
Při péči o spravedlivé příležitosti jsou uplatňovány dva základní principy - princip spravedlnosti, který znamená, že žádné společenské skupiny nemají být v přístupu ke vzdělávání znevýhodněny. Princip inkluze spočívá ve snaze zajistit takovou podporu skupinám žáků, aby dosáhli základního standardu, na který budou moci později navázat. Je určen pro ty, kteří jsou od počátku znevýhodněni a potřebují specifickou péči. Vzhledem k tomu, že je Česká republika členem OSN a jemu přidružených organizací a ratifikovala mezinárodní Úmluvu o právním postavení uprchlíků, tak se jako stát zavázal poskytnout bezpečné útočiště všem lidem, kteří o to požádají. Přístup k základnímu vzdělávání je jedním z esenciálních práv, které náleží všem uprchlíkům bez rozdílu. Vzdělávací systém České republiky zatím nenaplňuje vzdělávací potřeby žáků - uprchlíků a je významně poddimenzován v mnoha důležitých parametrech.

1.1 Charakteristika cílové skupiny

Vybraný vzorek respondentů představuje migranty, kterým byla v České republice udělena mezinárodní ochrana[1] nebo doplňková ochrana.[2] Zároveň se tito klienti hlásí k islámu. Cílová skupina byla vybrána pro studii z několika důvodů. Jednak se mohlo stát, že při dramatickém odchodu klienti zažili násilí, strach nebo bezmoc, naprosté zničení dosavadních životních hodnot, nebo rodinných tradic (Kamenický, 2013). Mnozí trpí následky traumat prožitých v zemi původu a můžou se potýkat se stresem spojeným s integračním procesem. Na rozdíl od migrantů, kteří mají jiný pobytový status se nemohou do země svého původu vrátit.
Podle Zygmunda Baumana uprchlíci ztrácejí postupně všechny vrstvy své identity *Pokud jde o „dočasně trvalé“ umístění uprchlíků v nové zemi, „jsou sice uvnitř, ale zároveň mimo“… .jsou od zbytku hostitelské země odděleni neviditelným, a přece silným a neproniknutelným závojem podezření a odporu. Visí uprostřed nicoty, kde se zastavil čas. Neusadili se, ani nejsou v pohybu; nejsou ani usedlíci, ani nomádi.“ (Bauman 2017, s. 44).* Další zkoumaný vzorek tvořily učitelky ZŠ, kam dochází žadatelé o mezinárodní ochranu.

1.2. Metodologie

Studie vychází z poznatků oboru Speciální výtvarná výchova. Z reflexivních seminářů vedených psycholožkou z oboru vycházelo najevo, že problematika není řádně ukotvena ani ze strany partnerské organizace SUZ MVČR.
Aby bylo možné odpovědět na otázku, jaké jsou funkční principy výtvarné tvorby, kde jsou přítomni žáci cizinci, bylo potřeba získat výpověď jednak od uprchlíků, jednak s vybranými školami. Z celkového počtu čtyř vybraných škol, všechny učitelky výtvarné výchovy souhlasily s participací na šetření. S učitelkami jsem provedla hloubkový rozhovor v trvání kolem devadesáti minut. Jádrem dotazování byla vždy otázka, jak pracují s diverzitou ve třídě, kde jsou přítomni cizinci. Dále jsem se ptala, zda rodiče nebo žáci mají požadavky ve vzdělávací oblasti Umění a kultura (šlo mi o rodiče vyznávající islám). Všechny rozhovory proběhly v kabinetech respondentek, byly nahrávány na diktafon a následně přepsány. Výběr uprchlíků jsem identifikovala tak, aby odpovídala mým kritériím (muslimové, cizinci s uděleným azylem nebo mezinárodní ochranou, účastníci výtvarných dílen v azylových zařízeních).

[1] Osoba, které byl udělen azyl, je osobou s trvalým pobytem (podle § 76 zákona o azylu)
[2] Pobyt na území České republiky se řídí požadavky zákona č. 325/1999 Sb., o azylu, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, (dále jen zákon o azylu), a zákona č. 326/1999 Sb., o pobytu cizinců na území České republiky, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, (dále jen zákon o pobytu cizinců). Cizinec je povinen/povinna respektovat i ostatní zákony České republiky a její právní řád.

Rozhovory trvaly šedesát až devadesát minut, ve všech případech proběhly v domácnostech respondentů. Všechny rozhovory byly nahrávány na diktafon a následně přepsány. Analýza dat proběhla za použití softwaru ATLAS.ti. Data byla nejdříve volně okódována a seskupena do kategorií. Záhy se vynořily vzorce, které byly skupinám aktérů společné a podle nichž organizuji vyložení výsledků.
Ve vztahu ke školnímu vzdělávání nás zajímalo zkoumání důsledků diverzity ve vzdělávací oblasti Umění a kultura: zda jsou to důsledky prospěšné nebo spíše limitující. Cílem bylo rovněž odpovědět na otázku: jak je realizována (v tom nejširším slova smyslu) výtvarná výchova v současné české základní škole, kde jsou přítomni žáci cizinci a jaké jsou funkční principy, které diverzitu berou na vědomí, uznávají ji jako cenný nástroj a cíleně s ní pracují.

2 PRINCIPY PODPORUJÍCÍ DIVERZITU

Princip otevřenosti tématu a námětu

Volba námětu by měla být nejen přiměřená věku, ale i motivující a podporující. Teprve uchopením námětu se dostáváme k vyjádření tématu. Při přípravě hodiny výtvarné výchovy je třeba brát v potaz kulturní povahu účastníků. *Lze připravit i takovou hodinu, ve které budou autoři různých národností a jejímž cílem bude na jedné straně zobrazovat symbolickou řečí umění jakási „archetypální rezidua umění“ a na druhé straně respektovat zvláštnosti jednotlivých typů kulturních projevů. Prolínání specifik jednotlivých druhů kultur se může stát přímo námětem dílny.* (Babyrádová 2005, s. 130).
V různých zemích se k hodinám výtvarné výchovy ve školním kurikulu staví jinak. Podle výpovědi respondentů ve škole v jejich domovině (školy ze třetích zemí) převažuje obkreslování vzorů a celkové metodické pojetí spíše charakterizuje jako metodu kopírovací. Jde o to naučit se co nejpřesněji a nejsnáze reprodukovat předlohu, kterou žák dostal: „*Učitel nakreslil na tabuli nějaký obrázek a my ho na papír měli překreslit“*. V českém prostředí problém může vyvstat, pokud učitel zadá téma a explicitně trvá na postupu i výsledku výtvarné tvorby. Pokud je téma figurální, žáci z ortodoxně muslimského prostředí pracují na tématu úplně jiném, jak vypovídá respondentka: *Měli jsme na podzim dělat ježky, a tak jsem si mohla jsem si kreslit co jsem chtěla.“* Ve výtvarné tvorbě nelze pouze plnit představy učitele bez toho, aniž by žáci projektovali do výtvarné tvorby sami sebe, přesto se s tím ve školní praxi můžeme setkat. Rodiče dětí ortodoxních muslimů se dochází ještě před začátkem školního roku dohodnout s vedením školy a sdělí mu svoje nároky, svou životní situaci a požadavky, které se týkají nejen výtvarné tvorby, ale převážně stravování (absence vepřového masa).

Další vzdělávání pedagogů

Vzdělávání žáků se sociokulturním znevýhodněním může na učitele klást zvýšené nároky, do práce se promítá problémové sociální zázemí některých žáků. *Učitelé tak mohou být, vzhledem k okolnostem, nuceni zaujímat roli terapeuta, což klade zvýšené nároky na jejich přípravu (Straková, 2011:83).* Stejně popisuje i H. Stadlerová roli pedagoga v projektu Speciální výtvarná výchova: *„Kromě schopnosti získat klienty pro tvorbu, vést je výtvarně, komunikovat, a to nejen v rámci tvorby, bylo třeba akcentovat u pedagogů kompetenci osobností a sociální“* (Stadlerová 2015, s. 171).

Zviditelnňovat pluralistické hodnoty a pracovat s identitou

„Tematika interkulturního vzdělávání ve spojení s pedagogikou umění se vztahuje k aktuálnímu stavu „obrazové kultury“, která nás obklopuje, tedy od obrazů každodennosti až po obrazy vysoké kultury“ k obrazům kulturních kontextů, obrazům ovlivněným globalizovanými médii, jež jsou rozpoznatelná například pouze v lokálních kontextech…“ (Uhl Skřivanová, Haišmanová 2013, s. 2).

Vlastní interpretaci obrazů nám umožní remix obrazů. V mnohém může převrátit zaběhlá schémata nebo společenské mechanismy. Remix jako tvůrčí princip není v umění ani v kultuře novinkou. Různé formy remixu se realizují především v nových médiích. Učitelé se shodují, že nová média jsou dostupná ve většině základních škol včetně základního technického vybavení (počítač, digitální fotoaparát, dataprojektor, případně kamera). Učitelé si uvědomují možnosti, ale většina postrádá vizi, jak komunikační technologie zapojit do výuky, a to přesto, že je většina využívá při přípravách do hodin. Jedním z výstupů projektu Specialní výtvarná výchova je funkční model výtvarných dílen využívající nová média ve výtvarné praxi. Zapojením interaktivního multimediálního systému přizpůsobeného k využití ve výtvarně – prožitkové práci s klienty ze sociálně znevýhodněného prostředí způsobem, který uvedla Zuzana Strakošová (Strakošová, 2008).
Podle Manové muslimští imigranti opustili svou vlast, ale součástí jejich psychiky se stala tzv. transnacionální kognitivní mapa, která v sobě zahrnuje ambivalenci způsobenou dvojí identitu. Aktivovali si ideje a normy hostitelské země, ale nadále jsou identifikováni s hodnotami svého náboženství. Mentální bikulturalita a zdvojená kulturní identita přetrvává v různě modifikované podobě i u druhé a třetí generace přistěhovalců (Soukup, Manová, 2016). Práce s fotografií a s novými médii představují cestu, která je schůdná i pro ortodoxní muslimy. Respondent potvrzuje: *„K fotografování nemáme žádné výhrady. My nesmíme sami kreslit nebo malovat osoby nebo zvířata. Vše, co má duši.“* Ambivalence a jistá neurčitost vyvstává při dotazování se např. na práci s didaktickými materiály určenými pro přípravu na ZŠ (didaktické listy podporující jemnou motoriku, omalovánky apod.), kde se výpovědi ze strany respondentů odlišují.

Učit se rozumět kognitivním bariérám (jako jsou stereotypizace a předsudky)
Marie Fulková upozorňuje: *„Pokud neproběhne kritická analýza umělecké produkce minulosti, s níž pracujeme nejčastěji, pokud možno ve všech možných úrovních interpretace a prouzkoumávání vztahů k současné kultuře a zároveň subkultuře dítěte, a pokud v této dialogické reflexi nevyslechneme taky žáky, může se stát, že setkání s Jiným proběhne na úrovni virtuální turistické nváštěvy v časové délce 2x45 minut a bude mít podobný efekt: výtvarné reflexe budou pohlednicemi z turistického výletu do minulosti (Fulková 2007, s. 272)*
V reflexi tradičně pojímané multikulturní výchovy (průřezové téma vstupující do výtvarné výchovy) se mluví například o zoo-efektu, který vzniká, když výuka opravdu sklouzne k tomuto výhradně normativnímu výkladu. Nevhodně zvolená aktivita může vzbudit implicitně dojem, že vše se odvíjí od jedné silně akcentované skutečnosti. V tomto smyslu je tímto způsobem pojatá výchova ideologická.
V edukačním procesu se setkáváme se dvěma základními přístupy. V obou vnímáme inspiraci odlišnými kulturními koncepty a autory. Důležité je vnímat, jaké konkrétní cíle si pedagogové při práci se žáky stanovují a jak je naplňují. Kulturně-standardní přístup vychází z předpokladu, že sociokulturní skupiny (etnické, národnostní) mají specifické znaky, které vytvářejí rozdíly a zapříčiňují nedorozumění v interkulturních kontaktech. Tento koncept je založen na přesvědčení, že je nutné neopomíjet zvláštnosti kultur, etnik a národností kolem nás. Kulturně-standardní přístup má výhody v tom, že rozšiřuje naše znalosti o jiných zemích a může nás připravit na kontakt s odlišností (Moore, 2008). Zároveň je ale kritizován za akcentování upozorňují na přílišnou orientaci na vnější symboly a rituály nebo rozvrstvení na kategorie „my a ti druzí“. Tak vynikají kulturní rozdíly, které mohou paradoxně vyvolat vytváření dalších stereotypů. V průběhu 90. let se tento přístup významně prosadil do české vzdělávací praxe, učitelé pracující tímto přístupem můžou vyvolávat riziko, že forma, jakou studentům představí určitou kulturu, nebude odpovídat realitě. Další důležitou kapitolou jsou pravidelně opakující se hodiny výtvarné výchovy na téma lidových tradic nebo křesťanských svátků, které se realizují zpravidla v rovině kulturní transmise. Vyžadují velkou poučenost

v oblasti kulturologie a folkloristiky, protože jejich současná rituální podoba, provádění a účinky prošly řadou mutací. Stejně důležité je neulpívat na vnějších atributech.
Učitelské pojetí Vánoc podle zkušeností z terénu je spojeno spíše s křesťanským kontextem se projevuje symbolickým kapitálem (znalostí ikonografie, znalost křesťanského mýtu. Tento kulturní kapitál, kulturní znalost, byl právě kladen učitelskou autoritou a z této pozice se mohla projevovat jako autorita. Témata související z tradicí mají pro učitele nádech posvátného přesahu a duchovního rozměru. Jsou pociťována jako autentická a poskytují obsahy, které je žádoucí transformovat v učivo. (Fulková 2007, s. 274) V rozborech konkrétních situací vyučování lze vysledovat kodifikované formy symbolického kapitálu jako je například kulturní znalost, popřípadě kulturní gramotnost. Výtvarná výchova dostává podobu kulturního vzdělávání, kterou učitelé považují za obzvlášť důležitou pro žáky cizince.
Tato tenze a lpění na kodifikovaných formách symbolického kapitálu přináší problémy pro žáky z ortodoxně muslimských rodin, kteří kvůli svému přesvědčení odmítají zobrazovat křesťanské symboly. V pedagogické praxi je to řešeno buď záškoláctvím anebo prací na úplně jiném tématu, jak vypovídá respondentka: *„Spolužáci dokreslovali betlém, já jsem si mohla dělat, co jsem chtěla.“*

Transkulturní přístup
Tento přístup začíná přemýšlením o příčinách a hranicích odlišností každého z nás. Nepracuje se soubory znaků té či oné skupiny určenými dopředu, nýbrž s konkrétními jevy a jejich odlišnými kulturními interpretacemi a ty pak virtuálně aplikuje na další jevy (Fleschig, 2000). Transkulturní přístup se zabývá konkrétními příčinami odlišností každého z nás na individuální úrovni. Vědomé i nevědomé složky naší kultury jsou nejvíce patrné při interkulturním kontaktu, kdy jsou tyto struktury také vystaveny největším změnám. Při setkání s druhými lidmi si uvědomujeme svoji identitu a její specifika. Relativizuje se význam sociálních skupin a jejich vliv na utváření identity jednotlivce.
Vybereme-li primární rámcové náměty založené na archetypech, budou vznikat práce se stejným námětem ale obsahově se lišící podle způsobu pojetí námětů v rozmanitých kulturních kontextech. „*Krajina, kterou děti kreslí se velmi liší podle toho, odkud přicházejí. Stejně tak třeba domy nebo zvířat*,“ vysvětluje učitelka.
Tento přístup se snaží postihnout jejich odlišné kulturní interpretace na místo dopředu určených znaků té či oné skupiny. Výhodou tohoto přístupu je odklon od stereotypů a cílený rozvoj citlivosti vůči jedinečnosti každé osobnosti. Pozitivum transkulturního konceptu spočívá ve snaze zapojit většinu i menšinu do společného dialogu, což znamená, že se již nesnažíme děti z odlišného kulturního prostředí přizpůsobit majoritě.

Náboženství jako determinující faktor
Z rozhovorů vyplynulo, že někteří učitelé reagují automaticky z pozic své vlastní kultury a vzdělání. Vezmeme-li v úvahu specifika islámského umění, jeho většina je neikonická a muslimské názory na zobrazování člověka mohou zahrnovat odmítnutí, jak už bylo řečeno výše. V České republice tento požadavek není zas tak obvyklý, ale v určitých komunitách hraje velkou roli, *Je nutné se zamyslet, v jakém symbolickém diskursu se nacházejí kategorie hodnocení, jako jsou jejich preference na škále možností individuálního výtvarného vyjadřování a znát různorodé a proměnlivé vyjadřovací prostředky obrazových znaků, jejich interpretačních kontextů a jejich kulturních kořenů*. (Fulková 2007, s. 280).
Muslimové se setkávají s problematikou figurálního zobrazování již při zápisu do základní školy. *„Při zápisu chtěla paní učitelka, aby děti kreslily postavu. Dcera tam nakreslila smajlíka. Manžel ředitele školy upozornil před zápisem na náš zvyk. Paní učitelka se tomu zasmála.“*

Pokud se nelze z rozličných důvodů vyhnout figurálnímu zobrazování (temperament dítěte, direktivní učitel apod), žák se snaží úkol obejít tím, že stylizuje zobrazení tak, aby se figuře co nejméně přiblížil: „*Udělám jen takový náčrt nebo obrys, prostě ne, aby to vypadalo jako skutečné*“. Další respondent uvádí, jak se stává, že jeho výtvarná tvorba nezapadá do žádného konceptu: *„Třída lepila panáčky z papíru, já jsem kreslila loď. Učitelka už ví, že nezobrazujeme lidi ani zvířata, a proto vždy dělám něco jiného, vázu, ovoce, loď a tak.“*
Rodiče ortodoxních muslimů cíleně pracují s aspektem nefigurativního zobrazování od čtvrtého až pátého roku, doté doby dětský kresebný projev nepovažují za důležitý řešit „*Jsou to jenom takové čmáranice, kreslí třeba maminku, ale jak maminka to nevypadá.“*
Při dodržování didaktických prostředků při výuce výtvarné výchovy a cílů RVP Umění a kultura by se tato odlišnost od majoritní společnosti neměla jevit jako neslučitelná. Někteří učitelé očekávají od žáka cizince podřízenost, kterou vysvětlují jako povinnost integrace. *“Jsou v našem prostředí, naší kultuře a měli by se přizpůsobit, když tady chtějí žít.“* Integraci vnímají jako proces asimilace, jehož výsledkem je přizpůsobení se většině a jejím zvyklostem do takové míry a takovým způsobem, že tento proces vede k úplné ztrátě vlastní etnické či národnostní identity, což z dlouhodobého hlediska (zvláště u druhé a třetí generace migrantů) může problematické opravdu být.
14. – 15. června 2018 proběhla v Praze mezinárodní konference Integrace na školách – vzdělávání děti migrantů, kde zástupci západoevropských samospráv představili vzdělávací modely, kladoucí důraz na inkluzi, transkulturní přístup a další vzdělávání učitelů. Vzhledem k tomu, že Úmluva o právním postavení uprchlíků říká, že Čl. 4 Náboženství Smluvní státy se zavazují zacházet s uprchlíky žijícími na jejich území alespoň stejným způsobem jako se svými vlastními občany ve všech otázkách, které se týkají svobody náboženství, jakož i svobody náboženské výchovy jejich dětí (Úmluva o právech uprchlíků, online).

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PUPILS OF PRIVATE SUPPLEMENTARY TUTORING AND THEIR PERCEPTION OF THEIR UNDERSTANDING IN MATHEMATICS

Gabriela Novotná

Abstract

Not much research has been done on pupils' perception of their understanding in mathematics, so this article offers a preliminary insight into this topic. It is being repeatedly shown that a vast number of pupils have serious deficiencies in their understanding in mathematics, which are often manifested by so-called mechanical knowledge. These difficulties can be dealt with more easily individually, so the private supplementary tutoring was chosen as a proper setting. Nineteen pupils of a private supplementary tutoring were given a questionnaire about their tutoring lessons in connection to their understanding in mathematics. Results have shown that they have various attitudes towards their knowledge and reasons for attending tutoring lessons.

Keywords: *private supplementary tutoring, mechanical knowledge, understanding, attitudes, mathematics*

1. INTRODUCTION

An imperfect understanding in mathematics is very often referred to as one of the key problems of pupils. Research has been done in the area of the prevention of so-called mechanical knowledge and its reeducation in the Czech Republic, but so far there has been no research aimed at the perception of mechanical knowledge by pupils. Authors mostly focus on education at schools, where there is usually no time left for the reeducation of mechanical knowledge. Not only this reason leads pupils to attend private supplementary tutoring lessons, nowadays more often than earlier. Moreover, not only pupils, but also their parents seek tutoring lessons, school teachers often provide tutoring as an extra income, likewise student teachers, who additionally get a priceless training. Despite all the above-mentioned reasons, private supplementary tutoring and its pupils are not researched much in the Czech Republic. Thus, my research combines two current topics and explores whether pupils who attend tutoring lessons have some decided attitudes towards the quality of their knowledge, and subsequently, if so, if one can change their attitudes within the tutoring lessons.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Private supplementary tutoring

Private supplementary tutoring is called variously, in the Czech Republic we mostly use "doučování" with the attribute "soukromé" (private) or "individuální" (individual); in English-speaking countries we may also encounter "tuition", "supplemental/supplementary education", "extra lessons" etc. Different names often cover different definitions, we incline to the one by Bray and Silova (2006):

> […] private tutoring is defined as tutoring in an academic school subject (e.g., Mathematics, History, or English), which is taught in addition to mainstream schooling for financial gain. This definition of private tutoring includes private tutoring lessons (offered by individuals) and preparatory courses (offered by institutions).
>
> (Bray & Silova, 2006, s. 29)

2.1.1 Private supplementary tutoring in the Czech Republic

Research in tutoring is rather neglected in the Czech Republic. Many studies have been written about individual work with students with learning disability which may be called tutoring, however, less attention has been focused on the tutoring of pupils without such disabilities. Within primary education, only some theses are available (e.g. Höschlová, 2012, Chramostová, 2014); within lower secondary education, as far as we know, B. Terreros and the author are theoretically engaged in tutoring. Higher secondary education tutoring is explored the most, thanks to V. Šťastný, who has done the only piece of quantitative research in tutoring in the Czech Republic so far.

In his doctoral thesis (Šťastný, 2016), the author compares collected data to international studies and analyses reasons for similarities and differences. He carried out a questionnaire survey in Prague and Moravian-Silesian region among last-year students of high schools (N = 1 265), led interviews with tutors (N = 22) and analysed tutoring advertisements at www.naucim.cz (N = 2 058). Some of his findings related to this study are discussed in the following section.

2.1.2 Reasons for attending tutoring lessons

Šťastný (2016) found out various reasons for using a private supplementary tutoring (see table 1), the most common answer was that a student had bad marks (63%) or that he/she wanted to be ready for a school-leaving exam (47%). The most frequently tutored subjects were foreign languages (59%) and Mathematics (53%)

I had bad marks…	63%
… because the school teacher could not explain schoolwork well.	43%
… because I had neglected learning and preparation in this subject.	39%
I wanted to be ready for a school-leaving exam…	47%
…its state part.	40%
…its school part.	27%
My parents wanted me to attend private tutoring.	30%
I wanted to learn something more, beyond the school curriculum.	27%
I wanted to be ready for a university entrance exam.	23%
different reason	14%
My class-mates attended tutoring lessons, so I have decided to attend, too.	8%

Table 1: Reasons for attending private supplementary tutoring lessons according to Šťastný (2016)

Mathematics belongs worldwide to the subjects that are most frequently sought for tutoring. Hille, Spieß and Staneva (2016, s. 111) state that one of the three most significant reasons for attending tutoring lessons is the grade at the last school report in Mathematics (together with a family income and location in East Germany). Behr (1990) says that tutoring in mathematics was used by 31% of students, Gießing (1997) reports even 50% of boys and 62% of girls. Silova, Būdien and Bray (2006) researched the popularity of tutoring in some countries of the former Soviet Union, finding out that in majority of these countries is Mathematics is the most common tutoring subject (weighted average of 47% pupils).

Nevertheless, there tend to be some differences in the motivation to attending tutoring lessons, above all between Asian and European countries. Researchers in most European countries agree that the most frequent reason for attending tutoring lessons is the improvement of pupil's marks at school (e.g. Bray, 2010; Hille, Spieß & Staneva, 2016; Šťastný, 2016). On the contrary, Korean pupils (as well as a great part of pupils from neighbouring countries) do not seek tutoring due to their insufficient school performance, but oppositely, very often is it successful pupils who want to deepen their knowledge. It has even

been shown that the more successful a student at school is, the more often he/she seeks tutoring (Lee, 2013).

2.2 Quality of pupils' understanding

Many authors deal with a quality of understanding in mathematics, primarily it is A. Sierpinska. She sees understanding "as based on either images or imagined feelings, situations, etc. or conceptual representations" (Sierpinska, 1994, p. 23). She suggests speaking rather about a *level of understanding*, or at least about "good understanding" (p. 16), which is being built when broadening our knowledge and its complexity.

R. R. Skemp talks about *relational* and *instrumental understanding*. He defines the relational understanding as "knowing both what to do and why", whereas the instrumental understanding is described as "rules without reason", because a pupil can formulate a rule, use it in a standard situation, but does not understand why it works (Skemp, 1978, p. 9). The author adds that none of the types of understanding should be rejected; however, for mathematics the relational understanding is more suitable due to its complexity, e.g. since it tends to be more permanent, more adaptable to new tasks, and easier to remember (Skemp, 1978, p. 12–13).

J. Hiebert and P. Lefevre write in a similar way about *procedural* and *conceptual knowledge*. Conceptual knowledge is characterised as "knowledge that is rich in relationships" and can be imagined as a web of knowledge where "the linking relationships are as prominent as the discrete pieces of information" (Hiebert & Lefevre, 2009, p. 3–6). Procedural knowledge consists of two distinct parts – a formal language or a symbolic representation system, and algorithms and rules for completing a task in mathematics. J. Star adds that both types of knowledge can be differently deep, complex, or alternatively shallow or restricted, so that one should distinguish between different levels of procedural and conceptual knowledge (Star, 2005, p. 407).

2.3 Mechanical knowledge

Mechanical knowledge is dealt with by many authors, the key approach for us is based on the Theory of Generic Models (e.g. Hejný, 2014), which explains its formation. Its author is M. Hejný, who described and further developed the approach of his father's V. Hejný. According to him, learning happens in five levels: motivation, isolated models, generic models, abstract knowledge and crystallization.

Motivation arises from the conflict between "I don't know" and "I want to know" and plays, according to Hejný, the fundamental role (Hejný, 2004, p. 27). A pupil who does not want to learn could be forced to do so only with difficulties. At first, a pupil starts encountering individual representatives of a concepts, in other words *isolated models*, on whose basis his/her image of the concept is being formed. After some time, the isolated models start referring to each other, relations between them are being built, and the pupil gains a better insight into the topic and is able to generalize. Later, the pupil forms *generic models*. Those are universal representatives of isolated models which can substitute for them – for example, a fraction can be imagined as a pizza (circle), a bar of chocolate (rectangle), a packet of sweets (discrete model), etc. The more generic models a pupil knows and actively uses, the better his/her insight is. Their knowledge becomes abstract (through the process of *abstraction*) and they handle work with the concept without a support by a model.

When the stages preceding abstraction are underestimated and a piece of knowledge in a pupil's mind cannot be supported by its isolated and generic models, the pupil resorts to remember it only by heart, and that is when mechanical knowledge arises (Hejný & Kuřina, 2009, p. 149). The level of abstraction, where pupils leave their natural language and start using symbolic notions, and level of *crystallization*, where new knowledge is connected to

preceding one, can be reached only hardly. This leads to a superficial understanding and an inability to apply gained knowledge to non-standard situations.
A reeducation of mechanical knowledge tends to be quite demanding. Firstly, the pupil must want to change their understanding (see the level of motivation), otherwise all efforts are vain, what after all showed the author in her diploma thesis (Novotná, 2015). This is the main reason, why a great potential is seen in the topic of motivation to change the quality of own's understanding and in attitudes towards mechanical knowledge, which has not been paid much attention so far.

2.4 Pupils' attitudes towards and perception of their understanding

Mathematics is commonly labelled as one of the least popular and most difficult school subjects (e.g. Hrabal & Pavelková, 2010; Chvál, 2013). In (Hrabal & Pavelková, 2010) the authors used a number of questionnaires to measure different types of motivation and attitudes, and show that attitudes towards mathematics among pupils worsen during their lower secondary education – popularity of mathematics sinks and its subjective difficulty rises (Hrabal & Pavelková, 2010, p. 204–205).
According to Chvál (2013, p. 50), it is very difficult to measure all three components of an attitude (cognitive, affective, and behavioural) quantitatively. Qualitatively, we can pose extensive questions to a respondent or observe their reactions when solving mathematics problems; but mostly, only the cognitive and affective components are measured. Accept of interpreting individual questionnaire items (like Hrabal and Pavelková), attitudes can be measured with indexes (like in PISA or TIMSS), or with a semantic differential (Chvál, 2013).
A survey about attitudes to and perception of mathematics was conducted, for example, by Code, Merchant et al. (2016) with undergraduate students. The authors used a questionnaire with 31 statements (and one filter statement) asking about seven categories[1] connected to attitudes; for this work, the category "Sense Making" seems to be of a high importance[2]. The respondents answered using a 5-point Likert scale.
Nevertheless, all the above-mentioned authors observe attitudes towards mathematics and its knowledge in connection to school education. As mentioned earlier, it seems more convenient to work with mechanical knowledge individually, such as during private supplementary tutoring. Links between pupils' perception of their imperfect understanding in mathematics and attending tutoring lessons should be further researched.

3. PILOT STUDY

This study was conducted as a pilot study for a part of a doctoral thesis, where we would like to answer the following questions:

- What are the attitudes of pupils who were diagnosed with mechanical knowledge towards the quality of their knowledge?
- Is there any connection between the attendance at private supplementary tutoring and pupils' attitudes towards mathematics and their mechanical knowledge?
- Are pupils aware of their mechanical knowledge in mathematics? If so, would they like to get rid of it, possibly by attending private supplementary tutoring?

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[1] The categories are Growth Mindset, Real World, Confidence, Interest, Persistence, Sense Making, and Answers.
[2] It contains five statements: I'm satisfied if I can do the exercises for a math topic, even if I don't understand how everything works.; I do not expect formulas to help my understanding of mathematical ideas, they are just for doing calculations.; In math, it is important for me to make sense out of formulas and procedures before I use them.; It is a waste of time to understand where math formulas come from.; When I am solving a math problem, if I can see a formula that applies then I don't worry about the underlying concepts.

A group of 19 pupils (6 females and 13 males, 11 to 17 years old) regularly attending private supplementary tutoring lessons in Mathematics were given a short questionnaire. It is necessary to mention that all respondents know the author for a longer time and have a good relationship with her. They were asked why they were attending tutoring lessons (open answer) and to mark their level of agreement with four given statements using a 5-point Likert scale:

- I like mathematics. (a)
- I am good at mathematics. (b)
- It bothers me when I don't understand something in mathematics. (c)
- It suffices when I know an algorithm how to solve something, I don't need to understand how it works. (d)

With each student a short subsequent interview was held, making sure their answers were interpreted correctly, and that they understood the statements. By three respondents it was found out they had misunderstood the last statement (d), so it was explained to them properly. Subsequently, they all changed their answer, but for no more than two points on the scale. Three pupils asked for an example for the statement (d), so the rule of three was given to them (as an example of subject matter often taught in a direct, transmissive way at schools).

4. RESULTS

Due to the size of the sample, no quantitative analysis of the data and no generalization is possible, nevertheless, there could be some trends visible. Basic description using arithmetic means[3] can be seen in table 2.

	frequency of respondents	(a) like M	(b) good at M	(c) bothers when not understand	(d) algorithm suffices
arithmetic mean all (AM)	19	2.79	2.89	1.74	3,05
AM females	6	3.00	2.83	1.50	2.83
AM males	13	2.69	2.92	1.85	3.15
AM grammar-school	4	3.50	3.25	1.25	3.00
AM secondary school	15	2.60	2.80	1.87	3.07
AM 6 "consistent" respondents		2.90	3.00	1.70	3.80

Table 2: Arithmetic means of collected data as regards to gender and type of school.

It seems that the female pupils claim lower popularity of mathematics but estimate better results than the male pupils, whose results are the opposite. Grammar-school students tend to like mathematics less and also self-evaluate themselves as worse than secondary school students, but there were only four respondents from a grammar-school in the sample, therefore no serious conclusions can be drawn.

The respondents claim it bothers them when they do not understand something in mathematics, only two respondents chose one of the choices "I (rather) disagree" and one respondent chose "I don't know". As a consequence, someone would expect the choice of disagreement in the statement (d), however, quite commonly it is not so. Only six respondents (called "consistent" below) chose two extreme points of the scale for the statements (c) and (d), five of them labelling statement (c) with "I agree" and (d) with "I disagree", and one other

[3] Points of the Likert scale were numbered 1–5, 1 for "I agree", 5 for "I disagree" etc.

respondent chose “I agree” for statement (c) and “I rather disagree” for (d). Ten respondents chose for both statements options between “I agree” and “I don’t know”, only one other chose for them the options “I (rather) disagree”. Due to the follow-up interview with each student, the possibility of misinterpreting the statements may be neglected; these results and their possible causes are discussed in the next section. Arithmetic means were also counted for the six “consistent” respondents, but no differences occurred, except for the statement (d), whose mean was slightly higher for this group (see table 2).
There is a tendency of congruence between statements (a) and (b), only by three respondents there was a difference of two points. Moreover, all four students who chose “I agree” for (a) have chosen “I rather agree” for (b) and “I (rather) agree” for (c). In (d) there were huge differences between their answers.
The reasons for and motivation to attending tutoring lessons can be divided into the following categories (see table 3), some respondents have given more than one category.

motivation	**reason**	**number of respondents**	**number of occurrences/respondents**
external	exam	6	12/11[4]
	I don’t manage at school	5	
	school marks	1	
indecisive	deficiencies of the school/teacher	2[5]	3
	revision	1	
internal	I like Math	1	9/8[4]
	I want to know something (better)	5	
	I don’t understand something	3	

Table 3: Reasons for attending private supplementary tutoring lessons.

None of the respondents mentioned reasons of the motivation of both types (external and internal). All three respondents from the “indecisive category” mentioned two reasons for attending tutoring lessons, so for the further analysis (see table 4) two of them were added to the “external motivation” category, and one to the “internal motivation” category, on the basis of the other reason given.

	(a) like M	(b) good at M	(c) bothers when not understand	(d) algorithm suffices
AM all	2.79	2.89	1.74	3.05
AM extrinsic motivation	3.00	2.82	1.73	3.55
AM intrinsic motivation	2.50	3.00	1.75	2.38

Table 4: Arithmetic means of collected data regards to type of motivation to attending tutoring lessons.

According to the means, the intrinsically motivated respondents (8) tend to like mathematics more than extrinsically motivated respondents (11), but, their self-efficacy seems to be worse. The biggest difference is in the rating of statement (d), nevertheless, the intrinsically motivated respondents tend to mind using an algorithm without a proper understanding less.

[4] One of these respondents mentioned two reasons.
[5] One of these respondents mentioned it in connection to preparation for an exam, the other one in connection to not managing at school because of the teacher, therefore, it could be seen as an external motive.

5. DISCUSSION

One of the most important results of this study is the finding that the students claim they mind when they do not understand something in mathematics. It seems self-evident, which is probably the reason why not much research has been done in the area of students' attitudes towards their understanding. However, the big discrepancy between the reactions to the statements (c) and (d) is quite striking and weakens the importance of this result. One of the reasons can be an incomprehension of statement (d), but due to the following discussion with each student about it, this should not be the case. Nor should be the reason an attempt to lie or appeal to the interviewer (author), since all the respondents have known her for a long time and have a good, fearless and open relationship with her. One may claim the respondents were not paying much attention to the questionnaire. This again is not likely, since, except of the above-mentioned claims, it was very short and took only several minutes to complete. One reason which could have caused the inconsistency is that some of the students are, in fact, not aware that using an algorithm or a procedure does not mean understanding how and why it works. If it is so, these students are probably of a false impression they understand mathematics well, and therefore do not even think about changing something. A different reason can be they have misinterpreted statement (c) and took "when I don't understand" for "when I can't solve". This might not be revealed even during the interviews, so further research would be useful in this area. Necessary will be also paraphrasing the statement, for example with the help of a concrete situation given to the respondents.

The aspect of gender was not the aim of this study, nevertheless, some tendencies have occurred despite the small and unbalanced sample. Females seem to like mathematics less, but self-evaluate themselves as better in it than males. In the Czech Republic, Pavelková and Hrabal (2012) came to similar results, namely that boys feel more talented than girls (difference in averages 0.27, N = 1612) and boys perceive it as popular more often than girls (difference in averages 0.13, N = 3106). On the other hand, Chvál (2013) found statistically significant differences in a dimension of evaluation of mathematics only between boys and girls of lower secondary education ($p = 0.008$, N = 4 108), Smetáčková (2018) in the fifth grade ($p < 0.001$) and eighth grade ($p < 0.05$). His results also support the trend seen in our pilot study that grammar-school students seem to perceive mathematics more negatively (Chvál, 2013, p. 59).

The conformity between statements (a) and (b), in other words, popularity of mathematics and pupils' self-efficacy in it is quite high in the collected data. Similar results are claimed by Smetáčková (2018), but Hrabal and Pavelková (2010, p. 38–39) warn that even though teachers often take it for granted, the correlation between popularity and school performance is rather low.

The most common reasons for attending tutoring lessons (usually given by ca 60% of respondents) according to the researchers are "bad school performance and grades" (e.g. Gießing, 1997; Šťastný, 2016). Within our data these reasons ("school marks" and "I don't manage at school") were mentioned six times (25% of all mentioned reasons). The difference in percentage can be caused by the small size of the sample. A future exam is often labelled as one of the most common motives, too (e.g. Šťastný, 2016; Dohmen, Erbes, Fuchs & Günzel, 2008). The other common reasons found by foreign authors (Gießing, 1997; Dohmen, Erbes, Fuchs & Günzel, 2008) like "effort to avoid a change of school" or "doing homework" were not mentioned in our data at all. The internal motivation, above all wants to understand something (better), is usually not mentioned as a reason for attending tutoring lessons by European researchers, although in our data it was mentioned eight times (one third). One may

argue the respondents who gave these answers were influenced by the statements, especially (c) and (d), but the question about their motivation was given to them prior to the statements[6]. Regarding the motives, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is often seen as negatively correlated. For example, Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar (2005) tested 797 3rd-grade to 8th-grade students in California and found a negative correlation ($r = -0.24$, $p < 0.01$). This result supports our data, such as the fact that the intrinsically motivated students tend to like the subject more than extrinsically motivated ones (e.g. Alci, 2015, p. 455).

6. SUMMARY

Only few pupils regularly attending private supplementary tutoring lessons took part in the pilot study. To understand their various motives and reasons for taking tutoring lessons, a bigger and more consistent sample is needed. Only then can we seek legitimate connections between their attitudes towards their understanding and motivation for private supplementary tutoring.

However, the pilot study described in this article has shown some interesting trends. But only with further research will it be possible to say, whether students and pupils do mind when they do not understand something in mathematics. It should also be investigated how they perceive the concept of understanding something, in other words, if mechanical knowledge (or procedural knowledge, instrumental understanding) is enough for them, and if we find out that it is not, if and how to let them know they may not really understand properly.

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[6] Only one respondent answered to this question subsequently, because he overlooked it.

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DESIGN-BASED RESEARCH OF A COURSEBOOK: RESULTS OF A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

Eva Ellederová

Abstract

The article presents the research methodology and first results of design-based research of a coursebook for English for specific purposes (hereinafter referred to as ESP) carried out in cooperation between the Institute for Research in School Education of the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University and the Department of Foreign Languages of the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication, Brno University of Technology in Brno. Besides the gradual development of a particular product for education needs, i.e. a coursebook, design-based research contributes to the development of both a dominant theory, in our case the theory of design and evaluation of ESP coursebooks, and new theories leading to an educational reform not only in ESP teaching and learning. The following chapters focus on research design, research tool and samples characteristics, data analysis and interpretation resulting from a questionnaire survey.

Key words: *design-based research, coursebook, intervention, iteration, evaluation criteria checklist, questionnaire, design principles*

1 Research design of design-based research of a coursebook for ESP

Design-based research (hereinafter referred to as DBR) can be characterised as systematic implementation, analysis, evaluation and development of a an educational intervention, i.e. a coursebook *English for Information Technology* (Ellederová, 2016) in order to advance our knowledge about the characteristics of an optimal version of the coursebook and to address the issue of the process of its design and evaluation by means of the production of design principles. The coursebook will be repeatedly implemented in the course English for IT for the students of the first year of the Bachelor's study programme English in Electrical Engineering and Informatics at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication, Brno University of Technology (hereinafter referred to as FEEC BUT).

The general objective of my DBR of the coursebook *English for Information Technology* is *to establish a link between the design of the coursebook and its iterative testing* (repeated implementation of the coursebook in the course English for IT) *for the purpose of evaluation and re-design of the coursebook* so that it would be the most appropriate teaching and learning tool for the target group of students. The intermediate objectives of my DBR are two:

1. evaluation of the coursebook with *the aim to collect information about its quality* by means of checklists and didactic pre-tests and post-tests;
2. a development cycle of the coursebook with *the aim to optimise the coursebook quality* by means of the production of substantive design principles (characteristics of the coursebook design itself) and procedural design principles (characteristics of the coursebook design approach).

On the one hand, the research is closely connected to the application sphere and, on the other hand, it includes the evolutionary production of specific procedures and tools, which may result in reflection upon the production of design principles and developing the existing theories of the coursebook design.

My research design is divided into one preparation stage and three realization stages. The preparation stage focuses on gaining an insight into the state of the art of DBR of learning

materials for ESP. Based on the literary research and establishing the conceptual framework, a research problem and research questions were formulated, and research samples and data collection methods selected. The aim of the *preparation stage* is to design data collection tools, which include (a) identification and elaboration of a checklist for evaluating the coursebook, (b) transformation of the checklist into questionnaire items and (c) design of didactic pre-tests and post-tests to verify knowledge and skills acquired by the students before and after using the coursebook.

The *first realization phase* involves implementation of the coursebook into lessons, and consists of these five stages which at the same time involve verification of research tools (a questionnaire and didactic tests):

1. evaluation of the coursebook by teachers,
2. pre-testing of students,
3. students' evaluation of the coursebook by means of a questionnaire survey,
4. post-testing of students,
5. data analysis and interpretation.

The research requires iterative cycles of the stages, which will provide the opportunity to reflect and establish what dimensions of each intervention were "non-negotiable" or essential components at the core of each intervention that could not be changed. Therefore, the *second realization stage* involves repeated implementation of the coursebook and the second iteration, i.e. redesign of the coursebook, its evaluation by teachers and students, pre-testing and post-testing of students and the second data analysis and interpretation. The *third realization stage* consists of two parts – the production of substantive and procedural design principles. The aim of this last stage is to characterize the optimal coursebook design, optimal research design and to draw up recommendations designed to improve educational practice.

The following chapters deal with one part of my research design: evaluation of the coursebook by means of a questionnaire survey conducted during the first iteration. The second chapter describes a research tool and research samples. The third chapter provides data analysis from which the substantive design principles result alongside with comparison of teachers' and students' responses.

2. Characteristics of a research tool and research samples

One of the intermediate objectives of my research design is evaluation of the coursebook by means of checklists which examine different aspects of the coursebook. To evaluate the coursebook by teachers and students, an *evaluation criteria checklist* was developed based on my own design as well as on the checklists created by such developers as Cunningsworth (1995), Sikorová (2007), Mol and Tin (2008), McDonough et al. (2013), and Danaye Tous and Haghigi (2014). Twenty-four criteria have been clustered into the following six categories: (1) General Aims of the Coursebook, (2) Clear Arrangement, (3) Accuracy, (4) Learners' Needs (this category includes three sub-categories: (a) Adequacy, (b) Learning Guidance and (c) Motivational Characteristics), (5) Language Content and (6) Language Skills. Characteristics of each category summarised in Table 1 were defined on the basis of synthesis of scientific knowledge from different sources (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Harmer, 2007; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Knecht & Janík, 2008; Maňák & Knecht, 2007; Průcha, 1998; Rada Evropy, 2001; Rinder, Geslin, & Tual, 2016; Scrivener, 2005; Sikorová, 2007a, 2007b; Tomlinson 2010, 2011; Ur, 1996).

Table 1: *Characteristics of each category of the evaluation criteria checklist*

	Category	Characteristics
I.	General aims of a coursebook	The aims of the coursebook are clearly determined and they correspond to the aims of the course English for IT. The coursebook enables learners to acquire linguistic means, language functions and language skills which they will use in different situations: in the subjects specialised in the field of information technology, while defending their Bachelor's thesis, communicating with colleagues, business partners and companies in the competitive international business environment of the information technology sector
II.	Clear arrangement of a coursebook	The coursebook is a hierarchically structured system whose individual interconnected components perform their individual functions. The coursebook is divided into separated thematic chapters (listed in the table of contents) where each chapter includes a wordlist and an answer key. Each topic, text and task in the coursebook follows a logical sequence. Consolidation/Revision of subject matter is always integrated after the previous whole. Supplementary learning materials are differentiated from the primary learning material.
III.	Accuracy	Both linguistic content (real content) and professional content (carrier content) in the coursebook are correct.
IV.	Learners' needs:	
	A) Adequacy	Subject matter in the coursebook (texts, tasks, vocabulary) is adequate to the language level of learners (B1+ according to *CEFR*) and to the professional level of learners (field of information technology). Texts and tasks in the coursebook can be accomplished within the time allowed.
	B) Learning guidance	The coursebook contains graphic symbols for different types of tasks, colour differentiation of different parts of the text, bold/italics highlighting parts of the text (e.g. key vocabulary). Tasks follow individual topics/texts. Each lesson begins with a warming-up activity that serves for stimulating learners and making them focus on a new topic (e.g. questions opening up creative thinking related to the particular topic). The coursebook contains problem-solving tasks, discovery and creative activities. Tasks in the coursebook allow learners to work individually, make a self-evaluation (e.g. with the help of the answer key), work in pairs and groups. The coursebook contains enough tasks for revision and reinforcement. Visuals (images, photos, drawings, charts, graphs, etc.) in the coursebook are not purely decorative since they perform a language learning and educational function.
	C) Motivational characteristics	Topics in the coursebook are authentic and they relate to study and professional purposes. Tasks in the coursebook allow learners to use a professional English language in authentic professional situations outside the classroom. Texts and tasks in the coursebook are stimulating and motivating.
V.	Language content	The range of professional vocabulary in the coursebook is adequate. Texts and tasks support vocabulary learning strategies (e.g. through the presentation of professional vocabulary in texts and tasks and with visuals). The coursebook contains enough tasks for the acquisition of linguistic means for expressing different rhetorical functions which allow learners to describe and give effective instructions about specific processes and methods, to classify and compare different devices within the field of information technology, etc.
VI.	Language skills	Reading and listening material as well as material for speaking activities are adequately covered. There is a focus on the development of reading (e.g. reading for gist, specific information and prediction), listening (e.g. listening for gist and specific information in monologues, dialogues and discussions) and speaking (e.g. giving a clear and well-structured presentation, interacting effectively on a range of topics within the field of information technology) skills and strategies[1].

The evaluation criteria checklist (see Table 2) was transformed into the questionnaire items presenting the respondents with a five-level Likert scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree). Each item included a box "Reasons Given," where respondents should explain why they specified the particular level of agreement or disagreement. Respondents could also add more comments on and/or objections to the coursebook itself. The *questionnaire for teachers*

[1] The term "strategy" is used in different ways. Here, the strategy refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions, which are systematically oriented toward attainment of the learners' goals.

focused on all above-mentioned categories of the evaluation criteria checklist. The *questionnaire for students* included twenty items focusing primarily on the category "Learners' Needs". Categories "General Aims" and "Accuracy" were left out because students' evaluation of the coursebook regarding these categories might be irrelevant.

Table 2: *Evaluation criteria checklist for evaluating the coursebook English for Information Technology*

Category		**Criterion**	
I	General aims	1	Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the course aims concerning the language use?
		2	Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the course aims concerning the professional content?
II	Clear arrangement	3	Is the external layout logical sequencing of chapters, topics, vocabulary) clear?
		4	Is the internal layout of texts and tasks clear?
III	Accuracy	5	Is the subject matter correct and accurate regarding language/professional[2] (field of information technology) content?
IV	Students' needs		
A	Adequacy	6	Is the level of texts and tasks adequate to the language level of students?
		7	Is the level of texts and tasks adequate to the professional level of students?
B	Learning guidance	8	Are different text features for guiding attention (e.g. different typefaces for distinguishing types of subject matter, bold print for highlighting key vocabulary) used in the coursebook?
		9	Do the tasks require problem solving and creative activity?
		10	Does the coursebook contain pairwork or groupwork tasks?
		11	Does the coursebook contain individual work tasks (e.g. those including the answer key for self-monitoring)?
		12	Are the visuals used as an integral part of teaching material?
		13	Does the coursebook contain enough tasks for recycling and reinforcement?
C	Motivational characteristics	14	Are the topics in the coursebook authentic and do they correspond closely with the students' field of study (e.g. examples from real-life situations, importance of knowledge and skills for the future IT career)?
		15	Are texts and tasks interesting for students?
V	Language content	16	Is the range of professional vocabulary in the coursebook adequate?
		17	Does the coursebook support vocabulary learning strategies (e.g. presentation of vocabulary in the text, tasks, with visuals)?
		18	Does the coursebook contain enough tasks for students to acquire linguistic means for expressing different rhetorical functions (e.g. description, classification, comparison)?
VI	Language skills	19	Is reading material adequately covered?
		20	Is there a focus on the development of reading skills and strategies?
		21	Is listening material adequately covered?
		22	Is there a focus on the development of listening skills and strategies?
		23	Is material for speaking adequately covered?
		24	Is material for speaking (dialogues, role plays, etc.) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions?

During the first iteration, the designed questionnaire was piloted with teachers of English language and teachers of information technology and telecommunication courses taught in English at FEEC BUT. All collected data was managed and analysed in *IBM SPSS Statistics 25.0*. To analyse the reliability of the questionnaire, the two methods were used. First, *Cohen's kappa coefficient* (κ), which measures inter-rater agreement for categorical items, was calculated. The raters were two experienced teachers with more than ten-year experience

[2] Language accuracy will be evaluated by teachers of English language; professional content will be evaluated by teachers of information technology and telecommunication courses.

in teaching ESP at universities and linguistic research in English for electrical engineering and information technology. After modification of the first version of the questionnaire, Cohen's kappa κ = 0.86 (91.67 % of inter-rater agreement) was obtained, which indicates the "almost perfect" level of inter-rater reliability according to Landis and Koch (1977, p. 165). Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured by means of *Cronbach's alpha* which tests to see if multiple-question Likert scale surveys are reliable. Cronbach's alpha showed the questionnaire to reach good reliability, $\alpha = 0.86$.
The research sample "Teachers" consisted of 13 respondents. The respondents who worked as lecturers prevailed (53.85 %). The length of teaching experience varied from six to ten years (23.80 %) and eleven to fifteen years (23.08 %). Ten respondents were teachers of English language and three respondents were disciplinary teachers of information technology and telecommunication courses taught in English. The research sample "Students" consisted of 23 respondents. Most respondents studied English for six to ten years (47.83 %) and they successfully passed the state school-leaving exam in English language (60.87 %). Two respondents held a Cambridge English Qualification: one of them had the First Certificate in English (FCE) and the other had the Certificate in Advanced English (CAE). At the end of the semester respondents received a printed version of the questionnaire which they should fill in at home and bring back to the lesson in which they took the post-test.

3. Data analysis and interpretation resulting from the questionnaire survey

This chapter focuses on analysis and interpretation of data in categories evaluated by both teachers and students. Comparing each category of the evaluation criteria checklist based on teachers' and students' evaluation of the coursebook, certain differences and similarities can be found as illustrated in Figures 1 to 7. The category "Clear Arrangement" (see Figure 1) was evaluated by teachers more positively than by students: 80.77 % teachers strongly agreed with this characteristic of the coursebook while only one half of students (56.52 %) strongly agreed.

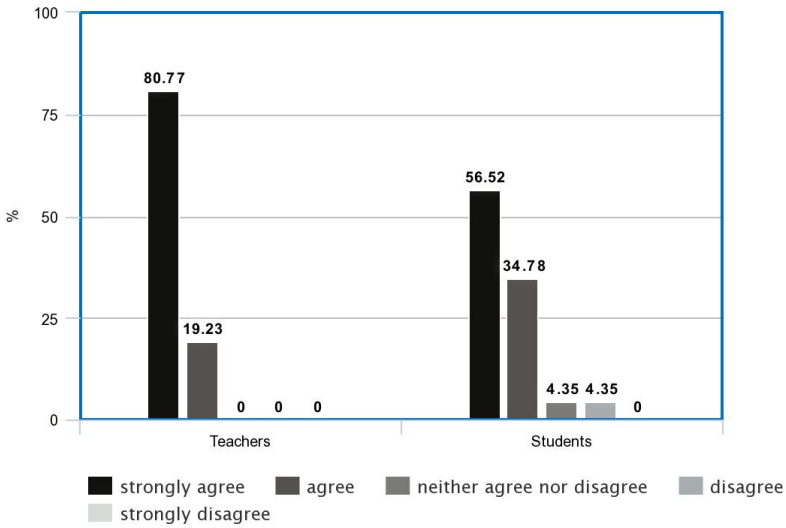

Figure 1. Teachers' and students' evaluation of clear arrangement of the coursebook.

As the chart in Figure 2 shows, teachers tended to strongly agree (65.39 %) with the optimal adequacy more than students (23.92 % strongly agreed). However, more students (52.18 %) agreed than teachers (23.08 %).

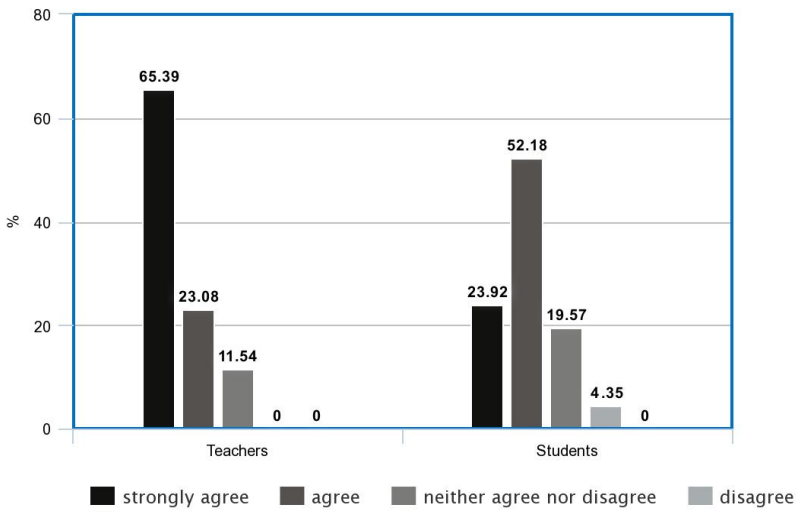

Figure 2. Teachers' and students' evaluation of adequacy of the coursebook.

There were no significant differences between teacher´s and students´ evaluation in the case of the category "Learning Guidance" where the degree of complete agreement was observed in about half of the respondents in both research samples and about 30 % respondents in both research samples agreed (see Figure 3).

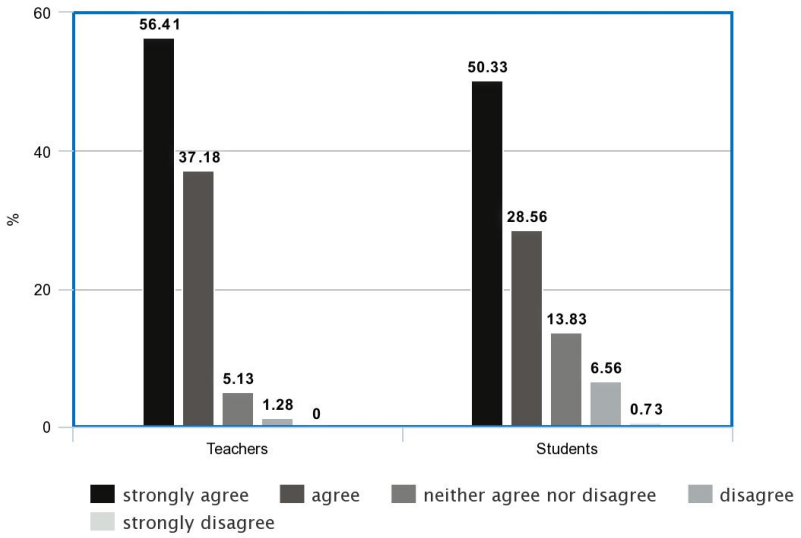

Figure 3. Teachers' and students' evaluation of learning guidance provided by the coursebook.

Comparison of the category „Motivational Characteristics" shows similar results in both groups of the respondents (see Figure 4) where there is no difference between a percentage of „strongly agree" (35 %) and „agree" (39 %). Despite this fact, in the case of the criterion concerning the attractiveness of texts and tasks students were more positive (almost 70 % strongly agreed and agreed) than teachers (0 % strongly agreed and 46.15 % agreed). One of the reasons might be that students have a better understanding of the topics and issues relating to their field of study than teachers of English language who made up 77 % of the research sample "Teachers".

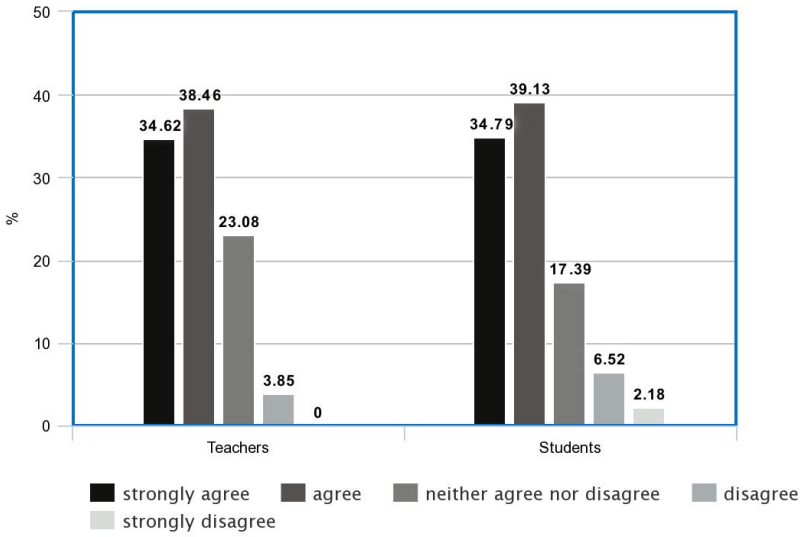

Figure 4. Teachers' and students' evaluation of motivational characteristics of the coursebook.

Regarding the motivational characteristics of the coursebook, students were more positive than teachers in the open-ended questions of the questionnaire: "I will definitely use a great deal of acquired knowledge in the furure. Most things were interesting due to the fact that I chose to study IT."; "The coursebook covers enough topics from the IT field, so everybody should find 'their own cup of tea'."; "Some tasks were less interesting because I wasn't not interested in the particular IT issue, but overall, all topics were interesting."; "'Interesting' might be exaggerated, but texts and tasks weren't boring."; „Regarding English coursebooks, the attractiveness of texts and tasks is above average…". The following examples illustrate slightly different teachers' opinions about the motivational characteristics: "The question whether the texts and tasks are interesting for students depends on the needs of the individual."; "Whether or not the texts and tasks are interesting varies from individual to individual."; "The attractiveness of the texts and tasks depends on the level of students' professional knowledge."

Regarding the category "Language Content" (see Figure 5), the rate of respondents who strongly agreed or agreed was about 88 % in both research samples. Both research samples commented favourably on the professional vocabulary range in the open-ended questions, as shown in the following statements by students, "The range of professional vocabulary is adequate. My vocabulary learning went smoothly with the help of the coursebook."; "I didn't know quite a lot of words before and I learned something new."; "We will need all those professional vocabulary terms for our future jobs in the IT sector. It's easier to remember vocabulary if every key word is repeated frequently throughout the particular unit…" and teachers, "Concerning the support of vocabulary learning strategy, the combination Topic + Vocabulary Practice + Wordlist is excellent…"; "I positively evaluate vocabulary practive in the coursebook…". Both teachers and students shared their opinion about the need to add more tasks for acquiring different language functions.

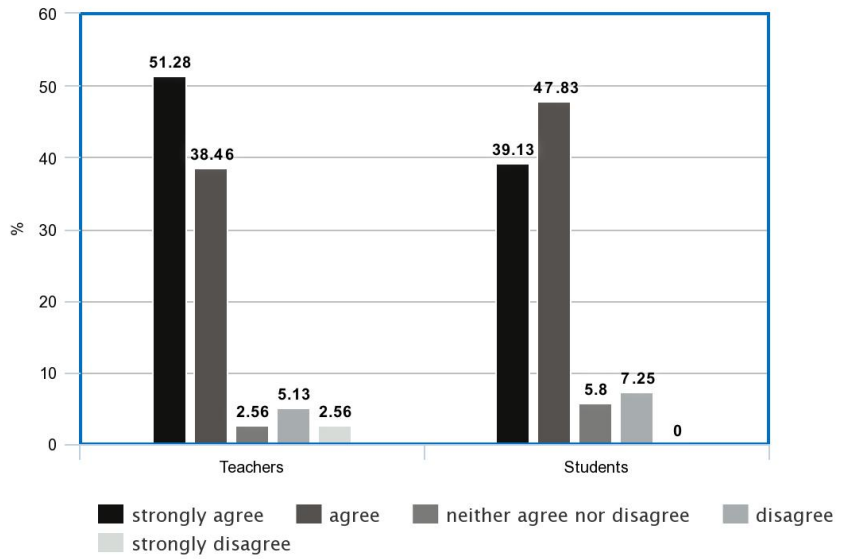

Figure 5. Teachers' and students' evaluation of language content of the coursebook.

Somewhat bigger differences could be observed in evaluation of language skills (see the chart in Figure 6). While over 60 % of teachers strongly agreed with this quality of the coursebook, 40 % of students strongly agreed or agreed. The biggest differences were noticed in the item concerning the development of listening skills and strategies (only 17.39 % of students strongly agreed compared to 61.54 % teachers) where students recommended to modify the listening tasks so that they could allow them to develop listening skills and strategies.

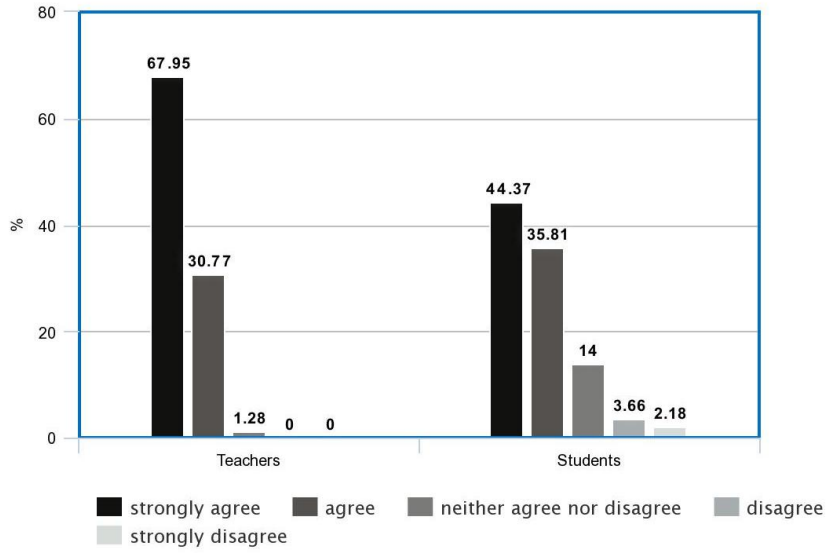

Figure 6. Teachers' and students' evaluation of language skills practised in the coursebook.

The charts illustrating the overall evaluation of the coursebook by teachers and students (cf. Figure 7) indicate that requirements of both groups of respondents slightly differ. Over 90 % of teachers strongly agreed or agreed with the overall quality of the coursebook, whereas the percentage of students who either strongly agreed or agreed was about 40 %.

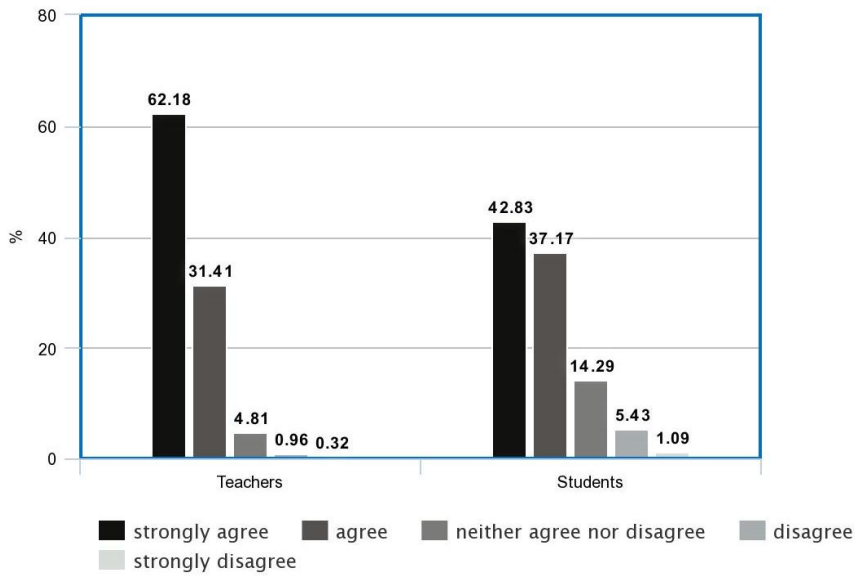

Figure 7. Teachers' and students' overall evaluation of the coursebook.

4. Conclusion

My research results have revealed that research of coursebooks should not ignore the opinions of students who might represent an interesting and valuable source for evaluating and designing coursebooks as some of the other research findings show (e.g. Wright, 1983, 1990; Nitsche, 1992; Kim, 2004; Knecht, 2006; Hrabí, 2007; Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Danaye Tous & Haghigi, 2014). Students' recommendations and requirements may not only complement teachers' comments, but also differ significantly in some cases.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected with the questionnaire has confirmed some of our research assumptions. Based on the synthesis of quantitative data and particular statements in both research samples, the following modifications of the coursebook will have to made:

- add more tasks for the acquisition of linguistic means for expressing different rhetorical functions;
- increase the level of difficulty of listening passages and add more tasks which will enable students to develop listening skills and strategies;
- add more problem-solving tasks;
- add more tasks for recycling and reinforcement;
- adapt (or add) some tasks that will enable students to work individually.

Furthermore, implementing the teachers' recommendation, graphic design of the coursebook is necessary to modify (e.g. differentiate tasks for each language skill using graphic symbols, change the layout of some texts and tasks) and phonetic transcription should be included in the wordlists. Other modifications of the coursebook content and form will result from the next part of my research design whose aim is to evaluate the coursebook quality by means didactic pre-testing and post-testing of students' knowledge and skills before and after using the coursebook. Then re-design of the coursebook will follow as well as the second iteration including implementation of the coursebook in the lessons, its repeated analysis and evaluation leading to the production of design principles.

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DIDAKTICKÉ VÝZVY OBRAZNOSTI VO VÝUČBE ODBORNEJ KOMUNIKÁCIE

DIDACTIC CHALLENGES OF IDIOMACITY IN THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Mária Polčicová

Abstrakt

Internacionalizácia je vo vzdelávaní nevyhnutne spojená s faktorom procesu samotnej výučby cudzieho jazyka, ktorá má v rámci odbornej komunikácie svoje špecifické postavenie. Súčasným trendom cudzojazyčnej prípravy na vysokých školách nefilologického zamerania je predovšetkým to, aby študenti získali schopnosť aktívnej komunikácie v cudzom jazyku v danej odbornej oblasti, čoho predpokladom je správne porozumenie a interpretácia odborného textu. Jedným zo súčasných trendov odbornej jazykovej komunikácie, čoho výsledkov je prítomnosť metaforických obrazných pomenovaní v odborných textoch, sa stáva príznak metaforickosti, resp. obraznosti. Každá iniciativa v rámci zlepšenia samotného procesu vzdelávania študentov v oblasti odbornej komunikácie sa stáva prínosom pre celú spoločnosť. Cieľom nášho príspevku je predstaviť a reflektovať prípadné didaktické problémy (na základe dotazníkovej metódy u študentov) v súvislosti s výskytom obraznosti, resp. metaforickosti v odborných textoch politologického zamerania a oblasti medzinárodných vzťahov.

Kľúčová slova: *obrazné pomenovanie odborný cudzí jazyk, vysoká škola nefilologického zamerania, vzdelávanie*

Abstract

Internationalization in education is inevitably linked to the factor of the process of teaching foreign language itself, which has a specific status within the special communication. The current trend of foreign language training at non-philological faculties is primarily aimed to give students the ability to communicate actively in a foreign language in a given field of study, which is a prerequisite for correct understanding and interpretation of the specific text. One of the current trends in professional language communication, which results in the presence of metaphorical idiomatic denominations in specific texts, becomes a symptom of metaphorism, respectively. idiomacity. Every initiative to improve the process of student education in the field of professional communication is a benefit for the whole society. The aim of our paper is to introduce and reflect possible didactic problems (based on the questionnaire method among the students) in relation to the occurrence of idiomacity, respectively. metaphorism in the specific texts of the political focus and the field of international relations and to reflect on them.

Key words: *idiomatic denomination, language for specific purposes, non-philological faculties, education*

1 ÚVOD

Výskum súčasného odborného jazyka, resp. odbornej komunikácie jasne deklaruje princíp výskytu obraznosti. V súvislosti s tým môžeme „obrazne“ život spoločnosti v súčasnosti prirovnať k neustálemu prúdeniu vetra. Dynamika a rýchlosť zmien, s ktorými sa stretávame vo všetkých oblastiach, sa stala súčasne akoby motorom vývoja. Otvorené hranice medzi

jednotlivými štátmi sa stali prostriedkom na urýchlenie prenosu nových myšlienok, podnetov. Pre oblasť vzdelávania sa výsledkom týchto zmien stala postupná a pretrvávajúca internacionalizácia, ktorá bola vlastne aj prirodzeným pokračovaním tzv. Bolonského procesu. Internacionalizácia je vo vzdelávaní nevyhnutne spojená s faktorom procesu samotnej výučby cudzieho jazyka, ktorá má v rámci odbornej komunikácie svoje špecifické postavenie. Oblasti odborného jazyka sa už v súčasnosti venuje značná pozornosť nielen zo strany teoretikov ale aj v rámci praktickej roviny. Každá oblasť odborného jazyka odráža súčasne viacdimenzionálne faktory spoločnosti – kultúrne, historické, etnické, sociolongvistické – a jeho výskum je súčasne aj prínosom pre proces globalizácie a multikulturality. Každá iniciativa v rámci zlepšenia samotného procesu vzdelávania študentov v oblasti odbornej komunikácie sa stáva prínosom pre celú spoločnosť. Cieľom nášho príspevku je predstaviť a reflektovať prípadné didaktické problémy (na základe dotazníkovej metódy u študentov) v súvislosti s výskytom obraznosti, resp. metaforickosti v odborných textoch politologického zamerania a oblasti medzinárodných vzťahov.

2 POSTAVENIE CUDZIEHO JAZYKA V SÚČASNOM VZDELÁVACOM SYSTÉME

Štúdium odborných predmetov v cudzom jazyku sa dostal do popredia záujmu nielen z praktického pohľadu, ale aj z teoretického pohľadu ,resp. z pohľadu vedeckého výskumu. Význam ovládania cudzích jazykov v súčasnosti deklaruje aj stanovisko Európskej komisie, ktorá uvádza viacjazyčnosť za devízu pre Európu a spoločný záväzok. Za jej priority patrí napr. aj zhromažďovanie údajov na monitorovanie pokroku v oblasti výučby a štúdia jazykov. Celý projekt Európskej únie je postavený na princípe jednoty v rozmanitosti. Jazyk má silu ľudí spájať, otvárať im nové možnosti poznania iných kultúr a prostredníctvom nich aj seba samých. Ovládanie cudzích jazykov je následne prvotným nástrojom úspechu a uplatnenia absolventov vysokých škôl. V súčasnosti sú zadefinované mnohé dôvody pre daný fakt, ide napr. o zvyšovanie zamestnateľnosti mladých ľudí a ich pripravenosti na prácu v zahraničí, ich vplyv na konkurencieschopnosť podnikov a podnikateľských subjektov. Nedostatočné jazykové znalosti znamenajú pre mnohé spoločnosti stratu obchodných príležitostí a sú prekážkou pre pracovníkov, ktorí by si chceli nájsť prácu mimo svojej krajiny.

V našom prípade Fakulty politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov Univerzity Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici zohráva ovládanie minimálne dvoch cudzích jazykov na úrovni referenčného rámca B2 pri absolventoch štúdia odboru medzinárodných vzťahov a diplomacie priam kľúčovú úlohu. Práca diplomata, politika či experta v oblasti medzinárodných vzťahov je priamo založená na interakcii s cudzím prostredím.

V prípade, že zlyhá jazyková kompetencia diplomata, má to priamy dopad na celý vývoj spoločnosti. Z tohto dôvodu pripisujeme problematike primeranej jazykovej kompetencie a najmä jej získavania u odborníkov v oblasti diplomacie, medzinárodných vzťahov i politológie celospoločenský význam.

3 ODBORNÝ JAZYK

Odborný jazyk, ktorý je súhrnom všetkých jazykových prostriedkov, ktoré sa používajú v oblasti vymedzenej okruhom istej profesie, čiže vedným odborom (Felber, 1986, s. 33), tvorí prinajmenšom tri štvrtiny písanej a tlačenej produkcie spisovného jazyka (Poštolková-Roudný-Tejnor, 1983, s. 10). Odborný jazyk, ktorý podlieha skúmaniu nielen lingvistov, si vyžaduje komplexné znalosti mnohých extralingvistických disciplín ako aj samotného odboru, pretože termíny ako pomenovania pojmu svoj význam často len naznačujú. Ich presný význam vie spravidla dekódovať len odborník alebo človek so všeobecným rozhľadom v danej oblasti.

Odborný jazyk, ktorý na základe typológie komunikácie zahŕňa napríklad oblasť právnickú, ekonomickú, technickú, vedeckú i mnoho ďalších, disponuje širokou škálou odborných pomenovaní, teda špecifických termínov či terminologických vyjadrení. Odborné texty sú spravidla nositeľmi deskriptívnej, inštruktívnej a direktívnej funkcie spolu s funkciou komunikatívnou. Práve preto sa nám zdá relevantné tvrdenie Drozda a Seibickeho (1973, s. 81), ktorí hodnotia odborný jazyk ako „súhrn jazykových prostriedkov, ktoré sú viazané na určitú oblasť ľudskej činnosti, sú charakteristické pre určitý špecifický štýl a odlišujú sa od iných štýlov".
Súčasný odborný jazyk vo svojej rozmanitosti vedných odborov predstavuje neustále sa meniacu oblasť vyjadrovacích prostriedkov a spôsobov pomenovania špecifických odborných denotátov. K významným posunom smerom k priblíženiu odborného jazyka verejnosti sa stalo aj uplatňovanie princípu obraznosti, resp. metaforickosti v samotnom vyjadrení odborného jazyka.

4 VÝUČBA ODBORNÉHO CUDZIEHO JAZYKA NA VYSOKÝCH ŠKOLÁCH NEFILOLOGICKÉHO ZAMERANIA

Vzdelávaniu odborníkov jednotlivých vedných odborov v cudzom jazyku sa venujú vysoké školy nefilologického zamerania. V našom príspevku sa venujeme didaktickým výzvam vo výučbe odbornej komunikácie na Fakulte politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov Univerzity Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici. Naši študenti majú možnosť v rámci svojho štúdia získať znalosti viacerých cudzích jazykov. V bakalárskom stupni štúdia majú ako prvý cudzí jazyk anglický jazyk a ako voliteľný druhý cudzí jazyk s výberom nemeckého, španielskeho, ruského a francúzskeho jazyka. Týždenná výmera je stanovená na formu 2 hodiny prednášky a 1 hodina seminárov. Uvedená výmera je odrazom smerovania jazykovej politiky fakulty, ktorej absolvent by mal zvládnuť, na základe odborných textov a tematickej literatúry, poznatkovú problematiku o krajine cieľového jazyka: históriu, krajinovedu, spoločensko-právnu skutočnosť i medzinárodné postavenie krajiny cieľového jazyka. Dôraz sa tiež kladie na zvládnutie terminologickej základne študovaného odboru v cudzom jazyku. Uvedený model pokračuje následne aj v magisterskom stupni štúdia, kde nastáva len zmena medzi prvým a druhým cudzím jazykom. Za negatívny aspekt považujeme jedine zaradenie druhého cudzieho jazyka v bakalárskom stupni, v magisterskom stupni následne ako prvého cudzieho jazyka do skupiny voliteľných predmetov.

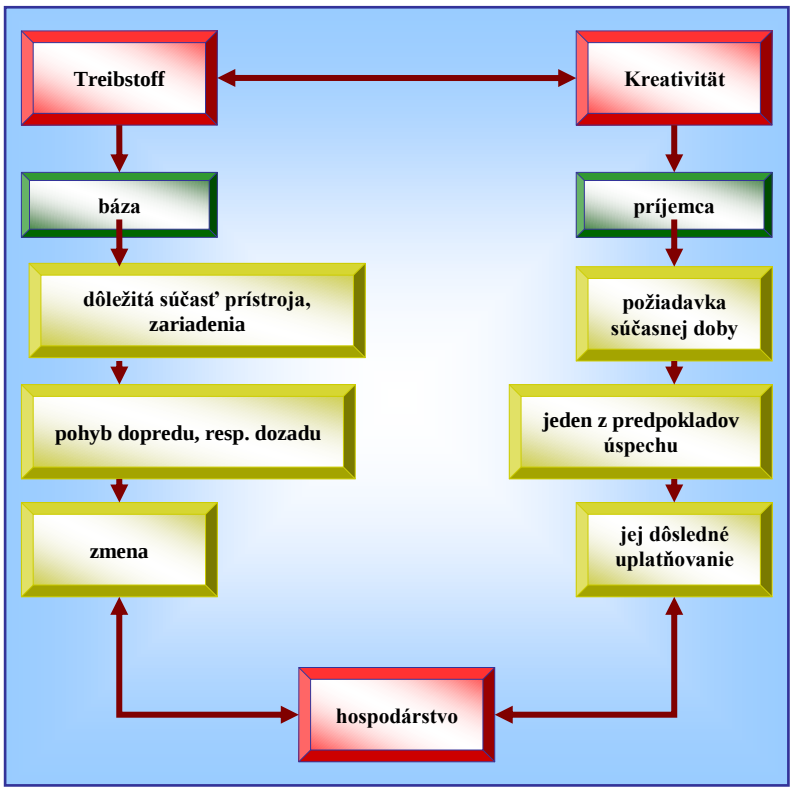
5 TEÓRIA METAFORY

Z hľadiska didaktických výziev je nevyhnutné v našom príspevku spomenúť v súvislosti so skutočnosťou bohatého výskytu obrazných výrazových pomenovaní v odbornej komunikácii pojem teória metafory. Pre náš doterajší výskum obrazných pomenovaní v odbornej komunikácii sa pre nás stal významný model Haralda Weinricha (1976), ktorý sa považuje za klasický model medzi modernými metaforickými modelmi v lingvistike. Vo svojej teórii používa termíny obrazné pole (nem. Bildfeld), následne báza obraznosti (nem. Bildspender) a príjemca obraznosti (nem. Bildempfänger) analogicky k používanému termínu Wortfeld v teórii lexikálnych polí . Podobne ako slovo nemôže existovať v jazykovom systéme bez akýchkoľvej vzťahov na paradigmatickej alebo syntagmatickej rovine, tak je potrebné aj metaforu zaradiť do súvislosti s jej obrazným poľom. Na základe uvedenej teórie sme postupne v rámci nášho doterajšieho výskumu odborných jazykov ekonomického, technického a právnického zamerania vytvorili konkrétne metaforické modely na základe identických báz obraznosti (Bildspender), ktoré korešpondujú s jednotlivými motivačnými faktormi: Išlo napríklad o metaforický model s motiváciou zákonitosťami pohybu, priestorovými súvislosťami, s motiváciou ľudským poznaním viacerých vedných odborov súčasne (medicíny, filozofie, psychológie, sociológie, teórie komunikácie, etnológie a pod.), s

motiváciou ľudským poznaním dejinných súvislostí, interkultúrnych špecifík jednotlivých národov alebo s motiváciou poznaním samotných vývinových štádií človeka a kritérií určovaných spoločnosťou, v ktorej človek žije.[1] Ako príklad uvedieme štrukturálnu schému obrazného metaforického vyjadrenia z oblasti ekonomického odborného jazyka z nášho výzkumného korpusu:

Kreativität ist nicht nur eines der großen Modeworte unserer Zeit; sie ist auch der Treibstoff, der Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft schmiert. (slov. Kreativita nie je v súčasnosti len jedným z mnohých módnych slov, je aj hnacou silou hospodárstva a spoločnosti.)

Štrukturálna schéma č. 1:



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Uvedený príklad sme zaradili do metaforického modelu s motiváciou zákonitosťami pohybu, priestorovými súvislosťami.

6 METAFORICKÁ KOMPETENCIA ŠTUDENTOV VYSOKEJ ŠKOLY NEFILOLOGICKÉHO ZAMERANIA

V našom príspevku sa venujeme konkrétne obrazným pomenovaniam, ktoré z hľadiska svojho výskytu v odborných textoch politologického zamerania a v textoch z oblasti medzinárodných vzťahov majú tendenciu spôsobovať študentom problémy v rámci porozumenia celého komunikátu.

V rámci nášho výskumu obrazných pomenovaní vyskytujúcich sa v politologických textoch a v textoch z oblasti medzinárodných vzťahov sme sa rozhodli i pre čiastkový prieskum v praxi, v ktorom sme sledovali „metaforickú, resp. obrazovú kompetenciu“ vysokoškolských

[1] Konkrétne metaforické modely so štrukturálnymi schémami sú uvedené v POLČICOVÁ, M. Modely obraznosti v jazyku odbornej komunikácie. Studia linguistica 3. Banská Bystrica : Ekonomická fakulta Univerzity Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici, 2007.

študentov. Poznanie takto vymedzenej časti lexiky nám môže poskytnúť nielen informácie o metaforickom pozadí odborného textu, ale získané výsledky môžu znamenať predovšetkým prínos v procese multilingválnej komunikácie, pretože poskytnú relevantné informácie o znalostiach študentov v rámci lexiky cudzieho jazyka, ktoré sú následne využiteľné predovšetkým z pohľadu výučby cudzích jazykov na odborných vysokých školách nefilologického charakteru.
Cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť prostredníctvom dotazníkovej metódy stupeň porozumenia textu, ktorý obsahuje práve obrazný výrazový prostriedok (metaforu, prirovnanie, metonýmiu). Vzhľadom na obmedzené časové i kapacitné možnosti výskumu sme zvolili obmedzený počet vybraných obrazných vyjadrení z vlastného korpusu získaného výskumom odborných politologických textov a textov z oblasti medzinárodnej komunikácie. Konečný počet jednotiek v dotazníku sme stanovili na 15. Dotazník pozostával z tabuľky rozdelenej na dve časti. V ľavom stĺpci dotazníkového hárka boli uvedené jednotlivé vyjadrenia v nemeckom jazyku, ktoré obsahovali obrazné pomenovanie. Do pravého stĺpca bolo úlohou respondentov uviesť dané vyjadrenie (vetu, vetné spojenie) v slovenskom jazyku. Dotazník bol anonymný, všetci účastníci prieskumu boli vopred informovaní o účeloch i ďalšom spracovaní získaného materiálu.
Výskum za použitia dotazníka sme realizovali v priebehu dvoch akademických rokov. Konečné množstvo respondentov (študenti 3. ročníka bakalárskeho štúdia Fakulty politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov a študenti 4. ročníka magisterského štúdia Fakulty politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov) bolo 50, z toho prevládali študenti odboru medzinárodné vzťahy (41).

6.1 Analýza výsledkov prieskumu

Pri výbere samotnej metodiky analýzy prieskumu sme sa inšpirovali Benčekovou (2013), ktorá na základe dotazníkového prieskumu skúmala komunikačný potenciál frazém na komparácii anglického jazyka a slovenského jazyka.
V prvej fáze hodnotenia sme rozdelili všetky analyzované jednotky do kategórií rozumiem – nerozumiem. Študenti mali jednoduchým spôsobom odpovedať, či chápu danej textovej jednotke. V druhej fáze hodnotenia mali študenti sami zvoliť adekvátny prekladový variant uvedenej jednotky. Obe porovnania výsledkov týchto fáz priniesli zaujímavé výsledky. Mnohí študenti síce vedeli nájsť ekvivalent (vo viacerých prípadoch išlo o doslovný preklad daného obrazného vyjadrenia), avšak nechápali jeho význam v kontexte odborného textu.

Tabuľka 1: Prehľad odpovedí študentov v prvej fáze hodnotenia

Jazyková jednotka s obrazným pomenovaním	rozumiem	nerozumiem
a	9	41
b	15	35
c	10	30
d	15	35
e	20	30
f	10	40

Tabuľka 2: Prehľad odpovedí študentov v druhej fáze hodnotenia

Jazyková jednotka s obrazným pomenovaním	Správny prekladový variant[2]	Nesprávny prekladový variant
a	11	39
b	40	10
c	40	10
d	40	10
e	30	20
f	50	0

Pre lepšiu ilustráciu uvádzame výber konkrétnych jazykových jednotiek použitých priamo v dotazníku spolu so správnym prekladovým variantom, resp. vysvetlením v danom kontexte.

a. *blockfreie Staaten* (slov. antiblokové štáty, t.j. štáty, ktoré sa po zániku koloniálnych veľmocí po druhej svetovej vojne nepriradili ani k jednému z novo sa vytvárajúcich blokov, t.j. západného a východného, komunistického a kapitalistického, ale deklarovali v rámci svojich politických cieľov spoločné princípy antikolonializmu, antiimperializmu, antirasizmu)

b. *Die Politik in der Zeitspanne von der politischen Wende bis zum Ende des tschechoslowakischen Staates ist weitgehend repräsentiert worden durch Intelektuelle der grauen Zone, die sich passiv mit dem staatssozialistischen System arrangiert hatten.* (slov. intelektuáli sivej zóny)

V uvedenom príklade ide o charakteristiku politického diania istej časovej epochy, resp. jej aktérov v bývalom Československu od roku 1948 až po jeho zánik, resp. rozdelenie na dva nezávislé subjekty. Na jej vyjadrenie sa využil semantický príznak farby grau ako niečo šedé, nevýrazné, neproduktívne, nedynamické

c. *Die neue Regierung der BRD – ein Pyrrhussieg?"* (slov. Nová vláda v Nemecku – Pyrhovo víťazstvo?)

V uvedenom príklade sa bázou na prenos obraznosti stala historická osobnosť ako aktér politiky, konkrétne jeho citát „Noch so ein Sieg und wir sind verloren" (slov. Ešte jedno takéto víťazstvo, a sme stratení), ktorý vystihuje skutočnosť, že síce bolo dosiahnuté víťazstvo, ale za cenu obrovských strát. V našom korpuse sa tento výraz používal na pomenovanie istej stratégie, resp. rozhodnutí v rámci vnútornej politiky SRN po voľbách, kde bude pre dosiahnutie spoločného záujmu nevyhnutne potrebný kompromis zúčastnených strán.

d. *Politik auf Gehorsam und Befehl* (slov. politika príkazov, pravidiel a poslušnosti)

V príklade sa na bázu prenosu obraznosti pre popis typológie politiky použili sémy konkrétnej činnosti, napr. poslušnosť, príkaz, pravidlo, ktoré v spojení s menom Angely Merkelovej vytvárajú obraz konzervatívnej politiky vychádzajúcej najmä z tradičných hodnôt, v rámci ktorých sa neposkytuje priestoru na prienik novým ideám, resp. výzvam.

e. *Kein Wunder, dass sich in den europäischen und nordamerikanischen Gesellschaften eine nachhaltige Interventionsmüdigkeit breitmacht.* (slov. trvalý stav, keď intervencia ako istá stratégia na riešenie konfliktu v medzinárodnej politike už neprináša žiaden efekt)

f. *Das Weißbuch zur Sicherheitspolitik und zur Zukunft der Bundeswehr ist das oberste sicherheitspolitische Grundlagendokument Deutschlands.* (slov. Biela kniha bezpečnostnej politiky BRD)

[2] Analýzaadekvátnosti jednotlivých prekladových variantov nebola predmetom tohto príspevku.

V analýze výsledkov prieskumu sme zjednodušili vyhodnocovanie kategorizovaním skúmaných jednotiek do piatich skupín (index 1 – 5) podľa percentuálneho vyjadrenia úspešnosti jednotlivých zložiek dotazníka:

1.skupina	index 1 (100% - 80%)
2.skupina	index 2 (79 – 60%)
3.skupina	index 3 (59 – 40%)
4.skupina	index 4 (39 – 20%)
5.skupina	index 5 (19 – 0%)

Z výsledkov úspešnosti vyplýva, že v prvej fáze hodnotenia nebol dosiahnutý index 1 a 2, najvyššiu hodnotu úspešnosti, tj. index 3 dosiahla len jazyková jednotka s obrazným pomenovaním e. Najviac zastúpenou skupinou bola 4. skupina s indexom úspešnosti 4 (39 – 20% študentov porozumeli jazykovej jednotke). V druhej fáze hodnotenia priniesol lepšie výsledky. Index 1 (100% - 80% respondentov určili správny prekladový ekvivalent) bol zastúpený v príkladoch b, c, d, f. Vyplýva to zo skutočnosti, ktorú sme už uviedli. Vo väčšine prípadov išlo o doslovný preklad jednotiek, čo študentov nespôsobuje až také problémy. Celkovo však môžeme vyhodnotiť nízku úroveň metaforickej kompetencie respondentov, pretože síce si vedeli preložiť uvedené jazykové jednotky, avšak nedokázali ich správne interpretovať, a tým pochopiť v danom kontexte.

7 ZÁVER

Cieľom nášho príspevku v širšom kontexte odbornej komunikácie bolo zistenie a následne načrtnutie istých problémom, ktoré predstavujú obrazné, resp. metaforické pomenovania v odborných textoch a návrh možného riešenia v praxi, t.j. priamo vo výučbe odbornej komunikácie na príklade odborného jazyka z oblasti politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov.

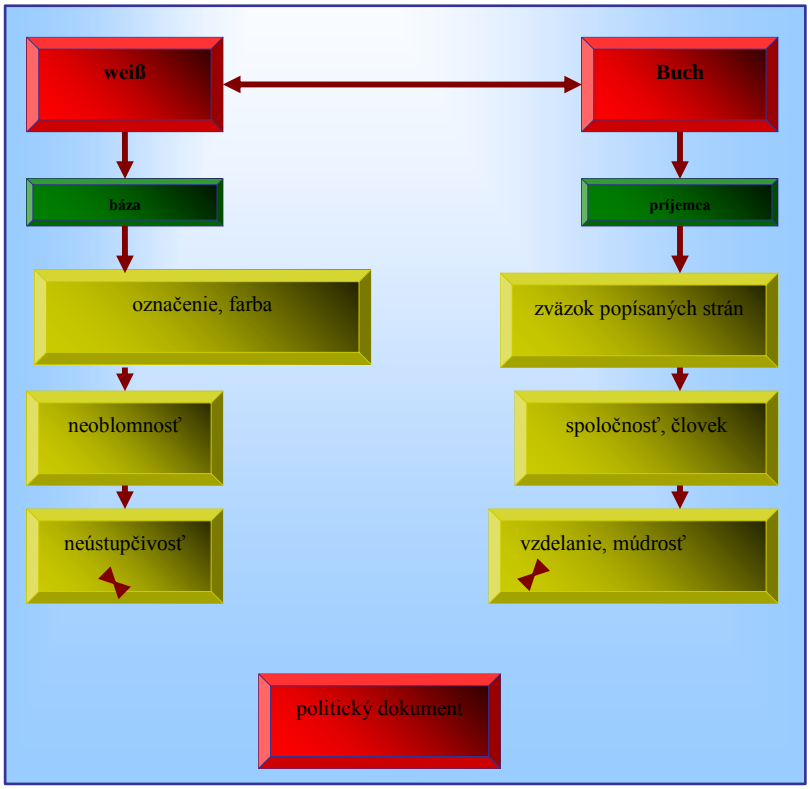
Ako som už uviedla, didaktickým výzvam odborného jazyka na príklade konfrontácie anglického a slovenského jazyka sa venuje Benčeková (2013), ktorá podobne pri dotazníkovom prieskume stupňa ovládania frazém v konfrontácii anglického a slovenského jazyka u študentov Fakulty politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov zistila neuspokojivé výsledky v podobe nedostatočnej úrovni frazeologickej kompetencie študentov. Súčasne nastoľuje problematiku zaradenia frazeológie do jazykového programu vysokých škôl nefilologického smeru. Výskumná činnosť by mala reflektovať požiadavky praxe, nebyť naplnená len teoretickým obsahom, ale mala by naznačiť využitie, poskytnúť možné východiská, zmeny, vylepšenia. (Benčeková, 2013)

Na základe našej analýzy výsledkov prieskumu stupňa metaforickej kompetencie pri študentoch Fakulty politických vied a medzinárodných vzťahov Univerzity Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici pri konfrontácii nemeckého a slovenského jazyka sme podobne zistili neuspokojivé výsledky, čo v konečnom dôsledku predstavuje nízky stupeň porozumenia textu, ktorý obsahuje práve obrazný výrazový prostriedok (metaforu, prirovnanie, metonýmiu). V súvislosti so zameraním a profilom absolventa našej školy je to súčasne značné riziko. Metaforické pomenovania sú v súčasnosti frekventovaným jazykovým javom nielen odborných textov ale aj publicistických textov. Chybná interpretácia takéhoto komunikátu zo strany diplomata, experta na medzinárodné vztahy či politologa je problémom celej spoločnosti, a preto je potrebné venovať aj danému faktu pozornosť v procese prípravy študentov.

V rámci špecifík metaforických pomenovaní (v rámci ich výskytu aktuálnosť, špecifickosť motivácie v procese nominácie, expresívnosť, obraznosť, komunikačná kompetencia, v rámci

sprostredkovania odborných poznatkov napr. pútavosť, oživenie textu[3]) by sme navrhovali nevyhnutnosť zaradenia základných znalostí samotnej teórie metafory, t.j. princípu prenosu jednotlivých sém v rámci obrazného pomenovania, ktoré by pomohlo študentov pochopiť samotný proces vzniku metafory, a tým by im umožnilo lepšie pochopiť samotný význam danej lexikálnej jednotky, resp. spojenia. Pre konkrétnu ilustráciu uvádzam príklad štrukturálnej schémy prenosu sém jednej lexikálnej jednotky, ktorá bola aj súčasťou dotazníka predloženého študentom. Uvedená aktivita by sa mala stať súčasťou práce s textom na seminároch v praktickej rovine. V teoretickej časti by si daná aktivita vyžadovala prezentáciu základných princípov teórie metafory, keďže na našej fakulte máme k dispozícii výmeru pre odborný cudzí jazyk vo forme 2 hodiny prednášky/1 hodina seminár týždenne. Jedným z možných riešení je aj ponuka samostatného predmetu pre študentov, kde by sa podrobne dozvedeli o uvedených princípoch a ich praktickej aplikácii, ktorá je jedným z možných spôsobov zvýšenia ich jazykovej kompetencie porozumenie odborného textu.

Štrukturálna schéma 2 výberového príkladu*:*
Das Weißbuch zur Sicherheitspolitik und zur Zukunft der Bundeswehr ist das oberste sicherheitspolitische Grundlagendokument Deutschlands. (slov. Biela kniha bezpečnostnej politiky BRD.)



Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

V praxi by to znamenalo súčasne priestor pre študentov samostatne si vytvárať následné štrukturálne schémy prenosov jednotlivých semantických príznakov daných lexikálnych jednotkách.

[3] Uvedené výsledky sú publikované v monografii POLČICOVÁ, M. Modely metafory v odbornom ekonomickom jazyku. Studia linguistika 2, Univerzita Mateja Bela, Ekonomická fakulta v Banskej Bystrici v spolupráci s OZ Ekonómia, 2006 a POLČICOVÁ, M. Modely obraznosti v jazyku odbornej komunikácie. Studia linguistica 3. Banská Bystrica : Ekonomická fakulta Univerzity Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici, 2007.

Súčasným trendom cudzojazyčnej prípravy na vysokých školách odborného zamerania je predovšetkým to, aby študenti získali schopnosť aktívnej komunikácie v cudzom jazyku v danej odbornej oblasti. V tejto súvislosti je potrebné na vysokých školách nefilologického zamerania, v našom prípade zamerania na politické vedy a medzinárodné vzťahy, venovať pozornosť trendom súčasného odborného jazyka a zamerať sa na komunikatívnu formu prípravy. Jedným z uvedených trendov je aj trend obraznosti, resp. metaforickosti. Komunikatívny záber konkrétnej práce s textom, ktorá sa zaraďuje v rámci celého vyučovacieho procesu medzi významné zložky prípravy, je orientovaný na prácu s odbornými textami, s textami z odborných časopisov a literatúry. Cieľom uvedenej zložkovej prípravy je nielen získať informácie, ktoré poskytuje daný text, ale aj ich aktívne spracovanie.

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THE CONTEXTS OF THE TEACHING CAREER PROSPECTS IN SLOVAKIA

Ivan Pavlov, Miroslav Krystoň

Abstract

The teaching career and its prospect have specific features determined by the professional context. Correct understanding and support of career self-development in teachers represent factors of their professionalisation and teaching quality improvement. It requires a detailed analysis of the contexts in which the teaching profession is performed since they determine the career success in individuals, work groups and schools. Scientific-theoretical and practical-applicative contexts belong among the key contexts documented on four hierarchical levels. Supporting career self-development through career education and consultancy represent specific aspects of the teaching career.

Keywords*: *teaching, career, supporting professional development, education, consultancy

1 INTRODUCTION

In the recent years, the effort to professionalise teaching has been related to the expectations regarding an increased quality of the pedagogical activities and pupils' study results. The concept of professionalisation consists of several components including the support of professional (career) development among teachers (Pavlov, 2017). Besides increasing salaries, improving the quality of pre-gradual preparation and more careful selection of candidates, the EC (2014, 2015) recommends new strategies aiming to support teachers in their pedagogical activities. The measures are focused mainly on the professional development of teachers in the schools which presuppose systemic changes; teachers supported in their professional development are expected to become active participants in the process and the school managements are also expected to provide effective support. Supporting professional development in teachers is specifically reflectedin the fact that professional career models providing conditions for professional competence development in teachers are created during their whole careers. At the same time, professionalisationtools which can affect the deepest structures of professionalism (professional learning) in teaching are sought; these can be perceivedas support in the individual career prospect (development and self-development). If teaching is to be professionalised by applying innovative models of professional career and support for the individual career development, the contribution of the relevant theories in the specific environment where teaching is performed needs to be evaluated.

The teaching career prospect is a set of achievable goals in terms of formal career levels (positions) as well as an opportunity to achieve success and personal satisfaction (recognition and appreciation) in one's profession. The career prospect represents an opportunity for the individual to self-realise in their professional life; the successful formal career advancement is hereby connected with the improving professional identity, integrity and professionalisation of one's teaching activities. The career prospect is based on one's professional and personal values; it requires self-understanding, aspirations, planning and persistent self-development effort which can and should be supported and guided externally. The term teaching "career" suffers from persisting pejorative (derogatory) connotations immediately evoking "careerists" who climb the career ladder unscrupulously. In schools, this career development is seen as the progress from one functional position to another (deputy school director, school director,

inspector). Career can be defined in numerous ways (ELGPN, 2015, p. 9.) which illustrate specific theoretical understanding which affects the practical activities. According to (Bělohlávek, 1994; ELGPN 2016; Procházka et. al., 2015), the (teaching) career includes e. g. purpose, functions and career prospect, career planning and management, career cycle (stages), career development and its support, career success, career anchors, career consultancy, career management competences, etc. These concepts have been properly addressed in theory, however, they lack implications for specific contexts of adult professional life. In terms of the teaching profession, the career refers to the part of a person's life during which they work – perform pedagogical activities at school. The term career comprises multilateral aspects and it cannot be limited to success in terms of job promotion. The career is a way towards proper understanding of human work and personal life. In the context of the teaching profession, the traditional managerial understanding of the career (a string of promotions moving the person upwards in the organisational hierarchy) is insufficient since it only applies to those aspiring for new qualifications in the school management. The aim of the teaching career is to improve one's expertise and professionalism as a teacher. The task of the scientific theory and career practice support at schools is to find tools which can support the unique purpose of the teaching career. Here we can speak of the specialised (parallel) or expert career (Hargašová – Lepeňová 2012, pp. 9–12), focused on improving one's expertise in terms of the response to the expected quality of the pedagogical activities and accepting responsibility for the more demanding specialised activities (mentor teacher, training teacher, methodology manager) or formal career development. The relationship between the managerial and expert concepts of the teaching career represents an area which has not yet been researched. Truly professional teachers can achieve higher authority then their workplace supervisors. The authority resulting from continually improved expertise is permanent apart from the authority resulting from an executive job position (which can be lost). The professional career is closely related to education and self-development as well as the support provided by the schools. The issue of career is not limited to professionals, it is of importance for the whole organisations. Through individual (career) development the school as a whole can develop, therefore supporting the teachers in their careers is of key importance in terms of development.

2 TEACHING CAREER CONTEXTS

Individual career can be discussed in different contexts; for the purpose of this paper, two specific ones were selected. In these contexts the teaching profession gains specific features (observable, analysable and applicable approaches):

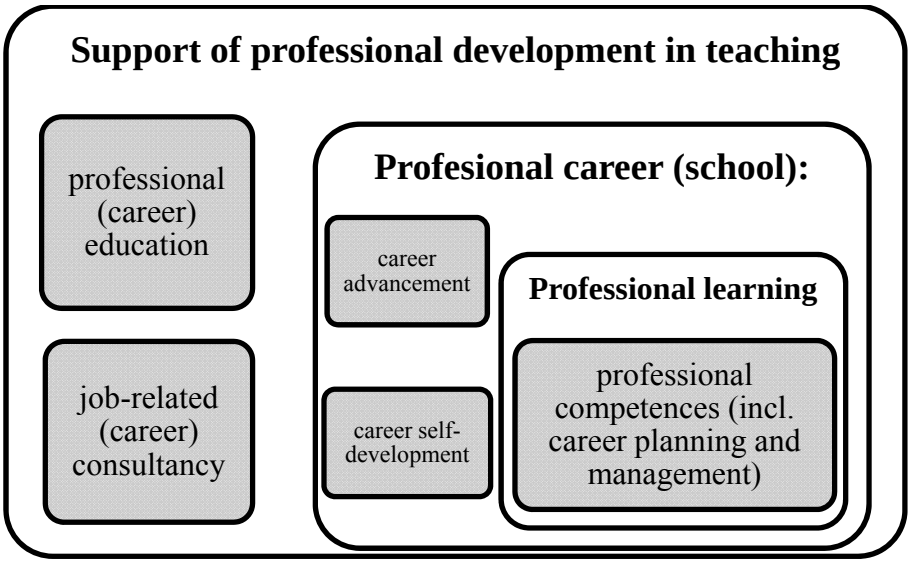
1. The scientific-theoretical context in teaching provides the background for multiple disciplines which differ in the level of scientific knowledge pertaining to the career-related processes in the individual's life: sociology (profession), psychology (work), (applied) ethics, andragogy (profession), management (school), policy (educational), economy (education), etc.
2. The Practical-applicative context in teaching materialises in the working conditions – the school environment (in education and upbringing of children and pupils). The teaching career materialises in these two dimensions. Formal career (legally specified procedure) – moving up the career ladder in the vertical hierarchy of job positions. Informal career – active career self-development supported by the school management on both individual and collective levels.

The practical-applicative context makes use of teaching (profession) andragogy as a practical science (Pavlov, 2017), which offers a broad range of theoretical knowledge on upbringing,

education and adult consultancy regarding their professional performance and career management.

Scheme 1 represents the relationships among the process of professional learning in the deep psychical structures of one's personality focused on acquisition, enhancing and extending professional teaching competences (including the career planning and management competences). Through professional learning, the individual develops their own professional career (career progress and self-development) in their workplace (school). All these activities take place in the broadest framework support for professional development in teaching provided externally (school management) in the form of professional (career) development and consulting available to both individuals and teams.

Scheme 1: Contexts of the support for professional development in the teaching career (authors)



Both these contexts overlap on different levels of hierarchy:

a) International level (e. g. UNESCO, OECD, EU)

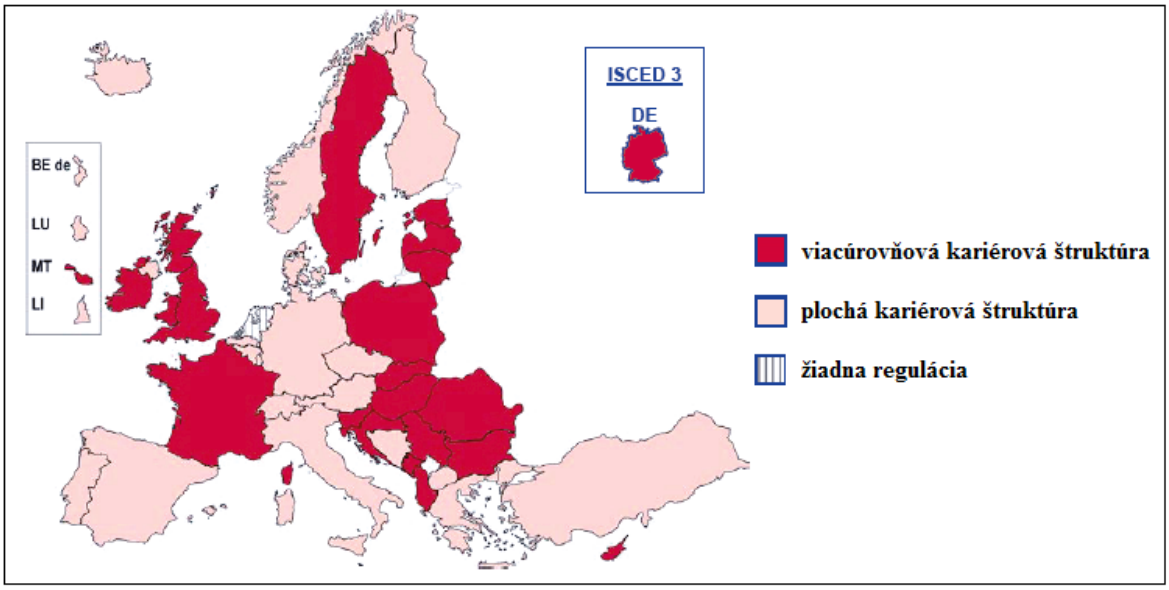
On the international document level – UNESCO (Recommendations concerning the status of teacher 1966 and 1996) – the term career is defined in two contexts. In the text of 1966 it is referred to as "job promotion", however, the revision of 1996 lists the term career in several contexts:

- As enhancing professional skills in use throughout one's whole professional career.
- As the need to pay attention to teachers at the beginning of their career because their initial job positions and tasks will be decisive in terms of their preparation and further career (organising tutoring and supervising systems in the initial stages).
- In terms of providing opportunities to develop as much as possible in the initial stages of teachers' education and professional development as well as throughout their while career, create a rich career structure with appropriate evaluation systems and improve their material and social status.
- In terms of support for teachers' initiatives – not limited to financial stimuli, but also extending to further education, formal recognition and career opportunities.

The EU (Eurydice 2018, pp.76–77) perceives the teaching career as an advancement across different career structures in terms of increasing experience and responsibility. The career prospect can become an important motivation factor for teachers. The teachers are hereby invited to develop their skills necessary to keep up with the changing educational environment to ensure that the educational service provided to the pupils retain high quality. In the improvement of professional teaching competences throughout one's career, professional development, meaningful evaluation and feedback systems, cooperation among teachers and career prospect play roles. Eurydice (2018, p. 70) defines the career progress (structure) on different levels:

- Multilevel (hierarchical) career structures usually defined by a set of competences and/or responsibility. There are different career levels characterised by ascending levels of complexity and responsibility. Salary scales can relate to the career but it is not the decisive factor.
- Single-level (flat) career structures in which the salary scale is applied, usually based on the years of service. The flat career structure allows the teacher to extend their knowledge or undertake further tasks and commitments.

Half of the European educational systems are based on the former one, whereas the other half are based on the latter one (Picture 1).



Picture 1: Career structure types for qualified teachers (ISCED 1 - 3) (Eurydice 2018, p. 71)
Explanatory notes:
Viacúrovňová kariérová štruktúra – multilevel career structure
Plochá kariérová štruktúra – flat career structure
Žiadna regulácia – without regulation

If teaching professionalism is to be continually developed, conditions for teachers' career advancement need to be created (in terms of gradating professional competences on the vertical career levels and horizontal specifications), that would allow for the achievement of career success and personal career (internal satisfaction with one's own teaching activities). Objectively, the teaching career can be represented as the set of professional competences differentiated based on their specific directions. Understanding career as a certain number of career levels in the national system of support for the professional development provides

variability and reflects the level of this support. Each country modifies the teaching career models for their own purpose and the following models can be found (Pavlov 2013, p. 95):

- gradation models (based on proving that professional competences related to the pedagogical activities in class have improved, e. g. according to the professional standards),
- specialisation models (based on performing tasks resulting from specialised positions at school, or consulting/lecturing activities outside it),
- acceleration and performance models (based on pupils', class or school study results),
- merit models (based on years of teaching practice and the evaluation of selected criteria pertaining to working results),
- combined models consist of the components pertaining to the aforementioned models.

b) Support for professional development and teaching career system on the national level

In accordance with the Millennium – the National Programme ofEducation and Training for the Next 15–20 Years, in 2009 the National Council of the SR approved the relevant law (Act of the National Council of the SR No. 319/2009 Coll.). Its approval was preceded by the adoption of the *Concept of Professional Development* for teachers in the career system on the governmental level (Government of the SR, 2007). The main goal of the concept was to improve the professional competences and quality of teachers at schools and educational facilities, reward them appropriately, and recognise their social status and prestige of the teaching profession. After ten years since the act entered into force, it can be stated that many expectations were left unfulfilled. Support for professional teaching development in the national context remains determined by the paradigm which affects its practical materialisation. The centrally controlled implementation of the nation-wide reformative changes in the educational system are emphasized instead of enhancing individual self-development and supporting cooperation among different schools. Shifting the paradigm of support for the professional development from the centralised to a formal one, autonomous or informal one seems to be an efficient tool in improving the quality of teachers' work. However, the following principles are of key importance in advancing the new paradigm of the support for professional teaching development in Slovakia:

- responsibility and participations of teachers in the preparation and implementation of the professional (career) development plan,
- team learning at work (not after work),
- constant feedback on the efficiency of one's own professional development.

This paradigm is characterised by initiative and autonomy in the management of processes related to professional learning in which teachers are directly involved in their own improvement thus enhancing their self-confidence. The application of these principles presupposes that the participants understood their role in the creation and implementation of the development programme as their professional right and obligation. Learning at work should be perceived as a source of stimuli equal to other activities which require feedback about the efficiency of their new knowledge and skills in practice. They should understand that the school, their colleagues and common learning represents an important source of inspiration for efficient learning strategies.

In 2017 the Ministry of Education approved the set of professional standards applicable to all categories within the teaching profession (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of Slovak Republic, 2017b). The standardisation concept aims to integrate the professional

standards into the complex system supporting professional development and career growth in teachers (Pavlov, 2013, p. 96). It draws from the idea that professional standards can be construed or formulated in a way which captures the dynamic of support for professional teaching competences in their complexity. The concept builds on the maximalist idea that the observable and identifiable professional teaching competences can be actually captured and represented on an ascending (gradating) line. The professional standard structure is based on the assumption that every career level integrates the competences pertaining to the preceding career levels. Although the system is referred to as "career" (ascending in terms of vertical career levels), it should lead towards developing the teaching career focused on pedagogical expertise, education and upbringing (in other words: great teachers are desired in classes). Out of the whole set of professional teaching competences, the self-development competence is most strongly related to the career potential. The following excerpt from the approved professional standard (Table 1) documents the portion of requirements regarding professional competences which can be (broadly) referred to as the career planning and management competences in teaching.

Table 1 An extract from the professional teaching standards for higher secondary education – part 3– Professional self-development (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of Slovak Republic, 2017b).

Competence: 3.1 Planning and performing professional and self-development	
Required knowledge	▪ to be familiar with the career development system of the teaching staff and career growth opportunities ▪ be familiar with the methods of self-education ▪ be familiar with the research and development methods in the teaching practice
Required skills	▪ possess basic practical experience in mediation of didactic and specialised knowledge to both the expert community and public ▪ determine one's professional development goals ▪ use the research and development methodology ▪ accept that life-long learning is necessary
Competence: 3.2 Identification with one's professional role and school	
Required knowledge	▪ to be familiar with the organisational characteristics of the school system and the institutional rules of the school ▪ be familiar with the basic theories related to the teaching profession ▪ be familiar with the basic professional structure and background in the field
Required skills	▪ reflect and improve one's own teaching efficiency ▪ identify with one's own profession

The *UčiacesaSlovensko/Learning Slovakia* (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of Slovak Republic, 2017c) strategic document is critical towards the career system in teaching and recommends certain changes. However, these propositions are quite random, thus failing to clarify the actual point of the teaching career, which renders their implementation impossible.

c) Professional career support for individuals and the teaching staff on the school level

On the school level, support for the teaching career is limited to achieving individual career levels (as provided in the law); school managements resigned from the preparation (career

consultancy and education) and support for career growth and left it in the hands of the ministry-controlled departments instead of participating in them. Domestic as well as foreign analysis of the Slovak national career system indicate that a critical approach is necessary as well as the involvement of the school management in the formal career growth processes. (Santiago et al., 2016; Ministry of Education, Science and Research of Slovak Republic, 2017, Pavlov 2017). On this level, extensive changes will have to take place regarding the individual career management (teachers) as well as collective careers of the teaching staff and learning work groups. One's individual career can be developed through the mutual interaction with other individuals and the organisation (school) which supports them in terms of their actual needs. In Slovakia, efficient models of support for the professional development (including career education and consultancy) are absent on the school level. Their introduction could improve the career planning and management processes on both organisational and individual levels (Pavlov – Krystoň 2017).

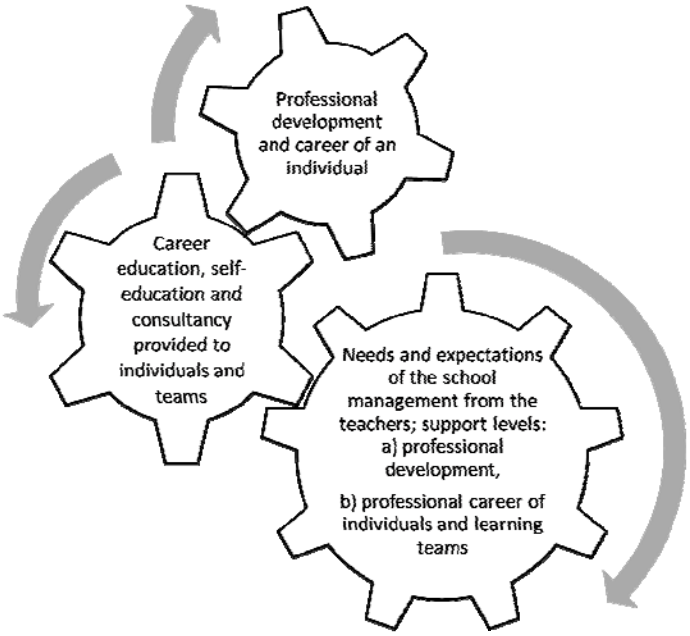
d) The individual teaching career levels

The individual and organisational career levels in teaching are very specific. Despite this, all professions which can be put to use in teaching share certain features. These include: career planning aimed at seeking one's "own path through the professional life" (determining individual professional goals taking into consideration one's personal attitudes, motivation, interests, values, skills and capabilities, priorities, employee requirements) and career management which help the learning person develop its potential for the life-long performance in their profession.

3 SUPPORT FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT (CAREER EDUCATION AND CONSULTANCY)

Prusáková (2005, p. 32) defines consultancy as a specific assistance provided to an adult person who is facing a new, critical situation in which they are unable todecide about their further career and professional development (target and content aspects of consultancy). The adults also need advice regarding the methodology (How to learn? How to cope with the external conditions and educational requirements?) as well as internal affairs (memory type, learning disposition, goal-orientation, learning speed, etc.). The concept of andragogical consultancy draws not only from the international documents (Council of the EU, 2008), requirements of the labour market, but also the logic of components pertaining to the life-long consultancy understood in the biodromal terms. This concept can be developed using an interdisciplinary approach which studies the way adults in their productive age can be supported and assisted in the performance of their profession (and after completing this life stage). Scheme 2 shows the two complementary levels of the career development in teaching (school and individual). Together, they should provide a functional framework for responding to the expectations and needs of the development potential pertaining to both parties. Internal consistency and functionality on both these levels allows for functioning career education and consultancy.

Scheme 2: Components of teaching career support in schools (authors)



The concept of andragogy in teaching includes the job-related andragogical (career) consultancy; it is a relatively new educationalterm which emphasizes the legitimacy and importance of the andragogical intervention in the specific environment where teachers perform their job. Andragogical career consultancy for teachers represents a scientifically supported and purposeful intervention into the individual or group career management in order to support their professional development. It represents a complex of consulting services focused on the target groups:

- the school management in the creation of suitable environment, systemic support, as well as individual and collective professional career development among the teaching staff,
- teachers are provided support in their own career management (as individuals as well as work groups). It includes mainly setting up their subjective perception of their own skills, professional self-image (conviction, values, motives, etc.) leading to overcome obstacles, improve one's confidence, stabilise them and offer new self-development prospects,
- career development consultants for teachers as well as the school management; these consultants are competent to provide such service.

4 CONCLUSION

The career development (growth) in teachers is not a purposeless process. Due to the specific nature of the teaching profession, it must be understood in terms of its complementary overlaps on the level of teaching professionalisation as well as in the broader social contexts. The theoretical research of the teaching career draws from the paradigm based on which the absence of the career development opportunity in this large professional group directly affects the quality of education and upbringing of the current and future generations. The andragogical understanding of the teaching career is legitimised by the potential for transformation of the established procedures regarding the professional (career) consultancy in the environment. In Slovakia, the specific features of scientific research in this area are determined by the absence of relevant empirical investigation focused on the critical reflection on the efficiency of the current measures which aim to support teachers' professional self-development. However, the partial findings clearly indicate that the reductionist approach preferring the formal career advancement does not correspond with the

modern international trends or the needs of the creative and initiative teachers. In this context, the concept of the andragogical career consultancy aimed at teachers must be based on empirically verified analysis of their career prospects. Their own ideas regarding its content, process-related and personal aspects of the facilitative career support must be taken into consideration along with the needs of the specific institutions in which they work.

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ZASTOUPENÍ TERMÍNŮ ŠOA A HOLOKAUST VE VYBRANÝCH KURIKULÁRNÍCH DOKUMENTECH

REPRESENTATION OF SHOA AND HOLOCAUST TERMS IN SELECTED CURRICULUM DOCUMENTS

Milan Mašát

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se zabývá mírou zastoupení termínů šoa a holokaust ve vybraných kurikulárních dokumentech. Důraz je kladen na kurikulum izraelské, které lze svou strukturou vzhledem k vymezeným termínům považovat za vzorové. Izraelské kurikulum je v příspěvku komparováno s vybranými českými kurikulárními dokumenty. Zjištěné diference se pokoušíme vysvětlit v návaznosti na potřeby států s ohledem na historické, společenské a geografické aspekty. Teoretická báze výkladu o uplatnění pojmů ve světových kurikulárních dokumentech je tvořena myšlenkami vybraných světových odborníků v dané oblasti. Na podkladě jejich idejí se snažíme explikovat aktuálnost definované problematiky a s tím související značnou potřebnost pro její implementaci do českých kurikulárních dokumentů.

Klíčová slova: *šoa, holokaust, vzdělávání, kurikulární dokumenty, izraelské státní školy, české základní školství*

Abstract

The paper deals with the degree of representation of Shoah and Holocaust terms in selected curriculum documents. Emphasis is placed on the Israeli curriculum, which can be considered exemplary in its structure due to the defined terms. Israeli curriculum is compared with selected Czech curriculum documents. We try to explain the differences identified in connection with the needs of states with regard to historical, social and geographical aspects. The theoretical basis for the interpretation of concepts in world curriculum documents is formed by the ideas of selected world experts in the field. Based on her ideas, we try to expose the topicality of the defined issues, and the associated great need for its implementation into Czech curriculum documents.

Key words: *Shoah, Holocaust, education, curricular documents, Israeli state schools, Czech primary education*

„Memory is the key to survival"[1]

Příspěvek se věnuje uplatnění fenoménu šoa (holokaust[2]) v kurikulárním systému Izraele jakožto země, ve které je kladen značný důraz na výuku zmiňované oblasti a která by mohla

[1]Blech 2017. „Paměť je klíčem k přežití" (překlad autor příspěvku).

[2]„Posvátný kult (*holocaust* – zápalná oběť, oběti přijetí) oslavuje a obnovuje smlouvu otců s Bohem Stvořitelem v očekávání konečného naplnění jeho slibu" (Chouraqui 1995, s. 10). Podle Le Project Aladin (2009, Anti-Semitism) je holokaust „preffered name for the Nazi´s systematic genocide of some 6 million Jews during World War II". Preferovaným pojmenováním pro nacistickou systematickou genocidu Židů během druhé světové války. Překlad autor příspěvku. Slovo holokaust budeme užívat v počeštěné formě (i když je povolena i varianta holocaust, viz Kolektiv autorů 2010, s. 163), v citovaných částech zachováme slovní formu užitou autorem citátu.

být pro světová kurikula paradigmatem v integraci fenoménů šoa (holokaust) do kurikulárních dokumentů. Stav uplatnění vymezené tematiky se pokusíme do jisté míry komparovat s uplatněním problematiky v rámci českého kurikulárního systému[3]. Nejprve se zaměříme na terminologické vymezení pojmů šoa a holokaust a následně představíme obsah izraelského kurikula ve státních školách (*junior high school*[4] a *high school*[5])[6]. Pojmovou obsažnost poté komparujeme se stejnými termíny v rámci kurikula českého. Vzhledem k oborovému zaměření autora příspěvku se budeme orientovat na *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání*[7] a *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*[8]. Příspěvek také zahrnuje poznámky o celosvětových kurikulárních dokumentech, do nichž ukotvíme kurikulum izraelské a české. Považujeme za důležité podotknout, že si uvědomujeme skutečnost, že implementace vymezených termínů v rámci Izraele je v pozitivním smyslu hraniční. Vysoká míra zastoupení daných pojmů je dána především historicky, přičemž by neměla být cílem obdobná míra zastoupení pojmů v čekých kuriulárních dokumentech. Izraelské kurikulární ukotvení lze vnímat jako inspiraci, a to především na poli provázání kurikul pro různé stupně vzdělávání (ve smyslu rozvíjení znalostí a dovedností nabytých v nižších stupních vzdělávání). Naší snahou je taktéž české veřejnosti představit studii Carriera a kolektivu (2015a, 2015b), která se zabývá uplatněním termínů šoa (holokaust) v různých světových školních kurikulech a nabízí přehledné členění dle způsobu jejich prezentace, a také Cohenovo výzkumné šetření (2016).

Dle Mémorial de la Shoah (2017) je šoa „… the Hebrew word for „catastrophe“. This term spesifically means the killing of neraly 6 million Jews in Europe by Nazi Germany and its collaborators during the Second World War. The English-speaking countries more mommonly use the word Holocaust, which is Greek for „sacrifice by fire“[9].

Šoa budeme chápat jako prožívání určité válečné zkušenosti z pozice Žida[10], respektive židovského národa jako celku. Tento termín i pojem holokaust jsou ve velké míře příkladů v kurikulárních dokumentech směšovány a pojímány jako synonymní výrazy pro tutéž empirii.

Synonymizaci pojmenování nepovažujeme za nedostatečný předpoklad pro implementaci těchto událostí do výuky, do jejich kurikulárního ukotvení. Z terminologického hlediska spatřujeme důležitost v explicitním vyjádření pohledu, z jakého je na danou problematiku nahlíženo a v závislosti na zvoleném fokusu užívat vžitá pojmenování.

K nerozlišování terminologie na poli světových kurikulárních dokumentů se vyjadřuje Carrier et al. (2015a, s. 5): „It is generally reffered to as the ´Holocaust´, while fewer curricula use the term ´Shoah´, or else both terms in conjunction. In some cases, curricula forego both the terms ´Holocaust´ nad ´Shoah´, describing the event. With alternative terms such as ´extermination´or ´genocide´of the Jews´, with indirect references to the event (with terms

[3]Rýdl & Šmelová (2014, s. 15) k české kurikulární reformě poznamenávají, že „na jaře roku 1999 byl vládou ČR přijat zásadní dokument o nové koncepci české vzdělávací soustavy, který byl v průběhu roku 2000 konkretizován v textu tzv. *Bílé knihy* (…). Významnou změnou je návrh třístupňového kurikula sestávajícího ze *Státního vzdělávacího programu* (*Národní kurikulum*), který vymezí obecné cíle a zaměření, z něho mají vycházet rámcové vzdělávací programy pro jednotlivé vzdělávací úrovně….“.

[4]Juniorská střední škola.

[5]Střední škola.

[6]K diferenciaci izraelského školství viz https://www.classbase.com/Countries/Israel/Education-System.

[7]Dále RVP ZV.

[8]Dále RVP GV.

[9]Slovo hebrejského původu označující "katastrofu". Specificky tento termín vyjadřuje zavraždění téměř 6 milionů Židů v Evropě nacistickým Německem a jeho spolupracovníky během druhé světové války. Anglicky mluvící země užívají spíše slovo "holokaust", což je slovo řeckého původu označující "obětování ohněm". Překlad autor příspěvku.

[10]Slovo Žid označuje příslušníka židovského etnika; žid vyznavače židovské víry (Kolektiv autorů 2010, s. 517).

such as ´concentration camp´or ´Final Solution´).“[11] Diference je také možno vysledovat v linii explicitního pojmenování obětí těchto fenoménů[12].
Carrier et al. (2015b) si podrobně všímá způsobu, jakým jsou v kurikulech termíny holokaust či šoa ukotveny. Autoři v publikaci *The international status of education about the holocaust* způsob prezentace pojmů rozdělili do čtyř skupin, přičemž diference mezi jednotlivými oblastmi je tvořena (ne)explicitním zanesením daného pojmu na strany dokumentu.
První skupina (*direct reference*) zahrnuje vzdělávací kurikula zemí, v nichž najdeme slovo holokaust, nebo šoa, případně výslovné alternativní pojmenování těchto událostí[13]. Termín holokaust obsahuje například albánské, etiopské či polské[14] kurikulum (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 68). Termín šoa využili tvůrci těchto dokumentů v Itálii nebo v Pobřeží Slonoviny. Smíšený model (tj. užívání obou pojmů) nalezneme např. v Německu (Saxony) či Švýcarsku[15]. Alternativní pojmenování například v Namibii, Německu (Lower Saxony) a Belgii (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 69).
Částečný odkaz na zmiňované termíny (*partial references)* možno charakterizovat situací „when the Holocaust named in the curriculum as a means to other ends, the historical meaning and complexity of the event are not addressed“[16] (Carrier et al. 2015a, s. 5). Mezi země, které mají kurikulární ukotvení holokaustu/šoa vyřešeno tímto způsobem, patří například Slovinsko, Belize nebo některé státy Spojených států amerických[17].
Třetí skupinou odkazů je připomenutí zmiňovaných termínů pouze v rámci kontextu (*the context only*) a nalézá se v kurikulech, která se zmiňují o útrapách druhé světové války v širších souvislostech (striktně komplexní charakter). Jedná se například o Keňu, Norsko nebo Rwandu[18] (Carrier et al. 2015a, s. 5).
Poslední model zahrnuje země, které ve svých kurikulárních dokumentech nemají termíny zaneseny (*no reference*). Jedná se o země[19], jejichž kurikula „do not stipulate the specific contents of history teaching“[20] (Carrier et al. 2015a, s. 6).
Za zmínku stoji fakt, že lze pozorovat značné rozdíly na poli integrace zmiňované tematiky mezi školami, jež se nalézají v západní Evropě, a zeměmi bývalého Sovětského svazu. Ve školách, které byly do počátku devadesátých let dvacátého století pod sférou vlivu Sovětského svazu, je problematika šoa se všemi svými konotacemi „largely ignored or

[11]Obecně je na tuto událost odkazováno termínem "holokaust", menší množství učebních plánů využívá termín šoa, nebo oba termíny synonymně spojují. V některých případech se v kurikulu neobjevuje ani výraz holokaust ani šoa Také se setkáme s alternativními pojmy jako je "vyloučení" nebo "genocida" Židů s nepřímými odkazy na tuto událost (koncentrační tábor, konečné řešení). Překlad autor příspěvku.
[12]Podrobně k užití termínů holokaust a šoa v 272 kurikulech 135 zemí světa in Carrier et al. 2015b.
[13]Například *genocide against the Jews´ or Nazi persecution of minorities´*. Genocida Židů nebo nacistická perzekuce menšin. Překlad autor příspěvku.
[14]V širších souvislostech o holokaustu v Polsku pojednává publikace *Jewish Studies and Holocaust Education in Poland* (Zimmerman et al. 2014).
[15]Smíšený model lze nalézt ve většině spolkových zemí Švýcarska. Tato země však nedisponuje jednotným kurikulárním dokumentem (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 69). O problematice tematiky holokaust v kontextu komplexního edukačního systému pojednává například publikace *Switzerland and the Holocaust: teaching contested history* (Schär & Sperisen 2010).
[16]Kdy je holokaust v učebních plánech využíván jako prostředek k jiným účelům, historický význam a komplikovanost události nejsou řešeny. Překlad autor příspěvku.
[17]V případě Spojených států amerických se v rámci školských dokumentů jedná o obdobnou situaci jako ve Švýcarsku.
[18]Edukačně-kurikulární situace ve Rwandě je specifická tím, že v rámci dokumentu je explicitně zanesena znalost mezi fašismem a nacismem a také otázka komparace těchto směrů s událostmi, jež se ve Rwandě odehrály v nedávné minulosti (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 69).
[19]Například Dominika, Fidži, Island.
[20]Nestanovují specifické obsahy učení o historii. Překlad autor příspěvku.

underplayed“[21] (ibid., s. 168). Diference lze rovněž vysledovat mezi školami v rámci Izraele, a to mezi privátními, státními a židovskými vzdělávacími institucemi.
V úvodu části, jež bude zaměřena na uplatnění fenoménů šoa a holokaust v izraelském a českém kurikulu (vzhledem ke komplexitě problematiky pouze v omezeném rozsahu), se krátce zmíníme o důvodech, proč by vůbec měla být vymezená tematika součástí předepsaného[22] kurikula. Svá tvrzení podpoříme příspěvkem Irwina Cotlera (2017), který v článku *7 Lessons from the Holocaust*, inspirován Yehudou Bauerem, vysvětluje, co by měl učitel žákům předat jako gros uvedené problematiky. Jednotlivé odpovědnosti/vzpomínky[23] (*responsibility/remembrence*) vnímáme jako teoretický dogmatický rámec pro zasazení vymezené problematiky do kurikulárních dokumentů.
Cotlerova tvrzení lze sumarizovat do několika částí[24]. Shrneme-li jeho myšlenky, lze říci, že tematika šoa/holokaust by měla nutně být součástí předepsaného kurikula (viz Obst 2006, s. 37). Školní výuka by měla zajišťovat naplnění Cotlerem vymezených bodů, aby integrace vedla k demytizaci tematiky, správné definici tohoto fenoménu, poznání kořenů jeho vzniku a aby se zamezilo vzniku dalších genocid (ve spojení s problematikou rasismu a antisemitismu[25]), ke schopnosti dešifrovat paralely mezi událostmi, které se odehrály v minulosti, a těmi, které se ve světě dějí nyní. Za gros výuky tematiky šoa (holokaust) ve školách považujeme postavení daných fenoménů v opozici vůči demokracii, toleranci, svobodnému vyjadřování, rovnosti. Vzhledem k rozsahu článku se touto problematikou nelze podrobněji zabývat.
V konotaci s tvrzením George Santanga (in Blech 2017) „Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it“[26] předkládáme pojetí výuky o tematice šoa na izraelských státních školách.
Izrael lze označit za původce termínu šoa. Zároveň se jedná o zemi, která druhé světové válce vděčí za svůj vznik. V komplexním rozsahu je situace značně komplikovaná, tudíž je nutné vážit způsob, jakým žákům danou problematiku přiblížit. Kaminka, současný ředitel muzea Yad Vashem, ve svém článku *Teaching about the Holocaust in Israel: A Pedagogical Approach Adopted by the Israeli Ministry of Education* (2016) zdůrazňuje důležitost pečlivého přístupu k dané problematice se zřetelem ke kulturní citlivosti cílového publika, historii daného státu a v závislosti na soudobých trendech vedení edukačního procesu. „In Israel, where Holocaust education has been created and developer over decades to produce models used around the world, this approach can be examined using the prism of the nationally instituted curriculum“[27] (ibid.).
Integrace tematiky šoa (holokaust) je v autonomii škol a jejich učebních plánů (v České republice se jedná o úroveň *Školních vzdělávacích programů*[28]), které si školy vytváří samy, na základě profilace vzhledem ke geografickým či demografickým aspektům a podobně. V *RVP ZV* v České republice, který vymezuje hranice *ŠVP* pro stejný stupeň vzdělávání a rámcově určuje, co, jak a kdy má být učeno[29], tematika šoa obsažena není, setkáme se pouze

[21]Většinou ignorována nebo podhodnocována. Překlad autor příspěvku.
[22]Obst 2006, s. 37. Srov. Begg (1998, s. 7).
[23]Viz Cotler 2017.
[24]Více viz http://www.aish.com/ho/i/7_Lessons_from_the_Holocaust.html?s=mpw.
[25]O genezi rasově motivovaného antisemitismu viz publikaci *Rasismus, antisemitismus, holocaust* (Kryl et al. 2011).
[26]Ti, kteří neznají minulost, jsou odsouzeni k jejímu opakování. Překlad autor příspěvku.
[27]V Izraeli, kde je vzdělávání o holokaustu po desetiletí rozvíjeno, jsou vytvořeny modely výuky využívané po celém světě. Tyto modely mohou být vyzkoušeny skrze prizma kurikulárních dokumentů jednotlivých států. Překlad autor příspěvku.
[28]Dále jen *ŠVP*.
[29]V *RVP ZV* jsou informace vymezeny v rámci části D - *Zásady pro zpracování, vyhodnocování a úpravy školního vzdělávacího programu* (Jeřábek et al. 2017, s. 154-159).

s termínem holokaust[30]. V izraelských kurikulárních dokumentech pro všechny úrovně vzdělávání došlo ke změně v uplatnění tematiky šoa, která se promítla v novém přístupu na poli implementace vymezené tematiky do kurikula. Na kurikulárních změnách kooperovalo ministerstvo školství Izraele, izraelské muzeum Yad Vashem a další instituce zabývající se odkazem šoa. „The new curriculum includes Shoah education units designed for kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school and high school, with between 2 and 15 h of Shoah education per year, depending on the age group"[31] (Cohen 2016, s. 183-184). Dle publikace, jíž zaštiťovalo UNESCO, je šoa implementováno na několika místech izraelského dokumentu přímým odkazem (*direct reference*) do výuky *Historie*, a to v rámci tematických celků antisemitismus a holokaust; nacizmus a holokaust (Carrier et al. 2015, s. 62).

Erik H. Cohen (2016, s. 167) v příspěvku věnujícím se vývoji edukace o šoa v izraelských státních školách publikuje výsledky svého výzkumného šetření[32], které se zabývalo připraveností učitelů k výuce dané tematiky v závislosti na probíhající diskusi (nejen) o ukotvení definovaných termínů do kurikulárních dokumentů určitých stupňů vzdělávání v Izraeli.

V úvodu příspěvku Cohen, profesor sociologie a pedagogiky na Bar-Ilanské univerzitě v Izraeli, zdůrazňuje, že „the Shoah (Holocaust) is inherently a difficult, sensitive and complex subject to adress in schools. How this subject is (or isn´t) addressed in various times, places and school systems is linked to many demographic, political, social and pedaogic factors"[33] (Cohen 2016, s. 167). Nacházíme shodu v názoru Kaminka a Cohena v oblasti společenského ukotvení dané tematiky a nesnadného uchopení problematiky v rámci edukačního procesu[34]. Dle Cohena (2016, s. 167) daná tematika poskytuje prostor pro obecněji vedené diskuse, například o antisemitismu, obecně lidských hodnotách, právech minorit či politické síle.

Co se týče státních izraelských škol, studenti se s tematikou šoa setkávají v edukačním procesu několikrát, a to jak v rámci formálních (*formal*, školních), tak v rámci neformálních (*informal*, mimoškolních) aktivit[35] (Cohen 2016, s. 169).

Cohen (2016) při vyhodnocení výzkumného šetření shledal, že daná tematika je inherentně důležitější pro Židy, a to zejména z důvodu určité míry stigmatizace židovského národa v kooperaci se snahou o pochopení těchto událostí. Výsledky výzkumu také nabídly srovnání mezi studenty *junior high schools* a *elementary schools*. „Shoah education became well established in junior high schools. Elementary school students and even kindergarteneres are

[30]V rámci učiva vzdělávacího oboru *Dějepis* (Jeřábek et al. 2017, s. 56).

[31]Tematika šoa je zahrnuta v novém kurikulu pro mateřské školy, základní školy i střední školy, a to v rozsahu od 2 do 15 hodin, v závislosti na věku žáků, výuky o šoa ročně. Překlad autor příspěvku.

[32]Design výzkumu se skládal z kvantitativní části – dotazníku a z části kvalitativní – ohniskové skupiny, interview, pozorování. Dotazníkové šetření probíhalo mezi studenty, učiteli a řediteli státních škol v Izraeli na „junior high schools and high schools in the Hebrew-language sector of the state school system in all geographic of the country" (Cohen 2016, s. 171) v hebrejských státních juniorských středních školách a na hebrejských stáních středních školách v co největším geografickém rozpětí v rámci Izraele. Překlad autor příspěvku.

[33]Šoa (holokaust) je ve své podstatě obtížným, citlivým a složitým tématem pro výuku ve školách. Jak se toto téma řeší (či neřeší) v rámci edukačního procesu v průběhu času, na různých místech a v rámci rozdílných školních systémů, je spojeno s mnoha demografickými, politickými, sociálními a pedagogickými faktory. Překlad autor příspěvku.

[34]Srov. ibid, s. 168.

[35]Zájemce odkazujeme na webové stránky izraelského ministerstva školství, kde jsou veškeré informace k dispozici. Viz http://edu.gov.il/owlHeb/Pages/SearchResults.aspx?k=curriculum.

introdoced to the issue though ceremonies on the national Shoah Memorial Day“[36] (ibid., s. 174, převzato z Brody 2009).

Výzkum přináší pozoruhodné výsledky v oblasti hodinové dotace tematiky šoa. Problematika byla rozebírána s řediteli izraelských státních škol formou interview. Hodinová dotace tematiky šoa na *junior high school* a *high school* se pohybovala mezi 130 – 150 hodinami ročně (školní i mimoškolní aktivity). Dle očekávání se tematika nejvíce uplatňuje při výuce historie, implementována však je i do literární výchovy[37], občanské nauky, náboženství a dalších oborů vzdělání[38]. Celkem 72 % ředitelů izraelských státních škol a 79 % učitelů ze shodných institucí se domnívá, že by hodinová dotace věnovaná výuce dané tematiky měla být zvýšena. Totožného názoru je 83 % studentů identické formy institucionálního vzdělávání.

Ve srovnání kurikulárního ukotvení termínu šoa v rámci izraelského kurikulárního systému s uplatněním této problematiky v českých kuriulárních dokumentech musíme konstatovat, že míra zastoupení v kurikulárních dokumentech v České republice je podstatně nižší. Obdobně lze charakterizovat osobní přínos učitelů na poli výuky dané problematiky[39].

Styčným bodem mezi českým a izraelským kurikulem je přímá zmínka o daném termínu (*direct reference*), sumární zastoupení je však nesrovnatelné. V nejnovějších izraelských dokumentech je přímý odkaz (*direct reference*) v okruhu tematického celku nacismus a holokaust na deseti stranách; v rámci tématu nacismus, antisemitismus, druhá světová válka a holokaust celkem na devíti stranách (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 62). V *RVP ZV* v České republice je přímý odkaz součástí tematického celku druhá světová válka - globální a ekonomické aspekty, věda a technologie ve službách války, vedení války a holokaust (Carrier et al. 2015b, s. 58) pouze na jedné straně (Jeřábek et al. 2017, s. 56). V *RVP GV* termín holocaust[40] nacházíme, a to v rámci vzdělávacího oboru *Dějepis* (Jeřábek et al. 2007, s. 46), v *Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu pro Hudebně dramatické umění* se s termínem holocaust (sic!) setkáme v rámci společenskovědního základu (Národní ústav odborného vzdělávání 2010, s. 22). Vzhledem k oborovému zaměření autora příspěvku je stěžejní poznatek týkající se základního vzdělávání a vzdělávání gymnaziálního. *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro Hudebně dramatické umění* má v příspěvku ilustrativní charakter[41].

Jak z výše uvedeného vyplývá, v *RVP ZV* se setkáme s termínem holokaust, pojem šoa v něm nenalezneme. S termíny se nesetkáme ani v rámci průřezových témat, která svými očekávanými výstupy s danou problematikou úzce korespondují a k implementaci daných fenoménů vybízejí[42].

Příspěvek prezentoval ukotvení tematiky šoa/holokaust ve světových kurikulárních dokumentech se zvláštním zřetelem k listině izraelské. Velká míra zastoupení vymezených jevů v izraelských předepsaných textech je zapříčiněna mimo jiné historickými mezníky v dějinách Izraele a potřebou těmto předělům předcházet. Tematika se těší značného zájmu studentů i učitelů, což jsme se pokusili demonstrovat vybraným výzkumným šetřením.

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[36]Výuka o problematice šoa se ukotvila na juniorských středních školách. Žáci základních škol a dokonce i žáci mateřských škol jsou do problematiky uváděni přes ceremoniály probíhající na „Shoah Memorial Day“. Překlad autor příspěvku, název svátku zachováváme v originální podobě.

[37]K možnostem literární výchovy se vyjadřuje Oliveira Jr. (2017): „Literature is a way of postulating reality, of inventing possible other modes of thinking and inhabiting the world…“. Literatura je způsob postulování reality, poznávání různých modelů myšlení a objevování světa. Překlad autor příspěvku.

[38]Viz Cohen 2016, s. 175.

[39]Viz ibid

[40]Za zmínku stojí fakt, že v *RVP ZV* je použito slovo „holokaust“, kdežto v *RVP GV* i v *Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu pro Hudebně dramatické umění* je použit výraz „holocaust“.

[41]Zájemce o tuto problematiku v *Rámcových vzdělávacích programech pro střední odborné vzdělávání* odkazujeme na webové stránky Ministerstva školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy České republiky (http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/stredni-vzdelavani/ramcove-vzdelavaci-programy).

[42]Viz Jeřábek 2017, s. 126-138.

Zmiňovaný výzkum společně s dalšími izraelskými výzkumnými šetřeními (například Shoham & Shiloah & Kalisman 2003) poskytují značný potenciál pro zamyšlení se na poli inspirace českého školství od izraelského v oblasti kurikulárního ukotvení daných termínů, ale také v otázce užití metod výuky této problematiky. Odborná veřejnost zainteresovaná v dané oblasti by měla usilovat o implementaci termínu šoa i holokaust/holocaust (ve větší míře) do českých školských dokumentů, a to zejména z důvodů značné aktuálnosti dané tematiky v rámci České republiky i v kontextu stále více se globalizujícího světa. Zastřešujícími tématy mohou být například situace na politické scéně, ochrana demokracie, zachování (zlepšení) práv občanů bez ohledu na rasovou příslušnost či přináležitost k různým minoritám a mnohá další. Izraelské školství nám poskytuje důkaz, že lze vymezené fenomény úspěšně integrovat do několika stupňů vzdělávání, poznatky vzájemně propojovat a prohlubovat.

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PARTNERSKÉ VZTAHY V RODINÁCH POMÁHAJÍCÍCH PROFESÍ

THE COUPLE RELATIONSHIPS OF WORKERS IN HELPING PROFESSIONS

Roman Říha, Radim Kuba, Veronika Křivánková

Abstrakt

V návaznosti na to, že více než 50 % manželství končí rozvodem, je obzvláště důležité určit, jakou měrou může výkon profese ovlivňovat rodinnou stabilitu. Bohužel nejen v České republice bylo problematice partnerského života členů pomáhajících profesí dosud věnováno jen velmi málo pozornosti, ačkoliv se jedná o velice důležité faktory, které ovlivňují i výkon a pracovní nasazení pracovníků. Cílem příspěvku je nastínit především psychologická a sociologická specifika pramenící z výkonu profese v rámci integrovaného záchranného systému (dále jen IZS).

Klíčová slova: *přenos stresu, partnerské vztahy, pomáhající profese, IZS*

Abstract

There is a well-known linkage between job and different levels of human personality, behavior and physiological reactions of organism. Only few papers though paid attention to people working as firefighters, police officers, doctors, paramedics, nurses etc. and their partners. Because (for example) working stress can influence a family stability. The goal of this paper is to show psychological a sociological aspects of work in integrate rescue service.

Key words: *Transfer of stress, couple relationships, helping professions, IRS*

1 ÚVOD

Na úvod je nutné zmínit, že existují rozdíly v percepci emočního prožívání výkonu povolání mezi pohlavími. Ženy po náročném dnu mívají tendenci být více rozhněvané, zatímco muži bývají spíše uzavření a méně rozčilení (Schulz et al., 2004).

Spokojenost partnerů s kvalitou rodinného života je asociována spíše s emoční interferencí z práce (napětí, podrážděnost, výbušnost) než se strukturálními kvalitami práce (např. počet hodin strávených v práci) (Jackson et al., 1985). Kvalitativní studie ukazují, že fyzické i psychické vyčerpání v práci je pak přenášeno formou zloby a negativních emocí na příslušníky domácnosti (Repetti, 1987). Negativní nálada (ústící např. z nepříjemných pracovních zážitků) jednoho z partnerů je pak asociována s tím, že druhý partner se domnívá, že ten první má negativní pocity z celého vztahu jako takového (lze říct, že dochází k jakési generalizaci) (Thompson & Bolger, 1999). Dva nejvýznamnější faktory ovlivňující výsledný efekt práce na manželství jsou stres a vyčerpání (Roberts & Levenson, 2001). Fyzické vyčerpání pak může způsobovat podrážděnost, subjektivně menší prožívání štěstí a úzkostlivost (Zedeck et al., 1988). Na základě šestitýdenních deníkových záznamů několika manželských párů bylo zjištěno, že když byli manželé ve stresu více dnů po sobě, tak už druhý den docházelo k určité habituaci (kromě konfliktních interpersonálních situací). Ve dnech následujících po určitém stresu bývala nálada osob lepší, než jaká by byla, pokud by k vystavení stresoru nedošlo (Bolger et al., 1989). Roberts & Levenson (2001) popisují zajímavou a vcelku logickou kaskádu dějů: Pokud je člověk ve stresu, tak se napětí přenáší na partnera a rodinu. Ovšem tímto přístupem prožívá dotyčný stres hned na dvou úrovních:

a) přímo od stresoru a
b) díky disharmonii v rodině.

Čímž se však ještě více snižuje pracovní akceschopnost. Dochází k tomu, že člověk hůře uvažuje a řeší problémy, což je u příslušníků IZS neoddiskutovatelným problémem.
Zkoumání vlivu práce na manželství a na manželské interakce je důležitým východiskem pro dosažení porozumění vlivu práce na větší rodinné jednotky. Několik výzkumných týmů studovalo vliv práce na manželství pomocí sebehodnotících dotazníků a hloubkových rozhovorů (např. Larson et al., 1994; Leiter & Durup, 1996), ale v podstatě žádná z těchto prací nesledovala skutečné párové interakce (Crouter & Helms-Erikson, 1997). Sledování interakcí však umožňuje zkoumat, jakým způsobem přenáší jeden z partnerů stres z práce do domácnosti a zda je tím ohrožováno samotné partnerství (Roberts & Levenson, 2001). Základní faktory pro přenos stresu jsou:

a) den v týdnu
b) stres z nějaké jiné události
c) u dětí jsou ale i vlivy sezón (prázdniny) (Almeida et al., 1999).

Přenos stresu v manželství může byt spojen například s časovým rozvržením práce – to interferuje s časem, který by měl být věnovaný pouze manželům (Moen, 1992). Některé studie naznačují, že spokojenost žen v manželství nemusí být negativně závislé na práci manžela v tom smyslu, že primárně nejde o počet hodin, které stráví manžel v práci. Pokud pracuje delší dobu, ale je jeho emoční stav je v pořádku, tak manželský život netrpí (a obráceně, pokud pracuje kratší dobu, ale je ve stresu, tak manželství může trpět) (Barling, 1984). Je však samozřejmé, že se musí brát v úvahu další faktory jako počet hodin, které mají manželé spolu či které muž může věnovat výchově dětí – záleží na kvalitě využitelného času, ne na kvantitě. Bylo prokázáno, že pokud je muž ve svém zaměstnání spokojený (včetně percepce organizace práce), tak je více spokojený i partner s kvalitou jejich manželství (Barling, 1984). Thompson & Bolger (1999) potvrzují výše uvedený efekt (když se jeden partner cítí ve stresu a v depresi z práce, tak druhý partner hodnotí kvalitu vztahu jako nižší). Zde ovšem docházelo k časovým změnám; efekt postupně přestával být signifikantní (čím déle studie trvala – byla na 35 dnů). Vliv střídání směn v práci a nočních směn jako takových na zdraví, partnerský a rodinný život popsal ve své práci Costa (1996). Jako největší problémy jsou uvedeny:

a) rozladěné denní biorytmy,
b) udržování partnerského života,
c) méně času na výchovu dětí,
d) nedostatek sociálních kontaktů,
e) problémy se spánkem,
f) stravování
g) různé nemoci – od žaludečních vředů až po deprese a úzkostlivost (ženy jsou však ovlivňovány jiným způsobem).

Pokud má partner směnnou pracovní dobu bylo zjištěno, že vliv na kvalitu partnerství má i přítomnost dětí, pohlaví partnera a doba trvání manželství. U mužů s dětmi je 6× větší šance na rozvod, u žen s dětmi 3× větší (Presser, 2000). Střídání pracovních směn negativně ovlivňuje rodinný život a zvyšuje o 7-11 % pravděpodobnost rozvodu. Vysoce negativně byly ovlivněny všechny sledované faktory:

a) spokojenost v manželství,
b) interakce,
c) četnost hádek,
d) obecné problémy,

e) sexuální problémy,
f) problémy s dětmi (White & Keith, 1990).

Je vhodné, aby organizace pracovala i s partnery zaměstnanců, podporovala je a komunikovala s nimi. Mimo jiné se tím zvyšuje i míra oddanosti vlastních pracovníků (Orthner & Pittman, 1986). Když je člověk sám spokojený v práci, tak je obecně spokojenější se svým rodinným životem. To může být důvod, proč se pak lépe cítí i druhý partner a je i spokojenější se svojí prací (Pittman & Orthner, 1988). Navíc stres přenesený z pracovního života může vyústit v tendence ukončit pracovní poměr, může způsobit menší účast při výchově dětí, vyvolat psychosomatické problémy a emoční stres partnera (Zedeck et al., 1988; Burke, 1993; Levenson et al., 1994).
Nelze nezmínit, že pokud je přítomno napětí mezi manželi, je bohužel obvykle přenášeno i na děti (Almeida et al., 1999). Nehledě na to, že více dětí a přítomnost dětí nízkého věku může způsobit dokonce nárůst napětí v rodině (Belsky & Pensky, 1988).

2 SPECIFIKA POMÁHAJÍCÍCH PROFESÍ

Pro vyrovnávání se se stresem po zásahu (hasičů, policie, paramediků) byly pomocí faktorové analýzy zjištěny 4 základní strategie:

a) hledání významu (angl. seeking of meaning),
b) získávání zkušeností skrze individuální činnost (angl. regaining mastery through individual action),
c) získávání zkušeností skrze mezilidské vztahy (angl. regaining mastery through interpersonal action),
d) filozofické rozjímání (angl. philosophical self-contemplation) (McCammon et al., 1988).

1.1 Policie

Policejní práce je považována za jednu z nejvíce stresujících, a proto mohou její příslušníci častěji vykazovat sklony k manželským dysfunkcím, alkoholismu, domácímu násilí a sebevraždám (Anshel et al., 1997). Pracovně-rodinné konflikty jsou u policistů vysoce závislé na obecné míře spokojenosti v práci, výši mzdy, vedení, možnosti povýšení a spolupracovnících (Howard et al., 2004). Bylo zjištěno, že období většího stresu policistů označovali jejich partneři jako období partnerských neshod (Burke, 1993). Typické rysy spojené s výkonem policejní služby jsou dominance, autorita, nižší míra sentimentu. Což je však v jasném rozporu s kooperací v manželství (Miller, 2007). Vlivem práce jsou policisté často více podezřívaví, ostražití obecně nedůvěřiví k lidem a jejich motivům. Jsou také cyničtější a jejich partneři se velmi často cítí „jako u výslechu“ (Duran, 1999; Blum & Blum, 2000). Policisté ve stresu častěji vykazují:

a) podrážděnost/rozhněvanost,
b) větší izolaci od rodiny (tráví více času bez ní),
c) nižší angažovanost do rodinných událostí
d) častěji mají neuspokojivá manželství (Jackson & Maslach, 1982).

Mnoho policistů má tendence kolem své osoby vytvářet intenzivní ochranou zónu – až moc velký odstup od zážitků, prožitých v práci. Někdy se sice obrátí s žádostí o podporu na partnera, ale náhle se zase stáhnou a nechtějí o tom hovořit – to vše si vybírá svoji daň na manželství (Reese, 1987). Ovšem důležitým faktem vyplývajících ze statistik je, že riziko rozvodů u policistů není o moc vyšší než v běžné populaci – pokud manželství přežije první 3 roky, je riziko v porovnání s ostatními páry srovnatelné (Miller, 2007).

Když policisté uváděli více stresu v práci, vykazovali pak obecně nižší sklony k projevům agresivního chování (Roberts et al., 2013). Studie rovněž zjistila nižší tendence policistů k opětování projevů agresivního chování manželky a naopak vyšší míru opětování náklonnosti. U manželek byly zjištěny opačné trendy – manželky ve vyšší míře opětovaly projevy agresivity manžela a naopak v nižší míře projevy náklonnosti. Uvedené výsledky tedy naznačují, Je tedy vidět, že strategie mohou být různé, že přenos může být nesymetrický a odlišně působit na oba partnery Partnerky policistů se musí vyrovnávat s obtížemi jejich práce a často jsou tím zahlceni (Kroes, 1976). Policisté i jejich partneři uvádějí 4 základní strategie vyrovnávání se stresem z práce:

a) zaměření na problém
b) zaměření na emoce
c) religiozita,
d) individualismus (Beehr et al., 1995)

V zásadě se pak můžeme setkat se dvěma typy přístupu páru ke stresu:

a) vliv homogamního párování předpoklad, že partneři se budou se stresem vyrovnávat podobnou strategií, protože pár byl utvořen na základě podobností, které se mohou projevit i v této oblasti,
b) komplementarita – jeden z partnerů se stane spíše submisivním, slabším a druhý dominantním, silnějším. Silnější se bude se stresem vyrovnávat spíše ve své hlavě, nebude emoce ventilovat, zatímco submisivní bude více emocionální a bude využívat ventilování problému k vyrovnávání se se stresem.

Strategie, kterými se policisté vypořádávají se stresem z práce, mohou způsobovat manželkám a rodinám i obtíže (Alexander & Walker, 1996). Navíc bylo zjištěno, že pokud policisté trpí PTSD má to vliv i na jejich partnery – ti pak mají také častěji problémy a častěji se objevuje i domácí násilí (Meffert et al., 2014). V případě, že partnerky zesnulých policistů cítí podporu a zájem ze strany policie jako instituce, tak se s problémem vyrovnávají mnohem lépe (Violanti, 1996). Vliv práce u policie na rodinu je obecně chápán negativně. Nejhorší faktory jsou:

a) práce na směny,
b) dlouhá pracovní doba,
c) rušení domluveného programu.

Naopak žádný vliv nebyl zjištěn pro faktory:

a) rizikovost/nebezpečnost práce,
b) práce s osobami opačného pohlaví,
c) rušení domluveného programu.

Policisté by měli být systematicky připravováni na to, aby ovládali své emoce a na to, jakým způsobem negativní zážitky z práce sdělují svým partnerům (Nordlicht, 1979; Brown & Grover, 1998). Pokud nadřízení poskytují policistkám větší pracovně-emocionální podporu, tak vykazují nižší stres a emocionální vypětí a rovněž i lepší fungování v rodině a partnerském životě. Lze tedy vyvodit, že nadřízení by se měli vzdělávat v sociálně-emocionální oblasti, neboť tím mohou významně pomoci v rodinném i profesním životě podřízených (Thompson et al., 2005).

1.2 Hasiči

Partneři hasičů se setkávají s různými problémy:

a) směny a různé pracovní doby a jejich vliv na rodinu,

b) přenos zážitků z traumatických a nebezpečných situací do rodiny,
c) sociální atmosféra spjatá s hasičstvím (Regehr et al., 2005).

Zkušení/služebně starší hasiči mají obecně nižší sociální podporu (jak se cítí být oceňovaní a podporovaní okolím) a nižší vnímaná osobní účinnost (Regehr et al., 2003). Partnerky hasičů, kteří zasahovali v Oklahomě v roce 1995 (bombový teroristický útok), měly následně také psychické potíže. U jedné se dokonce rozvinula PTSD. Většina lidí se pro vyrovnání s touto událostí obrátila na rodinu nebo přátele, jen necelých 10 % vyhledalo odbornou pomoc (Pfefferbaum et al., 2002). Při porovnání stresu u hasičů a policistů byly zjištěny tyto rozdíly:

a) policisté častěji uváděli problémy
   - se zdravím,
   - s faktory, které poškozují jejich osobní život (dlouhá pracovní doba, práce na směny);
b) hasiči naopak uváděli spíše spokojenost se svojí prací (Alexander & Walker, 2000).

1.3 Zdravotníci/paramedici

Zdravotničtí pracovníci, kteří cítí v rodině větší podporu, mají nižší pravděpodobnost problémů spojených se stresem z výkonu profese (Regehr et al., 2002a). O tom jak jsou partneři zdravotnických záchranářů ohroženi přenosem stresu, deprese atd. pojednává Regehr (2005). Jedna ze strategií, jak se záchranáři vyrovnávají se stresem je emoční necitlivost – odfiltrování emocí a orientace jen na kognitivní aspekty práce (Regehr et al., 2002b). To ovšem vede k negativním projevům v manželství:

a. nezájem, oddělení a emocionální nedostupnost
b. snížená schopnost a ochota rodičů k interakcím se svými dětmi (Ruscio et al., 2002).

King (2013): uvádí, že stres z práce se přenáší na partnery a způsobuje tedy problémy v rodině (např. tak, že ve dnech, kdy je paramedik vyčerpaný, musí partner doma dělat více domácích prací, což může způsobovat větší napětí v rodině).

3 ZÁVĚR

V návaznosti na vysokou rozvodovost je nutné hledat odpovědi k tomuto fenoménu i v pracovní sféře. Především přenos pracovního stresu do domácího prostředí může zásadním způsobem ovlivňovat partnerské vztahy a tím pádem i celou rodinou jednotku. Vysoká rizikovost povolání policisty či hasiče může negativní dopady na rodinu ještě zvyšovat. Tito lidé se v rámci své práce dostávají do extrémních situací a musí se vyrovnávat s diametrálně odlišnou fyzickou, psychickou a emoční zátěží než u většiny jiných povolání. Ač jsou na svá místa velice pečlivě vybíráni a následně i školeni, jen stěží lze předpokládat, že vždy budou nástrahy plynoucí z výkonu jejich profese zvládat bez psychického a emočního zatížení. Tyto zátěžové faktory se i navzdory často vysoké snaze příslušníků přelévají do rodinného života. Vždyť i opakované zaryté mlčení o výkonu služby a strohé odpovědi na otázky: „*Jak bylo v práci?*“ „*Dobrý*“, může mít zásadní vliv na aktuální i dlouhodobé fungování domácnosti. Tento příklad je uváděn záměrně, neboť část hasičů i policistů se mylně domnívá, že absolutní tabuizování neblahých zážitků z práce je pro rodinu přínosné a že tím rodinné příslušníku dokonce chrání. Ovšem odmítavé chování a uzavírání se do sebe může způsobit celkové odcizení.

Je však nutné zdůraznit i druhou stranu této problematiky. Bylo by bláhové svádět všechny vzniknuvší partnerské konflikty v rodinách hasičů a policistů na výkon jejich profesí. Kromě mnoha jiných možných zdrojů konfliktů zde může docházet i ke konfliktům pramenících z rodinného soužití jako takového (spory o výchovu dětí, spory o domácí práce apod.), které se se však opět mohou přelévat do profesního života. Ovšem zde je nutné připomenout, že

hovoříme o povoláních, na kterých bez nadsázky mohou záviset lidské životy. Jak je opakovaně řečeno výše, profesní a rodinný život je jen těžko oddělitelný a u takto sociologicky významných profesí je na ně nutné brát zřetel.
Proto by mělo být věnováno zátěžovým a podpůrným faktorům v rodinách hasičů a policistů (nejlépe v IZS obecně) více pozornosti. Hledat prověřená a funkční řešení u párů (rodin), které překonaly traumata pramenící z povolání, získávat informace o vývoji vztahů a tím pomáhat připravovat či informovat mladé páry a rodiny tak, aby byla zajištěná péče o ně, ale tím i vyšší účinnost práce policistů a hasičů.

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MEASURING THE READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS OF HUNGARIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN SLOVAKIA

Klára Kázmér

Abstract

In my paper I examine the Hungarian reading comprehension skills of sixty secondary school students from 3 different secondary schools with the language of instruction Hungarian in Slovakia. In the first part of the study I sum up the definitions of the text and reading comprehension, moreover I present two important reading comprehension surveys. In the following part of my paper I explain in details my survey's aims, the methodology and the results of my reading comprehension survey. At the end of the paper I present my work's conclusion.

Keywords: *reading comprehension, Hungarian minority, secondary school students*

1 INTRODUCTION

Students' reading comprehension skills have been examined by several researchers around the world. It is crucial to measure the reading comprehension skills of students because poor reading comprehension skills do not only influence students' school achievement but they can affect people in everyday situations as well. This fact is one of the main reasons why the level of students' reading comprehension skills should be measured. In my survey I aim to reveal some information about the Hungarian reading comprehension level of Hungarian secondary school students in Slovakia. In my paper I will present the results of a reading comprehension survey among 30 first year students and 30 third year students from 3 different secondary schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction in Slovakia. Firstly, I briefly present the definitions of *text* and *reading comprehension*. Secondly, I describe the methodology and the results of two important reading comprehension surveys among Hungarian students in Slovakia. Thirdly, I present the methodology and the results of my survey and derive the conclusions.

2 THE TEXT AND THE READING COMPREHENSION

The term of *text* does not have only one definition. Its definition depends on which aspect is emphasized by a given researcher. According to Tolcsvai Nagy Gábor (2006) the *text* is a linguistic segment of the communication. In human communication one person expresses his feelings, needs or other information to the other person. One person usually wants to persuade the other one by the told information or he wants the other person to do something, etc. The text is always a crucial part of a given linguistic interaction (Tolcsvai Nagy 2003). The text also has its own characteristic features which influence the process of the reading comprehension.

The term *reading comprehension* can also be defined differently. We can comprehend texts in two different ways: by reading written texts or by listening to oral texts. The term of *reading comprehension* is generally used when people comprehend written texts. For the understanding of oral texts we use the term *speech comprehension* (Csapó 2015). When comprehending a written text the reader moves the text into a broader context, e.g.: the reader connects what he has just read with his previous knowledge about the given topic (Gósy 1994). OECD defines the reading comprehension skill in the methodology of PISA as an understanding of written texts and reflecting on them by a reader in order to reach his aims, to develop his knowledge and skills, to efficiently participate in everyday situations (Vári et al.

2003). The international surveys define reading comprehension as a necessary feature for successful problem solving and getting on in everyday life.
Based on the PISA methodology we can distinguish three categories of aspects that the reader uses to comprehend the written texts:

[1] *Access and retrieve* – The reader looks for information in the text and collects them. This aspect of reading comprehension can be made more difficult if there is a bigger amount of the needed information, furthermore the information is explicit or implicit in the text.

[2] *Integrate and interpret* – To integrate the reader has to recognize basic connections in the text, e.g.: the relationship between the entire text and the part of it, to determine conclusions connected to the text, etc. When the reader has to interpret something it means that he has to find hidden information in the text.

[3] *Reflect and evaluate* – The reader compares his previous knowledge with the read text when he reflects on the text and the reader forms a judgment about the form or the content of the text when he evaluates (Balázsi et al. 2010; Thomson et al. 2013: 9).

In the following part two reading comprehension surveys among Hungarian students in Slovakia will be discussed.

2.1 Reading comprehension surveys among Hungarian students in Slovakia

In this part I present two important reading comprehension surveys from which we can learn something about the Hungarian students' comprehension skills in Slovakia. I would like to emphasize the survey of Vančo Ildikó (2007) and the PISA. Vančo Ildikó compared the speech perception skills to reading comprehension skills of Hungarian-Slovak bilingual students with Hungarian monolingual students. She made her survey using the GMP-diagnostics. Vančo chose 11 subtests from the diagnostics' 20 subtests. The GMP12 examines the students' reading comprehension skills. 220 students (11-14 years old) took part in the survey and the results from reading comprehension showed that the majority of the students had problems with giving correct answers for all the 10 questions. There was not a big difference between the Hungarian reading comprehension skills of monolingual Hungarian students living in Hungary and bilingual Hungarian students living in Slovakia. On the contrary the Hungarian students learning in schools with the language of instruction Slovak scored significantly fewer points from Hungarian reading comprehension than those students who attend schools with the language of instruction Hungarian.
The second important reading comprehension survey which I present based on Balázsi and her colleagues' work (2010) is the PISA survey. Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is one of the biggest surveys of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) since the 1990's. In the beginning this survey tested the students' skills only from three areas: mathematics, reading comprehension and science. The PISA surveys are conducted every three years and nowadays in each testing year students are tested not only from the above mentioned three areas but also from other disciplines, e.g.: problem solving, global competence, etc. The creators of PISA have developed two tools, one to get some background information about the students and another one to measure the students' certain skills: a questionnaire and the tests. The tests consist of texts and items related to the texts. Slovakia has been taking part in this survey since 2003, this means that in the first year of the PISA survey (in 2000) Slovakia did not participate. In Slovakia the students write the tests in Slovak language or in Hungarian. The language of a test depends on the language of instruction of a given school. In relation to Slovakia's results from reading comprehension since 2003 to 2015 we can state that this country reached significantly lower results than the other OECD countries in average. Furthermore we can say that the girls were better in comprehending the texts than boys in each year of the PISA. It is important to

emphasize that the results of the PISA proved that one quarter of the students does not possess the basic reading comprehension skills. Although some ideas have been formulated in connection to improve students' reading comprehension skills, no significant changes in students' reading comprehension skills have happened yet.
In the next part I present the objective and the methodology of my survey.

3 THE METHODOLOGY OF MY SURVEY

In this part I show one segment of the whole survey because we aim to examine approximately 750 – 800 students' reading comprehension skills and now I will present the results of 60 secondary school students from the first and the third year of their studies from 3 different schools. In this study 10 students represent each class from each school. This means that in this sample we have 10 first year students + 10 third year students from the Gymnázium s vyučovacím jazykom maďarským in Bratislava, 10 first year students + 10 third year students attend Stredná odborná škola, Senec and 10 first year students + 10 third year students are studying in Stredná zdravotnícka škola, Dunajská Streda. The common features of these students are that for all of them Hungarian is their mother language and everyone attends a secondary school with Hungarian as the language of instruction. The total number of girls is 42 from which 19 girls attend the first class and 23 girls are in the third class. The boys' total number is 18, the number of first class students is 11 and 7 students attend third class. I used two methods during my survey: I created a questionnaire and a reading comprehension test. The questionnaire consists of 19 questions connected to some basic information about the respondents and the test was created by using the exercises of PISA 2009. I have decided to use the PISA survey tasks instead of my own test based on several reasons. Firstly, one very important factor during creating my test was that PISA tasks are already tested and they're reliable. Secondly, as I have already mentioned we have little information about the secondary school students' reading comprehension skills in Slovakia but due to PISA we have some information about the reading comprehension skills of 15-years old students in Slovakia. Using the same type of tasks we can compare the reading comprehension skills of the two previously mentioned groups. My test consists of three texts: according to the text format one continuous text (*Macondo*) and two non-continuous texts (*Peanut Allergy Alert* and *Tall buildings*) (web 1[1]).

3.1 The text, the tasks and the results

This short text is a public notice having an everyday function: warning the customers of a store about a biscuit including peanuts unintentionally. The notice also says what we can do if we have bought the above mentioned product. The text format is non-continuous because the text is a list with only a few words. The reading situation is public because the text can be found in a store. Among the four tasks connected to this text based on the item format we can find one multiple choice, one close constructed response and two open constructed response tasks.
The first question says *What is the purpose of this notice?* This question was a multiple choice question because students had an opportunity to choose the one correct answer from four options:

A. *To advertise Lemon Cream Biscuits.*
B. *To tell people when the biscuits were made.*
C. *To warn people about the biscuits.*
D. *To explain where to buy Lemon Cream Biscuits*.

[1] Some texts, items and solutions of PISA 2009 can be found in this document.

The correct answer was the third option: C. Students were expected to use the thinking aspect integration and interpretation. The notice does not involve any of the above mentioned three options (A, B, D). The notice's main aim is not to advertise the lemon biscuit, the reader does not know from the text when the biscuits were made or where we can buy the mentioned products. The notice's title is Peanut Allergy Alert so the students could already know from the title that the text warns people about the peanut. The following table shows the proportion of the students giving the correct answer for the first question.

Table 1.: The number of students in percent giving the correct answer for the first question

	Gymnázium s VJM, Bratislava	Stredná odborná škola, Senec	Stredná zdravotnícka škola, Dunajská Streda
First year students	100%	100%	60%
Third year students	100%	100%	100%

We can see from the table that almost everyone answered this question correctly except of 40% of the first year students in Dunajská Streda. These 4 students were girls and all of them chose the first option: *To advertise Lemon Cream Biscuits.* 3 students in their last school report had mark 2 from Hungarian language and only one student had mark 3. From the results it's visible that the mark doesn't influence the students' reading comprehension skills because those who answered correctly this item had different marks from Hungarian from 1 to 3. Students from the two different school types had the same results in reading comprehension regarding the first question.
The second question connected to the notice was *What is the name of the company that made the biscuits*? This question was a close constructed response question and the students had to retrieve the information from the text. This task is regarded to be relatively easy because the whole text is short and the correct answer for this question can be found at the beginning of the text. The format of this item is close constructed response because there is only one correct answer: Fine Foods or Fine Foods Ltd. The following table shows the number of students who answered this question correctly.

Table 2.: The number of students in percent giving the correct answer for the second question

	Gymnázium s VJM, Bratislava	Stredná odborná škola, Senec	Stredná zdravotnícka škola, Dunajská Streda
First year students	100%	100%	100%
Third year students	100%	90%	100%

From the table it's visible that except of one student all the others answered this question correctly. That one student didn't write any answer.
In the third task the students had to evaluate and reflect on the content of the text, the question was: *What would you do if you had bought these biscuits? Why would you do this? Use information from the text to support your answer.* This task consists of two parts: firstly, the readers had to choose what they would do in the described situation, and then they had to explain their choice by giving a reason using the information in the notice. This task is regarded to be easy based on the PISA because no special knowledge is needed to answer the question correctly. Those students answered this task correctly based on the PISA methodology who answered both parts of the task correctly. If the answer for one of the parts of the task is missing, e.g.: the student wrote down that he would return the biscuit to the shop

but he did not add the reason of his choice then his answer cannot be accepted as a correct solution. The third table sums up the number of the correct answers in percents.

Table 3.: The number of students in percent giving the correct answer for the third question

	Gymnázium s VJM, Bratislava	Stredná odborná škola, Senec	Stredná zdravotnícka škola, Dunajská Streda
First year students	90%	50%	50%
Third year students	90%	70%	60%

The previous two items were relatively easy among the students because almost all of them answered the first two questions correctly but the situation at the third item was different. This item asked students to reflect and evaluate the described situation in the notice and the table tells us that there were differences comparing the classes. We can see that the first and third year students studying in Bratislava achieved the same result (90%) but the students studying in the other two schools achieved lower scores. In connection to this item where the students had to use the most difficult aspect (reflect and evaluate) we can see a difference between the reading comprehension skills of students from the two different school types. Compared to the first two questions fewer students answered this task correctly.
In the last question connected to this text the students were asked: *Why does the notice include "Best before" dates*? The item format is open constructed response because the students had to form their own answer using the text. This short text shows us that the shortness of a text doesn't guarantee the easiness of the related item. This item was the most difficult for the students from all of the four items because the students had to focus on the function of the best before dates on the notice and not on the biscuits. The majority of the students wrote down that the function of the best before dates is to inform us till when we can consume the biscuits but these types of answers cannot be accepted. In the correct answers students wrote down that the best before dates in the notice show which biscuits can contain peanuts. The results can be seen in the fourth table.

Table 4.: The number of students in percent giving the correct answer for the fourth question:

	Gymnázium s VJM, Bratislava	Stredná odborná škola, Senec	Stredná zdravotnícka škola, Dunajská Streda
First year students	30%	0%	20%
Third year students	10%	10%	10%

No one from the first year students in Senec answered this question correctly. The students of the other schools did a little better, the proportion of correct answers ranges from 10% to 30%.

4 CONCLUSION

In my paper I presented the results of a part of my reading comprehension survey of 60 students from three different secondary schools in Slovakia. The chosen text was a non-continuous store notice. The text and the four tasks represented an everyday problem. The answers for the third question of the text show us that 32% of the secondary school students would not know what to do if they had bought some of the biscuits unintentionally including peanuts. The fourth question asked students why the notice includes the best before dates. It is

visible from the results that 87% of the students would not be able to draw the right conclusion so to figure out that the bought biscuit includes peanuts or not. We can say that students are not prepared well by school education for solving everyday situations and problems. In schools students must acquire lexical knowledge which is maybe not enough to get along in everyday situations. The examination of this problem needs further survey which we aim to do in the future.

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ANALÝZA POSTOJŮ STUDENTŮ K VÝUCE SPOLEČENSKOVĚDNÍCH PŘEDMĚTŮ NA TECHNICKÉ UNIVERZITĚ

ANALYSIS OF STUDENT'S ATTITUDES TO TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE SUBJECTS AT A TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Jaroslav Lindr

Abstrakt

V současnosti vzrůstá potřeba všeobecného vzdělání absolventů vysokých škol pro úspěšné profesní uplatnění. Proto je třeba najít rovnováhu mezi zastoupením všeobecných a odborných předmětů. Teoretická východiska zdůvodňují nutnost zařazení společenskovědních předmětů a soft skills do akademických plánů na technické univerzitě, aby byl absolvent vybaven všemi potřebnými klíčovými kompetencemi. Příspěvek se zaměřuje na zpětnovazební hodnocení přínosu vybraného společenskovědního předmětu Etika v podnikání, jak ho vidí sami studenti. Hledá spojitost mezi realizací výuky a přínosem. Analyzuje kritéria, která přínos ovlivňují, např. intelektuální stimulace, praktičnost, aktuálnost témat, rozvoj osobnosti aj. Pomocí statistického zpracování údajů z dotazníků se snaží najít významnost kritérií podmiňujících přínos předmětu pro studenty. Společenskovědní předměty na technické univerzitě přispívají k všeobecnému vzdělávání studentů.

Klíčová slova: *Společenskovědní předměty, etika v podnikání, zpětnovazební hodnocení, dotazník, dichotomie všeobecnosti a odbornosti, faktory kvality výuky, statistické zpracování*

Abstract

At present the need for general education of graduates for successful professional career is increasing. Therefore, it is necessary to find a balance between the number of general and specialised subjects. The theoretical basis justifies the need to include social science subjects and soft skills to academic plans at the technical university so that graduate can be equipped with all necessary key competences. The paper focuses on the evaluation of contribution of a selected social science subject "Ethics in business" from the student's point of view. It looks for a connection between teaching and the contribution of the subject. It analyses the criteria which affect the benefit, e.g. intellectual stimulation, usefulness, topicality of issues, personal development etc. With help of using statistical processing from questionnaires it tries to find the significance of criteria which determine the contribution of the subject for students. Social science subjects at a technical university contribute to general education of students.

Key words: *Social science subjects, ethics in business, feedback evaluation, questionnaire, dichotomy of expertise and generality, factors of teaching quality, statistical proceedings*

1 ÚVOD

Současná dynamická doba klade velký důraz na všestranný rozvoj osobnosti absolventů vysokých škol. Znamená to, že v minulosti často přeceňovaný důraz na odbornou profilaci nestačí. O úspěchu v profesním zařazení, ve firemní praxi, v podnikatelském prostředí a v kariérním profilu často rozhodují celkové osobnostní kvality jedince. Ty jsou popsány v teorii školské edukace jako klíčové kompetence.

Problematika všestranného rozvoje studenta se stává vysoce aktuálním tématem, které vyžaduje teoretickou reflexi a praktickou realizaci ve školách v duchu modernizace a zvyšování efektivity výuky. Znamená to začlenění všeobecně vzdělávacích předmětů do kurikula vysokých škol, aby napomohly všestrannému rozvoji studentů.
Příspěvek si klade za cíl nejen zdůvodnit potřebu všeobecného vzdělávání studentů, ale také pohlédnout na to, jak studenti zařazení společenskovědních předmětů na technické univerzitě vnímají. Umožní tím pohled do edukační reality skrze zhodnocení dosavadního přínosu výuky společenskovědních předmětů. Příspěvek se rovněž snaží najít odpověď na otázku, jaké charakteristiky ovlivňují přínos výuky společenskovědních předmětů pro studenty.

2 NUTNOST NALEZENÍ OPTIMÁLNÍ ROVNOVÁHY MEZI VŠEOBECNĚ VZDĚLÁVACÍMI A ODBORNÝMI PŘEDMĚTY

V současnosti se až příliš zdůrazňuje jen odborná připravenost, specializace a funkční gramotnost absolventů v praxi. Nezřídka se odbornost nadřazuje nad všeobecnost. Avšak samotná odbornost nestačí. O úspěchu v pracovním zařazení mnohdy rozhodují také faktory s všestranným rozvojem jedince a s rozvojem obecných klíčových kompetencí.
Společenskovědní předměty usilují o rozvoj těch klíčových kompetencí, na které není v dostatečné míře pamatováno v předmětech odborných. Tím přispívají k všestrannému rozvoji studentů, vedou k celkové humanizaci technického prostředí a umožňují studentům rozmanitější zařazení v budoucí profesní praxi.
Jelikož jsou k dispozici praktické zkušenosti s výukou společenskovědních předmětů na technické univerzitě, nabízí se možnost vyhodnotit výsledky. To se děje pomocí zpětnovazebních dotazníků, ve kterých se studenti k přínosu předmětu vyjadřují. Je možné zachytit poznatky o výsledcích výuky a zhodnotit její dosavadní průběh a posoudit. Snaha o průhlednost zjištěných výsledků zvýší kulturu vzdělávacího prostředí a zároveň napomůže sladit poměr mezi vstupy a výstupy výuky tak, aby umožnil naplnit očekávání studentů.

2.1 Teoretická východiska pro budování optimální vzdělávací koncepce

Ve stručnosti sáhněme pro inspirativní myšlenky vybraných autorů, kteří se problematikou optimální podoby školy zabývají.
Škola musí umět reflektovat vzdělanostní potřeby s ohledem na daný sociokulturní kontext a moderní dobu. *„Držet ve škole krok s rozvojem vědeckého poznání, a to rozšiřováním požadavků o nové poznatky, jak je přináší věda, výroba, moderní technika nebo měnící se způsob života lidí…jde o inovaci obsahu, poněvadž poznatky zastarávají nebo jsou nahrazovány novými.*“ (Maňák & Janík & Švec, 2008, s. 30) Z toho plyne permanentní potřeba sledovat vývoj oboru.
Převážně v technickém vzdělávání činí nemalé problémy spojit všeobecnost s odborností. *„Edukační realita vždy byla a je nucená k rutinnímu praktikování jistých předepsaných postupů na úkor často podstatně důležitějších věcí, proto nastává rozpor mezi tzv. „školní gramotností“ a „funkční gramotností“ potřebnou pro život v současné společnosti.“* (Kožuchová, 2009, s. 146). Autorka volá po novém pojetí technického vzdělávání a po posunu od pasivního mechanického vnímání techniky směrem k jejímu inovativnímu využití.
Evaluaci výuky proto můžeme chápat jako „systematické zkoumání k určení hodnoty nebo přednosti programu, opatření nebo postupu pečlivým zhodnocením a studiem založeným na relevantních metodách, kritériích a standardech“ (Michek, 2009, s. 3).
V rovině vzájemnosti škola – já – vzdělávání pohlíží na hodnocení kvality výuky. K posouzení volí např. tato kritéria: výuka je užitečná – neužitečná, pomalá – rychlá, jednotvárná – pestrá, stará – mladá, nudná – zajímavá aj. (Pöschl, 2011, s. 92–93).
S tím souvisí potřeba inovace školství jako reflexe konceptu tzv. „dobré školy“. K charakteristikám dobré školy patří např. naplňování celospolečenských cílů, změny obsahu

vzdělávání, metody a formy pedagogické práce, úroveň pedagogických pracovníků, orientace školy na zájmy žáka aj. (srv. Rýdl, 2003, s. 45–47).
Budoucí inženýr by měl sdílet sociální prostředí, které formuje a ve kterém žije. „Jestliže se dnes ještě setkáme s tím, že někteří technici neuznávají společenskovědní poznání jako hodnotu nebo ho pokládají za problémový okruh, jde o subjektivní postoj, věcně dávno překonaný“ (Skalková, 2008, s. 142).

3 SOUČINNOST SPOLEČENSKOVĚDNÍHO A ODBORNÉHO VZDĚLÁVÁNÍ

Idea všestranného rozvoje osobnosti studentů se promítla do studijních programů na vybrané fakultě technické univerzity v Brně již před několika lety. Proto je možné pohlédnout na výsledky. K tomu byl vybrán společenskovědní předmět *CZ052 Etika v podnikání*.
V duchu koncepce všestranného rozvoje studentů se jedná o předmět, který na jedné straně sleduje společenskovědní vymezení etiky jako vědy, na druhé straně se snaží o aplikaci obecných etických teorií do sféry podnikání a firemní praxe. Ideální podoba předmětu předpokládá teoretických znalosti o etice a náhled na etické principy podnikání.

3.1 Obecné hodnocení společenskovědního předmětu – rozbor a interpretace údajů

Cílem předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání* je rozšířit obecnou teorii managementu o novou dimenzi podnikání založenou na principech etiky, fair-play a slušnosti. To znamená nejprve seznámit studenty s teoretickými principy, které v sobě etika nese. Děje se tak představením významných etických směrů, osobností a teorií, které z filozofického hlediska etiku konstituují. Prostřednictvím obecných etických principů dochází k poznání etiky jako aplikované vědy v oblasti podnikatelské a manažerské praxe s důrazem na etické přemýšlení.
Otázkou je, jak tuto koncepci předmětu vnímají samotní studenti, kteří se s takovým předmětem setkávají. Proto se zrodila myšlenka systematicky vyhodnotit, jaký přínos výuka předmětu pro studenty skutečné má. Výsledky hodnocení za jednotlivé akademické roky ukazuje tabulka 1 a graf 1.

Společenskovědní předmět/Období		Celkový dojem z předmětu *na škále 1–6 (1 – malý, 6 – velký)*
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2010/11	3,64
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2011/12	3,06
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2012/13	3,33
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2013/14	4,44
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2014/15	4,04
CZ52 Etika v podnikání	LS 2015/16	3,79
CZ052 Etika v podnikání	ZS 2016/17	3,34
CZ052 Etika v podnikání	LS 2016/17	3,65
CZ052 Etika v podnikání	ZS 2017/18	4,14
Průměr		**3,71**

Tab. 1 Hodnocení celkového dojmu z předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání*
zpracováno na základě: Hodnocení kvality výuky 2010/11 až 2017/18

Výsledky hodnocení celkového dojmu z předmětu vykazují lehce nadprůměrné hodnocení kolísající kolem střední hodnoty μ=3,71. To lze považovat za zcela přirozené. Lineární

regrese ukázala mírně rostoucí trend, což svědčí o snaze zkvalitňovat výuku s důrazem na modernizaci, efektivitu, inovaci témat a zavedení principů moderního vyučování.

Graf 1 Grafické znázornění celkového dojmu z předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání*
(se znázorněním lineární regrese trendu)
zpracováno autorem podle: Hodnocení kvality výuky 2010/11 až 2017/18

Z výsledků lze vyvodit, že studenti vidí předmět částečně pozitivně, částečně však také negativně. Proto vznikla potřeba zjistit, proč tomu tak je. Zpětnovazební hodnocení kvality výuky bylo proto rozšířeno o další dotazníkové šetření, které se blíže zaměřilo na další charakteristiky výuky, které vnímání přínosu předmětu ovlivňují.

3.2 Konkretizace hodnocení společenskovědního předmětu v rozrůznění faktorů ovlivňujících přínos

Proto nyní přistupme představení dalšího kroku výzkumného šetření. Respondentům bylo nabídnuto k posouzení kritérium charakterizující výuku. Dotazovaní svoji odpověď vyjádřili zakroužkováním příslušného čísla na předložené číselné stupnici sémantického diferenciálu 1–7 z důvodu převodu kvalitativní odpovědi na kvantitativní, statisticky schůdněji zpracovatelnou. Dotazník vyplnilo *n*=43 respondentů v období roku 2017–18. Příkladem navržených kritérií, mezi kterými studenti vybírali, jsou tato formulovaná rozrůznění:

- 1 = Potřebný pro můj osobní rozvoj – 7 = nepotřebný pro můj osobní rozvoj,
- 1 = zajímavý – 7 = nezajímavý,
- 1 = praktický – 7 = teoretický aj.

Nejprve se pokusme sumarizovat základní zjištění týkající se přínosu výuky v podrobnějším dotazníkovém šetření, jak ukazuje tabulka 2.

Předmět CZ052 Etika v podnikání	Číselná škála *(1 – Přínosný, 7 – Nepřínosný)*							Součet Σ	Střední hodnota μ	Směrodatná odchylka σ
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
Skupina L (*n*=22)	10	12	0	0	0	0	0	34	1,545	0,509
Skupina H (*n*=21)	0	0	7	8	4	1	1	81	4,095	1,091

Tab. 2 Hodnocení přínosu předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání*
zpracováno na základě dotazníků

Dále byl vzorek respondentů rozdělen na ty, kteří vidí přínos pozitivně (přibližně 50% počtu – skupina L=lepší), a ty, kteří vidí přínos negativněji (přibližně 50% počtu – skupina H=horší), abychom poodhalili další souvislosti. Rozhraničujícím kritériem je $\mu \leq 2{,}0$, resp. $\mu > 2{,}0$.
V každé z těchto dvou skupin proběhlo samostatné vyhodnocení charakteristik, které s vnímáním přínosu předmětu mohou souviset. K vyhodnocení byly použity základní popisné charakteristiky souboru, tj. střední hodnota μ a součet Σ přes vážené hodnoty číselné řady. Následně byl proveden t-test dvou nezávislých proměnných statistické signifikance daného kritéria a přínosu, který skrze nulovou hypotézu o shodě středních hodnot testovanou pomocí *p*-hodnoty potvrzuje, resp. zamítá souvislost mezi kritériem a přínosem.
Přehled všech zjištěných výsledků sémantického diferenciálu, sumace vážených hodnot a výsledků provedeného t-testu s příslušnými *p*-hodnotami ukazují tabulky 3–4. Poznamenejme, že před každým vyhodnocením byl proveden test normality. Ke statistickému zpravování byly použity příslušné aplikace softwaru STATISTICA 12. Testování využívá k posouzení *p*-hodnotu, kde rozhraničujícím kritériem pro přijetí, resp. zamítnutí nulové hypotézy o shodě středních hodnot je hodnota $p \leq 0{,}05$.

Faktor	Číselná škála							Součet Σ	Střední hodnota μ	*P*-hodnota *(faktor vs. přínos)*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
1 – Je potřebný pro osobní rozvoj; 7 – Není potřebný pro osobní rozvoj	13	5	4	0	0	0	0	35	1,591	0,827
1 – Potřebný pro budoucí práci; 7 – Není potřebný pro budoucí práci	7	9	4	1	0	1	0	41	2,136	0,040
1 – Zajímavý; 7 – Nezajímavý	7	10	4	0	1	0	0	44	2,000	0,060
1 – Inspirativní; 7 – Neinspirativní	9	6	4	2	0	1	0	47	2,136	0,057
1 – Praktický; 7 – (Zbytečně) teoretický	8	4	3	4	2	1	0	57	2,590	0,005
1 – Intelektuálně stimulující a podnětný; 7 – Není intelektuálně stimulující a podnětný	6	7	7	2	0	0	0	49	2,227	0,005
1 – Výuka je aktuální; 7 – Výuka není aktuální	4	11	2	4	1	0	0	83	2,409	0,002
1 – Je to celkově „o rozvoji“ osobnosti; 7 – Není to celkově „o rozvoji“ osobnosti	7	7	8	0	0	0	0	45	2,045	0,021

Tab. 3 Faktory ovlivňující přínos předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání* u skupiny L *(n=22)*
zpracováno autorem na základě dotazníků

P-hodnoty a střední hodnoty μ uvedené v tabulce 3 vypovídají o následujícím:

- Studenti, kteří vidí přínos předmětu pozitivně μ=1,545, zároveň oceňují, že předmět je potřebný pro osobní rozvoj (μ=1,591), avšak v ostatních faktorech se signifikantní shoda paradoxně neprokázala.
- Znamená to, že i když studenti vidí předmět jako přínosný, neshledávají ho potřebným pro budoucí práci (μ=2,316), méně zajímavým (μ=2,000), méně inspirativním (μ =2,136), zbytečně teoretickým (μ=2,590), méně intelektuálně stimulujícím a podnětným (μ=2,227), méně aktuálním (μ=2,409) a paradoxně s menším celkovým rozvojem osobnosti (μ=2,045).

Faktor	Číselná škála							Součet Σ	Střední hodnota μ	*P*-hodnota *(faktor vs. přínos)*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
1 – Je potřebný pro osobní rozvoj; 7 – Není potřebný pro osobní rozvoj	4	5	4	5	1	1	1	64	3,048	0,020
1 – Potřebný pro budoucí práci; 7 – Není potřebný pro budoucí práci	4	6	3	5	1	1	1	63	3,000	0,016
1 – Zajímavý; 7 – Nezajímavý	0	2	7	9	2	1	0	77	3,667	0,185
1 – Inspirativní; 7 – Neinspirativní	1	4	7	7	1	1	0	69	3,286	0,024
1 – Praktický; 7 – (Zbytečně) teoretický	1	1	6	6	1	4	2	88	4,190	0,825
1 – Intelektuálně stimulující a podnětný; 7 – Není intelektuálně stimulující a podnětný	0	3	5	10	3	0	0	76	3,619	0,134
1 – Výuka je aktuální; 7 – Výuka není aktuální	3	4	8	3	1	1	1	65	3,095	0,020
1 – Je to celkově „o rozvoji“ osobnosti; 7 – Není to celkově „o rozvoji“ osobnosti	3	6	9	0	1	0	2	61	2,904	0,008

Tab. 4 Faktory ovlivňující přínos předmětu *CZ052 Etika v podnikání* u skupiny H *(n=21) zpracováno autorem na základě dotazníků*

P-hodnoty a střední hodnoty μ uvedené v tabulce 4 ukazují na tyto skutečnosti:

- Studenti, kteří vnímají přínos předmětu méně příznivě μ=4,095, zároveň také poukazují na to, že předmět je zbytečně teoretický (μ=4,190), nezajímavý (μ=3,667) a nedostatečně intelektuálně stimulující a nepodnětný (μ=3,619).

- Zároveň ovšem také přiznávají, že předmět je potřebný pro osobní rozvoj (μ=3,048), je potřebný pro budoucí práci (μ=3,000), je inspirativní (μ=3,286), výuka je aktuální (μ=3,095) a celkově rozvíjí osobnost (μ=2,904).

Můžeme se tedy domnívat, že výsledky vykazují jistou rozpornost, kdy na jedné straně předmět studenty nepřitahuje, na druhé straně vidí výuku jako podnětnou, inspirativní, rozvíjející a potřebnou pro osobní rozvoj.

3.3 Shrnující komentáře k výsledkům

Z výsledků plyne, že studenti celkově vidí přínos předmětu pro svůj další profesní odborný a osobní rozvoj jako lehce nadprůměrný.

U skupiny L (pozitivní vidění přínosu předmětu) se faktor potřebnosti pro osobní rozvoj stává klíčový; ostatní faktory jsou viděny méně pozitivně.

U skupiny H (horší vidění přínosu předmětu) hraje klíčovou roli zejména nezajímavost témat, malá inspirativnost a teoretičnost, zatímco ostatní faktory výuky, přínos pro osobní rozvoj, pro budoucí práci, inspirativnost, aktuálnost témat a rozvoj osobnosti jsou viděny pozitivně.

Důvodu pro toto vnímání může být několik:

- Předně se jedná o nízkou předešlou vstupní znalost (a mnohdy i neznalost) etiky jako vědy u studentů. Nejasné představy studentů o věcné náplni etiky způsobují, že problematické vnímání předmětu se tím jen umocňuje.
- Studenti někdy poukazují na to, že společenskovědní předměty nemají přímou souvislost se studovaným (technickým) oborem, jejich studium si primárně nevybrali, a proto neshledávají pro jejich zařazení do akademického plánu opodstatnění.
- Z toho posléze plyne, že studenti by uvítali celkově větší praktičnost výuky, aktuálnost témat, tím i zajímavost a celkovou intelektuální stimulaci a podnětnost. Toho lze dosáhnout aplikací principů moderní pedagogiky ve výuce a větší provázaností s teorie s praxí. Bohužel příkladů pozitivního etického chování v podnikatelském prostředí kolem nás najdeme málo.

Celkově lze výuku předmětu *Etika v podnikání* považovat za pozitivní, s rostoucí úrovní kvality výuky (viz rostoucí lineární trend) s přínosem pro studenty.

4 ZÁVĚREČNÁ ZAMYŠLENÍ

Rozbor přínosu společenskovědních předmětů opírající se o zpětnovazební agendu hodnocení výuky a dotazníky ukázal, že studenti technického oboru studia obecně vnímají zařazení společenskovědních předmětů do studijních plánů jako lehce nadprůměrně přínosné s rostoucím lineárním trendem. Větší užitečnost vidí zejména u těch předmětů, ve kterých vnímají bližší tematickou provázanost s technickou praxí a zvoleným oborem studia.

Studenti by uvítali větší aktuálnost výuky, tj. zařazení témat spojených s praxí, což by zvýšilo zajímavost a jistou atraktivitu předmětu. Studenti celkově (z obou skupin vnímání přínosu) poukazují na fakt, že předmět by si zasloužil vyšší praktičnost, intelektuální stimulaci a podnětnost, aby zvýšil potřebnost pro budoucí práci a pro osobní rozvoj. U budoucích inženýrů, kteří profilují modální orientaci osobnosti jako zkoumavě praktický typ, lze toto vidění předmětu považovat za pochopitelné, logicky očekávatelné a přirozené.

Závěrem konstatujme, že všestranný rozvoj absolventů školy s ohledem na širší profesní vzdělávání je nutnou záležitostí. Mnohdy rozhoduje o úspěšnosti začlenění do praxe.

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HUDOBNÉ SCHOPNOSTI DOJČAŤA A BATOĽAŤA A MOŽNOSTI ICH ROZVOJA V SÚČASNOM RODINNOM PROSTREDÍ

INFANT AND TODDLER MUSICAL ABILITIES AND THE POSSIBILITIES OF DEVELOPMENT IN THE CURRENT FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Miroslava Ivanová

Abstrakt

Je dokázané, že hudba zohráva v živote dieťaťa významnú úlohu už od najútlejšieho veku. Je dôležité čím skôr podporovať a rozvíjať hudobné schopnosti detí, a to už pred vstupom do vzdelávacieho sytému. V predkladanom príspevku stručne charakterizujeme hudobno-podnetné prostredie a hudobné schopnosti dojčaťa a batoľaťa. Popisujeme rodinné prostredie a hudobné schopnosti konkrétneho dieťaťa – batoľaťa. V závere poukazujeme na konkrétne možnosti súčasnej rodiny, ako podporovať a rozvíjať hudobné schopnosti dojčaťa a batoľaťa, a to na základe jednotlivých hudobných činností - vlastnej hudobnej aktivity, počúvaním vhodnej hudby, hudobnými hračkami, návštevou hudobných a hudobno-divadelných predstavení pre deti.

Kľúčová slova: *hudobné schopnosti, dojča, batoľa, rodinné prostredie, hudobno-podnetné prostredie*

Abstract

There is evidence that music plays a significant role in a child's life from the earliest age.It is important to promote and develop the musical abilities of children, and it already before entering the educational system. This post briefly characterise musically-inspiring environment and musical abilities to the infant and toddler. We describe the family environment and musical abilities of a particular child, a toddler's. In the end, it pointed out the specific options of the current families, to promote and develop the musical abilities of the baby and toddler, based on individual music-music by listening to appropriate music activities their own activities, musical toys, visit music and the musical-theatrical performances for children.

Key words: *musical abilities, infant, toddler, family environment, the musically-inspiring environment*

1 VÝZNAM HUDBY V ŽIVOTE JEDINCA

Hudba v celej svojej pluralite a dimenzionalite sprevádza človeka už odo dňa narodenia. V historickom vývoji sa hudba a spev rozvíjali do rôznych podôb, pričom „*spievanie pre svoju ľahkú dostupnosť má široké pole spoločenského a výchovného uplatnenia.*“[1] Každý človek má vrodené dispozície – vlohy pre hudobné činnosti. Tvoria základ (vnútorné podmienky) a spolu s pôsobením prostredia a výchovy (vonkajšie podmienky) vplývajú na

[1] Mironov, S., Podstavková, I., Raninec, J. 2004: *Detský spevácky zbor (teória a metodika práce).* Bratislava: VEDA 2004. s. 5. ISBN 80-224-0796-8.

rozvoj hudobných schopností jedinca, t. j. „*dieťa sa v rodine, škole i mimo nej zoznamuje s hudbou a hudobnou kultúrou, ktorá sa nazhromaždila v ľudskej histórii.*“[2]
Postavenie hudby v súčasnej spoločnosti je však značne zložité. Stala sa prirodzenou súčasťou životného prostredia, znie z rádií, v dopravných prostriedkoch, supermarketoch, je súčasťou reklám, stala sa jednoducho každodennou kulisou. Napriek tomu, že jej pozitívne účinky sú opakovane dokazované, stále viac sa dostáva na okraj pozornosti. Význam hudby pre život človeka sa znižuje až podceňuje, je na spodnej hranici priorít. Hudobnej výchove ako celoživotnému procesu sa neprikladá patričný význam.
Antonín Sychra už v 60-tych rokoch 20. storočia upozornil na paradox, že čím je hudba dostupnejšia, tým väčšmi klesá hudobnosť obyvateľstva a šíri sa hudobná pasivita[3]. Prejavuje sa to pri vstupe detí do materskej, resp. základnej školy. Stále častejšie sa učitelia hudobnej výchovy stretávajú s hudobne nerozvinutými deťmi, ktoré nie sú zvyknuté spievať. I keď si to rodičia, najmä bez špeciálneho hudobného vzdelania neuvedomujú, majú možnosti, ako vytvoriť nasýtené hudobno-podnetné prostredie a tým podporiť hudobný vývoj svojich detí už pred ich vstupom do materskej školy.

2 RODINNÉ PROSTREDIE A STRUČNÁ CHARAKTERISTIKA HUDOBNO-PODNETNÉHO PROSTREDIA

Na vývin osobnosti dieťaťa vplýva celý rad faktorov, od vrodených predispozícií až po spoločenské prostredie, v ktorom sa postupne ocitá. Prostredie ako súbor najrozmanitejších (možných) podnetov môže zásadne ovplyvniť, ktoré schopnosti (v ktorých oblastiach) bude dieťa rozvíjať viac a ktoré menej.
Z pohľadu pedagogiky patrí prostredie k vonkajším činiteľom rozvoja osobnosti (spolu s výchovou). Hovoríme o tzv. sociologických determinantoch. Prostredie môžeme kategorizovať na základe rôznych hľadísk. Jedno z najrozšírenejších delení je:

a) podľa veľkosti: mikroprostredie, mezoprostredie, makroprostredie,
b) podľa povahy činnosti: pracovné, obytné a rekreačné,
c) podľa charakteru podnetov: prírodné, spoločenské a kultúrne.[4]

Na základe tohto delenia predstavuje rodina spoločenské, obytné mikroprostredie. Charakter hudobných podnetov, ktoré rodina dieťaťu poskytuje má vplyv na nasýtenosť daného hudobno-podnetného prostredia. Tento charakter je daný najmä kvalitou, intenzitou a typmi hudobných podnetov:

- Kvalita hudobných podnetov predstavuje kvalitu hudby (piesní a skladieb), s ktorými dieťa príde do kontaktu.
- Intenzita znamená ako často a na ako dlho je dieťa vystavené hudobnému podnetu.
- Typy hudobných podnetov predstavujú jednotlivé činnosti – spev, hra na nástroji, pohyb, počúvanie.

Okrem hudobných schopností sa v rodine rozvíja a formuje hudobný vkus a celkový vzťah a postoj k hudbe.

3 HUDOBNÉ SCHOPNOSTI

Vo všeobecnej psychológii predstavujú schopnosti také „*vlastnosti osobnosti, ktoré jedincovi umožňujú naučiť sa úspešne vykonávať určité činnosti.*“[5] Schopnosti sa delia na všeobecné a špecifické, pričom hudobné schopnosti patria medzi špecifické.

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[2] Melicher, A. 1991. *Hudobná psychológia.* Banská Bystrica : Pedagogická fakulta v Banskej Bystrici. s. 30. ISBN 80-85162-20-2.
[3] Sychra, A. 1965. *Hudba očima vědy*. Praha: Československý spisovatel. s. 91.
[4] Kominarec, I. 2003. *Základy pedagogiky. Vybrané pedagogické problémy*. Prešov : Fakulta humanitných a prírodných vied PU v Prešove. 6. vyd. s. 44. ISBN 8080681813.

Pojem hudobná schopnosť ani klasifikácia hudobných schopností nie sú v psychológii hudobných schopností zjednotené[6]. V súlade s definíciou schopností zo všeobecnej psychológie F. Sedlák hovorí o hudobných schopnostiach, že sú „*vnitřní předpoklady k úspěšnému vykonávaní hudebních činností.*[7]“
Hudobné schopnosti nie sú nemenné, ich vývin je vlastne hudobnou ontogenézou jedinca. V súlade s celkovým vývinom dieťaťa sa mení ich kvalita aj kvantita, okrem dedičnosti má na ne vplyv prostredie a pedagogické a výchovné pôsobenie, t. j. kvalita a kvantita vhodných hudobných podnetov. Významný vplyv majú tiež motivácia, záujmy či potreby jedinca[8]. P. Krbaťa hovorí o hudobných schopnostiach ako o „*produktoch biodromálneho vývinu*“, ktoré „*vznikajú v procese psychického vývinu, socializácie v rôznych formách (hra, učenie, výchova, práca) cieľavedome rozvíjanej hudobnej činnosti.*[9]“
Hudobné schopnosti sa teda prejavujú a zároveň rozvíjajú prostredníctvom konkrétnych hudobných činností. M. Schnierer k tomu dodáva, že platí vzájomný vzťah „*jaké je hudební východisko, takový je rozvoj hudebních schopností.*[10]“ Inými slovami, ak chceme rozvíjať hudobné schopnosti, je potrebné dieťaťu poskytovať primerané hudobné podnety, a zároveň ich kvalitu (náročnosť) postupne zvyšovať.

3.1 Klasifikácia hudobných schopností

Pre M. Schnierera predstavujú hudobné schopnosti východisko k popisu hudobného vnímania. Pri ich vyčleňovaní vychádza z kvality *hudobného sluchu*, ktorý podmieňuje *intonáciu* a *rytmické cítenie.* Ako ďalšie vyčleňuje *senzoricko-motorické schopnosti*, *analytické a syntetické vnímanie hudby,* pričom k syntetickému vnímaniu radí *tonálne a harmonické cítenie*. K hudobným schopnostiam zaraďuje *schopnosť emocionálnej reakcie*, ktorú ďalej delí na *extenzitu a intenzitu* citového hudobného vnímania a *hĺbku a trvalosť* citového hudobného zážitku[11].
Krbaťa považuje za základné hudobné schopnosti tieto: *hudobno-senzorické, senzomotorické, schopnosť udržať si stav sústredenej percepcie a sluchovej kontroly, schopnosť adekvátnej esteticko-emocionálnej vnímavosti, hudobnú pamäť, schopnosť vypracovať si adekvátne hudobné predstavy, hudobné myslenie, schopnosť estetickej reflexie.*[12]
Sedlák vo svojej *Hudební psychologii pro učitele* uvádza viacero klasifikácií hudobných schopností, od jednej z najstarších od amerického hudobného psychológa C. E. Seashorea, cez klasifikáciu B. M. Tĕplova či P. Michela až po dve vlastné verzie klasifikácie.
Sedlákova klasifikácia hudobných schopností:

- hudobno-sluchové,
- psychomotorické,
- analyticko-syntetické – patria k nim hudobná pamäť, tonálne a harmonické cítenie,
- rytmické cítenie, hudobná predstavivosť,

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[5] Kubáni, V. *Všeobecná psychológia*. Prešov: Prešovská univerzita v Prešove – FHPV. s. 122. ISBN 978-80-555-0172-7.
[6] Sedlák, F., Váňová, H. 2013. *Hudební psychologie pro učitele.* Praha: Univerzita Karlova v Praze, Nakladatelství Karolinum. s. 53. ISBN 978-80-246-2060-2.
[7] Tamtiež, s. 54.
[8] Tamtiež, s. 56.
[9] Krbaťa, P. 2008. *Psychológia hudby nielen pre hudobníkov.* s. 162. ISBN 978-80-969808-6-4.
[10] Schnierer, M. 1995. *Spoločenské funkce hudby.* České Budějovice: Pedagogická fakulta JU v Českých Budějovicích. s. 26. ISBN 80-7040-123-0.
[11] Tamtiež, s. 26 – 46.
[12] Krbaťa, P. 2008. *Psychológia hudby nielen pre hudobníkov*. s. 163 – 164. ISBN 978-80-969808-6-4.

- hudobno-intelektové – hudobná fantázia, hudobné myslenie.[13]

Sedlák zároveň uvádza upravenú klasifikáciu hudobných schopností, vhodnejšiu na účely hudobno-výchovnej praxe:

- hudobný sluch – schopnosti sluchovo-percepčné a sluchovo-motorické,
- hudobné cítenie – rytmické, tonálne a harmonické cítenie,
- hudobno-intelektové – hudobná pamäť, hudobná predstavivosť, hudobné myslenie,
- hudobno-tvorivé schopnosti.[14]

Sedlákova klasifikácia zahŕňa vrodené fyziologické vlohy a schopnosti, ktoré sú ďalej predmetom rozvíjania v rôznych vonkajších a vnútorných prostrediach v rôznej kvalite objektívnych a subjektívnych hudobných intervencií.

3.2 Stručná charakteristika hudobných schopností – hudobná ontogenéza dojčaťa a batoľaťa

Existujú dva základné typy teórií hudobného vývinu – k prvému patria teórie zaoberajúce sa hudobným vývinom vo všeobecnosti, k druhému teórie hudobného vývinu profesionálnych hudobníkov. K jedným z predstaviteľov prvého typu patrí teória Davida Hargreavesa[15] vychádzajúca z princípov vývinu podľa Piageta[16] a súčasne z vývinu v ostatných druhoch umenia.

Hargreaves definuje tieto fázy hudobného vývinu: senzomotorickú (0 – 2 roky), figurálnu (2 – 5 rokov), schematickú (5 – 8 rokov), fázu systému pravidiel (8 – 15 rokov) a profesionálnu fázu (od 15 rokov)[17].

Senzomotorická fáza – predstavuje obdobie dojčaťa, čiastočne sa prekrýva s obdobím batoľaťa. Dieťa ešte nespieva, objavuje sa bľabotanie ako reakcia na hudobný podnet. Môže mať rôznu tónovú výšku, realizuje sa ako jedna samohláska alebo niekoľko slabík. Jeho súčasťou býva rytmický tanec, a to už od 6. mesiacov. Hra na nástroji sa prejavuje ako tvorba a kontrola zvuku.

Figurálna fáza – čiastočne sa prekrýva s obdobím batoľaťa a obdobím predškolského veku. Dieťa v tejto fáze je schopné spevu artikulovaných a rozpoznateľných piesní. Spontánne tvorené piesne vychádzajú z už známych piesní. Ku koncu fázy je dieťa schopné zaspievať melódiu piesne správne. Pri hre na nástroji sa prispôsobujú hudbe svojho prostredia alebo kultúry.

Hargreaves sa pri popise jednotlivých fáz zameriava iba na zručnosti, ktorými dieťa zvyčajne disponuje. Ide o zručnosti v speve, kompozícii (kompozíciou nazýva hru na nástroji), melodickej percepcii a grafickom znázornení. Podrobnejšie sa hudobným vývinom dieťaťa zaoberá Sedlák.

V období dojčaťa (do 1. roka) je hudobný vývin súčaťou celkového vývinu dieťaťa. Už niekoľko dní po narodení funguje *sluchový analyzátor* a môže spracovávať aj hudobné podnety. Dieťa reaguje na matkin hlas. Výskumy dokonca potvrdzujú, že dieťa je schopné vnímať zvuky už v prenatálnom období. Citlivosť sluchu sa rýchlo zvyšuje. Matkin spev umožňuje dieťaťu prirodzenú diferenciáciu tónových podnetov, pričom sa tu prejavujú značné individuálne rozdiely medzi jednotlivými deťmi. Do pol roka reagujú batoľatá zvyčajne na väčšie intervaly ako tercia, kvinta, ku koncu prvého roka sú schopné reagovať aj na tón či poltón. Deti prejavujú radosť zo zvukov, či už sú to rôzne zvukové hračky, napr. hrkálky

[13] Sedlák, F., Váňová, H. 2013. *Hudební psychologie pro učitele.* Praha: Univerzita Karlova v Praze, Nakladatelství Karolinum. s. 68. ISBN 978-80-246-2060-2.

[14] Tamtiež.

[15] David Hargreaves (1939) – britský hudobník, profesor detskej psychológie, zameriava sa na vývinovú psychológiu a umelecké vzdelávanie.

[16] Jean Piaget (1896 – 1980) – švajčiarsky psychológ, vytvoril psychologickú periodizáciu kognitívneho vývinu.

[17] Werner, F. 2005. *Is early music education necessary in order to reach a professional level?* s. 27 – 32. Dostupné na http://www.ethesis.net/early_music/early_music.pdf

alebo spev. Chce ich nielen počúvať, ale aj samo realizovať – búchaním hračkou, vyludzovaním. Už ročné deti s nadšením „hrajú“ na klavír, aj keď nekoordinovane, ale fascinuje ich zvuk nástroja.
Hudobné vnímanie je spočiatku syntetické. Dieťa najlepšie vníma hudobné podnety, ktoré ho podnecujú k hudobným prejavom. Dieťa najskôr upúta rytmus a tempo hudby, dynamické zmeny a výrazné zmeny farby. Pri hudobnom vnímaní sa popri sluchovom uplatňuje motorický a zrakový analyzátor. Telesné pohyby sú spočiatku nesynchrónne, objavujú sa už v šiestich mesiacoch, avšak spresňujú sa až v treťom roku.[18] Krbaťa píše, že „*hudobná pamäť*“ začína fungovať už od deviateho mesiaca. *Hlasový rozsah* novorodenca je malý, najčastejšie sa pohybuje okolo a^1. V treťom až štvrtom mesiaci sa rozširuje.
V období batoľaťa (1 – 3 roky) sa spolu s rozvojom a osvojovaním reči objavujú prvé spevácke pokusy. Spočiatku často splývajú do tzv. „*spievanej reči*“, neskôr sa pri rôznych činnostiach objavujú popevky. Dieťa experimentuje s vlastným hlasom. Funguje hudobná pamäť, schopnosť reprodukovať, hudobné činnosti sa stávajú súčaťou hier, na známe melódie si vymýšľajú vlastné texty, prípadne si upravujú melódie.[19] Podľa Sedláka sa tento „*spontánny spev*“ objavuje asi v polovici tretieho roka. Okrem toho, že vyjadruje ich city a nálady obsahuje aj prvé operácie s hudobnými predstavami. Melodické cítenie a spevácka reprodukcia sa však u dieťaťa rozvinú iba keď má dostatok speváckych podnetov, preto má spev matky aj ďalších členov rodiny mimoriadny význam. *Hlasový rozsah* je individuálny, pohybuje sa v rozpätí veľkej tercie až čistej kvinty, obvykle medzi es^1 – g^1.[20]
Na základe uvedeného môžeme konštatovať, že takmer všetky hudobné schopnosti sa prejavujú a je možné ich na elementárnej úrovni rozvíjať už od útleho veku. Ako prvý sa prejavuje hudobný sluch, ktorý tvorí základ ďalšieho hudobného vývinu dieťaťa. Popri nich sa pomerne skoro prejavuje rytmické cítenie. Postupne sa rozvíja hudobná pamäť a pred koncom tretieho roka aj hudobná predstavivosť. Zároveň sa vytvárajú základy pre rozvoj tonálneho a harmonického cítenia, pre hudobné myslenie a hudobno-tvorivé schopnosti.

4 CHARAKTERISTIKA HUDOBNÝCH SCHOPNOSTÍ – HUDOBNÁ ONTOGENÉZA KONKRÉTNEHO DIEŤAŤA

4.1 Stručná charakteristika rodinného prostredia

Júlia má 2 roky a 10 mesiacov (34 mesiacov), je jedináčik. Jej otec absolvoval ZUŠ hru na husle, je samouk na gitare, je amatérsky hudobník a jeho vzťah k hudbe je vysoko pozitívny. Jej matka študovala odbor *hudobná výchova* na VŠ, od detstva spieva v speváckych zboroch, spevu sa venovala aj počas tehotenstva. Aktívnou členkou zborov ostala aj po narodení Júlie, preto ju v podstate od narodenia brávala na svoje koncerty.
V domácnosti sa nachádza klavír, niekoľko gitár, rytmické hudobné nástroje, rádio aj gramofón. Zo zvukových hračiek je to zvukový stolík, ktorý prehráva zvuky rôznych zvierat a hracia kocka, ktorá prehráva tri melódie a dva rôzne zvuky.
Podobne pozitívny vzťah k hudbe majú aj oba páry starých rodičov. Jeden starý otec je profesionálny zvukár, nahrávky často spracováva aj doma. V oboch domácnostiach sú rôzne hudobné nástroje.

4.2 Hudobné aktivity v rodine

Obaja rodičia Júlii od narodenia spievajú, a to pri rôznych činnostiach – pri zaspávaní, pri hre, veľmi často v aute. Čím je Júlia staršia, tým viac táto aktivita podlieha jej riadeniu. Približne

[18] Sedlák, F., Váňová, H. 2013. *Hudební psychologie pro učitele.* Praha: Univerzita Karlova v Praze, Nakladatelství Karolinum. s. 359 - 360. ISBN 978-80-246-2060-2.
[19] Krbaťa, P. 2008. *Psychológia hudby nielen pre hudobníkov*. s. 137 - 139. ISBN 978-80-969808-6-4.
[20] Sedlák, F., Váňová, H. 2013. *Hudební psychologie pro učitele.* Praha: Univerzita Karlova v Praze, Nakladatelství Karolinum. s. 362. ISBN 978-80-246-2060-2.

v 15 mesiacoch sa u Júlie začala prejavovať záľuba v počúvaní spevu. Častokrát si už pri nasadaní do auta „pýtala“ spev, dokonca si vyberala, ktorú pieseň chce počúvať – spočiatku to bola jedna pieseň, ktorú chcela neustále opakovať počas danej cesty. V súčasnosti Júlia uprednostňuje spev rodičov doma pri hre, ale v aute si žiada CD. Pri počúvaní si sama spieva, ale rodičom spev zakazuje. Približne od 32. mesiacov si pri zaspávaní striedavo žiada spev alebo rozprávku.
V závislosti od konkrétnej situácie sa spev realizuje buď a cappella, alebo so sprievodom hudobných nástrojov. Do hry na hudobné nástroje sa zapája aj Júlia. Približne od 27. mesiaca si sama pýta, že chce hrať na klavír. Striedavo obľubuje tiež bubon, zvončeky a rumbagule. V prípade, že pri speve hrá otec na gitaru, zapája sa aj ona. Niekedy je sama iniciátorkou hry na nástroje, pričom vyberie nástroj sebe aj rodičom. Zo zvukovými hračkami sa hrala asi do 30. mesiacov.
Z piesní, ktoré rodičia Júlii spievajú sú to najčastejšie detské ľudové piesne, pesničky z rozprávok, v období Vianoc to boli aj koledy a rôzne vianočné piesne. Okrem rodičov spieva Júlii aj stará mama.
Ako už bolo spomenuté, Júliina matka je členkou speváckych zborov, preto sa Júlia zúčastňuje koncertov vážnej hudby už od niekoľkých mesiacov. Bola tiež na vianočnom vystúpení v MŠ a ZŠ a na dvoch hudobno-divadelných predstaveniach pre deti.
Z reprodukovanej hudby, ktorú rodičia s Júliou počúvajú je to CD Jančiči, séria Spievankovo a Veľkí herci spievajú malým deťom. Popri tom sú to rôzne rozprávky a TV programy – seriál Bambuľka a Trpaslíci.

4.3 Hudobná ontogenéza

Júlia rada spieva. Jedna z prvých piesní, ktoré vedela zaspievať bolo *Janko môj, Prší, prší a Kačička divoká*. Jej intonácia je lepšia ako rytmus. V závislosti od piesne a frekvencie opakovania intonuje čisto s malými odchýlkami.
Spevom sa u Júlie rozvíja hudobný sluch a hudobná pamäť. Obe tieto schopnosti sa prejavili nielen záujmom o počúvanie spevu rodičov, ale aj vlastným spevom. Približne od 28. mesiacov je Júlia schopná už po niekoľkých počutiach rozpoznateľne zaspievať aj náročnejšiu pieseň, ako je napr. *Včielka Maja* alebo *Vianoce, Vianoce* od P. Nagya. Júlia si často pospevuje aj sama pri hre. V poslednom období (približne mesiac) však odmieta na výzvu zaspievať naučenú pieseň, ale vymýšľa si, niekedy melódiu, niekedy text a niekedy oboje.
Okrem spevu Júlia rada počúva hudbu. Istý čas bola jej obľúbenou piesňou *Tota Heľpa* a *Včielka Maja*. Nasledovalo Spievankovo, v súčasnosti je to najmä Jančiči.
Júlia pozná hudobné nástroje (vizuálne, na obrázku aj naozajstný nástroj) – klavír, gitaru, bubon, trúbku, píšťalku, husle. Pri počúvaní častokrát správne rozozná bubon a husle, menej často trúbku alebo píšťalu. Okrem toho vie, že keď niekto zaspieva, treba mu zatlieskať, pozná a rozumie slovu koncert a predstavenie – v jej predstave je to zatiaľ podujatie, kde spievajú dievčatá alebo deti (alebo mamka). Prejavuje radosť, keď vie, že ide na koncert a v závislosti od okolností dokáže sústredene počúvať 10 – 15 minút. Okrem toho sa vie po odspievaní pokloniť. Vie, že určitý pohyb rukami znamená dirigovanie a vie, že jeden človek diriguje a druhý má podľa toho spievať.

5 MOŽNOSTI ROZVOJA HUDOBNÝCH SCHOPNOSTÍ DIEŤAŤA V RODINE

5.1 Aktívna hudobná činnost členov rodiny

Ako už bolo spomínané vyššie, hudobné schopnosti sa prejavujú a zároveň rozvíjajú cez hudobné činnosti. Najzákladnejšia a najprirodzenejšia hudobná činnosť je spev. Dá sa realizovať v podstate kedykoľvek, kdekoľvek, nič k nemu netreba, a pretože v rodine nejde o umelecké výkony, môže ju realizovať každý. V súčasnosti nie je ťažké zohnať si nahrávky rozličných detských piesní, a tak aj rodičia, ktorí nie sú zvyknutí spievať, prípadne nepoznajú

či nespomínajú si na detské piesne, si ich môžu napočúvať a pri troche snahy následne aj sami zaspievať.
Hra na klasickom hudobnom nástroji bez skúseností a bez samotného nástroja nie je možná, avšak v súčasnosti sú ľahko dostupné rôzne detské hudobné nástroje. Deti majú rady rôzne zvuky, a možnosť zahrať sa s rytmickým hudobným nástrojom určite uvítajú. Samozrejme, treba vyberať uvážlivo, búchanie na bubon nemusí byť príjemné susedom, ale proti maracasom či ozvučkým drievkam nie je dôvod namietať. Za hudobný nástroj možno považovať aj rôzne hrkálky, ktoré sa dávajú už novorodencom.
Spoločný spev spojený s hrou na vhodný hudobný nástroj podporuje rozvoj celého komplexu hudobných schopností – najmä hudobný sluch, jeho sluchovo-percepčnú aj sluchovo-motorickú zložku, rytmické cítenie aj hudobnú pamäť. Má tiež pozitívny vplyv na vytváranie a podporu vzájomných vzťahov v rodine.

5.2 Počúvanie hudby

Počúvanie hudby je jednou z najrozšírenejších hudobných aktivít v súčasnosti. Hudba nás obklopuje prakticky na každom kroku. Internet je plný nahrávok, CD sa predávajú už aj na benzínových pumpách, sú prílohou rôznych časopisov a denníkov. Nie je možné, ani žiaduce sa mu vyhnúť, o to viac by si však rodičia mali dať záležať na výbere vhodnej reprodukovanej hudby. Už batoľatá si rady určujú, čo chcú počúvať, ak túto možnosť majú.
Hudbu pre deti môžeme deliť podobne ako hudbu „pre dospelých“ na ľudovú, vážnu (detská pieseň) a populárnu. Okrem tohto žánrového delenia treba hudbu pre deti diferencovať podrobnejšie podľa veku, ktorému je určená – hudba pre predškolský vek (a mladší), pre mladší školský vek, pre starší školský vek.
Ľudové piesne pre deti môžeme nájsť najčastejšie v knihách ako riekanky, bez notového zápisu, prípadne v špeciálnych knihách s klavírom a so špeciálnym notovým zápisom. Po roku 2000 sa objavuje duo *Mária Podhradská* a *Richard Čanaky*, v súčasnosti známi ako Spievanka a Zahrajko a ich séria CD a DVD *Spievankovo*. Jedno z ich prvých CD Deťom 1 s podtitulom Ľudové piesne pre najmenšie deti obsahuje v podstate celý základný ľudový repertoár pre deti. Piesne sú najčastejšie so sprievodom gitary, klavíra alebo huslí a bicích nástrojov. Piesne sú živé a veselé. Jednotlivé CD série Spievankovo vychádzajú z DVD, ktoré sú rôzne tematicky a didakticky zamerané, napr. pesnička o priateľstve, o umývaní zúbkov a pod.[21]
Internet je plný nahrávok vážnej hudby pre deti, obvykle diela Bacha alebo Mozarta, je možné ľahko ich vyhľadať pri zadaní hesla „classical music for children“. Predstavujú upokojujúcu hudbu, určenú na uspávanie.
Slovenská populárna hudba pre deti sa začala objavovať približne od 80. rokov, avšak táto tvorba je vhodná pre mladší školský vek, prípadne predškolský vek. Patria sem nahrávky D. Rolincovej, P. Nagya, M. Nogu a Š. Skrúcaného či M. Paštékovej.
V roku 1997 vychádza CD Malá spevohra s podtitulom Spievajúce hračky. Interpretmi sú známi herci a deti.[22] Autormi textov sú Ľ. Zeman, D. Hevier, Z. Laurinc, T. Janovic, D. Brindza. Autormi hudby sú J. Kinček, G. Dušík, P. Varga.[23] Piesne nie sú didakticky zamerané, texty odrážajú detský svet, po hudobnej stránke nie sú veľmi zaujímavé, sú to typické popové piesne bez väčších kvalít.
V roku 2007 sa objavuje projekt Sisi Michalidesovej *Veľkí herci spievajú malým deťom*. CD s 20. piesňami je súčasťou knihy, ktorá obsahuje texty, notové zápisy piesní a ilustrácie. Celkovo vyšli tri CD. Piesne sú autorské, rôzneho žánrového zamerania, hudobne zaujímavo spracované, bez didaktického zámeru, texty odrážajú detský svet. Ako napovedá názov, ich

[21] http://www.spievankovo.sk/cd/
[22] http://www.littera.sk/kniha/71130
[23] http://www.alisk.sk/pesnicky/69-mala-spevohra-cd-mc.html

interpretmi sú známi slovenskí herci.[24] Za isté mínus považujeme, že pri notovom zápise nie je ani jedna sloha textu podpísaná.
V roku 2018 vyšlo CD Jančiči. Autorkou hudby a textov je Anna Grega Mižič. CD je vhodné už pre batoľatá, obsahuje 15 veselých piesní, ktoré textovo odrážajú detský svet. Piesne sú chytľavé, väčšina z nich ľahko zapamätateľných a reprodukovateľných aj najmenšími deťmi. Za isté negatívum považujeme iba spev pochybnej kvality, ktorý sa zrejme snaží imitovať spev najmenších detí a tým sa im priblížiť, nie je to však vhodný spevácky vzor.

5.3 Iné hudobné aktivity

Okrem aktívneho spevu, hry na hudobných nástrojoch, počúvania hudby sú aj ďalšie činnosti, ktorými môžeme podporiť rozvoj hudobných schopností dojčaťa a batoľaťa. Môže to byť sledovanie hudobných televíznych programov, návšteva hudobných (hudobno-divadelných) podujatí či hra so zvukovými hračkami.
Slovenské komerčné televízie neponúkajú žiadne hudobné relácie pre deti. Slovenská televízia (RTVS) aktuálne ponúka jedinú reláciu pre deti, ktorej súčasťou je aj hudobná tematika – *Trpaslíci*. Relácia vznikla v roku 2014, spracováva rôzne témy. Hudobné časti sa nazývajú Smajlihit – Veselé pesničky. Doteraz vzniklo viac než 100 piesní - klipov, prvých 24 vyšlo v roku 2015 aj na DVD. Autorom hudby je Norbert Bodnár, autorom textu Ján Uličiansky[25]. Protagonistami sú mladí herci, ktorí hrajú postavy jednotlivých trpaslíkov. Piesne sú vhodné pre predškolský vek až mladší školský vek. Sú to typické populárne piesne, rytmické, so zaujímavými hudobnými aranžmánmi, ale s málo chytľavými melódiami. TV Rik – televízia celodenne vysielajúca programy pre deti rôzneho veku vysiela aj klipy detských piesní vhodné pre dojčatá a batoľatá. Vizuálna stránka však kvalitou prevažuje nad auditívnou, taktiež nie sú uvádzaní interpreti ani autori jednotlivých piesní.
Návšteva hudobného podujatia je pre deti veľmi zaujímavá a podnetná, preto by sa jej rodičia nemali vyhýbať. Na väčšine z nich sa ráta s detskou interakciou, a preto sú vhodné aj pre živé a neposedné deti. Okrem samotného hudobného zážitku sa tu dieťa učí základným pravidlám správania, napr. kedy má ticho sedieť, kedy tlieskať a pod. V súčasnoti existujú špecializované hudobné a divadelné skupiny, prípadne jednotlivci, ktorí sa zameriavajú na realizáciu hudobných a hudobno-divadelných predstavení pre deti rôznych vekových kategórií. K najznámejším momentálne patria *Ujo Ľubo, Smejko a Tanculienka, Paci Pac, Spievankovo, Jančiči.*
Súčasťou každej detskej izby sú rôzne druhy hračiek. Aj v tomto smere môžu rodičia podporiť hudobný vývin. Popri už spomínaných detských hudobných nástrojoch existuje tiež široká ponuka zvukových a hudobných hračiek. V podstate sú to väčšinou hracie skrinky, ktoré po stlačení tlačidla prehrajú jednu alebo viacero melódií, prípadne rôzne zaujímavé zvuky. Rozvíjajú nie len sluch, ale aj zrak a hmat. Sú určené pre rôzne vekové kategórie.

6 ZÁVER

Rodinné prostredie zohráva významnú rolu pri rozvoji hudobných schopností detí – dojčiat a batoliat, a to už pred vstupom do materskej školy. Stačí, aby rodičia vytvorili dostatočne podnetné hudobné prostredie. Dôležité je už od útleho veku vytvárať a podporovať pozitívny vzťah k hudbe, a to prostredníctvom aktívnych hudobných činností.
Najdôležitejšia je vlastná hudobná aktivita rodičov a starých rodičov, prípadne inej rodiny z blízkeho okolia dieťaťa. Spev matky je nenahraditeľný, nielen, že podporuje rozvoj hudobného sluchu, ale upevňuje aj emocionálne puto medzi matkou a dieťaťom. Spevom sa popri hudobnom sluchu rozvíja aj hudobná pamäť. Okrem spevu prispieva k rozvoju

[24] https://kultura.sme.sk/c/3612318/velki-herci-malym-detom.html
[25] http://trpaslici.rtvs.sk/

hudobných schopností hra na hudobných nástrojoch. Je vhodné, aby dieťa malo medzi hračkami aj nejaký detský hudobný nástroj.
Popri speve a hre na nástroji je dôležitou činnosťou počúvanie vhodnej a primeranej reprodukovanej hudby a návšteva hudobných podujatí. Okrem samotného hudobného zážitku sa tu dieťa učí základným pravidlám slušného správania.

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MANIPULATION AND PROPAGANDA IN POLISH-RUSSIAN RELATIONSHIPS IN THE LIGHTS OF OWN RESEARCH

Magdalena Butkiewicz

Abstract

The article contains a description of research carried out on the image of Polish-Russian relations which are spoken in Polish state and commercial media. To evaluate the effectiveness of media messages and an indication of attitude to Russia and its head - president Vladimir Putin - I asked 50 students of journalism from Warsaw.

Keywords: *manipulation, propaganda, journalism, Polish-Russian relationships, polish media, research, journalism students*

1. Methodology introduction

The problem of manipulation and propaganda in the media has been and still is extremely important in my research. In the article I refer to the results of my own research, which were carried out in August 2017. With a request to complete the survey, I turned to students of two public universities in Warsaw.

50 students of journalism and social communication took part in the survey. I have asked for answers from people who know how the media works in Poland, who know the basic problems of manipulation and propaganda in the media (in a general sense) and who know how politicians shapes their image. These were the three conditions I set for the people who participated in my research.

The questionnaire was created on the Google Docs form. It was sent to participants via e-mail. Google Form was available to students only for 3 days. They had so much time to complete the survey as they needed in one session.

2. Polish-Russian relations in the Media

Russia is a state where for centuries propaganda was skilfully directed not only against Poland but also against other countries of Western Europe, as well as the United States of America[1]. Disinformation campaigns, discrediting the politicians, public people and common citizens belong to tools which are amazingly often used by Russian propaganda, tools that the Kremlin authorities use all too gladly. In relation to the Republic of Poland, Russian media and educational institutions most willingly use the strategy which consists in false argumentation, claiming that Poland lies in the zone of the so-called Russian influence and the integration of Poland as well as other countries of the former communist bloc with the European Union are deliberate blows against the interests of Russia (PE 2016). History of Poland witnessed over 1000 years of bilateral relations with our eastern neighbour. What is more important, contemporary history of those mutual relations – apart from events which concern politics, economic and social lives of both the countries – is written first of all by the media, traditional as well as the new ones, which in a significant way influence the way reality is perceived by their addressees on both sides, at the same time forming the images of all countries, including Russia and its authorities. What is the image of the Russian Federation in the Polish media? Does the audience of the Polish media believe in what is said about Russia and the people by

[1] The text under a different title has also been published on the website of the Foundation Wolność i Demokracja, http://wid.org.pl/wp-content/uploads/M.-Butkiewicz_Anti-Russian-Propaganda-or-Rusophilia.pdf (access 13.05.2018).

whom it is governed in TV or press information services? And, finally, can we say that the Polish media are not objective in their passing on information about Russia and their work shows signs of broadcasting anti-Russian propaganda or rusophilia?

2.1 Russia as a permanent threat to Polish sovereignty

Media informational services relate the actions initiated or supervised by political leaders. To all the European Union, but especially to Poland as a country of unique geopolitical situation, an incredibly important event was the aggression of the Russian army against Ukraine in April 2014. Thy hybrid war which is being run in the eastern districts of Donetsk and Luhansk has been one of the most important news in the Polish media. Still today in the Polish TV, press and internet information services, there appear reports from Donbass – accounts of armed activities; reports concerning the life situation of civilians as well as information concerning humanitarian help addressed to that region; political decisions and international reactions undertaken concerning the situation of the eastern part of Ukraine. In the days 28-29 August 2014, the ministries of foreign affairs of Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Poland condemned the aggression of the Russian military forces onto the territory of Ukraine. Politicians univocally emphasised that the Russian aggression poses a serious threat to safety in all the region. Is the audience of the Polish media aware of the possible threat?

As is shown by research conducted for the purposes of this article, as much as 60% of the questioned gave a positive answer to the question whether or not Russia is a possible threat to Poland (Butkiewicz 2017). Only 24 % declared that Russia poses no threat to Poland, and 16% of the people taking part in the research indicated that they have not considered the issue so far. That means that the events taking place in the east of Ukraine were received by ordinary citizens of Poland (not only by politicians and journalists) as a deeply disturbing signal, forcing one to think intensely about what awaits us in the future. However one cannot rule out the possibility that even without the aggression against Ukraine one would fear Russian attack, still the medial reports about the situation in Donbass evoked much disturbance in the Polish society.

In the next question, the participants of the poll were requested to point to a specific kind of threat they fear from Russia. 42% of the questioned pointed to the possibility of Polish land being annexed. Surely it has some connection with the military activities in the east of Ukraine and with the propaganda communication permanently run by Russia, consisting in proving the historical dependence of Polish land on Russia. 38% of the polled are afraid of Russia waging an open war on Poland, whereas as many as 32% of the questioned are afraid of cyberterrorism, being aware of the skills and possibilities of the Russian hackers. The answer: “I am not afraid of anything, because Russia does not pose any threat to us” was indicated by as few as 14% of the questioned people. Only one person made use of the option “other kinds of threat”. The person said we should be concerned that Russia shall keep up actions aiming to ridicule Poland on the international arena. That means that very few people are aware of unconventional, but still real threats to which the Polish authorities and the entire society are exposed. The propaganda spread by the states which do not belong to the European Union, including Russia, aims at ridiculing the member countries, weakening their images, twisting their ideas in the public mind as well as weakening the common stance of the EU by belittling the significance of some member countries (PE 2016). Creating a false image of Poland on the international arena, ridiculing the actions of Polish politicians, showing the government as weak and incompetent, and portraying all the nation as full of flaws and complexes can bring far reaching consequences. Definite stereotypes are a source of knowledge not only for the so-called average citizen but also for such media which, in spite of the recommendations of the EU, take no care of the quality and obeying suitable standards by their editing boards (PE 2016).

2.2 Media and strenghtening national stereotypes

What stereotypes concerning Russians, Russia and the Federation authorities have taken root in Poland through the media and have become fixed because of the media? What role do those stereotypes play in the process of shaping the image of Russia? Can they be treated as manifestation of propaganda aimed against the members of brotherly nation? Although most of Poles do not know any Russians personally, yet almost everybody has their own opinion about Russians as nation (Gawarkiewicz 2011). People taking part in the research were first asked to indicate, whether or not they know any Russian – a man or a woman – personally. 57% of the polled people gave a negative answer, whereas 43% confirmed such acquaintance. In the next question the questioned people were requested to describe the Russian nation with one adjective. 70% of the adjectives given in the poll are words of negative slant, and a vast majority of them are related to the stereotype image of Russians as an alcohol-abusing nation. Most often they were described as a drunken, unforgiving and quarrelsome nation. Such opinion of a society whose members one does not personally know can, and well should be, something to worry about, but, what is more important, it shows exactly what great significance long grown national stereotypes have. Their reflection can be found even among positive features with which Russians have been described. Most often mentioned adjectives in this category indicate that the nation is joyful and loves entertainment.

Considering that over a half of the studied sample do not know any Russians personally, what do those people base their judgment and opinions about Russians on? In the research run for the needs of this text there was the question: "What do you base your beliefs about Russians as a nation on?". The participants of the research could choose more than one of the answers offered, but they could also add to the lists their own sources of information concerning the Russian society. A vast majority of the researched party answered that the source of any opinions they had about Russians was the knowledge they brought from their school history lessons. This answer was given by 56% of the interrogated persons, whereas another 8% put in variants indirectly connected with this source of knowledge, pointing, for example, to literature. Media images or information took the second place among the most popular answers, with the result 50%, and the third most often chosen option were experiences of one's own, which were indicated by 38% of the researched persons. What is interesting, 28% of the questioned chose the answer indicating that their image of Russians was shaped basing on common gossip, at the same time acknowledging that in every gossip there is a grain of truth. One person wrote straightforwardly that the knowledge he or she had about Russians is drawn from the common stereotypes about them. The media doubtlessly do contribute to the popularisation and fixation of particular stereotypes concerning nations, but what matters in this process is not so much information passed on to the audience as the propaganda communicates hidden in feature and documentary movies, as well as images created in literary works (Thomson 2001). What was particularly important here were the productions emitted by the television which were created in the times of the cold war – the American movies portrayed Russian exactly as a drinking nation, treacherous and backward, whereas the Russian productions showed all the people of the capitalist West as thoroughly corrupt – immoral and worshipping money (Płażewski 2001).

Some traits have been attributed to both the sides of the cold war conflict for such a long time, that the uprooting of nation images and stereotypes built this way can be impossible for long years to come (Błuszkowski 2003).

In the light of these facts, it is very interesting to see what answers were given to the next question. The examined persons were asked to choose, out of a given list of factors, all those which in their opinion have influence on what opinions about Russians are formed in the heads of other Poles. Five ready answers were offered and one's own observations were allowed to be added. The greatest number of people indicated that the Poles' opinion is shaped by the

knowledge of history of Polish-Russian relations. This answer was chosen by over 71% of the people. 69,9% of the people pointed to news broadcast in the media, and 50% indicated TV programmes, documentary films and reportages about Russia. Personal experience of contact with the Russians or a stay in Russia was chosen by 30,6% of the researched body, whereas in the opinion of 23,3% of the researched considerable influence on the Poles' opinion on contemporary Russia is made by western feature and spy movies, even though their scripts are most often literary fiction. Only one person mentioned their experiences from the times of the People's Republic of Poland and about the lack of independence in this time. So, as it is clear to see, the researched consequently showed that the same elements have influence on building their personal opinion as well as the opinion of the whole Polish nation about contemporary Russia. Knowledge holds the first place in both cases, most frequently the knowledge obtained at school. Only the second position was ascribed by the examined to media message. Similarly, around 1⁄4 of the polled sees a significant influence of cinema.

3. Media and references to the history of Polish-Russian relations

Propagandists, forever active since the beginnings of times, have always been aware how important a factor history is, shaping not only national identity but also regulating international relations (Butkiewicz 2016). The history of Polish-Russian relations is long and difficult – there are many painful moments in it, but also many shameful ones. Russian propaganda assumes distorting history (Butkiewicz, Łuczuk 2018). It consists not only on dropping the curtain of silence on those events which show the range of crimes committed over the years by the authorities of the former Soviet Union. It also concerns attempts at concealing the violation of human rights and the rules of international laws in relation to their own citizens as well as citizens of other countries, perpetrated by the authorities of Russian Federation. What is more important, belying history by Russian propaganda consists in meddling in historical memory of people of neighbouring countries (Kirwiel et al. 2011). Mutual resentment is evoked or kept alive. Negative stereotypes are built and strengthened in many different ways. A tool which is used on a broad scale is disinformation; access to historical documents is made difficult, their authenticity is undermined. The choice of what facts should be spoken about and what anniversaries should be celebrated in the old days as well as now is dependent on political decisions (Łęcicki 2013). The truth about many events could be spoken loud only after the fall of communism and the rebirth of free Poland and therein, of free media.

It has been long known that media are an extremely important element (if not the key factor) in the system of factors shaping the public opinion (McCombs 2008). Their involvement in the education of the young generations, especially as concerns history, has tremendous importance in the fight against the propaganda of countries which disrespect not only the tradition and culture of neighbouring countries but also historical truth. The benefits which come from the media's involvement are manifold. First of all, the media help shape the identity of the young generation as well as the way they look at the world, secondly – they efficiently weaken their susceptibility to foreign influence (KWE 2007; Drzewiecki 2010). Thanks to their work and their devotion to the educational mission they are entrusted, their audience have a chance to become immune to propaganda which is spread by bad quality journalism and the products of mass culture, that is: feature movies or para-documentary productions, especially those marked by historicism (Dziadzia 2007).

Not only the Polish media, but also state institutions designed for that purpose (that is: the Institute for National Memory) or academic and research centres are busy spreading knowledge about the crimes of communist regime in Poland as well as in other satellite countries of the former USRR. Public campaigns are conducted, educational systems implemented, documents are elaborated and published in an accessible form – documents on the basis of which the security service and especially called committees persecuted and even

liquidated persons who were considered inconvenient and suspected of running actions hostile towards communism (Chłopek 2005). All the measures of this type agree with the recommendations of the European Parliament and their purpose is to fight Russian propaganda and disinformation in order to weaken the attempts to use history as a tool, serving to blast the unity of the EU, and to lower the sense of confidence and national pride, especially in the countries of the former communist bloc.

4. Relations about Russia in the Polish media

In the Polish information media there appear many news about Russia. Among the issues to which the journalists most often refer there are – apart from the above mentioned war in Donbass – among others: the Smolensk disaster and all the motifs connected with the investigation as to the causes, the incident itself and its consequences; image-creating activities undertaken by Vladimir Putin; the actions of the Russian national concern Gazprom; doping affairs with the participation of Russian sportsmen who – in the atmosphere of scandal – are deprived of their medals won at world championships and during Olympic Games.

For all those reasons, Russia is most often portrayed in the Polish press and television in an unfavourable light. It does not spring from incompetence of journalists construing the agenda, or overall unfriendly attitude of the Polish media, or from attempts to shape a negative image of Russia among the Polish media audience. Simply, the relations in the sphere of politics, economy and culture on the Polish-Russian line have been amiss for years. There is no will of establishing proper communication or agreement nor of improving the quality of cooperation, which seems to be conscious work on the part of the Russian side, which is supposed to put Poland in a bad light on the international stage. The audience of the media, especially those who possess the critical ability to interpret media news, notice the complexity of the problem. As follows from the August research, over a half of the questioned (52%) indicated that the Polish media do not create a false image of Russia (Butkiewicz 2017). However the state is mentioned mostly in negative context, still the media audience can feel that it allows them to stay objective and to work out their own opinion on the subject of Polish-Russian relations.

5. The image of Vladimir Putin in the media

Quite different, however, is the reception of the news concerning the leader of the Russian Federation. 58% of the questioned say that the Polish media practice propaganda directed against Vladimir Putin. He is doubtlessly a person towards whom it is hard to be indifferent. The questioned were asked to take stance in relation to two consecutive questions connected with the evaluation of the actions of the President of Russian Federation. Firstly, they were supposed to indicate whether in their opinion he is a good president of Russia, and secondly – to write maximum three adjectives of their own which would describe Vladimir Putin as politician. 48% of the participants of the poll spoke positively about him as a president, 40% said that he is a bad president and as many as 12% have no opinion on the subject. The knowledge about the quality of Putin's presidency, as well as ideas of his political skills, come mostly from media news, and the participants of the poll do not know the leader personally. What proved extremely interesting were the adjectives with which the polled defined Putin. The most frequent definitions were: reckless, hard, efficient, tyrant, intelligent and consequent. It follows thence that the media audience are aware of his political abilities. However he is a figure shown mostly in negative context, still his activities aimed at securing all the Russian interests are evaluated positively in political context.

6. Conclusions and postulates

The results of the research show that however the Polish media speak about Russia and its leader in a mostly negative way, yet the audience is coping better and better with the analysis

and interpretation of the presented facts. They do not accept media news without criticism, they are becoming immune to informational propaganda. It is so thanks to a broad range of educational actions, undertaken among others in the area of un-lying of history and unmasking medial propaganda directed against Poland and other members of the EU, practiced by Russia. Since the educational measures bring the desired effects, one should not spare efforts for them to be continued.

What is important, one cannot unambiguously describe the activities of media in our country as spreading anti-Russian propaganda, but also there are no grounds to call their activities in the area of creating the image of Russia as rusophilia. As long as the bilateral relations with Russia are disadvantageous for Poland, media do present facts which can be interpreted as putting Russia in a bad light. However, saying the truth should never be treated as a manifestation of manipulation or propaganda.

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VPLYV SPÄTNEJ VÄZBY NA VEDOMOSTI ŠTUDENTOV V TECHNICKOM VZDELÁVANÍ

IMPACT OF THE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE IN TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Veronika Horniaková, Tomáš Kozík, Jana Depešová

Abstrakt

V súčasnosti sa technické, obzvlášť informatické, vzdelanie považuje za jedno z najdôležitejších vzhľadom na uplatnenie absolventa na trhu práce, nakoľko informačné technológie sa aplikujú vo všetkých spoločenských a hospodárskych sférach, na všetkých úrovniach. Bez ohľadu na to, aké je zameranie školy, vzniká požiadavka na vzdelávanie, kde aplikácia informačných a komunikačných technológií prináša uplatnenie v oblasti praktického života. Efektívnym spôsobom, ako naplniť túto požiadavku je vytvoriť u žiaka alebo študenta pozitívny vzťah k tejto výučbe. Toto je možné dosiahnuť prostredníctvom aplikovania moderných foriem spätnej väzby. Žiak či študent dokáže takto využívať pridanú hodnotu technológií, s ktorými je v každodennom kontakte. Ďalším, veľmi dôležitým aspektom aplikácie spätno-väzbových prvkov do výučby je zlepšenie výsledkov žiaka či študenta. Uvedomením si svojho správania a prístupu k výučbe je možné viesť žiaka či študenta k zdokonaleniu sa. Aj v našom výskume sme sa zamerali na získanie odpovede na otázku, či existuje pozitívny vzťah medzi aplikáciou foriem spätnej väzby prostredníctvom IKT v technickom vyučovaní a vedomosťami a postojmi študentov k výučbe.

Kľúčové slová: *Spätná väzba vo vzdelávaní, postoje študentov, digitálna gramotnosť, IKT*

Abstract

Nowadays, education in the field of technical studies, especially informatics is considered one of the most important for graduates at labour market. The reason is that information technologies are applied in several social and economics areas across all degrees of competences. There is requirement for each kind of school, regardless of its field of study, to deliver education with application of information and communication technologies, especially for daily and practical use. As an effective manner to fulfil this requirement, there is needed to create a positive attitude of students to teaching. This can be reached by applying modern forms of feedback in education. Students are able to use the added value of technologies in everyday use. Another very important aspect of feedback application in education is the improvement of student's outcomes. Students can be enhanced by understanding of their behaviour and attitudes to teaching in school. This research was focused on asking a question if there is a positive relationship between application of the feedback in technical education by using ICT and knowledge or attitudes of students to teaching.

Key words: *Feedback in education, students attitudes, digital literacy, ICT*

1. ÚVOD

V tradičnom modeli školstva sa investuje stále viac prostriedkov a vynaloženej energie na zavádzanie a manažovanie nového hardvéru a softvéru namiesto toho, aby sa učiacim sa pomáhala rozvíjať ich osobnosť. Možnosti, ktoré do vzdelávania prinášajú moderné technológie nie sú na školách využívané v dostatočnej a potrebnej miere. (Popelka, 2013) Preto, aby sme vedeli učiacim sa ukázať a presvedčiť ich o výhodách týchto nástrojov, je potrebné, aby učitelia mali

jednoznačnú a jasnú predstavu o význame a zmysle pojmu poznanie a informácia. V mnohých prípadoch za poznanie je považované to, keď učiaci sa dokáže zopakovať pri testovaní zapamätané informácie. Poznanie však predstavuje niečo iné. Je to vedomosť, ktorú učiaci sa získaním informácií dokáže využiť na osobnej úrovni. (Gonosová, 2016)
Jednou z podmienok k tomu, aby učiteľ mohol primerane zasahovať do vyučovacieho procesu a mohol ho úspešne riadiť, je jeho schopnosť aplikovať v pedagogickom procese, vo výučbe prvok spätnej väzby. Uplatňovanie spätnej väzby je v pedagogike považované za nevyhnutnú podmienku efektívneho fungovania celého školského systému a súvisí s priebežnou kontrolou a hodnotením výsledkov a efektov jednotlivých prvkov i celého školského systému. (Kultan, 2009) Spätná väzba vo vyučovaní je určitou informáciou určenou učiacemu sa, ktorého zaujíma učiteľov postoj voči nemu. Učiaci sa chce vedieť, či postupuje v riešení úloh správne, či učiteľ nemá výhrady voči jeho správaniu, či dobre pochopil zadanie a podobne.
Jedným z aktuálnych problémov vo vyučovaní na rôznych stupňoch vzdelávania sa stalo vytvorenie spätnej väzby medzi učiacim sa a vyučujúcim, ktorá by dala odpoveď na otázku, či učiaci sa chápu vyučované témy, či sa priebežne pripravujú, či vyučujúci správne vybral vhodné nástroje vzdelávania. (Hattie – Timperley, 2007) Uvedenú spätnú väzbu je možné realizovať klasickými prostriedkami ako sú krátke testy, odpovede na otázky počas prezentácie učiva, formou zadaní a záverečnými testami alebo skúškou.
Využívanie informačných technológií a spätnej väzby vo vzdelávaní umožňuje kombinovať viaceré možnosti ich použitia. Dovoľuje rýchle vyhodnocovanie dosahovaných výsledkov vo výchovnovzdelávacom procese a podávať priebežne informácie o jeho úspešnosti nielen učiteľovi, ale hlavne učiacim sa, v prípade požiadaviek aj ich rodičom.

2. ČIASTKOVÉ VÝSLEDKY VÝSKUMU

Respondenti

Pedagogický výskum sme sa rozhodli aplikovať v prostredí vysokých škôl. V tomto výskume sme sa snažili porovnať vysoké školy, ktorých študijné odbory sú zamerané na rôzne smery a aplikácie technického vzdelania. Bol teda záujem nájsť takéto vysoké školy, z ktorých nám potvrdili svoju účasť 3 vysoké školy na Slovensku. Do výskumu boli zapojení študenti bakalárskeho štúdia, ktorých počty uvádzame v tabuľke 1 Počet respondentov zúčastnených v realizovanom výskume.

Tabuľka 1: Počet respondentov zúčastnených v realizovanom výskume

Názov vysokej školy	Počet študentov
Slovenská technická univerzita	78
Univerzita Konštantína Filozofa v Nitre	88
Vysoká škola DTI	77

V rámci jednotlivých univerzít bol prieskum realizovaný v nasledujúcich študijných odboroch.

- Slovenská technická univerzita
  - Materiálovotechnologická fakulta v Trnave
- Univerzita Konštantína Filozofa v Nitre
  - Pedagogická fakulta
- Vysoká škola DTI

Didaktický test

Na získanie prehľadu o digitálnej gramotnosti študentov v oblasti využívania informačných a komunikačných technológií bol vytvorený neštandardizovaný didaktický test, ktorý pozostával zo 7 otázok, ktoré boli zamerané na znalosti študentov o práci s informáciami, hardvérových a softvérových nástrojoch, spôsobe fungovania komunikačných technológií, ako aj princípov fungovania IKT a teórie informatiky.
Výber otázok bol zameraný najmä na oblasť komunikácie prostredníctvom informačných technológií. Na základe predvýskumu a analýzy vybraných predmetov zameraných na výučbu

informatiky na vybraných vysokých školách, a taktiež z obsahových štandardov pre výučbu informatiky na stredných školách podľa Štátneho vzdelávacieho programu Informatika, boli vybrané otázky z tematických celkov, tak aby obsiahli otázky, ktoré sú dané jednotne, pre každý typ školy a je predpoklad, že študent sa už s nimi určite stretol. Otázky mali vždy na výber štyri ponúkané možnosti a vždy iba jednu správnu odpoveď.

Výsledky didaktického testu

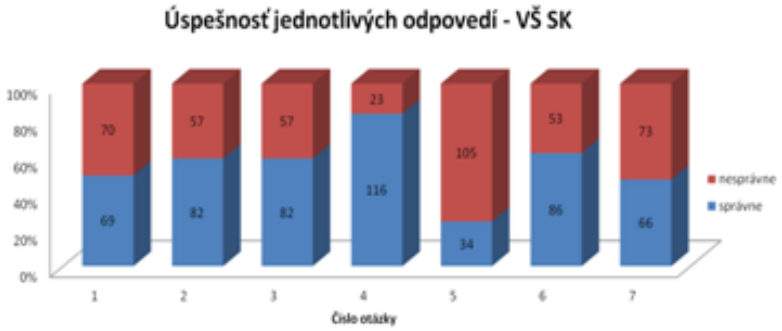
Graf 1: Bodové skóre didaktického testu pre študentov vybraných vysokých škôl na Slovensku

Z grafu 1 vyplýva, že výsledky testu majú približne normálne rozdelenie pravdepodobnosti výskytu hodnôt, čo predstavuje Gausovu krivku. Vidime teda, že v teste boli zastúpení študenti s rôznou úrovňou vedomostí. Úspešnosť testu bola 64%, čo znamená, že 2/3 študentov získalo 4 až 7 bodov.

Tabuľka 2: Popisná štatistika pre výsledky bodového hodnotenia didaktických testov

Výsledky didaktického testu SK		
Aritmetický priemer	(Mean)	3,848921
Medián	(Median)	4
Modus	(Mode)	4
Smerodajná odchýlka	(Standard deviaton)	1,329235
Rozptyl výberu	(Variance)	1,766865
Špicatosť	(Kurtosis)	0,058138
Šikmosť	(Skewness)	0,037538
Rozpätie	(Range)	6
Minimum	(Minimum)	1
Maximum	(Maximum)	7
Súčet	(Sum)	535
Počet	(Count)	139
Hladina spoľahlivosti (95,0%)		0,22293

Z tabuľky 2 vyplýva, že priemerná hodnota bodov, ktorú dosiahli študenti bola 3,84, smerodajná odchýlka bola na úrovni 1,33. Študenti dosiahli maximálne 7 bodov a minimálne 1 bod. Testu sa zúčastnilo 139 študentov.
Z pohľadu jednotlivých odpovedí vidíme, že najmenej správnych odpovedí bolo v otázke číslo 5: *Čo je Learning Management System (LMS)?* Z čoho vyplýva, že aj keď študenti používajú LMS pri svojom štúdiu veľmi často, nemajú znalosť o oficiálnom názve platformy, keďže každý študent ju skôr pozná pod názvom *„Moodle“*.



Graf 2: Prehľad správností jednotlivých odpovedí didaktického testu

Spätná väzba

Chápanie spätnej väzby u žiakov sme zisťovali prostredníctvom praktickej aplikácie sémantického diferenciálu. Zaujímalo nás, ako pozitívne alebo negatívne chápu aktuálne spätnú väzbu, ale taktiež to, ktoré aspekty pojmu (adjektíva, ktorými bol pojem definovaný) sú pre nich dôležitou súčasťou ideálnej spätnej väzby. (Gavora, 2010) Odpoveďová časť dotazníkovej položky pozostávala z nasledovných adjektív, ktorými sme definovali pojem spätná väzba. Boli v ňom zastúpené všetky tri dimenzie, a to nasledovne:

- <u>dimenzia hodnotenia</u>
  PRIMERANÁ - k vedomostnej úrovni študenta (nie zložitá neadresná interakcia),
  OBJEKTÍVNA - nezaujatá interakcia, upriamená na fakty a obsah,
  POCHOPITEĽNÁ - popisujúca jadro problému. 89
- <u>dimenzia sily</u>
  VYVÁŽENÁ - interakcia je založená na faktoch, nezveličuje, nepreháňa skutočnosť, nezavádza
  STOTOŽNENÁ - adresát prijal posolstvo správy,
  KONKRÉTNA - vzťahujúca sa ku konkrétnej otázke, činnosti, situácií, správaniu
- <u>dimenzia aktivity</u>
  PRAVIDELNÁ - vo vopred stanovených / dohodnutých intervaloch,
  KONŠTRUKTÍVNA - správa vedie k rozvoju potenciálu,

Výsledky chápania pojmu spätná väzba

V analýze výsledkov získaných z dotazníkového prieskumu sme zamerali na chápanie pojmu spätná väzba u študentov. To, ako chápu momentálny stav, ale aj ako si predstavujú ideálnu spätnú väzbu od vyučujúceho v podmienkach vysokej školy. Spracovanie tejto časti výskumu prebiehalo prostredníctvom sémantického diferenciálu a určenia jednotlivých dimenzií chápania pojmu spätná väzba. Výsledky hodnotenia sme spracovali prostredníctvom výpočtu priemerných hodnôt jednotlivých položiek (bipolárnych dvojíc adjektív) pre oba pojmy. Na základe priemerných hodnôt všetkých položiek hodnotených pojmov sme vyrátali priemerné hodnoty pojmov aktuálna a ideálna spätná väzba podľa troch dimenzií – dimenzie hodnotenia, dimenzie sily a dimenzie aktivity. Na bipolárnej škále bolo vždy pozitívne chápanie jednotlivých adjektív pojmu spätná väzba na ľavej strane a najlepšiemu hodnoteniu bolo priradené číslo 1, následne obľúbenosť pojmu klesala a číslo sa zvyšovalo. Najhoršie chápanie pojmu, negatívne adjektívum malo hodnotenie 5. Preto, čím menšie číslo, tým lepšie a pozitívnejšie chápanie pojmu.

Tabuľka 3: Výsledky chápania pojmu spätná väzba u študentov

Spätná väzba		
	aktuálna	ideálna

	dimenzia hodnotenia	dimenzia sily	dimenzia aktivity	dimenzia hodnotenia	dimenzia sily	dimenzia aktivity
SK	2,293	2,432	2,478	1,906	1,871	1,917

Na základe výsledkov môžeme tvrdiť, že:

- Študenti chápu aktuálnu spätnú väzbu viac pozitívne, ako negatívne. Priemerná hodnota v každej dimenzií osciluje okolo čísla 2.
- V dimenzií hodnotenia aktuálnej spätnej väzby, ktorá je považovaná za najdôležitejšiu, nakoľko popisuje, aký dojem vyvoláva sledovaný pojem nám naznačuje, že študenti chápu spätnú väzbu pozitívne z pohľadu primeranosti, objektivity a pochopiteľnosti.
- V dimenzií sily aktuálnej spätnej väzby, ktorá nám popisuje dominanciu pojmu boli výsledky o čosi slabšie a pohybovali sa už na rozhraní toho, že študenti nevedeli rozhodnúť o chápaní spätnej väzby ako viac pozitívnej z pohľadu konkrétnosti stotožnenosti a vyváženosti.
- V dimenzií aktivity aktuálnej spätnej väzby, ktorá nám popisuje pojem z pohľadu činnosti, sa hodnoty podobne ako v predošlom prípade pohybujú medzi 2 a 3. Študenti vedia pochopiť prínos pravidelnej a konštruktívnej spätnej väzby, ale akoby tomu nebolo vždy tak a nevedia sa rozhodnúť.
- Ideálna spätná väzba medzi študentmi priniesla ešte pozitívnejšie výsledky a lepšie chápanie, vo všetkých dimenziách a všetkých krajinách došlo k zlepšeniu.
- Študenti už pri hodnotení aktuálnej spätnej väzby chápu tento pojem ako pozitívny, ale do budúcna vidia ešte priestor na zlepšenie. Najmä v oblasti dimenzie sily a dimenzie aktivity, kde došlo k najväčším rozdielom.

Validácia hypotézy

Na určenie existencie vzťahu medzi premennými a ich miery intenzity sme definovali úlohu regresnej (korelačnej) analýzy. Z toho dôvodu, a na základe pravidiel testovania sme definovali nulovú a alternatívnu hypotézu takto:

H_0 : Medzi chápaním pojmu aplikovanie spätnej väzby vo výučbe u študentov a vedomosťami, ktoré študent dosiahol vo vzdelávaní v oblasti informačných a komunikačných technológií je pozitívny vzťah na vybraných vysokých školách na Slovensku.
H_1 : Medzi chápaním pojmu aplikovanie spätnej väzby vo výučbe u študentov a vedomosťami, ktoré študenti dosiahli vo vzdelávaní v oblasti informačných a komunikačných technológií nie je pozitívny vzťah na vybraných vysokých školách na Slovensku.

Platnosť hypotézy H_0 sme overovali na základe výsledkov regresnej analýzy prostredníctvom F-testu (Fisherovho testu). Porovnávali sme, či existuje medzi vysvetľujúcou premennou (vedomosti študentov) a vysvetľovanou (chápanie pojmu aplikovanie spätnej väzby) lineárna závislosť. (Terek a kol., 2010) Tieto premenné sme získali z vyhodnotenia didaktického testu študentov slovenských vysokých škôl a z vyhodnotenia sémantického diferenciálu chápania pojmu aktuálna spätná väzba u týchto študentov. Štatistickú významnosť sme testovali na úrovni $\alpha = 0,05$.
Výsledky testu uvádzame v tabuľke 4 a grafe 3, kde môžeme vidieť lineárnu (regresnú) priamku.

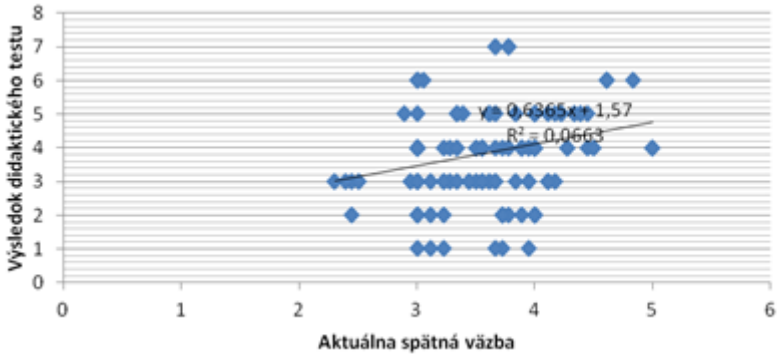
Tabuľka 4: Výsledky overovania parciálnej hypotézy H1.1

Regresná štatistika	
Korelačný koeficient	**0,35955**
Koeficient determinácie	0,067366
Upravený koeficient determinácie	0,060509

Chyba str. hodnoty	1,297915
Pozorovania	138

ANOVA

	Rozdiel	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*Významnosť F*
Regresia	1	16,54868	16,54868	9,823595968	**0,002111**
Reziduá	136	229,1035	1,684585		
Celkom	137	245,6522			



Graf 3: Lineárna (regresná) priamka

V tabuľke 4 v časti ANOVA sa nachádza výsledok F-testu. Na to, aby sme mohli prijať hypotézu H_0, musí platiť, že Významnosť F < hladina významnosti α.

$$0{,}002111 < 0{,}05$$

=> platí nerovnosť, prijímame H0

Z výsledkov regresnej analýzy vieme taktiež definovať lineárnu mieru závislosti (od úplnej nezávislosti až po úplnú závislosť) dvoch skúmaných premenných, na základe hodnoty koeficientu korelácie (r), ktorý určuje mieru tesnosti štatistickej závislosti. V našom prípade r = 0,35955. V prípade, že sa koeficient nachádza v rozpätí $0{,}3 < |r(x, y)| \leq 0{,}8$ hovoríme o miernej (strednej) miere závislosti.(Porubská, 2005)

3. ZÁVER

V rámci riešenia vedľajšej hypotézy H1 sme prijali záver, že medzi chápaním pojmu aplikovanie spätnej väzby vo výučbe u študentov a vedomosťami, ktoré študenti dosiahli vo vzdelávaní v oblasti informačných a komunikačných technológií existuje pozitívny vzťah. To znamená, že čím pozitívnejšie chápal študent význam spätnej väzby vo výučbe, tým boli jeho vedomosti v oblasti IKT lepšie, čo nám potvrdili výsledky didaktického testu. Máme za to, že takýto študenti vedia primerane aplikovať formy spätnej väzby s využitím IKT, a tak získať efektívny prístup k výučbe. Je však dôležité uviesť, že nameraná závislosť medzi jednotlivými premennými vykazovala strednú hodnotu korelačného koeficientu, čo znamená, že okrem nami sledovaných závislých premenných, do tohto vzťahu vstupujú aj ďalšie, nami nateraz neidentifikované premenné.
Sme však toho názoru, vychádzajúc z pedagogickej praxe, že týmito premennými budú postavenie vyučujúceho vo výučbe, vybavenie triedy IKT, dezinterpretácia chápania spätnej väzby u študentov, ale aj nedostatočné nadobudnutie vedomostí z predchádzajúceho stupňa vzdelania.

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VALUE PROFILES OF MEMBERS OF THE ARMY OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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Abstract

The aim of the research was to find out what value profiles exist among military professionals at the beginning of their careers and whether their representation differs from the population distribution of the Czech Republic. As a basic tool the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) created by S. Schwartz was used in an abridged version of 21 items. The research sample consisted of 151 respondents - students in tertiary education. It has been found that the *Openness to Change* value is represented most strongly among the respondents, which corresponds more to the overall preference of the value in the population than to the desired *Conservatism* value of the military environment. The results have been obtained in connection with the solution of a specific research project on the moral integrity of military professionals and used to improve and develop the education of military professional ethics.

Key words: *value, value profile, value education, training of military professionals*

1 INTRODUCTION

Values are of crucial importance for the lives of both individuals and the society. In relation to an individual, they influence his/her thought as well as action. According to Vávra (2007, p. 6), they fulfil a number of important functions, such as motivation, justification of behaviour, the provision of standards for evaluating people and events, directing attention and perception. From the viewpoint of the society and its individual social groups and organizations, they are a basic component of culture; they enable the integration of the culture itself and its linkage with the personality system and the social system (Large Dictionary of Sociology, 1997, p. 376). Both aspects need to be taken into account when preparing professionals in all branches.

In connection with the preparation for military profession, the highest demands on the soldier's physical condition and mental toughness, and the ability to handle stress are mentioned most often (Ullrich a kol. 2015, Pospíšil 2015, Dziaková 2009). However, the military profession also has its own value dimension (Nekvapilová, 1997, 2003). The professional performance of a soldier requires the internalization (acquisition) of certain values characteristic of the military environment, not only for the easier adaptation of an individual to the environment, but also because the military profession is based on a high degree of cooperation (units are trained as teams). It also lays high demands on the observance of professional ethics. These are only the values, which are followed and have a direct influence on the behaviour and emotional and moral charge for an individual (Vávra 2007, p.8).

From the viewpoint of values the military profession shows a certain internal contradiction, which every individual in the process of preparing for the military profession has to cope with. From the social point of view the military activity is a service. It requires altruistic behaviour, the ability to sacrifice for the sake of higher goals and the whole from its executors. It arises as a result of the need to defend the human community. It has its long-established tradition, the origin of which is associated with the emergence of the state in

general. According to sociologists, the state is of fundamental importance for its emergence as it creates a monopoly on the legitimate use of physical and symbolic violence in a particular territory and in relation to its population (Bourdieu 1998, p. 74) in the form of special institutions such as the police or the army. In the history of the human society, the war belongs to the oldest fields of human activity. It is the wars, in which moral virtues stand out, i.e. honour, dedication and heroism. Individuals in combat sacrifice their own lives, commanders decide on the tens or hundreds of lives of their subordinates.

The essence of military activity is "the control of violence" (Huntington 1957), as emphasized by the founders of military sociology S. Huntington and M. Janowitz in the 1960s. The traditional function of the armed forces is, therefore, a successful armed struggle. The basic duties of the commander (officer) stem from here. They are as follows: preparation and conduct of military activities in and out of combat. In the field of ethics, it means that every soldier must accept the fact that he/she prepares deliberately for the physical destruction of the enemy (human) that he/she can lose his/her life during the fight or witness the death of his/her comrades and buddies. The use of violence in military activities has a legitimate and legal dimension. However, the legitimacy of a military intervention is not the result of a soldier´s free choice, but it is always a political decision in modern democracies. The lawfulness of the use of armed violence is currently linked to the ethics of the peaceful arrangement of the Commonwealth of Independent States (the UN peace and security agenda), international humanitarian law and the law of war.

The consequence of the concentration of pressure groups in the state is that "*the institutions entrusted with the maintenance of the order separate gradually from the normal social world, that the physical violence can only be applied by a specialized, specially appointed, centralized and disciplined group in the society*" Bourdieu 1998, pp. 75-76). Ultimately, specially trained and armed groups may, therefore, pose a threat to the society itself, if they cease to respect their legitimate position in the state and engage in power rivalries.

It should be remembered that the separation of armed forces from the society in the state organization is not absolute. In most cases, citizens enter these forces in the adult age; they have their habits, values and attitudes formed within their civic coexistence. In the process of preparation they are exposed to a value system based on the nature of the military activity they must accept if they are to perform military activity well and responsibly. The question of a real, not only verbally declared, perception of a personal obligation to the unconditional fulfilment of a military oath is at the forefront (Mikulka 2017, pp. 54-55). If both environments differ significantly in the value preference, an individual gets into a difficult situation that may have the character of an internal moral conflict.

In view of these characteristics of the military profession, it is not only interesting, but also necessary to identify the value profiles of military professionals at different stages of their careers. In the preparation stage, it is possible (based on the findings) to predict the degree of identification related to the values of the military profession and to focus on the educational work with future soldiers effectively. The results found during the career of professionals can be used for preventive programs to eliminate moral failures in the exercise of the profession (abuse of power, abuse of physical force or other special training, e.g. for coping with personal situations).

Although the research into the value orientation of Czech military professionals is not a point of systematic interest, it is possible to rely on the findings of foreign research studies of moral

competency in the military environment (Verwijh, Hofhuis and Soeters 2007), in the environment of police schools (Visu-Petra, Borlean, Chendran and Bus 2008; Babinčák and Klimešová 2011), in the environment of security services (Norris 2005) and in the domestic and foreign research among university students (Slováčková 2001, Colesante and Biggs 2001; Norris 2005).

Values affect many aspects of an individual's moral competency. If we adopt the concept of moral competency as the ability to make decisions and to formulate statements that are moral and to act on their basis (Lind, 1986, 2004), then the values, especially the moral ones, are the basis for formulating moral statements. It is also possible to assume the relationship between values and moral reasoning. Feather (according to Ostini, Ellerman, 1997) states that changing the degree of moral reasoning also induces a change in values. The connection between moral judgments and values is based on the very essence of the development stages of moral judgment according to Kohlberg, where there is a typical preference of a certain value type for each stage – e.g. in the third stage, it is *Conformity* and *Benevolence* (Babinčák and Klimešová, 2011). Values form a part of the models of behaviour (Rest 1994).

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Objectives and methods of the research

The main objective of the research was to determine the value profiles of Czech military professionals in the process of preparation for their military career, whether these profiles differ from the average values in the population. The following questions formed partial objectives: 1) To what extent is the *Conservatism* value, which is characteristic of military professionals, represented among students? 2) How is the *Self-Enhancement* value, including the *Power* value, represented? A high level of identification with this value may be a risk factor for security officers leading to a failure in stressful situations. Attention has been focused primarily on the higher-order value types to ensure the reliability of results in the abridged version of the PVQ tool (Vávra 2007).

The Shalom Schwartz´s approach became a starting point for determining value profiles. The reasons were both practical and theoretical. The same approach with the same tool was used for the research of value profiles of the population in the Czech Republic within the European Social Survey (ESS). The comparative part of the research objective can be achieved only when using the same methodology.

For theoretical reasons, the Schwartz's holistic approach to values can be considered significant as it includes both a certain value psychology and the rationale for possible generalization to a higher level, i.e. the transfer of aggregated results to a group level (Vávra 2007). Even if Schwartz uses only quantitative methods, the advantage of his approach is the fact that he captures the values that are not significantly influenced by the current context, i.e. he aims at identifying the most significant values at the top of the hierarchy that are applied in different life situations (Vávra, 2007). The values in this concept (1987, 1990) have five formal characteristics: the values are concepts or beliefs; they relate to desirable endpoints or behaviour; they are beyond specific situations; they manage the selection or evaluation of behaviour and phenomena; they are arranged according to relative importance, and they are not in isolation, but they create a certain structure with relationships of similarities and oppositions. It is always assumed that the whole value structure of respondents is measured, i.e. no significant value dimension is neglected (Schwartz 1992).

To determine the value profile, the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ), developed by Schwartz, was used in an abridged version with 21 items divided into ten basic value types. This version of the PVQ, created and recommended by Shalom Schwartz (Schwartz et al., 2001), was used within several waves of European Social Surveys (ESS) (Vávra 2007). Twenty-one items create ten value types (*security, conformity, tradition, independence /self-direction/, stimulation, hedonism, power, achievement, universalism and benevolence*), which are further grouped into four higher-order value types (*conservatism, openness to change, self-enhancement and self-transcendence*). Each item is presented using a short verbal portrayal characterizing the type of personality attitude. The advantage of this tool is that it is possible to combine it with the Moral Judgement Test (MJT) questionnaire (Lind, 2004) as well as the questionnaire identifying the personality profile of the NEO-PI-R respondents.

The *Conservatism* value is formed by the values of *Security* (SE: safety, harmony and stability of an individual and the security of society and relations, conformity and tradition), *Conformity* (CO: self-control or self-discipline in actions, hedonism, behaviour, etc. wherever there is a possibility that an individual's activity may interfere with or endanger others and may violate social expectations and standards, respect for parents and the elderly) and *Tradition* (TR: tradition, respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditions or religion offer, modesty, acceptance of the lot, honouring traditions).

The *Openness to Change* value includes the values of *Self-Direction* (SD: independence, freedom of action, creativity, curiosity, need for autonomy, independence and control) *Stimulation* (ST: variety and excitement of life, stimulation, excitement, novelty, life challenges) and *Hedonism* (HE: joy, pleasure and sensuous gratification, self-satisfaction, need for pleasure).

The *Self-Enhancement* value (in some studies also self-empowerment) saturates the values of *Achievement* (AC: success, recognition, personal performance, personal success based on demonstrating competency according to social standards) and *Power* (PO: influence, power, social status, prestige, control or dominance over people and resources).

The *Self-Transcendence* (also Transcendence) value includes the value of *Benevolence* (BE: preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom we are in frequent personal contact, friendship, love, loyalty, benevolence and responsibility) and *Universalism* (UN: justice, respect, tolerance and care for the welfare of all people and of nature, social justice, equality, peace around the world, environmental protection).

The abridged version of the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) can be considered as reliable, even though it is known that the reliability coefficient of Cronbach's internal consistency α of the PVQ tool is lower than that of the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) questionnaire (Schwartz et al., 2001). Based on the data analysis of the ESS, Vávra (2007) emphasizes that the reliability of the 4 higher-order value types is sufficient, even if the reliability of the scales of 10 lower-order value types consisting of two and in one case of three items is relatively low - often lower than 0.6 (according to the statistical theory, Cronbach's internal consistency α lower than 0.6 is unacceptable, as notified by Řeháková 2006). In the case of the PVQ, it is possible to get above this level if the reliability of the value scales of the 4 higher-order value types, consisting of 4 to 6 items, is measured.

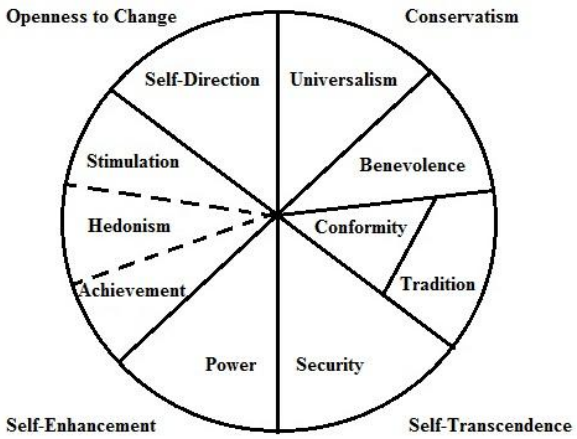

Figure 2: Structure of human values developed by Shalom Schwartz
Source: https://www.slideshare.net/jonrwallace/values-11550083

2.2 The research sample and the course of research

The research sample consisted of 151 respondents aged 19 - 31 (M = 21.60, SD = 1.75). The sample was selected using stratified random sampling. The gender and age distribution was not taken into account. Although the regression analysis has shown that the age has the greatest impact on the four higher-order value types (Vávra 2007, p. 42) as regards the socio-demographic data, the age distribution was not taken into account in the study since most of the respondents in the research sample have been included in one age group in the comparative studies: 15 - 24 years of age. The gender distribution was not taken into account due to the small number of women in the sample under study.

The respondents filled in the printed form, the statements were marked A to U and each item was evaluated on a 6-point scale: 1-Very much like me; 2-Like me; 3-Somewhat like me; 4-A little like me; 5-Not like me; 6-Not like me at all. In the PVQ form, the versions for men and women were merged into one form; however, the gender correctness was maintained with both variants for both men and women. The scores in subscales represent the average of subscale items rated on the 6-point scales. The lower the value, the greater the respondents´ identification with the given value on the average.

The Administration of the PVQ tool took place within the course of Field Training II in February, March and September 2016. It was a classical form of mass administration in individual study groups on the basis of the written "informed consent" of the respondents and the consent of the guarantors of the subject. The size of groups ranged from 20 to 40 respondents, depending on the possibilities and conditions at each test site. In each group, the same conditions for filling in the questionnaire were provided. Anonymity was guaranteed for the respondents. The guidelines emphasized the need to respond to individual items as truly as possible with respect to oneself, not with regard to the objective accuracy or commonly expected solution (desirability). During the administration of the questionnaire, an authorized person was present to answer any questions of the respondents with a view to eliminate any discomfort caused by the misunderstanding of the formulation of items. The time for completing the PVQ questionnaire was approximately 10 minutes.

3 FINDINGS

It has resulted from the evaluation of the questionnaires that the higher-order value profile *Openness to Change*, characterized by *Self-Direction*, *Stimulation* and *Hedonism* values, has

been represented most in the entire sample examined. The *Self-Transcendence* value including the *Benevolence* and *Universalism* values was the second in the sequence. The observed *Conservatism* value is in the 3rd position in terms of overall preferences in the sample under study. All responses were spread over a scale in the range interval of 2 to 3: Like me – Somewhat like me.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of value characteristics of students - military professionals
Source: Author´s own research

	Number of respondents	Average
Age	151	22
Conservatism (C)	151	2.892
Openness to Change (OC)	151	**2.385**
Self-Enhancement (SE)	151	**3.134**
Self-Transcendence (ST)	151	2.441

The differences in higher order values were found in the sample under study, depending on the study orientation. The sample consisted of students of the same year students of three faculties with a different focus: the focus of command and management (table commanders and managers), technical specialization (engineers), medicine (medical students) and students of the Faculty of Physical Education and Sport (physical education students). Table 2 is illustratively presented.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of value characteristics of students - military professionals according to study orientation
Source: Author´s own research

	Number of respondents	average age in the group	C	OC	SE	ST
commanders and managers	56	21,7	2,85	2,27	3,07	2,38
engineers	58	**21,4**	**3,17**	**3,00**	**2,50**	**3,00**
medical students	32	22,06	2,79	2,38	3,01	2,23
physical education students y	5	**21,8**	**3,57**	**2,53**	2,85	**3,12**
values for the whole file	151	22	2,89	2,38	3,13	2,44

The results show that the students of technical disciplines who prefer less O*penness to Change* than the whole set differ most from the results of the whole set, on the contrary prefer the value of *Self Enhancement*. Students of physical education and sport form the second group which has different results of the whole set. However, for the small number of respondents in the group, the measured results are not entirely conclusive.

How does this profile correspond to the value orientation of the Czech population? The results of the research published in *The Value Portrait of European Countries and The Comparative Analysis Using the Shalom Schwartz Approach* were used for comparison (Vávra 2007). The Czech Republic participated in both data collection waves within the ESS in 2002 - 2004. The results for a combined set of the two waves, which amounted to 4,386 respondents, were used for comparison.
On a European scale, the most preferred values are *Benevolence* and *Universalism*; the least preferred values are *Achievement* and *Power* (Vávra 2007). According to the international comparison of 21 countries, the Czech Republic appears to be rather "average" as a country - in addition to the *Power* item, it does not occupy an extreme position in any item. In the Czech Republic, respondents report the *Security* and *Conformity* values most, the *Tradition*

value (it also includes the value of higher-order conservatism) less. In the value of a higher-order *Self-Transcendence*, the Czech Republic finds itself in one of the last places due to the fact that it shares the last places with the *Benevolence* and *Universalism* values in the sequence of the countries surveyed. As to the type of *Openness to Change*, the Czech Republic occupies the middle position among the countries in the item of *Self-Direction*; however, in the case of *Stimulation* and *Hedonism*, it is at the end of the sequence. It is interesting that in the type of *Power* it has the lowest average of all countries; on the contrary, in the type of *Achievement* it is one of the highest averages. Both values saturate the value of the higher-order *Self-Enhancement*. It seems "as if the respondents put much more emphasis on an acquired property and respect from the others than on valuing their own abilities and success" (Vávra, 2007, p. 28).

The preference of the *Openness to Change* value profile in the students - military professionals corresponds to the findings in the population. In the ESS, a higher proportion of the *Openness to Change* type has been recorded in the age group of 15 – 24 years, which includes most of the research population than in the other age groups within the Czech population. It has also been shown that most members of the population are concentrated in this age group in the *Openness to Change* type.

The higher-order type *Conservatism* has been found on the third degree of representation in the respondents who have stayed in the military environment for 2 years. The responses in the sample occurred in the range from 1.3 to 4.17, which indicates the group's heterogeneity; however, a shift towards the desired values of the profession in individuals can be derived from this ascertainment. Unfortunately, in the whole sample, a high degree of identification has occurred only in 4 respondents, the same was the number of people with low preference for this higher-order value.

4 DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to verify the extent, to which the respondents had acquired some selected values of the military profession during the period of their stay in the military environment. These values affect the professionalism of the soldier's performance significantly. The research was focused on one year of the study in a newly introduced five-year program.

In the Czech military environment, there are often discussions on the subject: How much time is required for a young person to identify himself/herself with the values of the military profession and organization? The results already show that we cannot think about weeks or months in relation to the higher-order value *Conservatism*, which includes *Conformity* that contains values of respect for the rules and authorities that are the pillars of the military profession along with the *Tradition* value. It can be assumed that a longer-term monitoring of respondents at specific time intervals, e.g. of one academic year, could also significantly demonstrate that it is largely an individual journey.

Even if there are already many studies of value orientations according to the S. Schwartz methodology implemented with university students as well as security components (the police, security services and army), it is not possible to make a complete comparison of the results obtained using these researches. They rather used the PVQ in a modified version of 40 items and the rating scale was defined exactly in the reverse order 6 - Very much like me, 1 – Not like me at all. Therefore, the results obtained from the CESES 2/2007 study (Vávra 2007) are used in this study for comparison.

In the comparison of the observed results with the results of the investigation among the pupils of the Secondary Police School in Slovakia (the total number of respondents was lower - 91 and the average age was higher - 25 years of age), it is obvious that the socio-cultural environment can have a significant influence on the preference of the higher-order value *Conservatism*. In a sample of Slovak secondary school pupils, the *Power*, *Tradition* and *Conformity* values gained the highest preferences. Their preferences were more distinct from the preferences of the current Slovak population (Babinčák, Klimešová 2011, p. 27).

5 CONCLUSION

The study has shown that in the value profiles of the group of students - military professionals as a whole the *Openness to Change* value profile is more strongly represented than other profiles, which rather corresponds to the preferences of the age group in the whole population than to the desired changes in preferences with regard to the necessary degree of identification with the professional value *Conservatism*.

On the other hand, the higher degree of identification with a given higher-order value creates an appropriate environment for education both from the viewpoint of training and education of military professionals.

Due to the less numerous identification with the *Self-Enhancement* value, a lower degree of identification with the *Power* value (that interested us most in relation to the environment of the armed forces) can be assumed. It has been proved that the lower preference of the *Self-Enhancement* value does not automatically mean a lower preference of both values that saturate the higher-order value (Vávra 2007).

The differences of value preferences have showed depending on the field of study. From this group, students of technical disciplines evinced the most important differences.

It would be interesting to demonstrate using the same tool, whether the value orientation changes significantly with the course of study and the length of the service and whether the length of the service correlates with the increasing preferences of *Conservatism* and *Self-Enhancement*.

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PERSONALITY PROFILES OF MEMBERS OF THE ARMY OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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Abstract

A number of requirements that vary in time, space and content are posed on a military professional. If a member of the Armed Forces wants to be successful in his/her activity, his/her competencies will be assessed in terms of a fully-prepared professional who will have the prerequisites for the performance and development of capabilities in the military environment. A personality profile plays an important role within the meaning of stable dispositions and characteristics – parameters of adequate behaviour in the military activity. The study focuses on the personality profile of professional soldiers and the comparison with the corresponding authorized profiles of the Czech population, for the findings of which the NEO-PI-R questionnaire was used. The research activity and its results are part of a project solution for the organization development entitled "Development of Social Competencies of the Commander-Leader" realized by the Department of Leadership at the Faculty of Military Leadership of the University of Defence in Brno.

Key words: *personality profile of a soldier, exercise of military profession, army, conscientiousness, extraversion*

1 INTRODUCTION

The exercise of the military profession is realized predominantly in a highly variable and dynamic environment. The emphasis is placed on the standards and learned rules of training on the one hand and on the flexibility and dynamics of the team in action on the other hand. The civilian environment does not allow sufficient training for the specifics of the exercise of the military profession, the handling of difficult situations related to the conduct of military activities and action. Therefore, the development of the members of the Army of the Czech Republic (ACR) starts with the educational process at the military secondary school or university; in the case of direct recruitment of recruits it starts within the basic training course. It is further deepened in the preparation and training in units and installations of the Army of the Czech Republic. Everything is conditioned by meeting the demands posed on individuals to enter the ACR (health, psychological and physical demands).

The ACR has well-defined criteria for the selection of personnel and the requirements for a soldier's personality profile. It takes it as an inter-individually different set of psychic characteristics or the characteristics of an individual, who shows a certain level of integration of the components that create it and a certain organization of their functioning (Nakonečný 1998, p. 497). The basic components of the profile are: psychic dispositions and psychic characteristics. Psychic dispositions, the organized and unified whole of which forms a personality, are relational concepts that express the external relations of the personality, its manifestations in situations and, at the same time, the internal factors determining these manifestations. They create a structure, the elements of which form the psychic characteristics of the personality – the capabilities, which show certain relatively stable traits in contact with the external environment. Therefore, the essential psychic characteristics of individuals are formed in the terms of psychic dispositions, such as intelligence, emotionality, etc. (Nakonečný 1998, p. 497). Personality – in the context of an individual's personality profile – is a relatively open functional system that interacts with its environment.

The experts who perform staff choices are aware of the fact that the personality cannot be examined objectively. As Nakonečný (1998) states, the personality, within psychology, is understood as a hypothetical construct, which means that it cannot be fully observed, but it can only be derived from what is observed. Therefore, experts focus mainly on the psychological health of future soldiers during initial testing. In the selection of military professionals, the army takes into account the perception of reality, decision-making in preferred activities, the creation of space and the prerequisites for further development. It emphasizes the scope and quality of general and specific knowledge, general intelligence, motor skills, speed and accuracy of perception, mechanical and technical understanding, interests, motivation, value orientation or attitude orientation. The physical dexterity and strength are a condition (Dziaková 2009, p. 53).

The moral integrity of an individual, which is closely related not only to selected personality traits, but also to the value characteristics, plays an important role. Either consciously or unconsciously, an individual takes over the values of formal authorities and internalizes them in the course of the socialization process. The formal authority in this case is the Army of the Czech Republic and its representatives – military professionals – leaders at different command and control levels who are responsible for the course of action and behaviour in the decision-making process.

The peculiarity of the military environment is that the needs of the personality are not always a priority; the team's needs often have to prevail in career situations. At the same time, it is known that the military environment has a rather strong formative influence on the personality of an individual. It can be assumed that in connection with the length of service and the work on a given establishment post, certain changes in the personality profile may occur – in soldier´s preferences, in his/her internal attitudes. Due to the specifics of the military profession, it is necessary to pay attention to examining professionals´ personality profiles at different stages of their career and training, before leaving for foreign operations or when exercising specific and demanding functions.

Psychologists have developed a variety of methods to determine an individual´s personality profile. They can be divided based on the manner of data acquisition and based on the elements of the personality profile they aim at. Tests and questionnaires are the most commonly used methods for data acquisition. Svoboda (2013) distinguishes four different types of tests in the methods used for examining the personality. These are the projective methods, which include the Rorschach test, Word Association Experiment, Thematic Apperception Test, Hand Test, Tests of Incomplete Sentences, Tree-Drawing Test, Figure-Drawing Test, etc. He further distinguishes objective personality tests, including the Stroop Colour-Word Test and Mirror Drawing Test. The questionnaires can be one-dimensional questionnaires (Maudsley Medical Questionnaire, Classical Social Situational Anxiety and Stage-Fright) and multidimensional questionnaires (Interpersonal Diagnosis Questionnaire, the FIRO-B Interpersonal Orientation Questionnaire, Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, DOPEN, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), Freiburg Personality Inventory, NEO-PI-R, Logo Test).

The most frequently investigated areas of personality include resistance to stress. A number of methods (Paulík 2010) have been developed, which focus on exploring personality traits associated with resistance. These are optimism (LOPS – Levy Optimism-Pessimism Scale, AOS – Arousability and Optimism Scale), self-confidence measured using the Likert scales,

neuropsychic stability – the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, (EPQ), the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), but also other variants of DOPEN, JEPI-R, the Five-Factor Model of Personality NEO-FFI and NEO-PI-R. The Czech author Mikšík is known for his inventories IHAVEZ, SPIDO, VAROS.

The abovementioned methods of personality exploration are used not only in the civilian environment to confirm different theories and concepts, but also in the military environment, when, for example, the personality of a recruit is investigated with the aim to determine whether he/she has the appropriate characteristics and prerequisites for the exercise of his/her profession – proficiency (or the participants in foreign operations before leaving for the mission). The most widespread method to identify five general personality dimensions are the NEO personality inventories (NEO-PI, NEO-PI-R, NEO-FFI and NEO-PI-3) developed by P.T. Costa and R. R. McCrae (Hřebíčková et al. 2002, p. 2), which have been developed since the 1970s and used in research studies as well as in psychodiagnostics. For these purposes they have been translated into more than 30 languages. The NEO-PI-R is a tool very often used in the ACR as it allows the comparison with other methods (the PVQ according to Schwartz, MCT). Therefore, it has been chosen as a main means of data acquisition in the study dealing with the personality profiles of military professionals of the ACR.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Objectives and methods of the research

The main objective of the research was to find out what personality profiles prevail in the army and how they differ from the ordinary population. Partial objectives were to find out the following: 1) whether the profiles of the soldiers preparing for the exercise of their profession (students of the University of Defence) differ significantly from the professionals serving in the ACR for a longer time, 2) whether the personality profiles of the ACR soldiers differ significantly from the corresponding authorized personality profiles of the Czech population.

2.2 Scientific methods used

The primary method was to questioning using the NEO-PI-R. Within the research, the version created by Martina Hřebíčková – an authorized study developed by Hřebíčková et al. (2002) was used, verifying the basic psychometric characteristics of the Czech version of the NEO Personality Inventory for both the self-assessment and the assessment of another person. The NEO-PI-R inventory represents a revised NEO Personality Inventory, named according to the first letters of the scale names *N (Neuroticism), E (Extraversion), O (Openness).* The multidimensional personality inventory of Paul Costa and Robert R. McCrae discovers five personality dimensions: *Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness.* The NEO-PI-R contains 240 items, 48 items for each scale, which is further divided into 6 subscales. Each subscale contains 8 items, which a respondent answers using a 5-point scale (strongly disagree – disagree – neutral – agree – strongly agree). The items refer to 5 scales and 30 subscales in total describing the personality. The method allows a respondent's personality profile to be obtained using the sum of the scores in individual items of scales and subscales and the subsequent conversion of raw scores to T-scores. The tool was also used to implement the intent to compare recorded results from the populations of the Czech Republic (Hřebíčková et al., 2002).

Neuroticism (N) is a scale determining individual differences in emotional stability and instability as negative emotions, such as fear, depression and embarrassment, are experienced. The individuals who achieve a high score of neuroticism are mentally unstable and their psychic balance is easily violable. On the other hand, individuals with a low score

are calm, level-headed and carefree, and are able to better cope with stressful situations that do not disconcert them (Hřebíčková et al., 2002, p. 7).

The individuals who achieve a high score on the Extraversion (E) scale are sociable and are characterized as self-confident, active, talkative, energetic, cheerful and optimistic. They like other people – their company, they enjoy being part of groups and various social events, they like excitement and cheerfulness. Introversion, which is more the absence of extraversion than its contradiction (Costa and McCrae 1992, p. 15), carries the signs of restraint, independence, and level-headedness. The restraint of introverts does not mean a social phobia, but rather the desire to remain alone (Hřebíčková et al., 2002, p. 7).

Openness to experience (O) can be characterized as imagination, sensitivity to aesthetic stimuli, sensitivity to inner feelings, preference for diversity, curiosity and independent judgment. The scale covers the degree of passion for new experience, enjoyments, impressions and emotions. The individuals with a high score are receptive to new ideas and unconventional values. They are characterized as eager to learn, intellectual, endowed with fantasy, willing to experiment, being interested in art. They are prepared to critically reformulate existing standards and take on new social, ethical and political values. They often behave unconventionally; they test new ways of dealing and prefer a change. The individuals with a low score tend to behave conventionally and hold conservative attitudes. They prefer the well-known, the well-tried things – their emotional responses are often suppressed (Hřebíčková et al., 2002, p. 8).

Agreeableness (A) characterizes interpersonal behaviour, primarily altruism. The individuals with a high score have a heart for others, show favour to others, behave kindly and are willing to help. They expect help from the others, they tend to trust the others and prefer cooperation. On the contrary, the individuals with a low score appear to be hostile and egocentric, have a tendency to disparage the intentions of the others, are rather competing than cooperating. The characteristics constituting the positive pole of this dimension are socially desirable, while the ability to fight for their own interests is also important and a reasonable degree of scepticism contributes to a successful solution of a problem (Hřebíčková et al., 2002, p. 8).

Conscientiousness (C) is connected with the ability to control impulses, and with self-control, which relates to the active process of planning, organizing and performing tasks. The individuals with a high score are described as purposeful, ambitious, diligent, persistent and systematic; they have strong will, are disciplined, reliable, accurate and respectable. These socially desirable characteristics are related to study and job performance, but they also have their shades, which can be seen as exaggerated tidiness, preciseness or workaholic behaviour. The individuals with a low score portray themselves as careless, indifferent and unstable with little interest in achieving goals.

2.3 Research sample

An object of scientific interest was the members of units and installations of the ACR and the students of the full-time military studies at the University of Defence passing through the system of education in the field of leadership. Thus, the research sample consisted of the members of the ACR in a total number of 400, aged 19 - 55 (M = 26.99, SD /standard deviation/ = 8.4390) selected using stratified random sampling. The group studied was divided into two homogeneous "strata" formed by the ACR soldiers (students) in the total number of 151, aged 19 - 31 (M = 21.60, SD = 1.75), and the ACR soldiers (non-students) in the total number of 249, aged 20 to 55 (M = 30.26, SD = 10.05). In each “strata”, the principle

of simple random selection was applied. The gender and age distribution was not taken into account.

2.4 Administration of the NEO-PI-R test

The methods of writing questioning (pencil – paper) were used to carry out the research. The choice of methods made it possible to contact people who it was difficult to meet and speak to. At the same time, respondents were given an adequate space to be able to devote their time and care to answer the responses. Any influence of the interviewer on the content of the response was avoided and the privacy of the respondents allowed sincerity to fill in the questionnaire. The basic testing tool of the research was the NEO-PI-R personality inventory, a self-assessment version, used in the form of the authorized Hogrefe printing forms. No time limit was specified. Data collection took place in the presence of a psychologist.

2.5 Reliability of the research tools used

The reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha (internal consistency) range from 0.91 (*Neuroticism*, *Conscientiousness*) to 0.88 (*Agreeableness*) in the NEO-PI-R inventory (form of self-assessment). The most reliable subscale of the NEO-PI-R (form of self-assessment) is the (O1) Fantasy subscale 0.81, the lowest reliability was recorded in the (O6) Values subscale 0.29 (Hřebíčková et al 2002, p. 19). It can be stated that the reliability of the NEO-PI-R tool is sufficient.

3 RESEARCH RESULTS

On the basis of the measurement results of selected personality dimensions, namely *Neuroticism*, *Extraversion*, *Openness to Experience*, *Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness* of the ACR soldiers (students) and the ACR soldiers (non-students), we have created a personality profile of the members of the ACR, comprehensive of descriptive statistics (averages and standard deviations) and personality profiles of both groups of the ACR members, which we have compared among themselves. The personality profiles of the members of the ACR have been subsequently confronted with the authorized personality profiles of the Czech population. The aim of these comparisons was to determine a potential personality difference, especially negative one, which should be taken into account in connection with the process of education and training of the members of the ACR. The reason for the comparison of civilian and military profiles was the fact that the research into the relationships between personality traits was carried out in a civilian environment and only using a common population sample.

3.1 Comparison of personality profiles

Partial objective of the study 1 was to find out whether the personality profiles of the soldiers preparing for the exercise of their profession (students of the University of Defence) and the professionals serving in the ACR for a longer time differ significantly.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics, the distribution of personality traits of the ACR
Source: Author´s own research

Personality traits	The ACR soldiers in total			The ACR soldiers (students)			The ACR soldiers (non-students)		
	Number of resp.	Average	SD	Number of resp.	Average	SD	Number of resp.	Average	SD
Age	400	27	8,435	151	22	1,751	249	30	9,176
Neuroticism	400	66.774	22.545	151	65.940	22.561	249	67.280	22.567
Extraversion	400	116.296	16.202	151	118.113	17.917	249	115.194	14.999

Openness to Experience	400	102.910	16.724	151	107.265	17.252	249	100.269	15.857
Agreeableness	400	114.065	18.601	151	110.159	19.339	249	116.434	17.763
Conscientiousness	400	131.020	19.166	151	130.894	21.116	249	131.096	17.925

The abovementioned distribution of personality traits in the groups of the ACR soldiers (students) and the AČR soldiers (non-students), at the level of the raw score, has proven that the ACR soldiers (students) compared to the ACR soldiers (non-students) prefer more the *Openness to Experience* scale, but, at the same time, the *Agreeableness* scale less. *Neuroticism*, *Extraversion* and *Conscientiousness* show comparable values in the scales.

The distribution of personality traits in the groups of the ACR soldiers (students) and the ACR soldiers (non-students) shows that the ACR soldiers (students) put more emphasis on openness, imagination, sensitivity to aesthetic stimuli, sensitivity to inner feelings, preference for diversity, curiosity and independent judgment. A significant level of passion for new experience, enjoyments, impressions and emotions, responsiveness to new ideas, unconventional values and behaviour, prioritization of change before stability, and readiness to critically reformulate valid standards and take on new social, ethical and political values can be assumed. At this stage of training for a job, soldiers learn military teamwork cooperation only; they are rather competing than cooperating.

The group of the ACR soldiers (non-students) prefer interpersonal behaviour and altruism. Understanding for others, appropriate expressions of a favour, willingness to help, but also expectations of help from others, a tendency to trust and prefer cooperation in the unit are approved values. At the same time, they admit that the ability to enforce their own approaches and a dispassionate point of view contribute to the successful task completion.

Partial objective 2 was to determine whether the personality profiles of the ACR soldiers differ from the corresponding personality profiles of the Czech population. In order to compare selected personality traits between the ACR and the population in the Czech Republic (CR), descriptive statistics of personality traits in the population of the CR have been used based on the research results of Hřebíčková et al. (2002, p. 18). A total of 1,365 respondents, of whom 588 men and 768 women (9 respondents did not report their gender) participated in the survey. Their age spread was from 14 to 83, the average age was 30.92 and SD was 13.62. A total of 11 % of the respondents were at the age between 14 and 21; 53 % of the respondents were at the age between 22 and 40 and 34 % of the respondents were at the age between 41 and 83.

The comparison of personality traits in the groups of the ACR soldiers in total and in the population of the CR at the raw score level has proven a difference in the *Neuroticism* scale, when the CR population has a higher score; in the *Extraversio*n scale, the group of the ACR soldiers in total has a higher score. Further, the group of the ACR soldiers in total have also a higher score in the *Conscientiousness* scale; on the contrary, the group of the CR population has a higher score in the *Openness to Experience* scale.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics: the comparison of the ACR and the Czech Republic
Source: Author´s own research

Personality traits	The ACR soldiers in total		Population of the CR	
	Number of respondents	Average	Number of respondents	Average
Age	400	27	1,365	31
Neuroticism	400	**66.774**	1,365	**94.970**
Extraversion	400	**116.296**	1,365	**109.240**
Openness to experience	400	**102.910**	1,365	**117.040**
Agreeableness	400	114.065	1,365	116.420
Conscientiousness	400	**131.020**	1,365	**111.800**

The comparison of the ACR soldiers in total and the CR population has proven that the Czech population more tends to experience negative emotions, e.g. fear, depression, embarrassment, psychic instability and lower psychic balance. At the same time, however, the group of CR population, compared to the group of the ACR soldiers, have preferred more the openness, imagination, sensitivity to aesthetic stimuli, sensitivity to inner feelings, preference for diversity, curiosity and emphasis on the independent judgment, new experience, enjoyments, impressions and emotions, receptiveness to new ideas; further, the inclination to unconventional values and behaviour, preference for change before stability, and greater readiness to critically reformulate valid standards and take on new social, ethical and political values. The ACR soldiers, compared to the CR population, have preferred self-assurance, activity, vigour and optimism, positive relationship to other people, sociability and group interaction, positive attitude to social involvement, excitement and cheerfulness. In addition, they have espoused control and self-control skills in relation to the active process of planning, organizing, and realizing tasks, preferring purposefulness, ambition, diligence, endurance, orderliness, strong will, discipline, reliability, accuracy and order – desirable personality traits in the profile of a military professional.

3.2 Discussion

The main objective of the research was to use the NEO-PI-R questionnaire to find out what personality profiles prevail in the army and whether the overall personality profile corresponds to the requirements for the military profession. In this context, there is a statement related to the partial objectives: the distribution of personality traits in the group of the ACR soldiers (students) and the ACR soldiers (non-students) have proven that the studying personnel prefers more the *Openness to Experience* scale and less the *Agreeableness* scale.

Openness to Experience is, therefore, related to curiosity, the degree of passion for new experiences and the expectation of practical exercise of a profession. Certain ambitions to critically reformulate the valid standards result from a lack of practice in units and the real acceptance of the internal standards within a unit. The graduates from the University of Defence, where their status is defined by the status of a student, are assigned to adequate positions in the ACR units after the graduation. They take responsibility for the execution of an officer's duties. They acquire new practical information and knowledge that the University of Defence did not provide them with to the extent, which a day-to-day training of troops can provide.

In the case of a lower score in the *Agreeableness* scale, it is advisable to ask a question about the causes of the phenomenon and to modify the practical training of students, which would deepen the principles of team cooperation and leadership in the military environment. In the context of the given results, it is possible to use the information from the sociological survey, which took place in 2017 in the ACR combat element – the 4th Rapid Deployment Brigade - and was focused on the graduates of the University of Defence in Brno. It has resulted from the conclusions that the Brigade officers are tolerant of the lower level of military-technical capabilities of the new graduates from the University of Defence – officers. Logically, these shortcomings result from little practical experience. The inexcusable personality disorders in the superiors are considered to be as follows: the lack of a sense of justice and unprofessional behaviour. Even in an environment that is defined by military regulations, subordination and precise rules of working performance, there is a need to introduce an ethical education for the members of the ACR, which presupposes the existence of a suitable comprehensive model of ethical education and individual programs resulting from it. Currently, a complex model of ethical education of the ACR soldiers does not exist (Mikulka 2017, p. 141). At the same time, we declare that the completion of the education and training process at the University of Defence in Brno (UoD) can be expressed in the concepts, e.g. a military professional or a military leader who is proactive, disciplined, is able to cope with complex crisis situations and is also able to lead the other team members. The given profile corresponds not only to the demands of the military profession, but also to the demands placed on the knowledge, competencies of all the educated for life in the postmodern era (Pospíšil, 2017, pp. 483-484).

It results from the partial results of objective 2 that substantial differences in the personality traits of the ACR soldiers versus the Czech population have been recorded in the scales - *Neuroticism*, *Extraversion*, *Openness to Experience* and *Conscientiousness*. Military professionals in the preparation for their profession and in the everyday military work process show a higher score in the *Extraversion* and *Conscientiousness* scales. These are the characteristics that correspond to the demands for the personality profile of a soldier and his/her ability to carry out orders, to honour the organization rules and adapt to changes. In dependence on the time and location of service in foreign areas, not only the very nature of the struggle often changes, but the non-military elements, which may have their own diplomatic, political, cultural, religious, social, economic and humanitarian dimensions, often appear. Soldiers have performed and perform operational tasks of a different nature in foreign operations – from the support of the Provincial Reconstruction Team operations to the protection of the perimeter in the area of responsibility. They are ready to communicate and cooperate with coalition partners, governmental and non-governmental organizations. The training and skills acquisition of soldiers depend on the character and nature of the mission. A strong-minded, persistent and disciplined soldier is able not only to get ahead as an individual – leader, but also to support the team and approach the issued order – the task conscientiously and resolutely. The courage, dedication and coherence of comradeship in combat are a prerequisite for the operation of a high-quality military unit.

The ACR soldiers have showed a lower score in the *Openness to Experience* and *Neuroticism* scales. The first result predicates about a more frequent tendency to behave conventionally and to hold conservative attitudes, which in the case of the ACR as an organization with a consistent structure, personnel hierarchy, rules, subordination and military regulations corresponds to real conditions and requirements. In the *Neuroticism* scale, military professionals have again demonstrated the desired elements of personality profile – mental balance, coping with stressful situations, resistance to psychological exhaustion.

4. CONCLUSION

The research study has proven that personality profiles of soldiers correspond to the requirements for the exercise of a profession. Personality profiles of soldiers reflect, in accordance with their age, both professional and life experience and the quality of psychological readiness - that is the basic prerequisite for being successful in their activities, in their positions and for having a positive influence on colleagues, subordinates and team work. The "concept of professionalism" emphasizes the respect for individuality, responsibility, activity of each individual as well as the process of maturing the individual within the profession. Military professionals are always in some stage of preparation and in some stage of personality development. Everyday practical training, personal discipline, the knowledge of equipment and regulations, expertise, the ability to deal with new situations reflect the ability to adapt to set conditions, adequately tackle and react to the given circumstances and events. However, the combination of theoretical and practical knowledge is crucial for each command and control level. The generally valid characters of the soldier's personality profile correspond to the requirements for the exercise of a profession and the approach to combined-arms and specific activities, but they are conditioned by the willingness of an individual to accept the military profession as a mission.

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VÝVOJ ČÍTANOSTI ČASOPISU URČENÉHO PRE PREDČITATEĽOV A ZAČÍNAJÚCICH ČITATEĽOV

DEVELOPMENT OF READER RATING IN JOURNALS FOR NOT READING AND STARTING RECIPIENTS

Danuša Faktorová

Abstrakt

Adresátmi časopisov pre deti vo veku od 3 do 7 rokov nie sú štandardní čitatelia, ale predčitatelia a začínajúci čitatelia. Do komunikačného kanála ako sprostredkovateľ obsahu vstupuje dospelá osoba (rodič, učiteľ a pod.). Pre jej nevyhnutú prítomnosť sa na prvý pohľad zdá, že čítanosť časopisov pre uvedenú vekovú kategóriu bude nízka. Opakované vlastné prieskumy čítanosti tento predpoklad nielenže nepotvrdili, ale ho dokonca vyvrátili.

Kľúčové slová: *tlač pre detského adresáta, masovokomunikačné prostriedky čítanosť, čitateľ, začínajúci čitateľ*

Abstract

Addressees of journals for children between the age of 3 to 7 are not standard readers but not readers and beginning readers. In the communication channel enters an adult (e.g. parent, teacher). For his/her inevitable presence it may appear that the reading rate of this category is low. Repeated surveys of reader rating did not prove this assumption, on the contrary, they negated it.

Keywords*: children´s press, mass media, reader rating, reader, starting reader*

1. ÚVOD

Adresátmi časopisu pre deti vo veku od 3 do 7 rokov sú predčitatelia a začínajúci čitatelia. Do vzťahu časopis – adresát teda vstupuje ako medzičlánok dospelá osoba (rodič, učiteľ a pod.) Keďže tento vzťah nie je priamy, ale sprostredkovaný, vyvstáva otázka, aká je miera čítanosti časopisu pre deti vo veku od 3 do 7 rokov. Z uvedených faktov a skutočností by bolo možné predpokladať, že bude relatívne nízka. V článku sme sa snažili na základe vlastných prieskumov čítanosti tento predpoklad potvrdiť, resp. vyvrátiť.

2. ČASOPIS PRE NAJMLADŠÍCH ČITATEĽOV

Najmladšími adresátmi časopisov pre deti sú deti predškolského veku. Vývinová psychológia ich ohraničuje veľkom od 3 do 6 rokov.[1] Jeden z najväčších distribútorov detskej tlače na Slovensku, spoločnosť ARES na svojej webovej stránke (www.ares.sk) ako „časopisy pre materská školy“ uvádza tieto tituly: Adamko, Lienka, Macko Pusik, Šikovníček, Včielka , Vrabček, Zvonček. Spomínaný distribútor ich uvádza spolu s mnohými ďalšími aj aj medzi časopismi pre základné školy. Neoslovujú teda len deti predškolského veku, ale sčasti aj deti mladšieho školského veku.

Jedným z reprezentantov uvedených časopisov pre deti predškolského veku na Slovensku je Zvonček. Keďže je mesačníkom pre deti predškolského veku a žiakov prvého ročníka základných škôl, z tejto skutočnosti vyplýva, že pojem čitatelia v tomto prípade znamená de

[1] HORT, V., HRDLIČKA, M., KOCOURKOVÁ, J., MALÁ, E. a kol. *Dětská a adoescentní psychiatrie.* Praha: Portal , s. r. o. , 2008. s. 36. ISBN 978-80-7367-404-5.

facto predčitateľov a začínajúcich čitateľov. Dôležité pri čítaní časopisu je vedenie dospelej osoby (rodičov, učiteľov a pod.). Podobne ako v prípade Zvončeka je analogická situácia s čitateľmi a s čítaním aj v prípade iných časopisov pre detského adresáta vo veku 3 až 7 rokov. Vzhľadom na skutočnosť, že čitateľmi sú predčitatelia, zákonite medzi časopis a adresáta vstupuje ďalší prvok, ktorým je dospelá osoba ako určitý sociálno-komunikačný kanál a katalyzátor čítanosti a procesu, v ktorom sa obsah časopisu dostane k k samostatne nečítajúcemu čitateľovi –adresátovi.

Zložitejším sa tak stáva pozícia príjemcu „v jednoduchom sekvenčnom modeli procesu masovej komunikácie (zdroj, kanál, oznámenie, príjemca, účinok).“[2]. Hoci početnosť príjemcov je výrazne znížená vekom, avšak i napriek tomu sa detské a mládežnícke časopisy zaraďujú do kategórie periodík pre širokú verejnosť.[3]

Pre komplexnosť uvedieme, že „z hľadiska veku adresáta k masovokomunikačným prostriedkom pre deti patria:

- Masovokomunikačné prostriedky pre deti predškolského veku,
- Masovokomunikačné prostriedky pre deti mladšieho školského veku,
- Masovokomunikačné prostriedky pre deti staršieho školského veku.“[4]

Keďže vzťah časopis – adresát v prípade časopisov pre deti predškolského veku nie je priamy, ale sprostredkovaný, vyvstáva otázka, aká je miera čítanosti časopisu pre deti vo veku od 3 do 7 rokov. Z uvedených faktov a skutočností by bolo možné predpokladať, že bude relatívne nízka.

Snahou bolo uvedený predpoklad potvrdiť, resp. vyvrátiť, a to realizáciou prieskumov čítanosti. Realizovali sa v rokoch 2011, 2013 a 2017, čo dáva obraz nielen o miere čítania časopisu a jednotlivých rubrík, tém a žánrov, ale aj o vývoji ich čítanosti. Vo všetkých troch prieskumoch na otázky, ako čítajú čitatelia jednotlivé rubriky, odpovedalo viac ako tisíc respondentov. Pre obmedzenosť rozsahu tohto článku sa sústredíme na prieskumy čítanosti v hraničných bodoch uvedeného časového obdobia, a teda na prieskumy z rokov 2011 a 2017.

3. ČÍTANOST V ROKU 2011

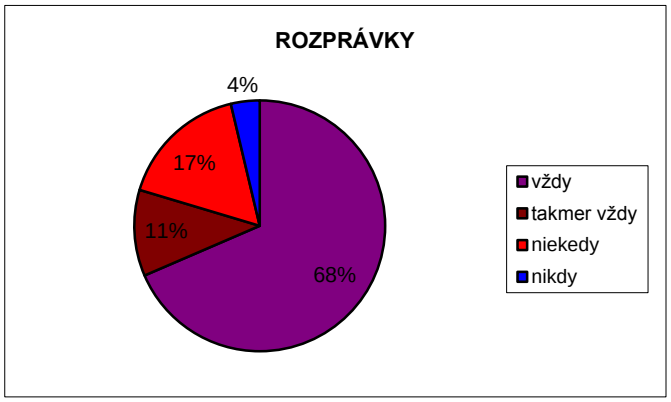
Prieskum čítanosti rubrík v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011 bol vykonaný dotazníkovou metódou. Dotazník vyplnilo a odovzdalo 1031 respondentov. Odpovedali na otázky, ako čítajú jednotlivé publikované rubriky. Odpovede vyberali z možností: vždy, takmer vždy, niekedy, nikdy.

[2] McQUAIL, D. *Úvod do teorie masové komunikace.* 4. vydanie. Praha: Portál, 2009. s. 406. ISBN 978-80-7367-574-5

[3] TUŠER, A. *Ako sa robia noviny.* Bratislava: Vydavateľstvo SOFA, 1999. s. 25 – 26. ISBN 80-85752-66-2

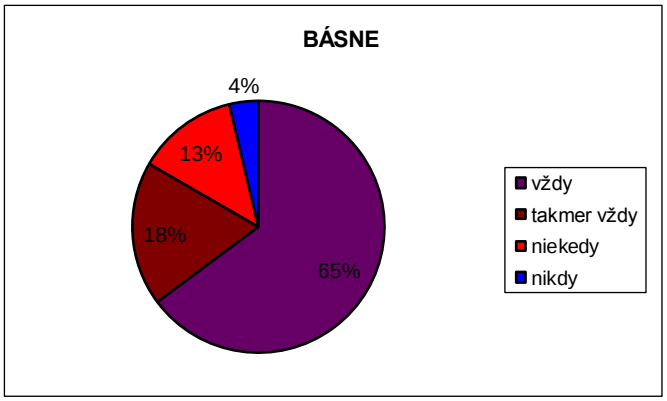
[4] FATOROVÁ, D. *Výchovno-vzdelávací proces a časopisy pre deti v európskych krajinách.* In: Reenzovaný sborník příspevků vědecké interisciplinární mezinárodní konference doktorandů a odborních asistentů QUAERE 2017. Hradec Králové: Magnanimitas 2017. Vol. VII, s. . 563. ISBN 978-80-87952-20-7, ETTN 085-17-88-07-8

Čítanosť rozprávok



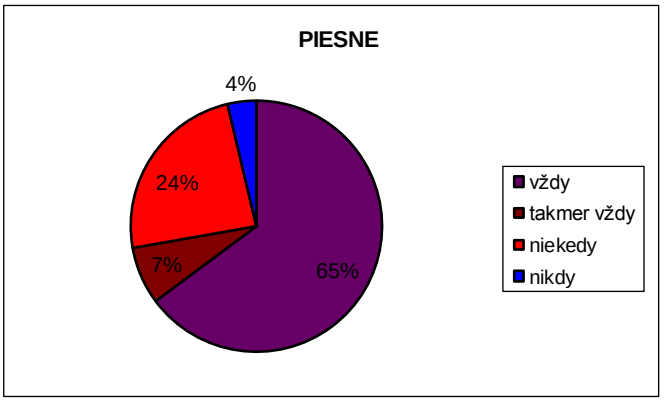
Graf 1 Čítanosť rozprávok v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť básní



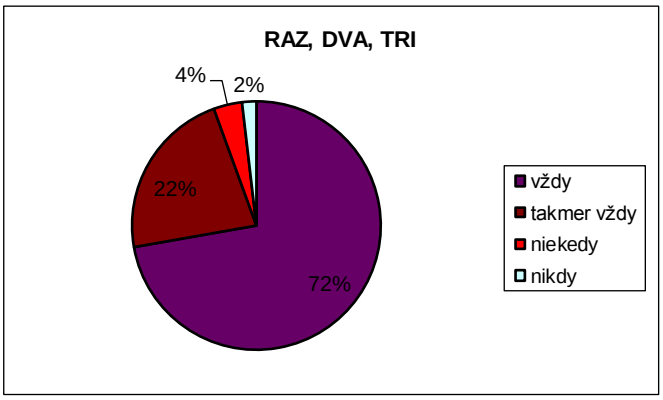
Graf 2 Čítanosť básní v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť piesní



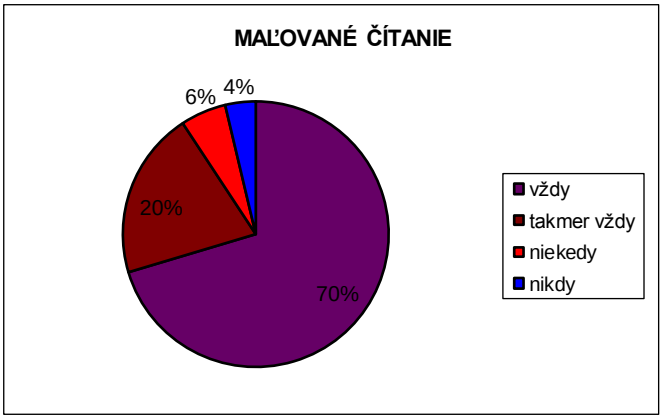
Graf 3 Čítanosť/sledovanosť piesní v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Raz, dva tri



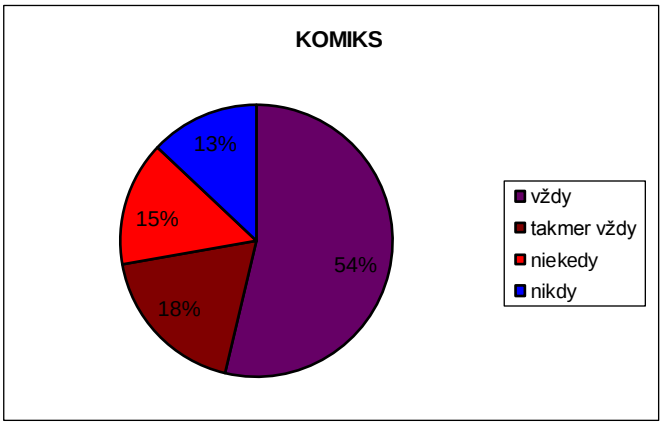
Graf 4 Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Raz, dva tri v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť rubriky Maľované čítanie



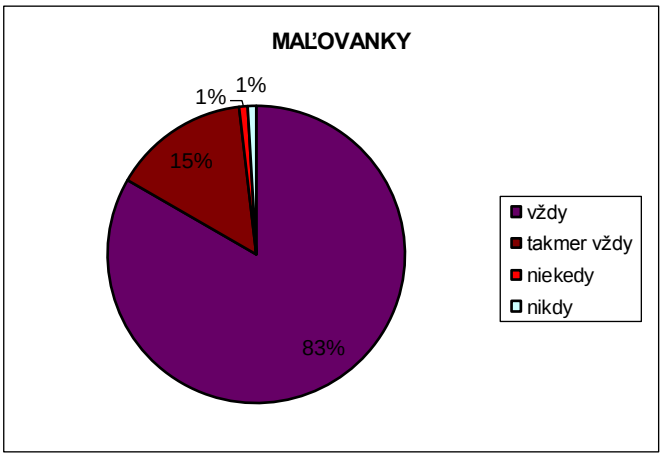
Graf 5 Čítanosť rubriky Maľovaé v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť komiksov



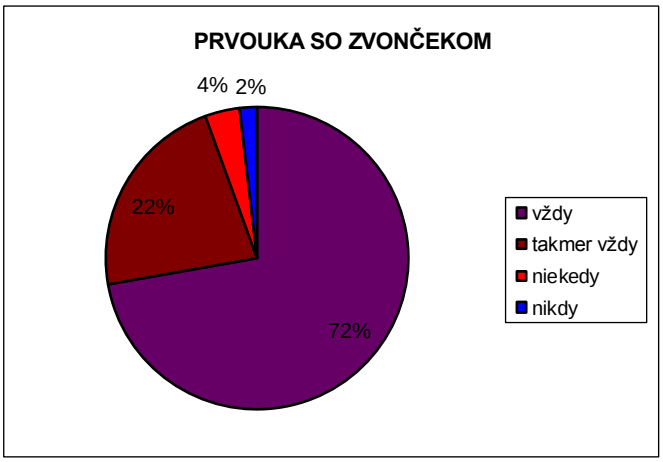
Graf 6 Čítanosť komiksov v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť maľovaniek



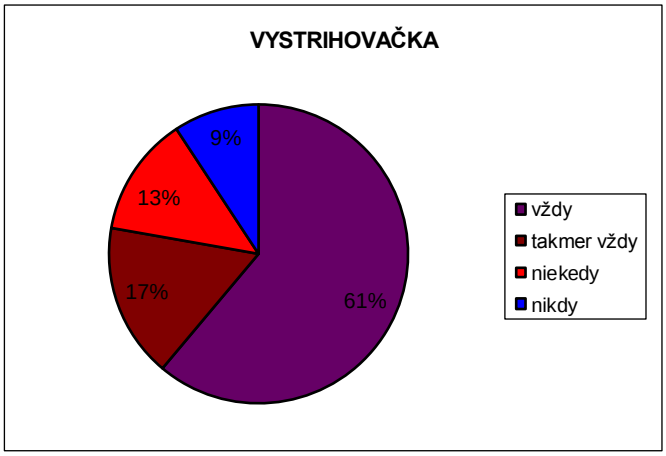
Graf 7 Čítanosť/sledovanosť maľovaniek v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Prvouka so Zvončekom



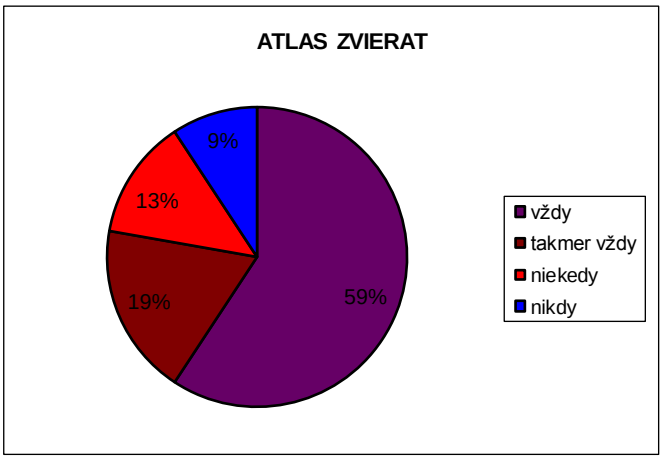
Graf 8 Čítanosť rubriky Prvouka so Zvončekom v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky vystrihovačiek



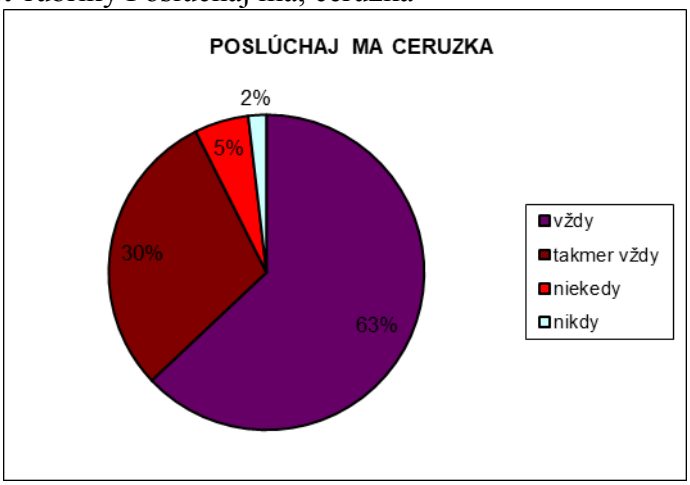
Graf 9 Čítanosť/sledovanosť vystrihovačiek v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť rubriky Atlas zvierat



Graf 10 Čítanosť rubriky Atlas zvierat v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka



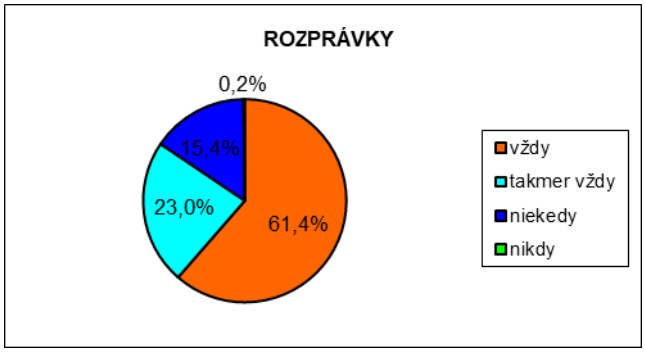
Graf 11 Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Výskumy priniesli zaujímavé zistenia. Napriek tomu, že adresátmi Zvončeka sú predčitataelia a začínajúci čitatelia, ktorí nevyhnutné potrebujú spoluúčasť dospelej osoby pri čítaní a riešení úloh, čítanosť jednotlivých rubrík i časopisu ako celku je mimoriadne vysoká. Podľa hodnotenia respondentov všetkých 11 hodnotených rubrík číta vždy viac ako 53 % čitateľov. Z nich jedna rubrika (Maľovanky) má čítanosť s označeným „vždy“ nad 80 %. Tri rubriky číta vždy viac ako 70 % respondentov. Ide o Maľované čítanie, rubriky Prvouka so Zvončekom a Raz, dva tri (zameraná na elementárnu matematiku).
Rozprávky, básne, piesne, vystrihovačky a rubriku Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka číta vždy od 60 do 70 % čitateľov. V rozpätí od 50 do 60 % majú čítanosť s označením „vždy“ komiksy a prírodovedná rubrika Atlas zvierat.
Žiadna z hodnotených jedenástich rubrík nemala pravidelnú čítanosť nižšiu ako 50 %. Podiel tých, ktorí hodnotenú rubriku nečítajú nikdy, bol pri každej z hodnotených jedenástich rubrík nižší ako 10 %.

4. ČÍTANOSŤ V ROKU 2017

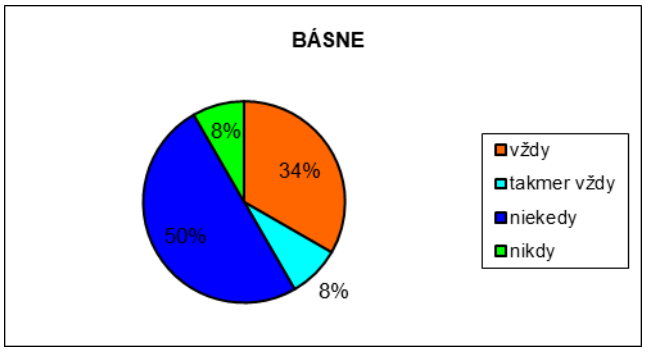
Prieskum čítanost rubrík v časopise Zvonček v roku 2017 bol vykonaný dotazníkovou metódou. Dotazník vyplnilo a odovzdalo 1128 respondentov. Odpovedali na otázky, ako čítajú jednotlivé publikované rubriky. Odpovede vyberali z možností: vždy, takmer vždy, niekedy, nikdy.

Čítanosť rozprávok



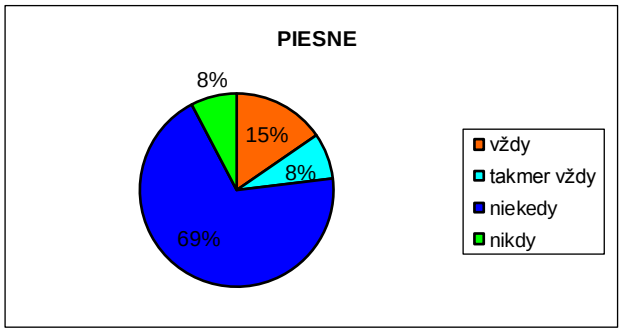
Graf 12 Čítanosť rozprávok v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť básní



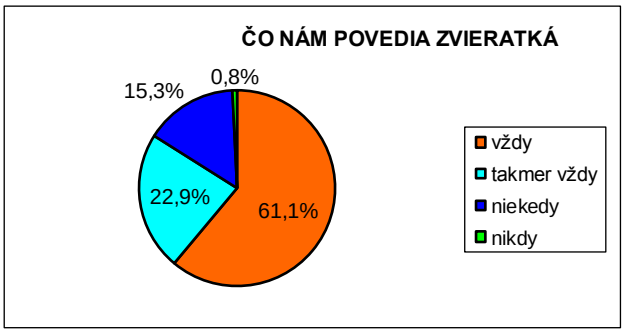
Graf 13 Čítanosť básní v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť piesní



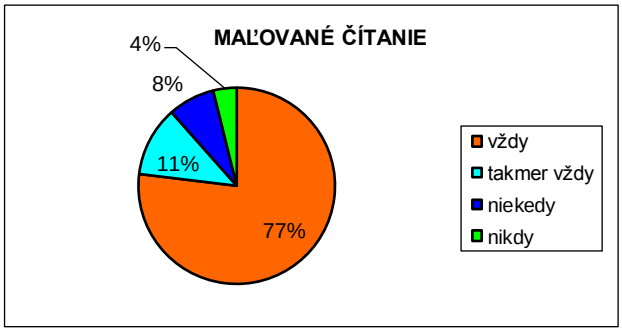
Graf 14 Čítanosť/sledovanosť piesní v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť rubriky Čo nám povedia zvieratká



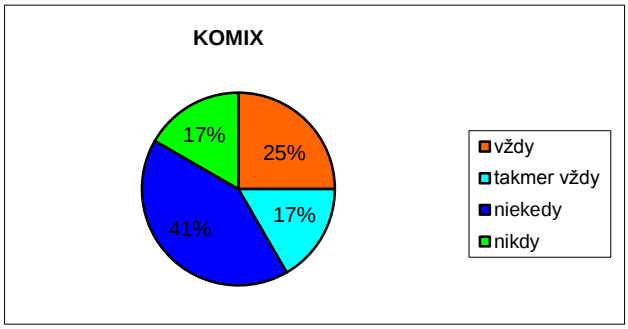
Graf 15 Čítanosť rubriky Čo nám povedia zvieratká v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť rubriky Maľované čítanie



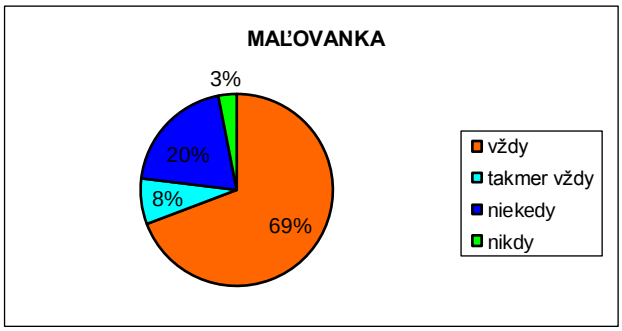
Graf 16 Čítanosť rubriky Maľované čítanie v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť komiksov



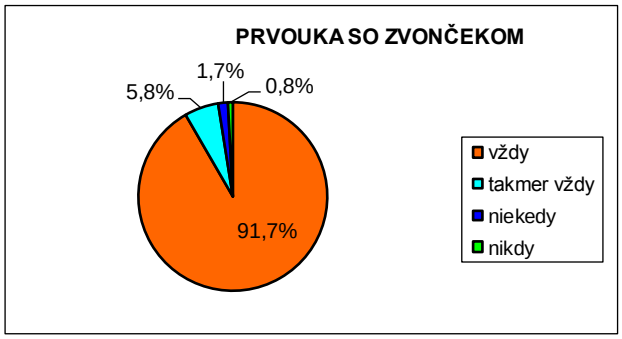
Graf 17 Čítanosť komiksov v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť maľovaniek



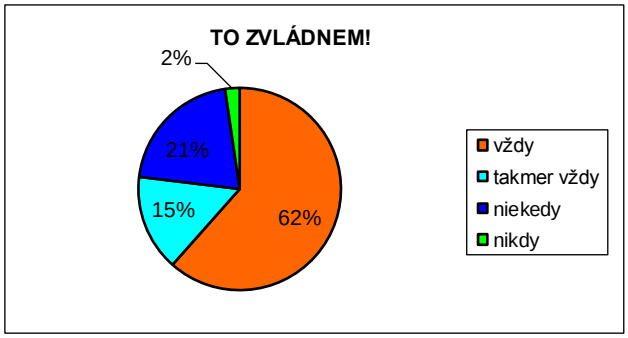
Graf 18 Čítanosť/sledovanosť maľovaniek v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť rubriky Prvouka so Zvončekom



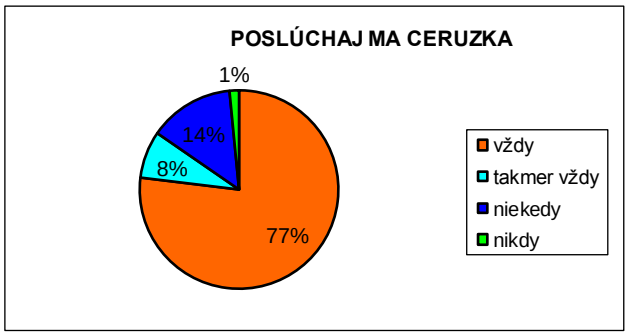
Graf 19 Čítanosť rubriky Prvouka so Zvončekom v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky To zvládnem!



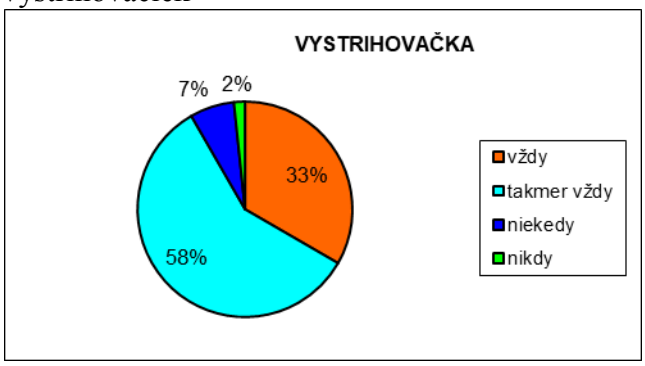
Graf 20 Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky To zvládnem! v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť rubriky Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka



Graf 21 Čítanosť rubriky Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Čítanosť/sledovanosť vystrihovačiek



Graf 22 Čítanosť/sledovanosť vystrihovačiek v časopise Zvonček v roku 2011
Zdroj: vlastný výskum

Výskumy potvrdili, že čítanosť jednotlivých rubrík i časopisu ako celku je veľmi výrazná. Jedna z jedenástich hodnotených rubrík (Prvouka so Zvončekom) má čítanosť s označeným „vždy“ nad 90 % (91,67 %). Dve rubriky číta vždy viac ako 70 % respondentov. Ide o Maľované čítanie a rubriku Poslúchaj ma ceruzka (zameranú na rozvíjanie grafomotoriky). Rozprávky, maľovanku, rubriky Čo nám povedia zvieratká a To zvládnem! (zameranú na elementárnu matematiku) číta vždy od 60 do 70 % čitateľov. Pravidelnú čítanosť nižšiu ako 50 % mali štyri z jedenástich hodnotených rubrík.
Podiel tých, ktorí hodnotenú rubriku nečítajú nikdy, bol pri desiatich z jedenástich rubrík nižší ako 10 %, v prípade komiksov dosiahol 16,67 %.

5. KOMPARÁCIA A VÝVOJ ČÍTANOSTI V SLEDOVANOM OBDOBÍ

Z uvedených prieskumov vyplýva, že pravidelnú čítanosť zvýšili štyri rubriky, a to Prvouka so Zvončekom (zo 62,96 % na 91,67 %), Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka (zo 62,96 % na 76,92 %), Maľované čítanie (zo 70,37 % na 76,92 %) a prírodovedné rubriky (z 59,26 % na 61,54 %). Uvedené rubriky majú aj značný podiel čítanosti označenej ako „takmer vždy“.
Ak by sme za rast čítanosti považovali súčet čítajúcich „vždy“ a „takmer vždy“, vzrástla aj čítanosť rozprávok.
Treba pripomenúť, že pod pojmom čítanosť v prípade niektorých rubrík ide skôr o riešenie úloh než o čítanie v pravom zmysle slova. Ukazuje sa, že obľúbené sú rubriky, ktoré vyžadujú aktívny prístup adresáta. V rubrike Prvouka so Zvončekom ide o riešenie kreatívnych úloh zameraných na prírodu, ročné obdobia a svet, ktorý dieťa obklopuje (vytváranie množín, dvojíc, hľadanie rozdielov, bludísk a pod.). Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka je svojím obsahom orientovaná na rozvíjanie grafomotoriky, pričom deti aktívne kreslia rôzne čiary, tvary,

písmená. Maľované čítanie číta dospelý, s ktorým dieťa interaguje a dopĺňa pri hlasnom čítanie namiesto obrázkov slová. Prírodovedné rubriky Atlas zvierat a Čo nám povedia zvieratká odzrkadľuje prirodzený záujem detí o zvieratá a prírodu.
Rozprávky ako umelecký žáner rozvíjajú estetické cítenie detí, no svojím obsahom majú pre detského adresáta mnohorozmerný význam, čo popisujú mnohé odborné články a štúdie.

6. ZÁVER

Adresátmi časopisov pre deti do 3 do 7 rokov sú predčitatelia, resp. začínajúci čitatelia. Medzi časopis a adresáta vstupujú dospelá osoba (rodič, učiteľ a pod) ako určitý sociálno-komunikačný kanál a katalyzátor sprostredkovávania obsahu periodika jeho čitateľom. Hoci by sa mohlo zdať, že čítanosť za takýchto sprostredkovaných okolností bude nízka, prieskumy čítanosti v období rokov 2011 až 2017 tento predpoklad vyvrátili. Čítanosť väčšiny rubrík vysoko presahuje 50 %. Len menej ako 10 % respondentov pri jednotlivých rubrikách uvádzalo, že ich nečíta nikdy. Z toho vyplýva, že vplyv časopisu na čitateľov vo veku od 3 do 7 rokov, na rozširovanie ich vedomostí, zručností a skúseností, je jednoznačne relevantný.
Poznatky o čítanosti jednotlivých rubrík, teda exaktné informácie o vzťahu čitateľov k jednotlivým témam, žánrom, rubrikám a pod., sú dôležitým činiteľom pri zostavovaní obsahu periodika. Pri príprave nového ročníka ich redakcia Zvončeka považuje za základný pilier pri jeho zostavovaní. V súlade s prieskumami pravidelne zaraďuje úspešné rubriky. Rubriky s najvyššou čítanosťou nechýbali v žiadnom ročníku časopisu od sledovaného roku 2011. Za sledované obdobie rokov 2011 až 2017 vzrástol záujem o štyri rubríky (s čítanosťou „vždy“), a to o Prvouku so Zvončekom (zo 62,96 % na 91,67 %), Poslúchaj ma, ceruzka (zo 62,96 % na 76,92 %), Maľované čítanie (zo 70,37 % na 76,92 %) prírodovedné rubriky (z 59,26 % na 61,54 %), a s čítanosťou „vždy“ a „takmer vždy“ vzrástla čítanosť rozprávok. V prvých dvoch z nich sa vyžaduje aktívny postoj čitateľa pri riešení kreatívnych úloh, v tretej ide o interaktívnu rubriku medzi dospelou osobou a dieťaťom pri spoločnom čítaní textov a obrázkov včlenených do textu. Časopis pravidelne uverejňuje prírodovednú rubriku, pričom v jednotlivých ročníkoch mení iba konkrétne zameranie (napr. zvieratá našich lesov, exotické zvieratá a pod.), ako aj rozprávky, ktorých autorov v jednotlivých ročníkoch redakcia mení.
Výskum bol síce realizovaný v spojitosti s jedným časopisom pre deti predškolského veku, ale odráža záujem detí uvedenej vekovej kategórie o jednotlivé témy, formy spracovania a žánre, preto ich možno zovšeobecniť a využiť v praxi pri tvorbe časopisov pre deti predškolského veku.

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ETHICS OF SEXUALITY: THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH OF THE MORAL VALUES OF EU CITIZENS

Jan Koumar

Abstract

This paper deals with moral values of the individuals and their relation to their sexual behaviour. Its aim is to examine the moral ideas related to sexuality and the sources of these ideas found by the qualitative research conducted among citizens of the EU in 2016. Even though the qualitative research strategy does not provide a representative view of the society, it represents the problem, thus a simple typology of the moral views found at the informants is presented.

Key words: *Ethics, Morality, Sex, Sexuality, Qualitative Research, Moral Values,*

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper tries to investigate an ethical context of sexuality through a sociological research, in particular through qualitative interviews made with residents of four member states of the European Union in 2016. Its aim is to explore what moral values surround sexuality of individuals, where they spring from, how their changes are perceived and how people assess sexuality presented in their society.

Ethics is seen here as an area consisting of three distinctive layers: custom – morality – ethics, where custom means social conformity, which is local and time-varying, and which says what "should be done" without any reasoning. Morality is practical and always individual, it addresses one's moral consciousness. Ethics itself is a part of practical philosophy which does not only ask what is permitted, but looks for the best way of acting possible (Sokol 2016: 65-69). Sexuality, however, is not reduced merely to coitus and other activities aiming directly to orgasm, but it takes into account the fact that apart from its marginal forms (e.g. prostitution, casual sex, …) sexual encountering usually involves reluctance and hesitation and never goes straight to orgasm. Normally it involves courting, erotica and a lot of social institutions enabling them (e.g. parties, dancing, promenades). Throughout the whole paper sexuality is considered to be an activity that has a moral dimension, although somebody would like to claim the opposite[1].

2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The empirical research tried to find out what moral ideas people create about their own sexual acts and what the source of such ideas is. This problem can be elaborated into following research questions:

1. How do the individuals perceive linking of sexuality and morality?
2. What sexual behaviour does the individual consider moral?
3. What sexual behaviour does the individual consider immoral?
4. What makes such a behaviour (im)moral?
5. What is the source of these ideas?

The nature of the explored problem called for an inductive research strategy and so for a qualitative method, which, in its constructivist paradigm, proceeds from Thomas Theorem

[1] The reason for such a claim would be obvious: sexuality had been limited by religious morality for a long time and after its liberation it needed some god (sexual freedom) to aim towards and a devil (which happened to be morality) to escape from. Yet, morality has not disappeared, it is just called differently.

claiming that the action is caused by interpretation of the given situation not by any divine truth[2], and so every construction of meanings depends on the cooperation of all the participants in the interview.

The explored sample consisted of 18 people, gained by the purposive sampling in which two first informants were the people I had known before then the sampling proceeded with the snow-ball method. I was successful in finding informants of different sexual orientations (6 homosexuals, 10 heterosexuals and 2 bisexuals), beliefs (9 atheists, 2 Buddhists, 5 Roman Catholics, 2 Anglicans) family background (5 single, 4 married, 7 partnered, 2 divorced) place of residence (11 the Czech Republic, 2 Italy, 2 Germany, 1 England and 2 Poland), gender (6 women and 12 men), education (6 secondary school, 2 college, 4 bachelor's degree, 6 master's degree) and age range (21-46 the average was 29,3). What I did not succeed in, and what can be a certain limit of this research, is the fact that I did not get to any teenage informants, who could have offered the most up-to-date (but also the least stable) moral ideals, I also did not get to any basically educated or even uneducated informant. Also the most of the informants (11 people) were from the Czech Republic.

As a particular method of data gaining a non-standardized face-to-face interview was used. In order to get 18 informants I had to address 34 people, which means 47% refused to talk to me, the reasons of their refusal was not usually explained or it was very vague (e. g., It is better not to talk about it; If I told you, you would blush, etc.). The interviews were recorded later transcribed and sensitive parts which could identify an informant were anonymized. Analysis was performed continuously (Creswell 2014). At the first phase I used the emerging codes, slowly developing a code book used for the follow-up interviews, at the second phase I created categories and looked for the links and order among them. All informants were presented the purpose of my research; at the beginning of an interview an informed consent with purpose, anonymity and future data archiving was granted. Informants always knew which part of their speech would be recorded.

The chosen method, however, involves certain limits. Firstly, due to the qualitative research strategy the discovered moral values cannot be claimed to be the prevailing ones of European population. Also the reliability of qualitative data is low, especially in comparison with quantitative strategy. But since the aim was a deep insight into the problem, traditional reliability was not the main measure (Creswell 2014: 256).

3. ETHICS OF SEXUALITY IN THE EXPLORED POPULATION

There were no significant similarities among the informants of the same nationality, education, gender, orientation, background or age, the only thing which seemed to play some part was their religion. Nevertheless, the rules given by a certain church did not influence the members of that church only, but the atheists as well, though, in a negative way – the rules of Roman Catholic Church were named as an example of hypocrisy by 6 informants and stood in the centre of moral conceptions of 8 informants, 4 of the latter created their own moral conceptions in their strict opposition. Even the believers did not fully follow the teaching of their churches. For instance Informant 9, a Roman Catholic gay could hardly fulfil a procreative function of sexuality, therefore he hesitated whether this function is important and then he rejected it. Informant 7, a female Buddhist, rather tended to confront Buddha and Christ and concluded that the only source of right actions is human's heart and love. Informant 18, an Italian lesbian, was very strictly convinced about the conspiracy against humanity taking place in all the current religious movements, very similarly Informant 12, an Italian gay, saw papacy as the only remaining monarchy in the world with all its bad points and with hypocritical suppression of normal human needs.

[2] It literally says: "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences." (Thomas and Thomas 1928: 571-572)

None of the informants saw morality and sexuality as two separate things; the link between morality and sexuality seems to be valid, it is not questioned and everybody is aware of ethical dimension of sex. All the informants had more difficulties to express what was good than what was bad. Problems with expressing wrong actions may come from their effort not to judge the others, because all informants condemned hypocritical morality, even though some condemnations of hypocrisy were only proclaimed not observed. Surprisingly, nobody mentioned the Bible, which may result from many reasons: Mark D. Jordan, for example, thinks that Bible can be a source of controversial readings, because everybody searches there for what they want to find (Jordan 2007: 20-31).
No extreme values appeared in the sample. No informant took sex as a simple tool of procreation; no one took it as a matter of pure pleasure with any other regards either. No informant condemned sex in a Victorian way as something principally wrong either.

3.1 What is moral?

The sampled informants agreed on several things: every sexual act that was not forced or violent is good; even the religiously based informants considered sex a pleasant thing, which had to be consensual and to bring pleasure; at the same time they realized the problematic nature of pleasure, which is hard to judge in terms of possible harm or wider moral context. Two informants appeared at least partly hedonistic: Everything evolving and deepening intimacy was seen as good, as same as everything beneficial to the relationship. Informants 16, a British gay male, whose moral conception was strongly relationship-aimed, regarded exploring his fetishes and hidden needs to be important, because their satisfying prevents relationship from boredom and from perishing. A very similar conception could be found in Informant 2, a Czech gay male, who also emphasized the danger of being bored. An easy ethics of reciprocity was observable in Informant 6, who claimed “I must get what I give”.

3.2 What is immoral?

Non-consensual acts and any violence were considered strictly immoral or bad. The most frequently mentioned bad acts were those violating freedom of a partner; purposely causing pain; the hypocritical acts; also violating an agreement was considered bad as well as humiliation of a partner and any behaviour harming either a partner or an informant. Informant 6 has created a very specific conception, in which sexual morals apply only to married people, a single human can do what they want. Informant 14, a male Buddhist from Germany wanted all sexual acts to be free of morals, but he obviously meant his own acts only. Some informants discussed disgusting things rather than immoral ones.
No agreement was achieved on marginal forms of sexuality. While some informants called a threesome immoral, wrong or humiliating, the others saw it as an unproblematic matter. Four informants considered extramarital sex an ideal form of realizing their own sexuality. Not surprisingly, homosexuality was seen positive by gay and bisexual informants, Informants 5 and 17 did not mind homosexual acts, Informants 1 and 12 saw homophobia as a typical manifestation of patriarchal society. Only unpaid prostitution was considered a problem.

3.3 Sources of moral values

Probably the most expectable source of values could be religion, but with the exception of one informant, religion was not obeyed rigidly. Informants 3, 6, 13, 18 did not distinguish between morality and law; consequently they considered every legally unanchored rule hypocritical and purposely limiting. Morals based on nature and biological-need satisfaction were represented by informants who saw sexual acts as general body necessity. Three informants based their moral conceptions opportunistically (e. g. on their sexual saturation,

drunkenness and relationship condition). The sources of two informants were completely individual, which did not rely on any moral system.

4. MORAL TYPOLOGY

A simple typology based on a main motive of moral considerations can be now made. This typology can surely be compared e. g. to Hiltner's moral considerations (Hiltner 1953) or to Kohlberg's stages of moral development (Kohlberg 1981), but it does not correspond with them, mainly due to the fact that they are hierarchized from the worst to the best.

Simple moral rules centered on one's ego – (Informants 5, 11, 14). What harms the informants must be wrong, what is beneficial to them must be good. The other people's feelings are reflected only basically and marginally usually in the terms of economy (money solves all problems). All of them were aware of a problematic social acceptance of such an attitude, which was visible in their effort to lean on something higher and more constitutive. Informant 5, therefore, refers to the biological necessity to solve sexual passions, informant 11 talks about vague love and understanding by heart, informant 14 mentions sexual organs as a source of possible redemption for everybody.

Conservative moral rules supplemented with idealized liberality – (Informants 4, 10, 15). These people observed conservative values in their real lives, but their ideals run wild with undetermined limits and regards. Informant 1, for example, would like to have an open relationship and sex with anybody, informant 15 imagines sexual freedom with no judgments and remorse. But in their real life they prefer sex with one partner and they realize that it would be impossible to have sex with anybody while being in marriage or a partnership.

Realistic moral rules based on a protest – (Informants 1, 2, 7, 12, 16, 18). These informants based their moral conceptions on a revolt against some existing or imagined moral system. The system, they were revolting against, was most frequently the Christian morality represented by the Bible and teaching of priests (Informants 1, 2, 7, 12, 18), sometimes it was simply any moral conception imposed on a human by a human (Informant 12, 16). Protest or revolt of these informants resulted in creating their own moral system, which some of them even needed to write down (Informant 1) realizing that only strictly given rules can be trusted.

Morality for everybody – (Informants 3, 6, 9, 17). Principles, on which people belonging to this group based their conceptions, were different, but morality was always seen as a system that did not allow any exceptions and is strictly binding for everybody. Informant 3, for example, claimed everybody had a right to have sex, having sex can be even required of a partner or husband. The others claimed sex was based on the mutual agreement between two partners (Informant 6, 17), but such an agreement was as binding as legal code, Informant 17 even claimed the partners living together had right (not just chance) to have regular sex with each other.

Complex independent morality – (Informants 8, 13). The last type is represented by people whose moral rules are independent and deeply internalized. They understood, it was themselves who created these rules, but yet they neither revolted against them, nor wanted to reject them. Informant 8, for instance, described his internalized morals as his private autopilot. These rules were conservative and based on agreement between partners and on a non-harming approach, both informants saw their inner values more important than any sexual pleasure. In a sharp contrast to the previous type, people having this moral conception did not judge the others and were very open-minded to all activities that they, however, completely forbade to themselves.

5. CONCLUSION

For many years, sexual ethics was obsessing about masturbation of pubescent boys, permitted sexual positions, virginity or sodomy. From this point of view, I consider the fact that these

“traditional” topics of sexual ethics were not even present in my research important. The conducted investigation shows sexual acts still have ethical dimension, even though it is not frequently called “ethical” in order to distinguish good and bad actions from unacceptable hypocrisy and moralizing. Morality is very often confused with law, which may be a result of the effort to define moral principles more strictly, clearly and to base them on something generally respected. In sexual ethics the reproductive function of sexuality does not seem to play any part, nobody seemed to see sex mainly as a tool of procreation, which supports Giddens’s theory of plastic sexuality freed from procreation (Giddens 1992). Since the Christian ethics is no longer taken for granted, the question of what moral conception is discussed, when we discuss sexual ethics, seems to be growingly interesting. The fact that no venereal diseases have been mentioned may be a bit alarming, in the age of increasing number of HIV positive people it may become an important ethical issue.

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HUDOBNO-VZDELÁVACIE PROJEKTY PRE DETI STREDNÉHO ŠKOLSKÉHO VEKU S AKCENTOM NA TVORBU SÚČASNÝCH SLOVENSKÝCH SKLADATEĽOV A V KORELÁCII S FENOMÉNOM ZÁŽITKU

MUSIC EDUCATION PROJECTS FOR THE LEARNERS OF MIDDLE GRADES OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS FOCUSING ON THE PRODUCTION OF CONTEMPORARY SLOVAK COMPOSERS AND CORRELATING WITH THE EXPERIENTIAL ASPECTS OF MUSIC PERCEPTION

Janka Kupková

Abstrakt

Štúdia mapuje hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty, vytvorené a realizované na Slovensku a reflektuje ich žánrovú a druhovú variabilitu. Pozornosť sústreďuje na tvorbu súčasných slovenských skladateľov, interpretuje prínos ich produkcie vzhľadom na rozvoj osobnosti dieťaťa stredného školského veku, ako aj na špecifický fenomén zážitku. Aplikáciou interdisciplinárneho prístupu sa pokúša uchopiť význam tejto špecifickej kategórie tvorby a poukazuje aj na možné negatíva, ktoré môžu zmariť jej pozitívne esteticko-emocionálne pôsobenie na mladých recipientov.

Kľúčové slová: *hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty, stredný školský vek, ontogenéza, súčasní slovenskí skladatelia, zážitok.*

Abstract

The study examines music education projects created and carried out in Slovakia and reflects their genres and variability. Particular attention is paid to the production of contemporary Slovak composers and interprets their contribution in the view of the personality development of the learners of middle grades of primary schools, correlated with the experiential aspects of music perception. An interdisciplinary approach is applied in the study in order to understand this specific category of music production and to suggest its possible problematic features which may reduce the positive aesthetic-emotional effects on young recipients.

Key words: *music education projects, middle grades of primary schools, ontogenesis, contemporary Slovak composers, experience.*

1. ÚVOD

Každé z jednotlivých vývojových období ľudského jedinca má svoje osobitosti a špecifiká, ktorými sa vyznačuje. Z nich azda „najzraniteľnejším“ pre mladého jedinca je práve obdobie stredného školského veku, kedy každý mladý človek prechádza obdobím dospievania. Toto relevantné obdobie v ľudskom živote sa ocitlo v optike skúmania bádateľov rôznych vedných odborov (predovšetkým zo sféry tzv. vied o človeku – t.j. psychológov, pedagógov, biológov, sexuológov), vrátane ďalších odborníkov, komplementárne ho doplňajúc z rozmanitých kognitívnych sfér (muzikológie, ekonomiky, prognostiky, teórie komunikácie, a i.). Žiaci stredného školského veku na Slovensku sú v súčasnosti edukačne kreovaní v rámci intencionálnej hudobnej výchovy (v 5.-8. ročníku základnej školy), nižšie stredné vzdelávanie

v oblasti hudby sa však snažia pozitívne dopĺňať, respektíve zmysluplne prispievať k ich osobnostnému rozvoju (rozvíjaniu ich racionálnej i emocionálnej stránky) popredné osobnosti slovenskej hudobno-kultúrnej sféry. Sú tvorcami, často aj aktívnymi realizátormi (moderátormi, hudobnými interpretmi) nimi vytvorených hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov, ktoré prezentujú pod egidou relevantných slovenských hudobno-kultúrnych inštitúcií, či iných kultúrno-spoločenských platforiem.
Pozitívne hudobno-vzdelávacie ambície si predsavzali už tvorcovia tzv. „výchovných koncertov“, ktoré sa v slovenskom kultúrno-vzdelávacom teritóriu začali uskutočňovať už v roku 1953. Ak však náš bádateľský interes chceme upriamiť na hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty, je potrebné definovať pojem hudobno-vzdelávací projekt. V reflexiách českých pedagógov je výstižne definované projektovanie kurikula ako „proces konštruovania projektov, cieľov, obsahu, prostriedkov, spôsobov organizácie a hodnotenia inštitucionalizovaného vzdelávania“ (Prucha, J. et al. 2009, s. 226). V našej optike sa však ocitnú hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty, ktorý sa nerealizujú v rámci intencionálneho inštitucionálneho vzdelávania, ale sú ponímané ako jeho obohatenie, a majú ambíciu prispievať k uvedomelej hudobnej recepcii a poskytovať deťom zážitok. Nakoľko sme si vedomí atraktivity práve hudobno-scénických projektov, tento typ projektu možno charakterizovať v integratívnom poňatí, „v ktorom sa výsledky umeleckej výchovy a vzdelávania spájajú a integrujú do vyššej, syntetickej formy a práve vďaka nej potom prenikajú ďalej k ľuďom, do verejnosti“ (Hatrík, J., 2003, s. 125). Hudobný skladateľ a pedagóg Juraj Hatrík ho ďalej spresňuje v ďalšej relevantnej dimenzii : “Projekt teda chápem predovšetkým ako investíciu, odovzdanie sa“ (ibid).
V poslednej dobe sa do všetkých sfér života (teda aj mimo umenia) verbálne infiltruje „zážitkovosť“, často aj vzhľadom na komerčné účely a snahu prilákať všetky generačné vlny na produkcie rôzneho druhu a účelu. V našej štúdii sústredíme pozornosť na fenomén hudobného zážitku, ktorý budeme sledovať v korelácii s tvorbou hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov na Slovensku, zacielených na vekovú kategóriu žiakov staršieho školského veku. Vytvorené a predvedené hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty budeme sledovať nielen cez prizmu zážitku, ale aj so zreteľom na ich variabilitu druhovú a žánrovú. Pred nami vyvstáva otázka : príznačný je pre sféru súčasných hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov dynamizmus a pozitívny vzostup, alebo skôr stagnácia? Popredný slovenský hudobný pedagóg D. Šimčík (2007, s. 172-173) definuje ako problém aj jav, kedy „... daný projekt nereflektuje (nespĺňa z rôznych príčin) umelecké, psychologické, pedagogické či didaktické požiadavky a kritériá“, kde majú byť „impulzom na operatívne a produktívne myslenie, hodnotenie, skúmanie, hľadanie a odhaľovanie súvislostí, na hlbšiu kritickú analýzu jednotlivých dimenzií javu a na ďalšie možné štruktúry“.

2. DETI STREDNÉHO ŠKOLSKÉHO VEKU A ICH ONTOGENETICKÉ OSOBITOSTI

Stredný školský vek (pubescencia) v intenciách súčasných českých hudobných psychológov (Sedlák, F., Váňová, H., 2013, s. 366- 367) možno časovo určiť len približne. Uznávaný slovenský hudobný psychológ P. Krbaťa (2008, s. 142) ho vymedzuje v rozpätí od jedenásteho do pätnásteho roku života. Niektorí psychológovia však uvádzajú, že v ostatných rokoch dochádza u dospievajúcich k tzv. biologickej akcelerácii, ktorá urýchľuje nástup dospievania v komparácii s predchádzajúcou populáciou viac než o jeden rok, teda u dievčat nastupuje po desiatom roku a u chlapcov po jedenástom roku života. Zmeny, ktoré sa odohrávajú v duševnom živote pubescentov sa výrazne prejavujú v hudobnom vnímaní i vo sfére hudobných záujmov a postojov. Vnímanie je diferencovanejšie a prehlbuje sa, je aktívnejšie a z hľadiska obsahu bohatšie. Hudobná skúsenosť sa pozitívne prejavuje i v narastajúcej analyticko-syntetickej aktivite, a v hlbšom psychickom spracovaní hudby.

Nutné je uviesť i ďalšiu zvláštnosť, ktorou je fakt, že pubescenti až príliš často obľubujú nadmerne silnú hudobnú reprodukciu, ktorá spôsobuje u mladých jedincov tohto veku zvláštne citové opojenie, ako konštatuje F. Sedlák a H. Váňová (2013, s. 367) vedúce pri tanci až k hudobno-pohybovej extáze. Zvlášť u dievčat sa v tomto období silne rozvíjajú hudobné záujmy. Zahraničné výskumy (Michel, P., 1960, s. 303) potvrdzujú, že záujem o hudbu nasleduje hneď za obľubou športu a literatúry. Hudobné záujmy mladých jedincov sa orientujú prevažne na počúvanie hudby v mimoškolskom prostredí, prioritu v nich však má nonartificiálna hudba. Počúvanie symfonickej a komornej hudby je vo výskume hudobných záujmov umiestnené na spodných priečkach. Generuje tiež kult „speváckych hviezd" a dospievajúci chcú opätovne počúvať piesne od svojich speváckych idolov. Ako uvádza P. Krbaťa (2008, s. 142) mladí ľudia v puberte si pozornosť okolia získavajú rôznym módnym oblečením, uprednostňovaním toho ktorého hudobného žánru, druhu a typu hudby, najmä z oblasti modernej populárnej hudby. „Komplikované obdobie puberty znamená pre pedagógov a rodičov najnáročnejšie obdobie výchovnej pedagogickej práce.
"Pop music pre mladých ľudí uvoľňuje intenzívne emocionálne zážitky (Krbaťa, 2008, s. 143), a zdôvodnenie možno vidieť aj v tom, že „komunikácia ľahkosti prináša zážitok sebazabudnutia a často úniku z reality". „Tieto esteticko- vkusové zvláštnosti či konflikty netreba riešiť, ale tolerovať. Vďaka motívom lásky v hudobných dielach môže hudba kultivovať a usmerňovať rozvoj citového a myšlienkového života dospievajúcich." (Krbaťa, 2008, s. 144). Záujem o hudbu, a ostatné druhy umenia sa zosilňuje tiež s rastúcim subjektivizmom a so sklonom k introverzii, ktoré sa prejavujú ako poznanie seba samého, uvedomenia si vlastného „ja". Hudba a estetický prežitok toto sebapoznanie umožňujú. Pubescenti tiež túžia svoje vnútorné prežitky samostatne vyjadriť, čo vedie k častej umeleckej tvorivosti tak hudobnej, ako aj literárnej a výtvarnej.
Ako zvýrazňuje F. Sedlák a H. Váňová (2013, s. 368) „výskumy i pedagogická prax učiteľov, vychovávateľov i rodičov vedú k oprávnenému záveru, že hudba je svojím charakterom predurčená k tomu, aby plnila nezastupiteľnú funkciu vo výchove dospievajúcich. Podieľa sa významne na duševnom, citovom, rozumovom i mravnom vývoji pubescentov".

3. HUDOBNO-VZDELÁVACIE PROJEKTY NA SLOVENSKU V ROKOCH 2000-2018

Hudobno-vzdelávacie projekty, prezentované v novom miléniu na Slovensku sa realizovali pod egidou rôznych relevantných hudobných inštitúcií : Hudobné centrum v Bratislave, Štátna filharmónia Košice, Konzervatórium Košice, Štátne divadlo Košice a iné. V tejto kapitole našej štúdie sa zameriame na produkciu, dedikovanú deťom stredného školského veku z ponuky Hudobného centra v Bratislave. Ich variabilita a žánrová pluralita demonštruje fakt, že hudobná kultúra v 21. storočí zahŕňa rozmanitú paletu hudobných druhov, žánrov i štýlov.
Žánrové spektrum hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov obsiahlo v necelých dvoch decéniách nového miléniu aj projekty folklórnej proveniencie, aplikujúc metaforické spojenia v súvzťažnosti s rozmanitou štylizáciou a inštrumentáciou ľudových piesní. Od začiatku druhého decénia 21. storočia (v r. 2011) sa mladí recipienti môžu aj prostredníctvom nových výchovno-vzdelávacích projektov percepčne kontaktovať nielen s tradičnou, pôvodnou ľudovou hudbou, ale aj s ich originálnym aranžmánom v štýle world/etno music. Upevňovanie a uchovávanie našej národnej identity bolo prioritou ďalšieho z projektov („Poznaj svoje dedičstvo - ľudový nástroj"), pričom krásu zvuku i tónov ľudových hudobných nástrojov predstavujú nielen interpretujúci umelci, ale aj deti si môžu vyskúšať hru na rôznych hudobných nástrojoch.
V korelácii so všeobecnou akceptáciou žánru muzikál zo strany všetkých vekových kategórií, sa aj výchovno-vzdelávacie projekty na Slovensku orientovali na priblíženie tohto žánru

mladým recipientom, od jeho genézy, cez rôzne vývojové peripetie, až po jeho súčasné podoby.
Sféra nonartificiálnej hudby zaznamenáva z pozície hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov výrazné posilnenie ich zastúpenia, osvetľujúc nielen tzv. „zábavné divadlo“ a jeho metamorfózy, ale aj sféru jazzu, bluesu a spirituálu, cez rôzne vývojové etapy až po moderný jazz. Nebol eliminovaný ani swing, a mladých poslucháčov sa tvorcovia hudobno-vzdelávacieho projektu pokúšali osloviť prezentáciou jeho nástupu, vyvrcholenia a doznievania. Boli to nielen základy swingu a populárnej hudby na Slovensku, ale mimoriadny interes pubescentov zaznamenal aj projekt „Rytmus Latinskej Ameriky“ (bol v portfóliu hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov Hudobného centra Bratislava od roku 2008 až do roku 2016). Prvopočiatky argentínskeho tanca a jeho prienikov do Európy, ako aj ukážky syntézy latinsko-amerického rytmu s jazzom mimoriadne zaujal mladých recipientov, najmä vzhľadom na dynamizmus a zaujímavý rytmus. Tým sa zároveň pozitívne prispievalo k posilňovaniu multikultúrneho atribútu a konfrontácie s umením iných kultúrnych teritórií.
Rozhodne nemožno eliminovať hudbu nonartificiálnej proveniencie, i keď kultivovanie adekvátneho vkusu a budovanie recepčnej skúsenosti je potrebné dosahovať najmä kontaktom s hudbou artificiálnou a preniknutím do jej vývoja. Tvorcovia hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov si zvolili niekoľko alternatív na dosahovanie relevantných cieľov : vysvetlením vzniku a vývoja hudby od stredoveku po súčasnosť, prostredníctvom jednak osobného vizuálneho kontaktu s archaickými hudobnými nástrojmi, ako aj ich zapojením mladých vnímateľom produkcie do akcie, pričom si môžu zahrať na mnohých hudobných nástrojoch. Prepojenie problematiky hudobnej organológie s poznávaním najslávnejších melódií od staroveku po súčasnosť umožnilo žiakom realizovať inštrumentálnu hru aj na vytypovaných starovekých hudobných nástrojoch (starogrécka lýra, harfa kráľa Dávida...), recipujúc aj interpretáciu slovenského multiinštrumentalistu. Pozitívne ambície atraktívneho historického exkurzu do dávnych storočí (stredovek a renesancia európskej proveniencie) napĺňal aj umelecký projekt komorného súboru „Musa Ludens“ (interpretácia na kópiách historických hudobných nástrojov, v dobovom oblečení), mal však len krátke trvanie (dva roky).
Nielen hudobné nástroje, ktoré zohrali svoju nenahraditeľnú funkciu v dejinách hudby, ale aj nástroje klasického inštrumentára, využívané v komornej hudbe boli témou jedného z projektov, ktorý mladé auditórium oboznamoval s ich stavbou i zvukom. K najosvedčenejším patril však projekt „Svetové hudobné nástroje“ , umožňujúci priamy, aktívny kontakt aj s netradičnými hudobnými nástrojmi a možnosť hry mladých jedincov na ne.
Do tvorby hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov pre žiakov staršieho školského veku sa kreatívne zapojil tiež skladateľ a pedagóg prof. Juraj Hatrík. Jeho hudobno-scénické projekty, tematicky viazané na „rodinu Sláčikovcov“ sú osobité, orientované na vnímanie umeleckej hudby a spoznávanie štruktúry hudby prostredníctvom zážitku z nej a aktivizáciou mladých recipientov. Skladateľ využíva celý rad hudobných motívov z rôznych skladieb, ako aj hudobných miniatúr zo sféry nonartificiálnej hudby. Zaujímavým projektom J. Hatríka je aj projekt „Tváre hudby“, ktorý žartovným a tvorivým spôsobom prostredníctvom metafory ľudskej tváre poukazuje na vznik a premeny hudobného výrazu. Prof. Hatrík doceňuje aj význam kontaktu mladých recipientov nielen so sférou tzv. „vážnej hudby“, ale aj ich pozitívnu rezonanciu so svetom tzv. „country music“ („Western story o neposlušnej Cindy“). Prostredníctvom optimisticky ladeného príbehu a známych amerických, írskych a austrálskych ľudových piesní mladých recipientov „prenesie“ do vzdialeného mimoeurópskeho teritória a ovzdušia amerického „Divokého západu“. Jeho nadčasovým posolstvom je nielen túžba po vzájomnej láske a porozumení, ale aj hľadanie zmyslu pre vzájomnú znášanlivosť a toleranciu.
Opomenutou oblasťou nebol ani operný žáner, pričom vytvorený a prezentovaný hudobno-vzdelávací projekt približuje komické opery obdobia romantizmu (Donizetti, G. Nápoj lásky,

Smetana, B. Predaná nevesta) pod svojráznou egidou „Opera nás zabáva“. Využíva formu cestujúceho divadla, vystupujúc aj v regiónoch mimo kamenných divadiel, aplikujúc vybrané operné artefakty veku primeranou formou, v skrátenej a inštrumentálne zredukovanej podobe. Rozmanité a výrazovo diferencované duetá z opier klasicistického skladateľa W.A. Mozarta sú tejto vekovej kategórii tiež prezentované (W.A. Mozart a jeho doba), približujúc skladateľovo detstvo, ako aj humor a vtip jeho klavírnych skladieb.

4. VYBRANÉ HUDOBNO-VZDELÁVACIE PROJEKTY SLOVENSKÝCH SKLADATEĽOV S PRIHLIADNUTÍM NA ZÁŽITKOVÚ BÁZU

V intenciách súčasných vedeckých poznatkov výstižne definovala fenomén hudobného zážitku slovenská muzikologička a pedagogička M. Strenáčiková (1993, s. 190-192) : „Hudobný zážitok chápeme ako „produkt“, ako vrcholný akt komplikovanej subjekt - objektovej interakcie percipient - hudobný artefakt“. Pregnantne formulovala determinanty hudobného zážitku, ku ktorým prináležia „psychické charakteristiky percipienta, jeho vlastnosti, životná a hudobno-percepčná skúsenostná potencionalita, momentálny psychický a fyzický stav, úroveň hudobno-rodinného a sociálneho prostredia, a šumy : akustický, psychologický, gnozeologický“. Svojim výskumom potvrdila senzibilnosť skúmaných respondentov voči hudobnému umeniu, ako aj závislosť na odbornej pripravenosti a majstrovstve pedagóga. Dospela k prínosnému poznaniu, že hudobný zážitok je poznamenaný korelačným vzťahom s psychickou štruktúrou dieťaťa a jeho momentálnym stavom (ibid).

Podnecovať a invenčne vyvolávať zážitkovú sféru detí i mladých jedincov si predsavzali vo svojom pedagogickom i kompozičnom úsilí aj súčasní hudobní skladatelia a univerzitní pedagógovia prof. Juraj Hatrík (* 1941) a prof. Belo Felix (* 1940).

Hudobný skladateľ Juraj Hatrík (2003, s. 127-128), ako sám vyjadruje za svojej viac ako tridsať ročnej „kompozično-pedagogickej a moderátorsko-vykladačskej činnosti na poli hudby medzi deťmi vytvoril veľa projektov - rozhlasových, televíznych, scénických, poloscénických, náučno-výchovných, knižných, čisto hudobných... Pars pro toto a práve vzhľadom na zorný uhol, ktorý som k problematike projektu zaujal... siahnem k čomusi možno z hľadiska „vyššieho pedagogického záujmu“ okrajovému, ale pre môj život i prácu bytostne dôležitému – k svojmu takmer 30 ročnému pôsobeniu v Detskom mestečku Zlatovce...“. Projekt, ktorý J. Hatrík pre deti, sociálne hendikepované („Loď ktorá sa plaví do neznáma“) pripravil a do rozmanitých aktivít ich zapojil, podnecoval a viedol k podstate ich výpovedí, k pôvabu a istote aj pri „neškolených“ krokových variáciách, k aktivizácii prostredníctvom piesní, hier, rozprávkových motívov, typizovaných situáciách, sa mu v retrospektíve pohľadu zdá najucelenejší a najautentickejší.

Prof. J. Hatrík inicioval k aktivite v zlatoveckom teritóriu aj pedagóga a skladateľa prof. Bela Felixa, pričom spoločne dotvárali a kreovali jeho hudobno-dramatický projekt O Harlekýnovi. Osobitý prínos pedagóga a skladateľa B. Felixa vystihla M. Kološtová (2017, s. 362) nasledovne : „Pri konštrukcii jeho pedagogického, vedeckého i umeleckého profilu, musíme konštatovať, že jeho priekopnícke snahy v oblasti tvorivej dramatiky a detského divadla prostredníctvom zážitkového učenia otvorili v oblasti intencionálnej edukácie hudby na Slovensku nové obzory“.... Je typom umelecko-pedagogickej osobnosti, ktorej špecifickú oblasť predstavujú celoštátne komponované projekty s interdisciplinárnymi presahmi hudobného a výtvarného umenia.“ Za progresívny počin v slovenskej hudobnej pedagogike považujeme teoretické spracovanie, realizáciu a publikovanie projektu „Maľovaná hudba – znejúci obraz“ (1992) autorskej dvojice B. Felix a L. Janáková. Ako sme to zvýraznili aj v našej monografii (Kupková, J. 2014) projekt „prezentoval atraktívnu tému, s výrazným dosahom na esteticko-emocionálne formovanie osobnosti súčasného dieťaťa“. Kvitovať možno fakt, že sa autori inšpirovali dielom J. A. Komenského (filozofia „Schola

ludus“), podnecovali synestéziu detí i všestranný rozvoj tvorivosti mladých jedincov. Ocenili sme tiež podiel integratívneho projektu v rozvoji komunikácie súčasných detí, pričom jeho ambíciou bolo prispievať k vzájomnej empatii a asertívnosti, k vzniku pozitívnych sociálnych zmien medzi nimi.
Kompozičná i projektová činnosť oboch relevantných slovenských osobností je rozsiahla, pri dosahovaní fenoménu hudobného zážitku z realizácie ich projektov možno vidieť tiež potvrdenie bádateľských rezultátov M. Strenáčikovej (1993, 2012), že „prehlbovaním hudobného vzdelania sa zvyšuje perceptibilita voči hudobnému umeniu i kvalita reakcie naň“.

5 ZÁVERY

V predkladanej štúdii sme dospeli k nasledovným rezultátom :

- Žánrové spektrum hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov na Slovensku zahŕňa hudbu artificiálnej i nonartificiálnej proveniencie. Zvolenú edukačnú stratégiu možno považovať za pozitívnu, nakoľko ignorovať sféru hudby, ktorá výrazne korešponduje s s hudobno-záujmovou a vkusovou orientáciou pubescentov nemožno. Vytvorené a realizované projekty pod egidou relevantných slovenských inštitúcií spĺňajú adekvátne axiologické kritériá, zohľadňujú relevantné pedagogicko-psychologické atribúty, vzhľadom na vekové osobitosti recipientov.
- Výrazným znakom súčasných hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov, prezentovaných scénicky, je osobitý zreteľ k aktivizácii mladých jedincov, ktorí sa aktívne zapájajú do diania na scéne a participujú svojou inštrumentálnou hrou (na hudobných nástrojoch historických i novodobých), vzhľadom na zacielenie i tematické zameranie projektu.
- Zo súčasných slovenských hudobných skladateľov sme náš bádateľský interes upriamili na dve významné skladateľské osobnosti, ktoré dlhoročne pôsobia aj pedagogicky: prof. Juraj Hatrík (*1941) a prof. Belo Felix (* 1940). Odkryli sme diferencie ich kreatívnych prístupov, pričom J. Hatrík sa takmer výhradne orientuje na sféru artificiálnej hudobnej tvorby, s ambíciou viesť detských recipientov k prieniku do štruktúry hudobných skladieb. Na Slovensku bol prvým pedagógom, ktorý v rámci realizovaných hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov stimuloval detských jedincov k rôznym druhom múzických aktivít, majúc na zreteli vzbudenie zážitku v rôznych vekových kategóriách detí i mladých ľudí. Pedagóg a skladateľ B. Felix sa celoživotne venuje rozvíjaniu hudobno-dramatických aktivít, hudobnému divadlu pre deti i mládež. Jeho tvorivý prístup eminentne sleduje zážitkovú edukáciu a zaslúžil sa o etablovanie hudobno-dramatických aktivít do činnostného poňatia súčasnej intencionálnej hudobnej výchovy. Spoločného menovateľa oboch skladateľských osobností možno vidieť v ich rovnakom životnom kréde, ktorým napĺňajú tvorivo-humanistickú filozofiu svojho života i tvorby, túžbu po dosiahnutí pravdy, úprimnú lásku k deťom i k hudbe, ako aj akceptovanie relevantných etických postulátov, ktoré sú atribútmi nadčasovými, platnými už od čias antiky.
- K zmareniu, či devalvácii esteticko-emocionálnej rezonancie produkcie hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov dochádza však vtedy, keď nie je rešpektovaný atribút veku primeranosti pri recepcii hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov, kedy program určený vekovej kategórii pubescentov (napr. sféra jazzu a jej spoločensko-ekonomické determinanty, resp. sociálne aspekty) percipujú aj deti elementárnych ročníkov školského vzdelávania (prvý ročník), ako aj v prípade inverznej situácie, kedy hudobno-vzdelávací projekt, vystavaný prvoplánovo na báze rozprávkovosti je vzdialený mentalite súčasných pubescentov, ktorým sa recepčne predostiera spolu s auditóriom z radov detí mladšieho školského veku.

- K zníženiu esteticko-emocionálnej pôsobivosti môže viesť aj projekt, ktorý svojou prílišnou snahou o „komunikatívnosť“ voči recipientom prezentuje im hudobné skladby neadekvátnej umeleckej úrovne, verbálnu zložku s absenciou hlbšej emocionálnej i racionálnej intencie, bez premysleného edukačného cieľa. Takého „hudobno-vzdelávacie“ projekty sú zväčša v ponuke komerčných spoločností, či jednotlivcov a míňajú sa patričnému edukačnému rezultátu, či zážitkovému pôsobeniu na detských recipientov.
- Aj napriek uvedeným „úskaliam“ pri tvorbe a realizácii hudobno-vzdelávacích projektov pre deti stredného školského veku možno zaznamenať dynamizáciu v tejto špecifickej hudobnej produkcii, poskytujúc deťom jej širšie spektrum a variabilitu, s potenciou vzbudenia hudobného zážitku z recepcie vnímaných projektov.

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THE MULTIMEDIA AS A FORM OF MODERN EDUCATION

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Abstract

This work deals with using of multimedia content for support of education of mechatronics. In the paper, there are presented the newest trends in education. Presented stuff and results prepared primarily for daily students can be used for wider audience and further education. The interest for external study ale has increasing tendency, where these materials can be very effectively used. Combination of conventional methods and progressive modern methods can bring significant improvement in education process and increase interest in technical disciplines.

Keywords**:** *education; e-learning; video tutorial; distance learning*

1 INTRODUCTION

Currently, the world trends in modern and barrier-free education are interactive education forms based on exploitation of video, audio-visual aids, Internet and remote laboratories (on-line education). These novel forms are applied not only in the attendance teaching but also in distance education. Research universities usually prefer to develop not only slide-shows and educational mini-applications (dynamic websites, Web GL animations, Java Applets, etc.) but also their own education videos aimed to the audience in a single course. They are freely available and students can follow the content anytime and anywhere. Production and realization of clear and interesting video for education with technological topic is quite complex task. It requires synergy of artistic, technical, and educational qualities of its creators.

Very actual trend in education is virtual reality. It is a novel form for education, which can bring the education content to online environment from classical education room. The education content is available for teachers and students from almost everywhere. [4]

Online education can have a lot of forms and one of them is (educational) video. It can have various forms. One of the simplest realisation is recorded computer screen which is dubbed and the educational is written or plotted to the tablet, not blackboard. Teaching and learning are complex activities realised by many methods.

1.1 State of art

Nowadays, providers of video learning courses are very common. The most popular is Khan Academy (www.khanacademy.org) [5]. Since 2006, it has provided high quality education “from anywhere to anybody”. The videos are available through web page thank to internet and are saved on the world biggest system for video sharing YouTube. The videos are split to the specific fields (chemistry, math, history, physics, chemistry, history, economy, etc.) There is a distribution of offline versions to non-profit organizations all over the world. There is a special system for generating problems based on level of student. This system is under MIT Open-source system. The project represents the way, how to utilize the software to overcome the traditional model of school education in the class. There is possibility to test, rank and evaluate the student knowledge using the software. Videos can be stopped and played again, which is very good advantage [5].

In Slovakia, there is also project with video-materials available at [8]. These videos deal with chosen topics of high school physics and are realised in form of dubbed recording of tablet.
Disadvantage of earlier mentioned project is a fact, that the topics of the videos are focused on elementary and high-schools students and do not deals with technical areas as mechatronics, computing intelligence, automatization and control, etc. Moreover, some of the videos are just screen recordings and do not offer any interesting elements.
There are also research works like [7], which deals with a topic of positive stimulation of students to chosen topic. In this work, authors use science videos and reference materials to stimulate students. There is a description of the dialogues from 10 male university students measured while using first-, second-, and third-person view videos. The utterances are also recorded during the measurements. In the work [1] is video used to stimulate students and the analysing of their learning ability is done. Virtual reality and 3D engines for making modern educational application are used in [9], [11], [6].

2 EDUCATION VIDEOS AND WEBPAGE

The young part of authors of this article are very interested in a new area – making of educational videos. There were made some series of educational videos and webpage by cooperation of young authors with deep interest in technical but also in artistic sphere and with experienced colleagues. The webpage is designed for education and propagation and it has many own made materials and educational series in Slovak language.

2.1 Web page for education and propagation

Web page for education and propagation is available at http://elearning.mechatronika.cool [2]. The name of the link was chosen to be easily remembered. The design of the page is designed for young audience, so the look is modern. Young people expectations are high and produced materials must keep the modern trends.
In Fig. 1 there is shown the main page of the web. There is interesting title image and content information. There are listed free e-learning materials which are divided into 2 main categories: *courses* and *materials.*

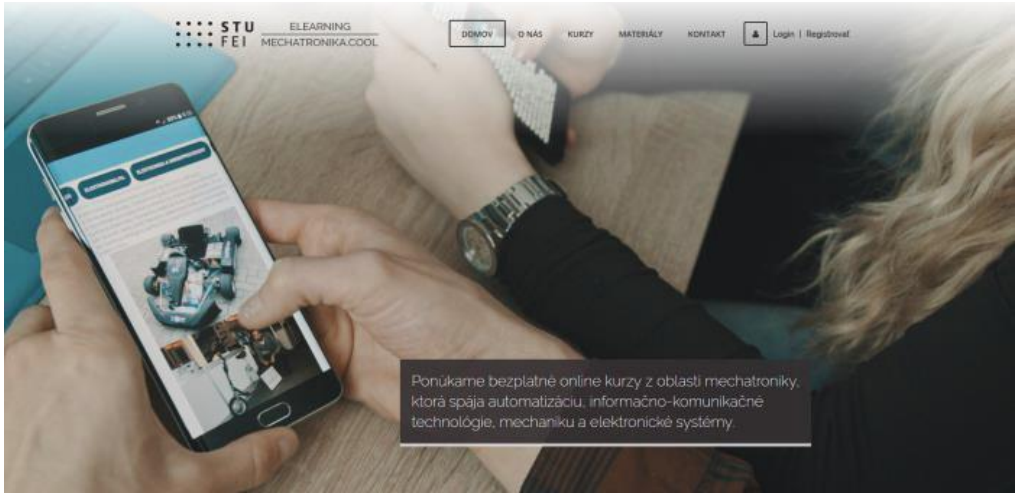

Fig. 1: The main page of the web page.

2.2 Web page: courses and materials

The term *courses*, represents teaching entities, which are complete more parts course, which is focused to one area. The courses are modernised using multimedia materials as images, videos, etc. Courses are divided to 5 areas:

a) Automation
b) Electronics and e-mobility
c) Information-communication technologies
d) Multimedia
e) Mechanics

In listed areas, there is covered all areas of mechatronics.

One of the courses made recently, is course Control of discrete event system model. In this course basic principles of controlling discrete event system via mini line model are presented. The screenshot from the course can be seen in Fig. 2 and the whole course can be accessed in [3].

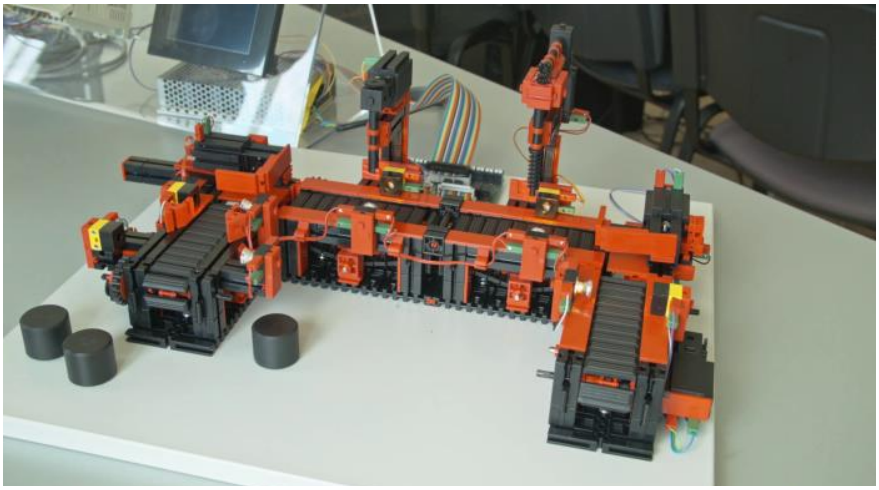

Fig. 2: Model of mini line (controlled via PLC)

In Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 is shown logic hierarchy of course with under-parts.

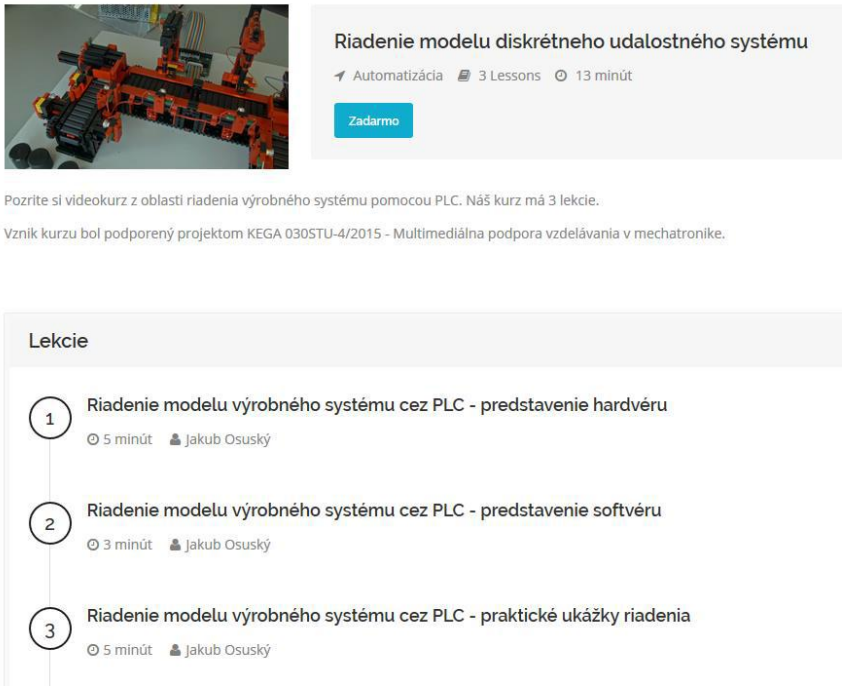

Fig. 3: Structure of the course

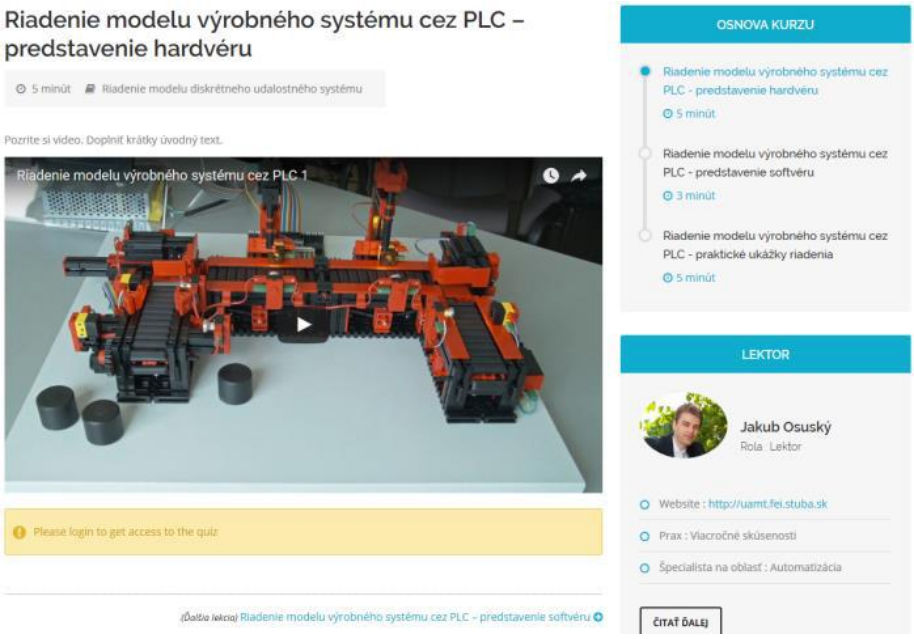

Fig. 4: Structure of the lecture

In our case, *materials* represent various self-standing educational materials not formed to the whole course. For the materials, there are several topic categories based on the realisation form and topic of the material. There are these forms of materials for teaching:

a) Video – tutorial
b) Interactive application
c) Application for virtual/mixed reality
d) Lecture – video record
e) Propagation video
f) Popularization article
g) Student's Book

In Fig. 5 We can see the example of sub-page with teaching materials

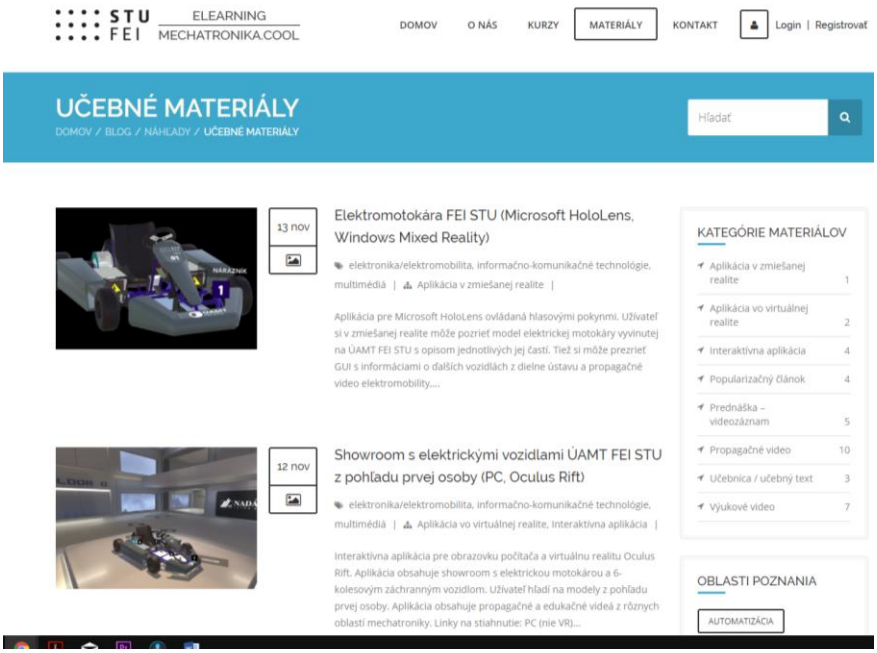

Fig. 5: sub-page with teaching materials

2.3 Production of education videos

Teaching modules in form of video represent very important part of the educational web page. There has been made the full complex video course for this purpose. The video course is aimed in basics of automatic control (Fig. 6). It is divided into 7 subsequent parts:

1) Introduction to the Systems Theory
2) Differential equation and Laplace transform
3) Transfer function
4) Standard test functions, step response and impulse response
5) Block diagram algebra, closed-loop control system
6) PID controller
7) Closed-loop stability

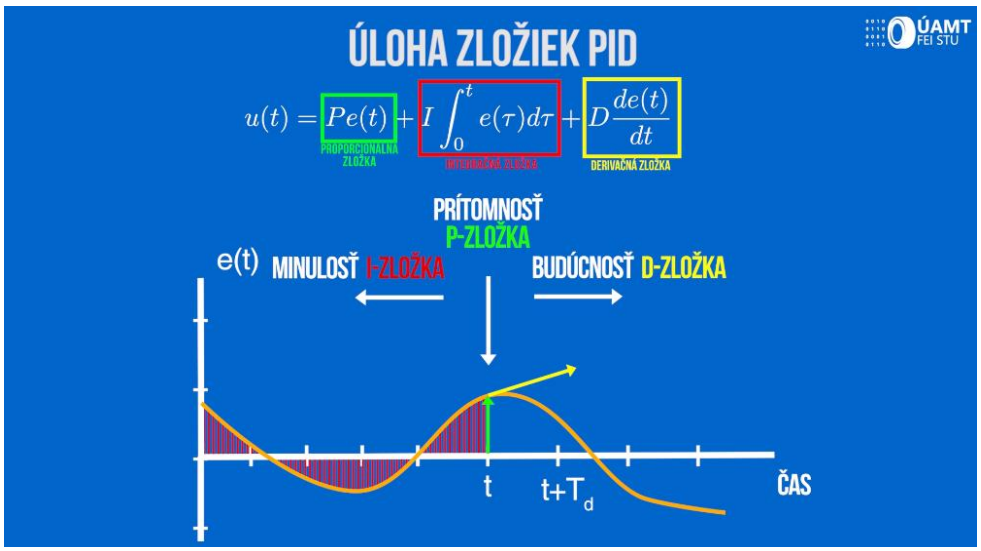

Fig. 6: Screenshot of the automatic control course.

The production process of the course is very complex process. To make the education material like this, it needs not just technical-expert skills but also artistic-creative talent. The production process will be described in the following sections.

The first step of the production is a preparation of script for chosen chapters. In the script, there is a text, which will be recorded – dubbed and it contains figures, comments and notes for video makers – voice over actor and animator. There is very important fact, that the text is not intended for reading as teaching text but for speaking - like during the lectures. Because of this, the text must be divided into shorter sentences with smaller complexity. In the text, there are also animations which support the content of the text and it also effects the way how the text is written. In Fig. 7 is shown the preview of a part of script.

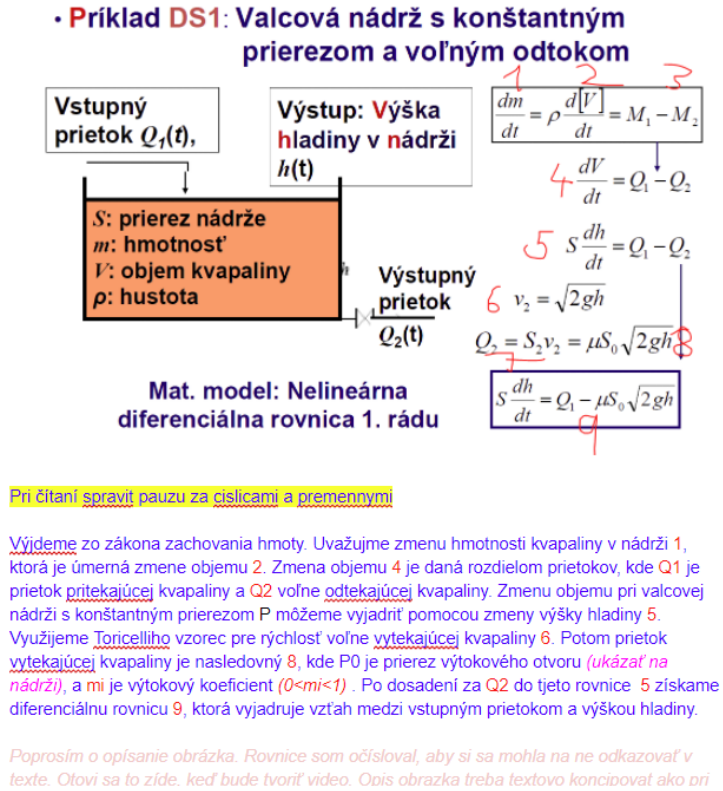

Fig. 7: Part of screenplay

After the preparation of the script, the voiceover is dubbed. The video has cuts, pauses, animation etc. and because of this, there must be used appropriate.

After the dubbing, the video realization is done. Based on the text, comments and notes in the script, the animation is made. Animation is made using sophisticated software Adobe Premiere Pro and Adobe After Effects for video cut and animation (Fig. 8).

interconnected

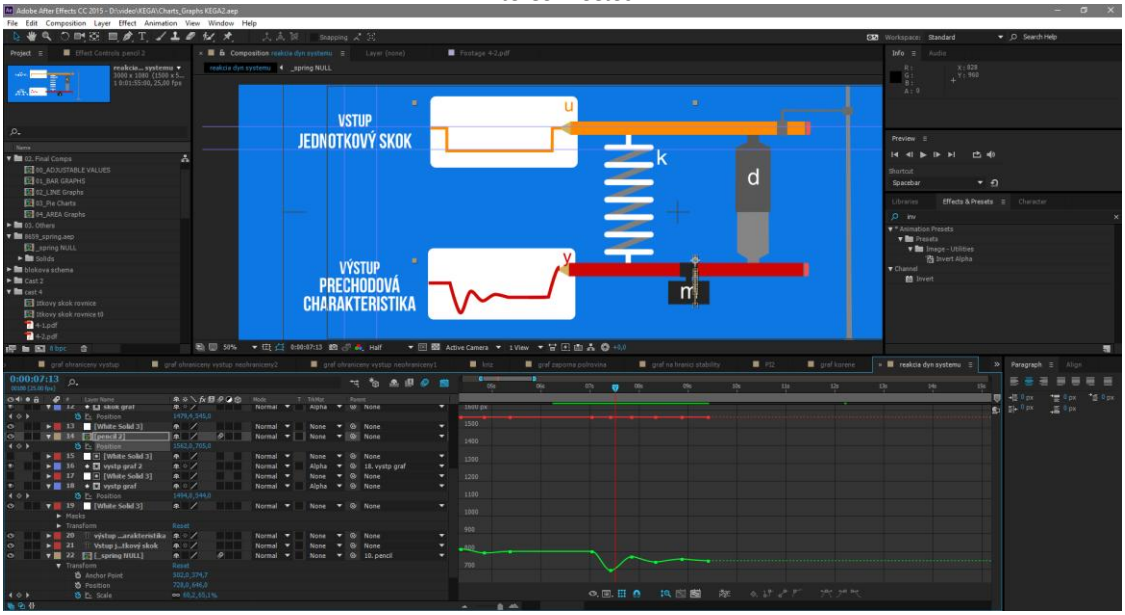

Fig. 8: Software for animation

The production of educational videos is very specific and each individual part of production is interconnected to other. The educational content influences the technical realisation and vice versa. Certain artistic-technical aspects of production make some limitations for script preparing (like using dashes, parenthesis, reference to other part of the text like in a classical education text, which cannot be interpreted in spoken text), but other has simplification (like using animations, colors, highlighting important parts in the image in the specific time etc.). This production process needs significant experience not just in technical-expert area but also in artistic-creative. That is the reason, why the production of educational videos like this is very difficult and it need combination of quite different experience (technical and artistic).

3 EVALUATION OF THE COURSE

Currently, the course Basics of automation and control theory is being evaluated by students. In the next parts we will presents ongoing results. The first evaluation is aimed on the whole course and students are asked for opinion about the course in general, the second evaluation is aimed on the first chapter and the questions should evaluate the students' knowledge. For the evaluation of the survey Google form was used. The course is accessible in [10].

3.1 The whole course evaluation

Evaluation of the whole course was done with group of 12 students. They were students of bachelor study programme (3rd year of study) Applied Informatics - Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava, Slovakia. The name of the course was Analysis and computerization of dynamic systems. Students have watched the whole course during the lecture. After that, they filled in the form.

Students were asked following questions with multiple choice:

1) Did you watch the course also at home or just during the lecture?
2) How do you evaluate the course from point of view of quality and intelligibility?
3) How do you evaluate the course from point of view of visual quality?
4) Did course division on chapters suit you?
5) Was the length of each chapter appropriate? Was the content appropriate for the length of each chapter?
6) How much did the course help you during the preparation for the subject?

The result can be seen in Fig. 8 – Fig. 11.

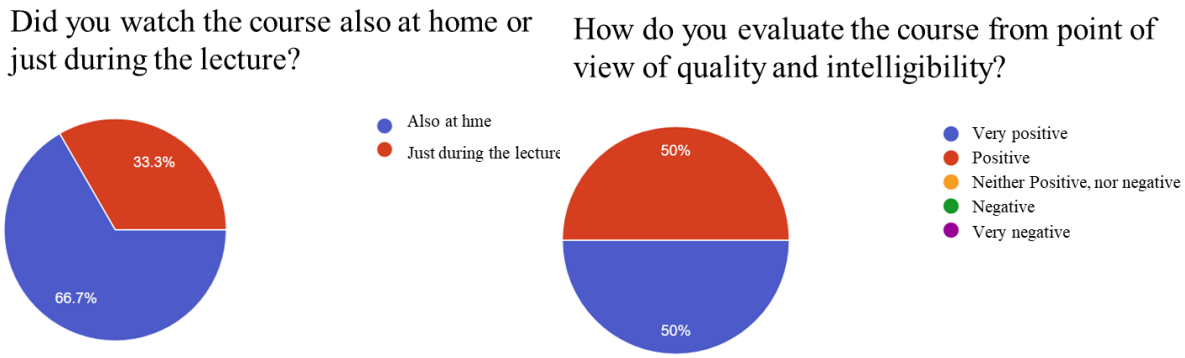

Fig. 9 Results of question 1 and 2 for whole course evaluation

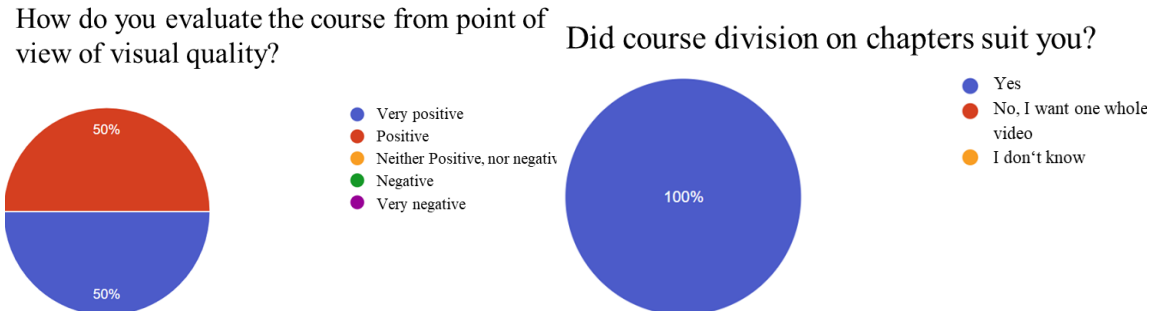

Fig. 10 Results of question 3 and 4 for whole course evaluation

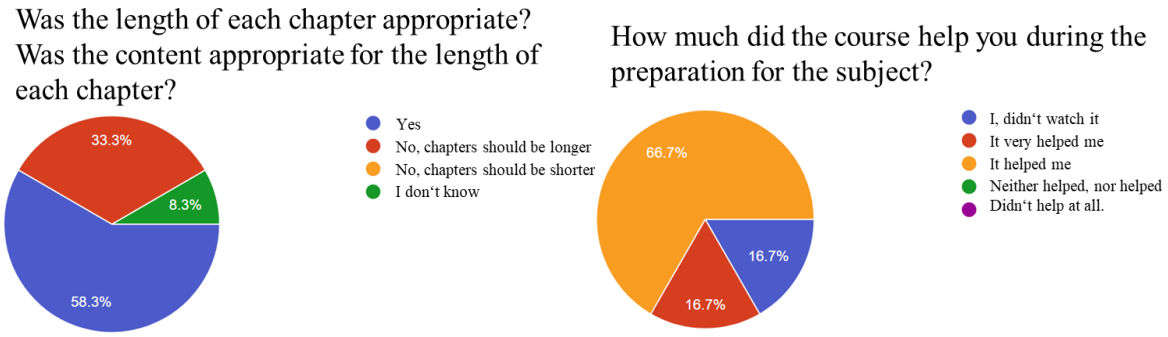

Fig. 11: Results of question 5 and 6 for whole course evaluation

3.2 The first chapter evaluation

The first chapter - Introduction to the Systems Theory was evaluated by 22 students. There were two groups of students. The first group was students of bachelor study programme (3rd year of study) Applied Informatics - Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava, Slovakia. The name of the course was Communication and parallelism which is devoted to Petri Nets and discrete event systems. The second group was students of bachelor study programme (2nd year of study) Applied Informatics - Faculty of Informatics, Pan-European University in Bratislava, Slovakia. The name of the course was GUI programming.

Students have twice watched the chapter. Immediately after that, they filled in the form with questions.

Students were asked following questions with multiple choices:

1) How do you evaluate the course from point of view of quality and intelligibility?
2) How do you evaluate the course from point of view of visual quality?
3) In static system we are interested in:
4) If we are observing the system in chosen time points, we are speaking about:

5) In discrete event systems, state of the system depends on:
6) Into characteristics of system does not belong:

The result can be seen in Fig. 12 – Fig. 13 where the correct answer is in green rectangle.

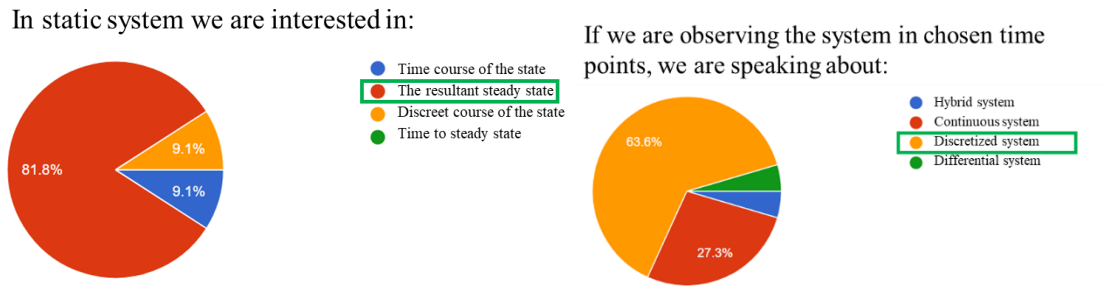

Fig. 12 Results of question 1 and 2 for the first chapter evaluation

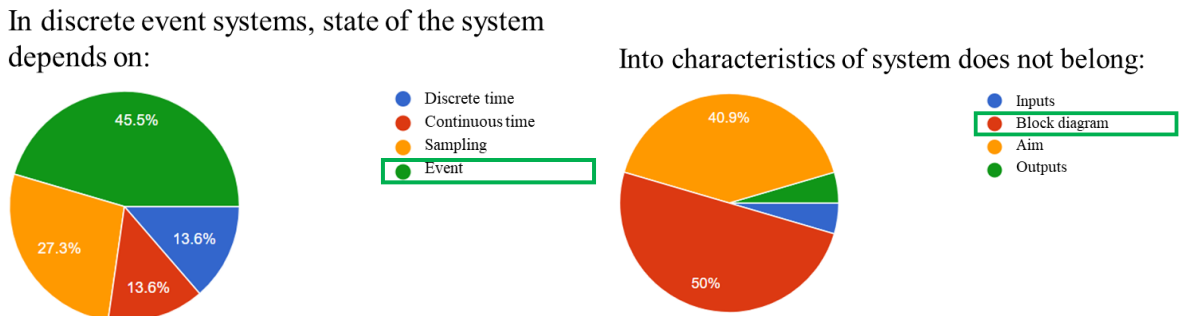

Fig. 13: Results of question 3 and 4 for the first chapter evaluation

3.3 Summary of results

We can see that results of the first survey showed universal critical acclaim of the quality of the video course. The results of the second survey give us useful feedback which parts of the video should be improved for better comprehension of presented teaching material.

4 CONCLUSION

Presented modern form of education materials primarily prepared for daily students is able to use for further education and wide audience. The new trends of online studying are covered using presented education materials. Significant improvement in education can be done using combination of conventional methods and progressive modern methods, with side effects of increasing of interest in technical disciplines.

Our core result - the course Basics of automation and theory of control was evaluated using 2 surveys. The results showed the universal acclaim from students and also give us useful feedback for making the course even better.

Acknowledgment

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ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND JOB SATISFACTION

Denisa Rovenská

Abstract

The aim of the contribution was to analyze the relation between organizational justice and job satisfaction. The research focused also on examining potential gender differences within key variables. 100 respondents (40 men and 60 women) with the average age of 29.41 years (SD = 9.45) answered the questions measuring (a) organizational justice by Organizational Justice Scale (Colquitt, 2001) and (b) job satisfaction by Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967). The results showed that interpersonal justice was the most significant dimension of organizational justice for respondents. Furthermore, procedural justice, distributional justice and interpersonal justice were significant predictors of job satisfaction. There were no significant gender differences within key variables.

Keywords: *organizational justice, job satisfaction, employees, gender*

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizational justice is at the center of a interest of scholars, as well as those who are active part of any organization. Employees are interested in fair treatment and fair procedures, managers try to behave in accordance to justice, and scholars are interested in violation of justice and what consequences will bring in organization.

The term "organizational justice" was first used by Jerald Greenberg in 1987 to give a name to the construct of studying justice perceptions at the workplace. Early research focused solely on perceiving fairness of the distribution of outcomes. However, it has been shown that people perceive justice not only in terms of distribution, but also during the decision-making process and judge interpersonal treatment during these decision-making procedures.

Organizational justice refers to perceptions of fairness in decision-making and resource allocation environments (Greenberg, 1987) and is commonly divided into four dimensions. *Distributive justice* refers to the perceived fairness of resource allocations, such as rewards, and outcomes of distributive processes (Greenberg, 1990). Distributive justice is fostered where outcomes are consistent with implicit norms for allocation, such as ekvity or equality (Colquitt, 2001). *Procedural justice* represents individuals' perceptions of the fairness of the process used to make decisions affecting them, such as those relating to pay, promotions, and punishment (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Procedural justice includes factors such as process control or voice, decision control, ethicality, consistency across persons, and representativeness (Barrett-Howard & Tyler, 1986; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). *Interactional justice* is defined as the interpersonal treatment people receive as procedures are enacted (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice is built around respect, dignity, sensitivity and rationale of decisions. Greenberg (1993) suggested interactional justice should be separeted into its interpersonal and informational justice components, because of their differential effects. His hypothesis already has empirical support for that distinction as well, creating the four-dimensional structure of organizational justice (see Colquitt, 2001; Díaz-Gracia, Barbaranelli, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2014). Therefore, *informational justice* is related to acceptance of the co-worker's view primarily through perception of ability-based trustworthiness (i. e. truthfulness and justification), whereas *interpersonal justice* is related to satisfaction with the co-worker primarily through perception of benevolence-based trustworthiness (i. e. respect and propriety) (Au & Leung, 2015; Greenberg, 1993).

Perceived organizational (in)justice could be influenced by variety of dispositional and/or situational factors, including belief in just world, sensitivity to injustice, personal traits, work settings, employer - employee relationship, atmosphere at workplace, etc. One variable that might importantly affect reliance on organizational justice concerns is gender.

One possible explanation as to why gender differences emerged is that in perceiving fairness, men by nature are outcome-oriented, whereas women by nature are process-oriented (Nameda, 2013). Men are more self-oriented and more aggressive in controlling the division of outcomes, and they are more focused on distributive justice. Women are more focused on mutual decision making, appreciation, harmony, and compliance in decision-making process (Gentry et al., 2003). The implication seems to be that because women's work is so often low-status, interactional justice, being treated with dignity and respect, assumes comparatively greater importance for them (Hallock, 1997).

Lee, Pillutla, and Law (2000) argued that women and men should differ in their relative valuation of different dimensions of organizational justice. Specifically, because traditional socialization processes were designed to prepare women for caretaker roles within the family, women place maintaining relationships and an ethic of mutual obligations front and center in their moral system. In a nutshell, the interpersonal domain is prioritized. Alternatively, men more commonly operate from within a normative system that emphasizes abstract, rule-based moral judgments. This distinction formed the basis for propositions that women would value interpersonal justice more than men, while men would value distributive justice more (Simpson & Kaminski, 2007).

The role of justice, or its absence, is very important for organizations because determines the attitudes, decisions, and behaviors of people at work and even outside of the workplace (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Organizational justice is a key antecedent of successful interpersonal and interorganizational relationships (Baldwin, 2006; Hofer, Knemeyer, & Murphy, 2012).

Justice has been found to reduce conflict (Kerwin, Jordan, & Turner, 2015), and increase performance (Swalhi, Zgoulli, & Hofaidhllaoui, 2017), commitment (Suliman & Al Kathairi 2013), and particularly increase job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Hao, Hao, & Wang, 2016; Lotfi & Pour, 2013; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993).

Job satisfaction is generally recognized as a multifaceted construct that includes employee feelings about a variety of both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements. It encompasses specific aspects of satisfaction related to pay, benefits, promotion, work conditions, supervision, organizational practices, relationships with co-workers (Misener et al., 1996), and associates to compassion satisfaction and/or compassion fatigue (e. g. burnout, secondary traumatic stress) (Köverová, in press). Job satisfaction is the conscious attitude formed by family background, cultural and social values, and the support of the organization. It is determines by the characteristics of personality (abilities, interests, temperament and character) and by the characteristics of organization (stimulation, communication, interpersonal relationships, leadership, technology, etc.) (Župová, 2015).

It is hypothesized, all forms of justice are positively related to the job satisfaction. According to Fernandes and Awamleh (2006), distributive justice refers to the perception fairness of employees regarding the outcomes (pay levels, workload, work schedule, promotions, and various fringe benefits) considered as the main determinants of job satisfaction. Mossholder et al. (1998) conclude that dynamics of job satisfaction can be well explained by the procedural justice. Other studies suggest, if the processes and procedures of organization are perceived to be fair by employees, they tend to get more satisfied, and more willing to accept the resolution of the procedures (Tyler & Lind, 1992).

However, Loi, Yang, & Diefendorff (2009) argue, that the level of job satisfaction is highly influenced by perceptions of interpersonal and informational justice. Specifically, the positive

relationship between interpersonal justice and job satisfaction is stronger when there is less distributive justice and weaker when there is more distributive justice. Since distributions of resources and respectful treatment can both be considered as outcomes, when people feel that the distribution of resources is unfair, they will look more to the treatment they are receiving from their supervisors and organization to supplement the lack of outcomes. Besides, the positive relationship between informational justice and job satisfaction is stronger when there is less procedural justice and weaker when there is more procedural justice. The reason this occurs is if people perceive procedures to be unfair, they will be looking for explanations and information from supervisors to continually assess the situation.

Different opinion could be found in research by Lotfi and Pour (2013), where only procedural justice was able to predict the level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, Zainalipour, Fini, Mirkamali (2010) revealed significant impact of distributive justice and interactional justice on job satisfaction. Regarding to gender, Jepsen and Rodwell (2010) argue mens' perceptions of procedural and informational justice both predicted job satisfaction. Females' informational justice perceptions predicted job satisfaction solely. Several studies have been conducted to investigate the differences in relationships ″organizational justice - job satisfaction″ based on gender, however the topic is still in need of further research to clarify the differences.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the impact of dimensions of organizational justice (i. e. distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational) on job satisfaction. The present study will also examine gender differences in organizational justice, and job satisfaction.

2. METHOD

Participants

The sample consisted of 100 participants (40 men and 60 women). Participants aged from 18 - 59 years (M = 29.41, SD = 9.45). Regarding gender, women were 28.43 years old (SD = 9.55), while men were 30.86 years old (SD = 9.23). Regarding the level of education, 1 percent had not concluded secondary education, 74 percent had completed the secondary level, and 25 percent were university certificate holders. The average lenght of employment was 7.88 years (SD = 8.39). 73 percent worked in public sector, and 27 percent were employed in private sector. Participation was voluntary, and all participants were treated in accordance with the ethical guidelines.

Measurements

Demographic questionnaire - the questionnaire included questions which ascertain age, gender, level of education, lenght of employment and type of employment sector.

Organizational Justice Scale (Colquitt, 2001) - it is a four-dimensional measure that includes: (a) procedural justice PJ (7 items), (b) distributional justice DJ (4 items), (c) interpersonal justice IPJ (4 items), and (d) informational justice IFJ (5 items). Response options are delivered on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (to a small extent) to 5 (to a large extent), with higher scores indicating a higher level of perceived organizational justice. Cronbach´s alpha values were: (a) PJ .85 , (b) DJ .89, (c) IPJ .91, (d) IFJ .90.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ - short form) (Weiss et al., 1967) - the self-report instrument is designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his or her job. The instrument provides more specific information on the aspects of a job that an individual finds rewarding than do more general measures of job satisfaction.questionnaire commonly used to measure self-esteem. 20 items are formulated as statements and are measured on 5-point scale to extent satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the statement (1 = not satisfied, 5 = extremely satisfied). In this sample, Cronbach´s alpha of MSQ was .93.

2.1 Results

Organizational justice and its dimensions

In the present sample, a repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the levels of the measured variable "organizational justice" - F (2.796; 276.778) = 19.580; p < .001. Post hoc tests using Bonferroni correction revealed a significant difference between dimensions of organizational justice, specifically: PJ x IPJ (p < .001), PJ x IFJ (p < .001), DJ x IPJ (p < .001), and DJ x IFJ (p < .001), The assessment of organizational justice showed that IPJ was the most important for respondents (M = 3.82; SD = .99). There were no significant gender differences in the dimensions of organizational justice (Table 1).

Table 1 Descriptive analysis and gender differences in organizational justice

	M	**SD**		**M**	**SD**	**t**	**P**
Procedural justice (PJ)	3.31	.77	men	3.45	.84	-1.459	.148
			women	3.22	.71		
Distributive justice (DJ)	3.28	1.01	men	3.35	.86	- .603	.548
			women	3.23	1.09		
Interpersonal justice (IPJ)	3.82	.99	men	3.79	.88	.216	.829
			women	3.84	1.06		
Informational justice (IFJ)	3.63	.91	men	3.72	.94	.714	.269
			women	2.94	.67		

Job satisfaction

The results indicated that participants were quite satisfied with their job (M = 3.28; SD = .71) (1 = not satisfied, 5 = extremely satisfied). There were no significant differences between men and women in the level of job satisfaction ($t_{(98)}$ = -.220; p = .826). Particular scores are given in Table 2.

Table 2 Descriptive analysis and gender differences in job satisfaction

	M	**SD**		**M**	**SD**	**t**	**P**
Job satisfaction	3.28	.71	men	3.30	.75	-.220	.826
			women	3.27	.69		

Organizational justice and job satisfaction

The linear model explaining job satisfaction was statistically significant (F(4, 95) = 23.968; p < .001) and explained 50.20% of the variance in job satisfaction. The model showed that, PJ and IPJ significantly contributed to job satisfaction, when higher level of PJ and IPJ was related to higher level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, DJ and IFJ were not significant (Table 3).

Table 3 Linear model explaining job satisfaction (general)

	Job satisfaction F(4, 95) = 23.968; p < .001				
	B	*S.E.*	*ß*	*t*	*P*
Procedural justice (PJ)	.31	.09	.33	3.284	**.001**
Distributive justice (DJ)	.04	.07	.06	.577	.565
Interpersonal justice (IPJ)	.20	.07	.27	2.695	**.008**

Informational justice (IFJ)	.14	.09	.17	1.590	.115

Further, we tried to analyse relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction according to gender.
For men, the linear model explaining job satisfaction was statistically significant (F(4, 35) = 12.090; p < .001) and explained 58% of the variance in job satisfaction. The model showed that, DJ significantly contributed to job satisfaction, when higher level of DJ was related to higher level of job satisfaction. PJ, IPJ and IFJ were not significant (Table 4).

Table 4 Linear model explaining job satisfaction (men)

	Job satisfaction F(4, 35) = 12.090; p < .001				
	B	*S.E.*	*ß*	*t*	*P*
Procedural justice (PJ)	.25	.13	.27	1.866	.071
Distributive justice (DJ)	.34	.13	.40	2.540	**.016**
Interpersonal justice (IPJ)	.06	.14	.07	.449	.656
Informational justice (IFJ)	.13	.14	.15	.911	.368

For women, the linear model explaining job satisfaction was statistically significant (F(4, 55) = 15.200; p < .001) and explained 52.50% of the variance in job satisfaction. The model showed that, PJ and IPJ significantly contributed to job satisfaction, when higher level of PJ and IPJ was related to higher level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, DJ and IFJ were not significant (Table 5).

Table 5 Linear model explaining job satisfaction (women)

	Job satisfaction F(4, 55) = 15.200; p < .001				
	B	*S.E.*	*ß*	*t*	*P*
Procedural justice (PJ)	.44	.14	.45	3.070	**.003**
Distributive justice (DJ)	-.09	.08	-.15	-1.090	.280
Interpersonal justice (IPJ)	.26	.08	.40	3.062	**.003**
Informational justice (IFJ)	.07	.11	.10	.634	.529

3. DISCUSSION

The research investigated the impact of dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational) on job satisfaction. It tested gender differences in organizational justice, and job satisfaction, as well.
The results showed, interpersonal justice was the most important dimension of organizational justice. Interpersonal justice represents the fairness of the interpersonal treatment displayed during the enactment of the procedures underlying organizational decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986). The interpersonal treatment increases perceptions of justice because, people might feel that any unfavorable consequences of the authority's decisions do not reflect maliciousness

and intention to harm; rather, the authority remains to be seen as benevolent and trustworthy (Tyler, 1989). Moreover, respect and politeness acknowledge a basic human right to personal integrity and express regard for people's worth and status as members of the human community represented by the authority (Tyler, 1989). In other words, adhering to rules such as respect and propriety signals that authorities are concerned about the welfare of employees (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011).

Kim (2009) found that employees who perceived that they were treated fairly by their organizations tended to develop and maintain communal relationships with this particular organization. Besides, when employees perceived that they were treated fairly by their organization, they were likely to hold more commitment, trust, and especially job satisfaction, than when they perceived that they were treated unfairly.

In our research, the general linear model showed that interpersonal justice and also procedural justice significantly contributed to job satisfaction, when higher level of interpersonal justice and procedural justice was related to higher level of job satisfaction. This finding is in line with the study of Masterson et al. (2000) which showed procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than interactional justice, although both had significant effects. This finding indicates, not only treatment with respect and dignity is related to job satisfaction, but the use of procedurally fair practices influences outcomes such as employees' satisfaction. This result is congruent with previous studies (e. g. Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Yadav, Gupta, 2017; Zeinabadi & Salehib, 2011), which have found procedural justice contributed to job satisfaction.

Another important result of this study based on the gender differences in the context of organizational justice and job satisfaction. Lee, Pillutla, and Law (2000) argued that women and men should differ in their relative valuation of different dimensions of organizational justice. Men are more self-oriented and more aggressive in controlling the division of outcomes, and they are more focused on distributive justice. Women are more focused on mutual decision making, appreciation, harmony, and compliance in decision-making process (Gentry et al., 2003). Unfortunately, our results could not reveal these patterns in the context of searching fundamental gender differences. However, gender differences were significant through relationship ″organizational justice - job satisfaction″ (i. e. linear models explaining job satisfaction).

For men, distributive justice significantly contributed to job satisfaction and for women, procedural justice and interpersonal justice significantly contributed to job satisfaction. It could be hypothesize, that the importance of specific dimension of organizational justice increases due to job satisfaction. We assume, that the linear model explaining the relation ″organizational justice - job satisfaction″ highlighted the differences between men and women in the perception of various aspects of justice. As it was said, men are more focused on the division of outcomes, rule-based moral judgments and/or normative system, it is logical that these factors can predict the extent of males´ job satisfaction. If men perceive distributive factors as fair, it is likely they are fully satisfied with job. On the other hand, women are more pro-relationship oriented, they value the interpersonal treatment, which they receive as procedures are enacted. Women are focused on mutual decision making, compliance in decision-making process (Gentry et al., 2003), sincerity and respect; these procedural and interpersonal factors could predict the extent of females´ job satisfaction. If women perceive interpersonal and procedural factors as fair, it is likely they are satisfied with job. It is important to note that some studies found high correlations between procedural and interpersonal justice (Liljegren & Ekberg, 2009; Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), suggesting that they could have unique effect on job satisfaction perceptions. Unfair treatment from one's supervisor should create the same sense of uncertainty and lack

of control as procedural justice, and those feelings should persist as long as that dyadic linkage remains intact (Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

4. CONCLUSION

The present research provided support for the predictive relevance of the central dimensions of the organizational justice framework. Procedural, distributive and interpersonal justice proved to be predictive for job satisfaction. Aspects as fair procedures, appropriate outcomes or interpersonal treatment significantly contributed to job satisfaction. However, the topic is still in need of further research, especially to clarify the gender differences.

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KVALITA ŽIVOTA RODIČOV DETÍ S DIABETES MELLITUS

QUALITY OF THE LIFE OF THE FAMILY FAMILY WITH TYPE 1 DIABETES MELLITUS

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Abstrakt

Diabetes mellitus 1. typu u detí je zdravotné postihnutie, ktoré nemá vplyv len individuálne na detského pacienta ale mení i celú štruktúru a funkciu rodiny. Kladie na rodinu zvláštne nároky, s ktorými sa musí vyrovnať tak, že sa jednotlivé úlohy rozdelia medzi všetkých a pri riešení spoločných problémov si všetci poskytujú pomoc a podporu. Podpora a porozumenie výrazne ovplyvňuje priebeh chronického ochorenia u dieťaťa a keďže ide o multifaktorálne celoživotné ochorenie, ktorého priebeh je vo veľkej miere ovplyvňovaný psychosociálnymi faktormi. Samotné ochorenie a rôznorodé faktory výrazne ovplyvňujú kvalitu života rodiny.

Kľúčové slová: *diabetes mellitus 1. typu, kvalita života, rodina.*

Abstract

Type 1 diabetes mellitus in children is a disability that affects not only the child's individual but also changes the whole structure and function of the family. It puts the family in special demands, which must be solved so that the individual tasks are shared among all and all help and support in solving common problems. Support and understanding greatly influence the course of chronic illness in the child and as it is a multifactorial lifelong illness whose course is largely influenced by psychosocial factors. The disease itself and various factors greatly affect the quality of life of the family.

Key words: *type 1 diabetes mellitus, quality of life, family*.

1 PROBLEMATIKA KVALITA ŽIVOTA RODINY DIEŤAŤA S DIABETES MELLITUS 1. TYPU

Kvalita života je multidimenzionálny pojem. Využíva sa v rôznych vedných odboroch a práve jeho veľká využiteľnosť prináša nespočetné množstvo definícií a prístupov (Vaďurová, 2006). Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia definuje kvalitu života ako percepciu jedinca, jeho pozície v živote v kontexte svojej kultúry a hodnotového systému vo vzťahu k jeho cieľom, očakávaniam, normám a obavám. Jedná sa o veľmi široký koncept, multifaktoriálne ovplyvnený jedincovým fyzickým zdravím, psychickým stavom, osobným vyznaním, sociálnymi vzťahmi a vzťahom ku kľúčovým oblastiam jeho životného prostredia" (Vaďurová, 2006).

Meranie kvality života sa v ošetrovateľskej praxi nezameriava len na chorých, ale aj na ich blízkych, ktorí sa o nich starajú, v našom prípade sa jedná o rodičov dieťaťa s diabetes mellitus 1. typu (DM 1.typu). U nich podobne ako aj u dieťaťa s diabetes mellitus (DM), môže dôjsť k zhoršeniu kvality života. Kvalitu ich života môžu ovplyvňovať tieto faktory:

- Zdravotný stav.
- Charakter liečby.
- Dĺžka starostlivosti, ktorú poskytujú (kvalitu života predovšetkým ovplyvňuje dlhodobá starostlivosť o choré dieťa).

- Miera fyzickej a psychickej záťaže vyplývajúcej z dlhodobej starostlivosti o dieťa s DM 1. typu.
- Úroveň sociálnej opory (kvalita života môže byť ovplyvnená vnímaním odlišnosti od zdravých rodín alebo prevzatím zodpovednosti za zvládnutie určitých situácií súvisiacich s ochorením - DM 1. typu), uvádza Gurková (2011).

Gurková (2011) ďalej uvádza, že pre rodičov môže byť situácia o to zložitejšia, pretože si uvedomujú, že sa od nich očakáva, že budú svojmu dieťaťu každodennou oporou, budú ho musieť vedieť povzbudiť a podieľať sa na starostlivosti. Na druhej strane ich môžu trápiť obavy spojené s tým, že situáciu sami nezvládnu, prípadne, že sa nebudú vedieť na koho obrátiť.

Ovšonková (2012) uvádza, že kvalitu života rodiny s DM výrazne ovplyvňuje aj sociálne zázemie. Zdôrazňuje, že rodičia a deti s DM 1.typu, z dobrého sociálneho zázemia udávajú lepšiu kvalitu života ako deti a rodičia zo sťaženého sociálneho zázemia. Ovšonková (2012) výsledky štúdie, ktorá bola zameraná na psychosociálne problémy u detí a adolescentov s DM 1. typu. Odpovede rodičov detí s DM potvrdili, že stresory každodenného života môžu výrazne ovplyvniť fungovanie rodiny a hladinu glukózy v krvi u chorého dieťaťa. V závere udáva, že akýkoľvek potenciálne život ohrozujúci stav zanecháva výrazné psychické dôsledky ako u detí tak aj u rodičov, čo zvyšuje potrebu intervencií a zásahov zdravotníckeho tímu. Autori Faulkner, Clark (1998), ktorí skúmali kvalitu života rodičov s dospievajúcimi deťmi s DM 1. typu, uvádzajú, že najväčšími obavami rodičov je strach z budúcnosti, v dôsledku vyvinutia komplikácií u ich dieťaťa následkom DM. Rodičia mladších školských detí vykazovali podstatne väčšiu životnú spokojnosť ako rodičia dospievajúcich detí, pretože z psychologického hľadiska je dodržiavanie životosprávy a liečenia najproblematickejšie v období dospievania, keď mladiství vystupujú proti závislosti od dospelých a hoci majú viac informácii o chorobe, často realizujú rizikové správanie s následným možným sebapoškodzovaním (Štúr, Zlámalová, 1999).

1.1 Kvalita života a psychické problémy rodiny dieťaťa s DM 1. typu

Lebl (2012) uvádza, že DM 1. typu je ochorenie, ktoré si vyžaduje zvýšenú pozornosť i zo psychologickej a sociálnej stránky, pretože bez nej by starostlivosť o pacienta nebola úplná. Šugrová (2017) konštatuje, že len čo sa ľudia dostanú do pozície pacienta (v našom prípade sa jedná o rodičov detí s DM 1. typu), kde zdravotný stav vyžaduje nepretržitý zodpovedný dohľad, začína sa vyplavovať nespočetné množstvo problémov. Rodičia nevedia, kde a ako hľadať pomoc, ale hlavne pri permanentnej neochote okolia nevládzu, pričom psychický tlak zo stresu spúšťa rôzne ochorenia aj u nich. Tu vzniká zatiaľ neviditeľný problém, ktorý eskaluje práve väčším počtom dia-predškolákov, ktorých neustále pribúda a tento pre niekoho banálny problém oberá o množstvo síl rodičov, ktorí by mali potrebnú energiu venovať svojim deťom a rodine.

V priebehu prvých dní po stanovení diagnózy DM, je treba pomôcť rodičom prekonať psychický stres, ktorý znamená celoživotné ochorenie ich dieťaťa. Liečba dieťaťa s DM 1. typu, predstavuje vysoké nároky a výrazne zasahuje do chodu rodiny. V prípade školopovinných detí, matky popisujú na základe výskumu, že zažívajú chronický stres. Podvedome i vedome si neustále kladú otázku, či ich dieťa, ktoré je v škole, doma, alebo vonku na ihrisku, je v poriadku a bez ohrozenia na živote. Takmer všetky matky v súvislosti s výskumom potvrdzujú, že stav po ochorení ich dieťaťa charakterizujú ako jeden veľký permanentný stres, ktorý im delí deň na časy, kedy sa aplikuje inzulín, na časy, kedy sa podáva jedlo, na časy, kedy sa meria hladina krvného cukru, na časy, kedy musí rozmýšľať nad dodržiavaním diabetického stravovania, nad prípravou stravy a kedy je menej času na záľuby, koníčky, zvyšok rodiny, oddych či relax. Dieťa skrátka permanentne vyžaduje kontrolu a starostlivosť vzhľadom na DM 1. typu (Herceg, 2016).

Herceg (2016) ďalej uvádza, že je hneď od začiatku ochorenia dôležitá včasná a trvalá spolupráca medzi rodičom a dieťaťom. Uličianský a kol. (2009) tvrdí, že je veľmi významné získať dieťa na spoluprácu pri selfmonitoringu (SMG) a dodržiavaní diabetického režimu, na prijatie ochorenia, ako aj na navodenie jeho psychickej rovnováhy. Niňajová (2002) uvádza, že nato má rodič účinnú pomoc v diabetológovi, diabetologickej sestre a v neposlednej miere v psychológovi, ktorý uplatňuje nie len individuálnu psychoterapiu, ale aj rodinnú a podpornú psychoterapiu a pomáha riešiť aktuálne problémy doma alebo v školskej sfére.
V strese so stresovou situáciou je dôležitá vyrovnanosť medzi mierou organizovanosti a adaptability rodiny, uvádza Vymětal (2003).

1.2 Faktory ovplyvňujúce psychické problémy rodiny dieťaťa s DM 1. typu

Konkrétne psychické problémy rodičov dieťaťa s DM 1. typu vyplývajú z nasledujúcich faktorov:

- Psychická záťaž rodičov - ťažko prijímajú a vyrovnávajú sa s ochorením dieťaťa.
- Celoživotné ochorenie je výrazný stresový faktor- beh na dlhé trate vyžaduje množstvo energie.
- Obviňovanie, kto je zodpovedný za vznik choroby dieťaťa, hľadanie vinníka vždy naruší rodinné vzťahy a narušené vzťahy dieťa intenzívne vníma a často sa následne nezmyselne obviňuje samo.
- Nedostatočná akceptácia režimových opatrení z rozličných príčin, vedie k zlej kompenzácii a následne v podobe začarovaného kruhu vyvoláva rezignáciu i frustráciu.
- Negatívne emócie spôsobujú psychickú labilitu.
- Problém s finančným zabezpečením rodiny, pretože sú zvýšené náklady na liečbu.
- Strata vlastného zamestnania, strata kvalifikácie, strata pracovných zručností.
- Problém pri nadväzovaní priateľstiev s rodinami, kde nemajú dieťa s DM.
- Strata sociálnych väzieb, popieranie reality, zámerné utajovanie ochorenia pred známymi či priateľmi.
- Upnutie sa matky na problémy chorého dieťaťa. V dôsledku toho môže zabúdať na potreby a problémy ostatných detí a manžela a následne hrozí možný rozpad rodiny či strata funkčnosti rodiny.
- Nedostatok času pre rodinu a strata rozličných záujmových činností.
- Overprotektivita - neprimeraná, prehnaná ochrana dieťaťa, ktorá mu škodí.
- Problém výberu školského zariadenia, krúžkov, voľnočasových aktivít a povolania.
- Sociálna izolácia dieťaťa vo vrstovníckom kolektíve, ale i izolácia rodičov dieťaťa často z dôvodu neopodstatnených obáv (Herceg, 2016).

Syndróm vyhorenia je syndróm, ktorý prvýkrát opísal Herbert Freudenberger v roku 1975. Vyhorenie je formálne definované a subjektívne prežívané ako stav fyzického, emocionálneho a mentálneho vyčerpania, ktoré je spôsobené dlhodobým pôsobením v situáciách, ktoré sú emocionálne mimoriadne náročné (Uličianský a kol., 2009). Keďže sa jedná o celoživotné ochorenie, samotná predstava rodičov, že ochorie práve ich dieťa a bude do konca života pomerne presne dodržiavať liečebný režim, ktorý si DM vyžaduje, je značne zaťažujúcim faktorom. Ak sa rodič alebo aj dieťa dopracuje až do fázy vyhorenia, tak je to problém nie len medicínsky, ekonomický a sociálny, ale je značne ovplyvnené aj fungovanie rodiny ako celku (Herceg, 2016).

1.3 Kvality života a sociálna záťaž rodiny dieťaťa s DM 1. typu

Zatiaľ čo tradičný medicínsky model kládol dôraz na diádu pacient-lekár ako vzťah vyznačujúci sa charakteristikami autorita-poslušnosť, kde rodina bola vnímaná iba ako doplnkový zdroj anamnézy, prípadne starostlivosti, moderné medicínske uvažovanie sa

vyznačuje bioekopsychosociálnym prístupom. Človek je tvor žijúci v neustálej interakcii s okolím, pričom ústredným je pre neho hlavne vplyv rodiny, uvádza Vymětal (2003). Okrem iného píše aj o tom, že: „ … pacientom nie je výlučne tzv. identifikovaný pacient, teda nositeľ obtiaží, symptómov, ochorenia, ale rodina ako celok.“ (Vymětal, 2003, s. 89).
Blechman a Delamater (2013) predstavujú model efektívnej rodinnej komunikácie, konkrétne v spojení s ochorením DM. Podľa tohto modelu sú pre efektívnu komunikáciu dôležité nasledujúce predpoklady:

1. „Signály vypovedajúce o dobrej nálade predlžujú kontakt účastníkov komunikácie prinášajúci príjemné dôsledky a optimálnu pripravenosť k učeniu a výkonu.“ Podľa tohto predpokladu ma pracovník edukačného tímu najväčšiu šancu v edukácii nových pacientov uspieť pokiaľ sú účastníci dobre naladení. Rovnako rodiny a deti najlepšie zvládajú vykonávanie svojich novo osvojených schopností, ak majú dobrú náladu. Podľa autorov je preto dôležitá pre tieto rodiny regulácia nálady (povzbudenie samého seba v situáciách zlej nálady), ktorá tak prispieva k lepším výsledkom pri zvládaní ochorenia DM.
2. „Efektívna rodinná komunikácia vzbudzuje dobrú náladu všetkých členov rodiny.“ Efektívna komunikácia je copingovou stratégiou umožňujúcou rodinám s DM uvoľnenie napätia a voľné zdieľanie týkajúce sa ochorenia či jeho zvládania, čím podporuje dobrú náladu v rámci rodiny. Schopnosť efektívnej komunikácie je preto ďalším dôležitým prvkom, ktorý si rodiny môžu osvojiť s cieľom podporiť schopnosť SMG dieťaťa s DM 1. typu a rozptýliť tak pochybnosti a stres ostatných členov rodiny.
3. „Rodinný členovia, ktorí majú často dobrú náladu sú optimálne pripravenými pre zvládanie svojich kompetencii a fyzickej odolnosti.“ Vďaka efektívnej komunikácii tak členovia rodín prežívajú viacero pozitívnych signálov, čo v nich podporuje fyzickú odolnosť, kompetenciu a charakteristiky prepojené s dobrou kompenzáciou DM (Blechman, Delamater, 2013).

1.4 Faktory ovplyvňujúce sociálne problémy rodiny dieťaťa s DM 1. typu

Hlavným zdrojom sociálnej opory rodičov dieťaťa s DM 1. typu, ale i samotného dieťaťa, je opora všetkých členov rodiny, vrátane starých rodičov, otca a matky, či súrodencov. Súčasťou opory sa vie stať aj profesionálny prístup lekára, zdravotníkov alebo kolegov z brandže. Lebo pri kvalitnom sociálnom kontakte platí nepísané pravidlo, že neopúšťame človeka v ťažkej životnej situácii. Zo skúsenosti slovenských rodín vieme o viacerých prípadoch, kde po ochorení dieťaťa s diagnózou DM 1.typu došlo k rozpadu rodiny, ale poznáme i rodiny, ktoré možno práve ochorenie spojilo viac, ako to bolo pred ochorením. V takejto situácii sa skutočne prejaví sila a kvalita sociálnej opory, ktorá je v konkrétnej rodine zrkadlom fungujúcich vzťahov, uvádza Herceg (2016).
Medzi faktory sociálnej opory pre vhodné zvládanie záťaže patria nasledovné:

- Počúvanie- zvlášť aktívne a dôsledné počúvanie s porozumením má terapeutický efekt.
- Cielená komunikácia- ak prejavíme záujem aj o „maličkosti“ človek cíti zo strany druhého veľkú oporu a cíti, že v tom nie je sám.
- Umenie mlčať- niekedy stačí vľúdny dotyk, pohladenie, objatie...
- Uznanie.
- Pochvala- najprirodzenejší aktivátor pozitívnych myšlienok rodiča.
- Povzbudenie, podpora.
- Empatia (Herceg, 2016).

1.5 Výchova dieťaťa s DM 1. typu

Vodíčková (2004) uvádza, že pri ochorení DM 1. typu, okrem aplikácie inzulínu, zabezpečovania diabetickej diéty, SMG či pohybovej aktivity, je v živote dieťaťa s DM 1. typu, potrebné prispôsobovať aj jeho výchovu, pretože každé vývinové obdobie je svojím spôsobom individuálne odlišné a špecifické a vyžaduje si tak od rodičov poznať úskalia choroby, aby mohli predvídať nepriaznivé situácie a primerane výchovne na dieťa pôsobiť.

Obdobie batoľaťa

V tomto veku je dieťatko silno naviazané na matku, čo sa prejavuje separačnou úzkosťou a strachom z cudzích ľudí. Deti často pociťujú strach z „bielych plášťov“, nemajú ešte vytvorené racionálne mechanizmy zvládania situácii (napr. racionalizácia alebo intelektualizácia). V prípade hospitalizácie, ak je odtrhnuté od matky, môže sa vyvinúť anaklitická depresia, keď dieťa po období protestu s plačom stráca záujem o okolie a nastáva vývinový regres. Deti si chorobu uvedomujú iba bezprostredne pri pocitoch bolesti, nepríjemných zdravotných úkonoch a obmedzovaní pohybu. Pre dieťa je v tomto období nesmierne dôležité mať pocit istoty a dôvery v rodičoch. Je dôležité umožniť mu dostatok pohybu na jeho „poznávacie aktivity“ a stanoviť pevné hranice, v ktorých sa môže pohybovať.

Predškolské obdobie

V tejto fáze vývinu sa dieťa osamostatňuje od matky a stále viac sa „vydáva do sveta“. Pozoruje svoje telo a snaží sa porozumieť jeho fungovaniu. Jeho myslenie je plné fantázie a preto nedokáže reálne posudzovať situácie. V tomto období môžu vznikať pocity viny, kedy dieťa svoju chorobu vníma ako trest za zlé správanie a môžu sa vytvoriť základy pre pocity menejcennosti v neskoršom veku. Takisto ťažko znáša odlúčenie od rodiny, preto je pre dieťa dôležité pevné rodinné zázemie, ako aj dostatočne a veku primerané informovanie o jeho chorobe a situáciách s ňou spojených, či už ide o lekárske zákroky, alebo nutnosť hospitalizácie. V komunikácii s dieťaťom sa môžu vyskytnúť dva extrémy. Na jednej strane veku neprimerané zaťažovanie zbytočnými informáciami o chorobe alebo naopak, prílišná ochrana pred všetkým nepríjemným a následne je vytvorená tendencia o chorobe nehovoriť takmer vôbec.

Školské obdobie

Ide o obdobie rovesníckych skupín a výrazného rozvoja sociálnych zručností. V popredí dominuje snaha o výkon v škole aj mimo nej. Toto obdobie je obdobím realizmu a dieťa sa začína jasne uvedomovať svoj hendikep a nevýhodu voči ostatným deťom. Snaží sa aktívne zapájať do liečebného procesu. Už 9-ročné dieťa si dokáže perom podať inzulín. Na druhej strane sa môže fixovať nevhodné správanie, kedy dieťa využíva svoje ochorenie napríklad na vyhnutie sa školským alebo iným povinnostiam. V tomto veku je dôležité v záujme rozvoja orientácie dieťaťa vo vzťahoch v čo najväčšej možnej miere jeho zotrvávanie v detskom kolektíve a zabezpečovanie dostatočného pohybu. Vo voľnom čase treba pre dieťa zvoliť primerané aktivity, ktoré v rámci psycho-hygieny vytvárajú priestor na odreagovanie negatívnych emócií.

Obdobie puberty

Toto komplikované a zraniteľné obdobie môže priniesť ťažkosti do života dieťaťa a jeho rodiny so všetkým čo puberta prináša a navyše je tu chronické ochorenie, ktorému sa treba podriaďovať. Častým problémom je odpor alebo dvojstranný postoj pacienta voči autorite, čo sa môže prejaviť nerešpektovaním a nedodržiavaním zásad diabetickej liečby. Veľký vplyv na

dieťa v tomto období majú aj jeho rovesnícke skupiny, pretože dieťa sa osamostatňuje a postupne sa odovzdáva zodpovednosť za liečbu z rodiča na dieťa.

Obdobie adolescencie

Je obdobím zraniteľnosti a zníženej odolnosti voči svojmu stresu. Dotvára sa identita dospelého dieťaťa a do popredia sa dostávajú sexuálne otázky a otázky týkajúce sa voľby povolania, pracovného uplatnenia, manželstva a rodičovstva. V tomto období je dôležitá kvalitná komunikácia s lekármi a dôsledná osobná disciplína. Treba zdôrazniť, že pri zvládaní chronického ochorenia v detstve je najdôležitejšie milujúce rodinné prostredie. Význam má aj postupné prenášanie zodpovednosti za liečbu z lekára na rodičov a neskôr na samotné dieťa. Ochorenie treba postupne a systematicky „zabudovať do psychiky" dieťaťa hneď od jeho vzniku. Dieťa treba primerane informovať a požadovať od neho praktické zručnosti týkajúce sa choroby (aplikácia inzulínu, merania glukomerom...), ktoré je schopné zvládnuť (Vodíčková, 2004).

1.6 Zaradenie dieťaťa s DM 1. typu do školského prostredia

Začiatkom nového školského roka sa najmä prvákom spája nielen s novými predmetmi, ale aj s novou školou, novými učiteľmi a novým kolektívom spolužiakov. Práve táto skutočnosť vyvoláva u mnohých rodičov detí s DM 1. typu obavy a strach. Strach z novej a nepoznanej situácie. V škole sa ocitá choré dieťa v prostredí ďaleko od rodičov, ktorí celú jeho chorobu dôkladne sledujú a kompenzujú. Tu si dieťa musí poradiť čiastočne samo. Najväčším problémom je aplikácia správnej dávky inzulínu. Aj keď si ich dieťa v druhej triede je schopné aplikovať inzulín samo, neznamená to, že sa o neho učiteľ nemusí „starať". Na pokyn rodičov musí dohliadať na to, aby dávka bola správna. Len malej odchýlky, ktorej sa dieťa ľahko dopustí, môže zapríčiniť komplikáciu, preto učiteľ musí byť o všetkom vopred informovaný a poučený, aby bol vôbec schopný dieťaťu potrebnú pomoc poskytnúť. V prípade, že už dôjde ku komplikáciám, mal by byť tiež schopný dieťaťu poskytnúť prvú pomoc, ale to opäť závisí na jeho znalostiach.

Významnú úlohu v tomto smere zohráva systém výchovného poradenstva a prevencie, ktoré sa zaoberá deťmi a mládežou s problémami pedagogickými, psychologickými, sociálnymi a zdravotnými.

1.7 Zdroje edukácie rodiny v oblasti DM 1. typu

Edukáciu dieťaťa s DM 1.typu resp. jeho rodičov definujeme ako výchovu k samostatnému zvládaniu DM 1. typu a k lepšej spolupráci s lekárom a zdravotníckymi pracovníkmi. Jedná sa o nevyhnutnú a nenahraditeľnú súčasť liečby u dieťaťa s DM 1. typu. Edukácia začína prvým kontaktom s lekárom alebo sestrou. Nekončí sa nikdy vzhľadom nato, že sa jedná o celoživotné ochorenie. Edukácia zohráva kľúčovú úlohu nie len pri zlepšení metabolickej kontroly, ale je podstatná aj pre zlepšenie kvality života dieťaťa a jeho rodiny. Má sa vykonávať a byť prístupná pre všetkých ľudí s DM počas celého života, interpretuje Herceg (2016). Ďalej uvádza, že efektívna edukácia a psychosociálna podpora dieťaťa s DM 1. typu a jeho rodiny je nezastupiteľná. Tvrdí tiež, že edukovaniu rodičov detí s DM 1. typu sa venuje nedostatočná pozornosť. Riešením je však podľa neho dožadovanie sa rodičov o informácie u svojho lekára, študovaním rôznych literatúr, ktoré sú venované DM 1. typu, prípadne sa kontaktovať s inými rodičmi, ktorí majú viac skúsenosti a mohli by neskúseným rodičom poskytnúť cenné rady (Herceg, 2016)

Príspevok vznikol ako súčasť riešenia projektu KEGA 024PU-4/2016 Inovatívne spôsoby edukácie rodičov a detí s ochorením diabetes mellitus I. typu.

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TERMINOLÓGIA V LEKÁRSKEJ ANATÓMII

TERMINOLOGY IN MEDICAL ANATOMY

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Abstrakt

Anatomická nomenklatúra v zdravotníckej praxi má pozíciu a dôležitú úlohu. Tento dôležitý prvok zohráva okrem iného informatívnu úlohu v spolupráci s inými zdravotníckymi pracovníkmi, ako aj so samotným pacientom. Vývoj anatomickej nomenklatúry prešiel a prešiel aj na Slovensku prostredníctvom vlastného vývoja. Avšak v porovnaní s inými krajinami môžeme povedať, že táto otázka nepriťahuje náležitú pozornosť a záujem, čo spôsobuje zaostávaniu našej krajiny v oblasti zdravotníctva a vzdelávania za svetovou úrovňou.

Kľúčové slová: *anatomická nomenklatúra, lekárska terminológia, lekárska prax.*

Abstract

The anatomical nomenclature in health practice has a position and an important role. This important element also plays among other things an informative role in cooperation with other healthcare professionals as well as with the patient himself. The development of an anatomical nomenclature has gone and undergo even in Slovakia through own development. However, compared to foreign countries, we can say that this issue does not attract the proper attention and interest what it causes to the lagging of our country in the field of health and education behind the world level.

Key words: *anatomical nomenclature, medical terminology, medical practice.*

1 TERMINOLÓGIA V MEDICÍNSKEJ ANATÓMII

Vývoj jazyka a spoločnosti je úzko spätý. Týka sa to aj rôznych odvetví, vrátane medicíny. Terminológia medicíny sa vyznačuje dlhou históriou i jazykovým vývojom. Základom medzinárodnej podoby medicínskych termínov, ktoré sa delia na anatomické a klinické, je latinčina a gréčtina. Od medzinárodnej anatomickej terminológie sú závislé jej národné verzie, sú z nej odvodené.

1.1 Historický prierez vývoja anatomickej terminológie

Úspech v úsilí o jednotnú medzinárodnú kodifikáciu anatomickej terminológie sa dostavil až koncom 19. storočia prácou *Bazilejské anatomické názvoslovie* (1895), po ňom boli schválené a publikované *Jenské anatomické názvoslovie* (1935) a *Parížske anatomické názvoslovie* (1955). Termíny obsiahnuté v *Parížskom anatomickom názvosloví* podliehali každých päť rokov revízii na medzinárodných kongresoch anatómov. Poslednú revíziu vykonala *Medzinárodná anatomická terminologická komisia*, predniesla ju na svojej XII. schôdzi v New Orleanse (1997) a uverejnila pod názvom *Terminologia Anatomica* (1998) (Bujalková, 2008, s. 324). Táto terminológia obsahuje celkovo 7 428 termínov.

Na základe medzinárodnej podoby anatomickej nomenklatúry vznikli národné názvoslovia. V slovenčine je za prvé dielo predstavujúce slovenskú anatomickú nomenklatúru v ucelenej podobe považované *Nomina anatomica. Slovenské telovedné názvoslovie* (Ledényi-Ladziansky, 1935). Neskôr bolo pod redakciou J. Horeckého publikované *Anatomické*

názvoslovie (1962) a začiatkom 21. storočia slovníky autoriek A. Holomáňovej a I. Brucknerovej: *Srdcovocievna sústava. Anatomické názvy* (2000), *Anatomické názvy I* (2001), *Anatomické názvy II* (2002), *Anatomické názvy III* (2003). V roku 2007 bol v knižnej aj elektronickej verzii publikovaný slovník pod názvom *Slovenské lekárske názvoslovie. Slovak medical terminology. Nomina medica slovaca. Diel I. Anatómia. Latinsko-anglicko-slovenský slovník*, ktorú zostavil O. Kadlec (Bujalková, 2008, s. 324). Najnovšou slovníkovou prácou v oblasti slovenskej anatomickej terminológie je *Anatomický slovník* v autorstve latinistu F. Šimona a kol. z oblasti humánnej a veterinárskej anatómie, ktorý vyšiel v roku 2015. V tom istom roku bol publikovaný *Latinsko-slovensko-poľský slovník anatomických termínov I* (2015) v autorstve Marty Vojtekovej. Slovník podáva anatomickú terminológiu v troch jazykoch: v latinskom, slovenskom a poľskom, zostavenú abecedne, podľa latinského jazyka. Venuje sa vybranej anatomickej oblasti: kostrovej sústave a kostiam, spojeniam kostí a sústave kĺbov. Okrem kompletného súboru termínov zo sústavnej anatómie uvedený slovník podáva aj termíny pomenúvajúce časti ľudského tela, ktoré patria do všeobecnej anatómie (Vojteková, 2015, s. 11).
M. Bujalková (2008) vo svojej štúdii *Quo vadis, terminologia medica?* (*Alebo o smerovaní súčasnej lekárskej terminológie*) (2008) správne podotýka, že lekárska terminológia pozostáva z dvoch fundamentálnych vrstiev – anatomickej nomenklatúry a klinickej lekárskej terminológie. Anatomickú nomenklatúru (lat. *nomina anatomica*) tvorí 80% oficiálne prijatých slov latinskej proveniencie a zvyšok gréckej. Fundament klinickej lekárskej terminológie pozostáva v značnej miere z termínov gréckeho pôvodu, avšak v menšom množstve aj z termínov latinského, arabského, španielskeho, talianskeho a anglického jazyka (Bujalková, 2008).

1.2 Anatomická nomenklatúra a komunikácia

V porovnaní s anatomickou terminológiou je klinická lekárska terminológia relatívne nesúrodá a nekoherentná. Jej relatívna nesystematickosť je aj naďalej v mnohých prípadoch vážnou bariérou pri adekvátnej komunikácii, sprostredkovaní plnohodnotnej informácie recipientovi či sprostredkovaní významu komunikátu vo forme translátu. Kardinálnym problémom sú aj časté eponymá v štruktúre termínu patriaceho do sústavy klinickej lekárskej terminológie.
Komunikácia v odbornom lekárskom prostredí nepochybne predstavuje tak pre profesionálov z lekárskeho prostredia, pre bežného neprofesionálneho recipienta, ako aj pre prekladateľa pohybujúceho sa v priestore odborného prekladu a lekárskeho diskurzu jednoznačnú výzvu. Množstvom nových pojmov a pomenovávaných javov v medicíne vzniká aj nová nevyhnutnosť, ktorá je invokovaná práve potrebou presne pochopiť a interpretovať pojmy lekárskej problematiky, filologickou senzitívnosťou k osobitým špecifikám v rámci aplikácie polysémantických a synonymických slov či špecifikácii významov slov a unifikácie ich prekladových ekvivalentov. Nemenej dôležitým sa javí fakt, že v rámci skupiny adresátov sa postupne vyšpecifikovali aj jednotlivé cieľové skupiny, t. j. skupiny komunikačných adresátov, resp. komunikačných partnerov v odbornom lekárskom diskurze, ktoré prvýkrát klasifikovala Petra Löning v štúdii Zur medizinischen Fachsprache. Stilistische Gliederung und Textanalysen (1981), neskôr v doplnenej verzii Arzt-Patienten-Kommunikation: Analysen zu interdisziplinären Problemen des medizinischen Diskurses (1993).
V súvislosti s danou klasifikáciou typologizuje nielen skupiny komunikačných partnerov a ich komunikačnú intenciu, ale aj jednotlivé druhy textov v rámci lekárskeho diskurzu:

1. **Komunikačný partner: profesionálna úroveň – profesionálna úroveň** (lekár – špecialista vs. lekár – špecialista)

Cieľ komunikácie: transfer profesionálnych poznatkov na analogickej úrovni, napr. vedecké lekárske texty so špeciálnou anatomickou a klinickou lekárskou terminológiou (štúdie, výskumné výstupy, odborné vedecké časopisy a prednášky na sympóziách a rôzne formy a žánre diseminácie rezultátov vedeckej činnosti), pričom komunikačná intencia (zacielená na dosiahnutie komunikačného efektu) je zameraná na sprostredkovanie informácie na analogickej kognitívnej a informačnej úrovni. Preklad, realizovaný v uvedenej cieľovej a komunikačnej skupine si vyžaduje aplikáciu striktnej terminológie a medzinárodne petrifikovanej a akceptovanej nomenklatúry.

2. **Komunikačný partner: profesionálna úroveň – semi-profesio-nálna úroveň** (lekár – špecialista vs. študent medicíny – zdravotnícky personál)

Cieľ komunikácie: transfer základných odborných poznatkov (napr. všeobecné lekárske inštrukcie a inštrukcie pre realizáciu ošetrovateľskej činnosti, učebnice somatológie a anatómie, učebnice jednotlivých disciplín klinickej medicíny, monografie), pričom je komunikačná intencia identická s prvou skupinou, avšak inštrukcie majú značne objasňujúci a deskriptívno-analytický charakter.

3. **Komunikačný partner: profesionálna úroveň – non-profesio-nálna úroveň** (lekár vs. pacient)

Cieľ komunikácie: objasnenie diagnózy a terapeutických postupov, prognózy ochorenia, všeobecné zdravotné poučenie, dlhodobé vzdelávanie v oblasti diagnostiky, terapie či prognózy ochorenia (inštrukcia pre pacienta), napr. pre porovnanie prekladu, určeného pre transfer poznatkov v rámci prvej a tretej skupiny komunikačných partnerov.

4. **Komunikačný partner: non-profesionálna úroveň – non-profe-sionálna úroveň** (žurnalista vs. recipient)

Cieľ komunikácie: vzbudenie záujmu o problematiku zdravia a informácie o ochoreniach, napr. populárno-náučné texty vo forme článkov v novinách, časopisoch o zdraví, pričom fundamentálna lexika a terminológia lekárskeho diskurzu parciálne preniká do oblasti vyššie uvedeného štýlu a žánrov bez bližšieho objasnenia (Levická, 2008).

Nemôžeme, pravdaže, obísť skutočnosť, že do moderného medicínskeho vývoja vstupuje stále viac a viac angličtina. Najnovšie výsledky medicínskeho výskumu sú publikované takmer výhradne v angličtine, aj najnovšie pomenovania týkajúce sa chorôb, laboratórnych a liečebných postupov sú anglické. Naopak, anatomické termíny zostávajú v pôvodnom stave, pretože napriek týmto tendenciám angličtiny stať sa novodobou „lingua franca“ medicíny, je anglická lekárska terminológia pôvodom vlastne latinská či latinoidná. Aj najnovšia revízia anatomickej nomenklatúry (*Terminologia Anatomica*, 1998) má latinskú podobu, ktorá slúži ako východisko pre národné verzie, t. j. aj pre anglickú (Šimon – Marečková, 2002). Revolúciu v oblasti lekárskej terminológie znamenajú snahy o utvorenie integrovanej jednotnej cezhraničnej medicíny. To predpokladá tvorbu univerzálneho konvertibilného terminologického slovníka v jazykoch používateľov.

Univerzálnym terminologickým kódovaným slovníkom v anglickom jazyku s možnosťou využívania v lekárskej praxi je zatiaľ bez alternatívy americká Systemizovaná nomenklatúra medicíny (Systemized Nomenclature of Medicine, SNOMED). Odrazom týchto snáh je spomínané dielo *Slovenské lekárske názvoslovie. Slovak medical terminology. Nomina medica slovaca*, ktoré má dve časti. Prvá časť čerpá podľa slov autorov z ostatnej verzie slovníka kľúčových slov americkej *Národnej lekárskej knižnice* (Medical Subject Headings, MeSH). Ide taktiež o konvertibilný trojjazyčný anglicko-latinsko-slovenský slovník lekárskych

názvov, ktoré sú vybavené kódmi a stručnými definíciami. Krížovým mapovaním možno jednotlivé kľúčové slová identifikovať a integrovať do slovníka SNOMED.
V druhej časti sú tri registre, ktoré umožňujú konvertibilný preklad z jedného z troch jazykov, t. j. latinského, anglického a slovenského. Poslúži nielen prekladateľom, ale aj lekárom a odborníkom. Osobitné úlohy bude plniť pri preklade a kodifikácii slovenskej terminológie v rámci tvorby slovenskej verzie SNOMED. Medzinárodne používaná klinická terminológia má v súčasnosti anglickú podobu, ale jej hlavné zložky – termíny a slovotvorné zložky – sú latinské (grécke). Je preto otázne, či bez základov latinčiny je vôbec možné úspešne zvládnuť anglickú lekársku terminológiu. Osobne sa prikláňame k predpokladu, že latinčina si vďaka svojim vlastnostiam, a tým osobitému postaveniu v medicíne, zachová svoje výsadné miesto, hoci v pozmenenej podobe. Príklad slovenského trojjazyčného terminologického slovníka potvrdzuje, že zatiaľ je v medicíne cesta bez latinčiny neschodná – invia est in medicina via sine lingua latina (Bujalková, 2008, s. 326).

1.3 Terminologické aktivity na vo vybraných krajinách

V zahraničí sa na takúto prípravu terminológov pamätá tak, že sa na univerzitách vyučuje terminológia v samostatných kurzoch. Na univerzite Concordia (Kanada) je už dávnejšie zavedený terminologický kurz, ktorému sa venuje plných 90 hodín a terminológiu vyučujú riadni profesori terminológie (Levická, 2008). Kritická je v tomto ohľade aj nedostatočná príprava lekárov z odboru informatika a terminológia, a to v pregraduálnej i postgraduálnej výchove.
Terminologické organizácie a siete sú virtuálne alebo reálne národné alebo medzinárodné asociácie, zamerané na podporu terminologickej práce, koordináciu a komunikáciu terminologických systémov, zefektívnenie zberu, ukladania, spracovania a výmenu informácií. V bilingválnych krajinách je ich charakteristickou črtou aj zvyšovanie jazykovej integrity a jazykového povedomia. K najvýznamnejším takýmto organizáciám patria:
Medzinárodné informačné centrum pre terminológiu Infoterm (http://www.infoterm.info/) založené r. 1971 organizáciou UNESCO s cieľom podporovať a koordinovať medzinárodnú spoluprácu na poli terminológie.
Európska asociácia pre terminológiu EAFT (http://www.eaft-aet.net/) – nezisková odborná organizácia, ktorá vyvíja úsilie o podporu odborných terminologických aktivít a zvyšovanie povedomia o nich.
Medzinárodná terminologická sieť TermNet (http://www.termnet.org/) má za cieľ združovať firmy, univerzity, inštitúcie a asociácie, zaoberajúce sa rozvojom globálneho terminologického trhu.
Vo frankofónnych oblastiach pôsobí francúzska akadémia l'Academie française, riadená Delegation generale a la langue française et aux langues de France a zahŕňa 18 špecializovaných terminologických komisií. Výsledky jej práce sú dostupné na internete vo forme terminologickej databázy FranceTerme (*Úvod do slovenskej lekárskej terminológie. Je terminológia vedou?*, 2013, s. 26–28).

1.4 Terminologické pracoviská

Terminologické pracoviská v zahraničí sa zameriavajú najmä na podporu terminológie a terminologickej práce v národných jazykoch. Sú to najmä:

- EUSKALTERM – baskické pracovisko, ktorého výsledky práce sa uverejňujú v rôznych typoch terminologických produktov a vykonáva rôznorodé aktivity, ako je poskytovanie optimálnych terminologických metód (Termcat, TNC) a organizovanie terminologických kurzov (CTB4).
- Termcat – katalánske terminologické centrum zriadené r. 1986 neziskovou organizáciou UZEI. Sprístupňuje terminologické zdroje, propaguje terminologické

pracovné metódy a prispieva k modernizácii baskičtiny (http://www.termcat.cat/ centre/index.en.htm).

- Belgické terminologické centrum v Bruseli sa venuje najmä výučbe terminológie a výchove nových odborníkov. Umožňuje napr. magisterské štúdium v oblasti prekladu, terminológie a informačnej spoločnosti (http://www.mariehaps. be/recherche-scientifique/ctb/).
- Švédske terminologické centrum (TNC) už vyše polstoročia zabezpečuje koordináciu terminologickej práce, ponúka aj terminologický dispečing a terminologickú databázu. http://www.tnc.se/the-swedish-centre-for-terminology. html
- Fínske terminologické centrum (Sanastokeskus TSK) pôsobí od r. 1974. Poskytuje poradenstvo, spracúva terminologické produkty obsahujúce fínske a švédske termíny a vypracúva metódy terminologickej práce (http://www.tsk.fi/tsk/ en).

1.5 Terminologické databázy

Terminologické databázy (TDB) sú najvšestrannejšími a najinteraktívnejšími terminologickými produktmi. Poskytujú svoje služby bezplatne alebo za úhradu prostredníctvom internetu alebo na CD nosičoch. Ich rozsah presahuje neraz niekoľko miliónov termínov z rôznych oblastí. Príkladom sú:

- Kanadská terminologická databáza Termium (obsahuje francúzske, anglické a španielske terminologické údaje) a quebecká databáza Grand dictionnaire terminologique s vyše 3,5 milióna záznamami, ktorej cieľom je pomôcť rozvoj francúzskeho jazyka v anglicky hovoriacej Severnej Amerike
- Medziinštitucionálna terminologická databáza IATE (http://iate.europa.eu/ iatediff/SearchByQueryLoad.do?method=load) slúţila Európskemu parlamentu, Európskej komisii (EURODICAUTUM) a Európskej rade ako pomôcka pri tvorbe, preklade a revízii európskej legislatívy. Počet terminologických záznamov sa roku 2008 odhadoval na 10 miliónov.
- FranceTerme (franceterme.culture.fr/FranceTerme/ index.html), ktorá obsahuje anglické ekvivalentmi a vychádza v úradnom vestníku a databáza švédskeho TNC Rikstermbanken (http://www.rikstermbanken.se/rtb/main Menu.html), ktorá ponúka termíny v švédčine, ale aj v iných škandinávskych jazykoch).

1.6 Terminologické portály

Terminologické portály sú vstupnou bránou k ďalším internetovým stránkam. Príkladmi sú:

- TERMISTI (http://www.termisti.refer.org/infoport.htm) je portál zriadený ústavom prekladateľov a tlmočníkov (Institut superieur de traducteurs et interpretes ISTI) v Bruseli. Zameriava sa na terminografiu, jazykovú politiku, počítačové spracovanie prirodzeného jazyka najmä v oblasti lexikológie, viacjazyčnej terminológie a lokalizácie.
- Eurotermbank je projekt sprístupnený na internete od r. 2008. Zameriava sa najmä na výmenu a sprístupňovanie terminologických údajov, metodológiu a postupy, ako aj na viacjazyčné terminografické produkty, a to v dánčine, estónčine, litovčine, lotyštine, maďarčine a poľštine, Obsahuje takmer 600 000 termínov z 21 oblastí v 27 jazykoch vrátane slovenčiny.
- Eurovoc – viacjazyčný slovník životného prostredia (obsahuje aj slovenské termíny) (*Úvod do slovenskej lekárskej terminológie. Je terminológia vedou?*, 2013, s. 26–28).

1.7 Terminologické aktivity na Slovensku

Terminologická práca na Slovensku už vyše štvrťstoročia stagnuje najmä v oblastiach vedy, výskumu, školstva, medicíny a zdravotníctva. Chýba aj motivácia zo strany jej používateľov.

Zaostávanie našej terminológie nie je prejavom nedostatočnej spoločenskej objednávky, ale skôr nízkej jazykovej kultúry. Nezáujem a pasivita v tejto oblasti je nelichotivou stránkou našej odbornej verejnosti, ale predovšetkým riadiacich štruktúr upravujúcich predmetnú legislatívu, počnúc vládou a končiac jednotlivými rezortmi, najmä kultúry, školstva, zdravotníctva, práce, sociálnych vecí a rodiny.

Najväčším nedostatkom terminologickej práce v medicíne je absencia terminologickej komisie ako autoritatívneho koordinačného centra. Cieľom terminologickej komisie ako odborného poradného orgánu jednotlivých rezortov štátnej správy je utvoriť terminologické produkty jednotlivých disciplín medicíny a oblastí zdravotníctva. Terminologické komisie majú najmä tieto úlohy:

- sledovať, ustaľovať, zjednocovať, zlaďovať, schvaľovať a obohacovať slovenskú terminologickú sústavu v oblasti školstva (a osvety),
- navrhovať znenie a definíciu nových termínov a revidovať zastarané termíny a definície,
- schvaľovať termíny s definíciami, ktoré navrhnú aj iné subjekty,
- publikovať výsledky svojej práce,
- poskytovať poradenskú a konzultačnú službu (*Úvod do slovenskej lekárskej terminológie. Je terminológia vedou?*, 2013, s. 26–28).

Terminologické produkty (databázy, databanky, prekladové a významové slovníky, lexikóny, tezaury) sú nevyhnutným predpokladom unifikácie, štandardizácie a kodifikácie terminológie jednotlivých disciplín medicíny a oblastí zdravotníctva, jej harmonizácie a mapovania na medzinárodnú referenčnú terminológiu, ktorú bezkonkurenčne predstavuje SNOMED CT®. Bez národnej lekárskej terminológie nie je mysliteľná integrácie našej terminológie do medzinárodnej a zapojenie sa do celosvetového lingvistického diania.

Ďalším citeľným nedostatkom u nás je, že nejestvuje inštitúcia, ktorá by sa zaoberala lekárskou terminológiou. Jazykovedný ústav Ľ. Štúra SAV, ktorému prislúcha povinnosť poskytovať teoretickú a metodologickú pomoc jednotlivým vedným odborom pri tvorbe terminológie a ontológie, si túto úlohu neplní. Nad príčinami tohto stavu by sa mali zamýšľať kompetentní činitelia.

Výsledkom uvedených skutočností je, že slovenská medicína čelí terminologickému chaosu, ktorý je z veľkej časti príčinou zaostávania nášho zdravotníctva za svetovou úrovňou. Viazne komunikácia medzi odbormi, pracoviskami, krajinami, nemožno v plnej miere využívať informačné a komunikačné prostriedky a zefektívniť a skvalitniť poskytovanie zdravotníckych služieb (*Úvod do slovenskej lekárskej terminológie. Význam terminológie pre medicínu*, 2013, s. 25–27).

S výnimkou *Nomina anatomica* nie sú u nás terminológie a nomenklatúry kodifikované a doteraz publikované práce (Holomáňová – Brucknerová, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003) sú výsledkom snáh jednotlivcov (Musil a kol., 2010), pretože neboli schválené oficiálnou inštitúciou, akademickou obcou, napr. odbornou lekárskou spoločnosťou a SAV (*Úvod do slovenskej lekárskej terminológie. Je terminológia vedou?*, 2013, s. 26–28).

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PSYCHOBIOGRAFICKÝ MODEL E. BÖHMA V STAROSTLIVOSTI O CHORÝCH S DEMENCIOU

E. BÖHM'S PSYCHOBIOGRAPHICAL MODEL IN THE CARE OF DEMENTIA SUFFERERS

Terézia Fertaľová, Iveta Ondriová, Eleonóra Klímová, Lívia Hadašová, Jana Cuperová, Dagmar Magurová

Abstrakt

Moderná lekárska veda vynakladá úsilie ovplyvniť, prípadne odstrániť príčinu Alzheimerovej choroby a hľadá vhodný liek, ktorý by pacienta vyliečil. Napriek snahám odborníkov primárne degeneratívne ochorenie mozgu stále nevieme vyliečiť, čo nás núti hľadať možnosti adekvátnej starostlivosti o pacientov so zachovaním sebestačnosti a samostatnosti čo najdlhšiu možnú dobu. Tradičné spôsoby starostlivosti obmedzené na kŕmenie, udržanie v čistote, v teple a pohodlí už dnes nemôžu stačiť a uhol pohľadu na gerontopsychiatrickú starostlivosť je potrebné formovať, zdokonaľovať a na základe skúseností iných odborníkov aj meniť. Erwin Böhm je vedec, ktorý v strednej Európe prináša novú terminológiu v ošetrovateľstve, špeciálne v gerontopsychiatrii sa zameraním na starostlivosť o chorých s rôznymi formami demencie.

Kľúčové slová: *demencia, model, biografia, starostlivosť, senior.*

Abstract

Modern medical science exerts effort to influence or possibly eliminate the cause of Alzheimer's disease and seeks a suitable drug that would cure the patient. Despite the efforts of professionals, we still cannot cure primary degenerative brain disease, forcing us to seek possibilities of adequate care of the patient whilemaintaining their self-sufficiency and autonomy for the longest possible time. The traditional methods of care limited to feeding the patient, keeping them clean, warm and comfortable are no longer sufficient and the perspectives of gerontopsychiatric care need to be shaped, refined and perfected on the basis of the experience of other professionals. Erwin Böhm is a scientist in Central Europe who has brought new terminology into nursing, especially in gerontopsychiatry, focusing on the care of patients with various forms of dementia.

Key words: *dementia, model, biography, care, senior.*

1. PSYCHOBIOGRAFICKÝ MODEL ERWINA BÖHMA

Profesor Erwin Böhm, sa narodil v roku 1940 vo Viedni. V roku 1963 ukončil štúdium na zdravotníckej škole vo Viedni. Od roku 1974 pracoval v pozícii „ hlavná sestra" na viedenskej psychiatrickej klinike. V roku 1978 začal pracovať na svojom pilotnom projekte „Prechodná starostlivosť". Tento projekt bol spracovaný do ošetrovateľského modelu.

Psychobiografický model starostlivosti Erwina Böhma je medzinárodne uznávaný ošetrovateľský model a v súčasnosti je najviac využívaný v nemecky hovoriacich krajinách v oblasti geriatrickej a gerontopsychiatrickej starostlivosti. Snaha Erwina Böhma je okrem zachovania fyzickej aktivity čo najdlhšie udržať seniora psychicky aktívneho a schopného rozhodovať sa čo najdlhšiu dobu (Pilgerstorfer, 2012).

Model je zameraný na podporu schopnosti starostlivosti o seba starých a zmätených ľudí a na spôsoby, ako čo najdlhšie túto schopnosť uchovať či navrátiť, a to princípom vzkriesenia záujmu seniora a oživením jeho psychiky. Model je zameraný predovšetkým na prácu s ľuďmi s rôznymi formami demencie (Tomeš, Šámalová, 2017).
V psychobiografickom modeli sa snaží o rozšírenie uhlu pohľadu na človeka – seniora, kedy sa starostlivosť musí stať tolerantnejšou a opustiť úlohu „ starostlivej matky". Predchádzajúce spôsoby starostlivosti, kedy ošetrujúci personál preberal všetky úlohy starostlivosti, nereflektoval zachované schopnosti a znalosti klienta, sústredil sa predovšetkým na saturáciu potrieb, a týmto konaním vytváral klientovu závislosť na starostlivosti, sú v nových ošetrovateľských modeloch a koncepciách minulosťou. Böhm predkladá starostlivosť aktivizujúcu a reaktivizujúcu, a pokiaľ používa v svojom modeli pojem rehabilitácie, potom v zmysle reaktivizácie psychických schopností človeka, to znamená „ najskôr rozhýb psychiku, potom telo". Böhm ako prvý poukázal na nutnosť poznať životný príbeh, ktorý ovplyvňuje vnímanie zdravia a choroby prijímateľom starostlivosti, a na psychické potreby týchto klientov (Procházková, 2009a).
Špecifiká gerontopsychiatrickej dlhodobej starostlivosti zmapoval profesor Böhm vo svojich výskumných prácach, poznatky zo základných psychologických smerov a teórií aplikoval do praxe a precízne zdokumentoval v jednotlivých kazuistikách (Procházková, 2014).
V teoretických podkladoch pre svoj model starostlivosti sa Böhm opieral o učenie S. Freuda, C.G. Junga, A. Adlera, A. Maslowa, C. Rogersa, E. Ericsona a V. E. Frankla. Mnohé myšlienky týchto autorov Böhm ďalej rozpracoval vo svojej teórii psychobiografickej starostlivosti.

1.1 Tézy psychobiografického modelu

Základné tézy modelu sú rozdelené do 6 celkov:

1. Psychické ochorenie (problém) klienta je predovšetkým v duševnom utrpení a nie primárne v ochorení organickom (duševný fenomén)
2. Psychogénne problémy v starobe (zmätenosť, paranoja v séniu) sú iba individuálne spôsoby správania, ktoré sú odrazom thymopsychickej biografie.
3. Hypotéza tohto modelu: duševná fenomológia je ako thymopsychický strom života. Rastie z koreňov, na ktorých sú odtlačky etnologickej a kolektívnej socializácie, životného prostredia, kde náš klient vyrastal. Kmeň tohto stromu tvorí charakter a osobný životný hodnotový systém klienta (osobné rituály, pocit domova). V korune stromu sú schované systémy, prostredníctvom ktorých si klient prispôsobuje svet svojmu obrazu (coping).
4. Biografiu môžeme tiež vidieť ako možnú cestu návratu, kedy sa klient vracia do základnej thymopsychickej biografie. Vracia sa do svojho detstva a používa naučené emocionálne spôsoby správania zo svojho detstva. A práve tento fenomén návratu je pre nás logicky nepochopiteľný – senior sa špirálovite vracia po stupňoch vývoja do svojej mladosti, až po kopírovanie prenatálneho stavu, ležiaci v polohe embrya.
5. Biografia obsahuje tiež terapeutické prvky, ktoré zodpovedajú životným fázam klienta
6. Rehabilitačná – aktivizačná starostlivosť má za úlohu túto dysharmóniu duševného života seniora kompenzovať a pomáhať mu nachádzať oporné body v jeho vnútornom a vonkajšom svete (Procházková, 2009b).

1.2 Metaparadigmy modelu E. Böhma

Metaparadigmatická koncenpcia podľa E. Böhma, ktorá determinuje teóriu a prax psychobiografického modelu vo všeobecnej rovine, popisuje osobu, prostredie, zdravie a starostlivosť nasledovne:

Osoba- každý človek má tiež svoje špecifické prostredie, svoju osobnú históriu – biografiu. Osobu hodnotí autor zo 4 hľadísk – thymopsychické (emočné), noopsychické (kognitívne), biografické (individuálne, regionálne, historicko – spoločenské) a ošetrovateľské.
Prostredie – ovplyvňuje každého jedinca zdravého i chorého v každom vývojovom období. Prostredie má svoju hodnotu tiež terapeutickú – „melieterapia“ znamená inštitucionálne prostredie čo najviac prispôsobiť pôvodnému prostrediu klienta (Procházková, 2014).
Böhm sa vo svojej definícii zdravia odvoláva na definíciu Persona, ktorý popisuje zdravie ako stav optimálnej schopnosti výkonu rolí a úkonov dôležitých pre socializáciu človeka.
Definícia choroby – (byť chorým) znamená neschopnosť výkonu aktivít zodpovedajúcich danému veku. „Byť chorým“ odlišuje Böhm od termínu “choroba“ (Procházková, 2009b). Cieľom poskytovanej starostlivosti je obnovenie a oživenie duše starého človeka, ktorú Böhm vníma ako retrográdne vracajúcu sa po vývojových fázach. Pokiaľ sa chceme starať o starého človeka musíme sa preorientovať v našom myslení a konaní na biografiu klienta. Vedľa terapeutických intervencií je rovnako dôležité starať sa o medziľudský vzťah. Ten je smerodajný pre psychický a fyzický uzdravovací proces, v ktorom hrá centrálnu úlohu osoba poskytujúca starostlivosť, ktorá postupne vytvára nenahraditeľný vzťah (Procházková, 2014).
Každý človek je počas života ovplyvňovaný mnohými zážitkami. Reakcie seniorov, ktorí prichádzajú s postupujúcim vekom, vidí Böhm ako odtlačky týchto životných situácií. Naučený spôsob správania – stereotyp, ktorý sa objaví v období dezorientácie klienta – veľmi často súvisí s jeho zážitkami z detstva a obdobia mladosti (0-25 rokov). Böhm vychádza z toho, že pamäťové odtlačky v psychike klienta sú hlboko uložené v podvedomí a následne ovplyvňujú jeho správanie vo vyššom veku tým, že využíva staré stereotypy správania k prekonaniu záťažových situácii. Všetky stereotypy správania vzniknuté v rannom detstve človeka sa zachovávajú najdlhšie (Procházková, 2012).

1.3 Ciele starostlivosti podľa E. Böhma

Böhm dáva do popredia v starostlivosti následné ciele:

1. znovuoživenie psychiky človeka,
2. oživenie záujmu starajúcich sa,
3. rozšírenie vnímania spoločenskej normality.

Najvyšším cieľom Böhmovej starostlivosti je znovuoživenie duše (psyché) starého človeka, ktorú popisuje ako ľudskú energiu duše „ elan vital“, ktorá je pôvodným zdrojom pre naše konanie a pre životnú motiváciu.
Oživenie profesného záujmu poskytovateľov starostlivosti sa dá docieliť zvýšením ich odbornosti (Procházková, 2014).
Rozšírenie vnímania spoločenskej normality – obsahovo je zameraný na poskytovanie ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti, so zameraním na psychiku seniora a na motiváciu, ktorá je hybnou silou pre psychickú mobilitu. Model je smerodajný pre budovanie nových alternatívnych koncepcií v sociálnej politike a v starostlivosti o seniorskú generáciu. Jeho použitím v poskytovaní služieb a starostlivosti o seniorov sa dá dosiahnuť určitá forma inštitucionálnej starostlivosti s ľudskou tvárou. I starý človek má právo na psychickú rehabilitáciu a nie iba na rehabilitáciu fyzickú (Procházková, 2009b).
Erwin Böhm vníma svoj model starostlivosti ako kompletnú systémovú teóriu, ktorá má doplniť lekársku starostlivosť. Bez ohľadu na to, či u pacienta existuje orgánové poškodenie musí terapeutická starostlivosť vychádzať z thymopsychickej biografie a musí poskytnúť zlepšenie psychickej i fyzickej pohody, a to i bez psychofarmák (Procházková, 2014).
Pokiaľ sa zameriame na medicínsku a ošetrovateľskú diagnózu, staráme sa o demenciu, keď sa zameriame na biografiu klienta, staráme sa o človeka ako o osobnosť, teda vidíme prioritne človeka s jeho dušou (Böhm, 2009).

Geriatrická starostlivosť má byť primárne zameraná na psychiku a sekundárne na somatický problém. Ak človek, ktorý už nemá žiadnu motiváciu k životu, žiadny elan vital, nemá tiež žiadnu potrebu pohybovať nohami, chodiť a z dôvodu nedostatku motivácie sa už neumyje, neoblečie a ani nevstane z postele (Böhm, 2009).
Rehabilitácia psychiky klienta podľa Böhma je starostlivosť reaktivizačná, špecificky orientovaná na emocionálnu stabilitu, ktorá je podmienkou pre prevenciu regresie. Oproti tomu geriatrická starostlivosť je primárne starostlivosť somatická, zameraná na dekompenzované ochorenie, rozdeľujúca chorých na chodiacich a ležiacich, adaptovaných a neadaptovaných (Procházková, 2014).
E. Böhm delí regresiu do siedmych štádií, ktoré označuje tiež ako stupne interakčnej dostupnosti klienta v úrovni komunikačnej a to vo väzbe medzi seniorom a opatrovateľom. Toto rozdelenie je veľmi dôležité v starostlivosti o seniorov so symptómami demencie, kde sa naviazanie kontaktu s klientom vo všetkých úrovniach komunikácie, a to rozumové, emočné, senzorické. Variabilne sa menia podľa psychického stavu klienta.

1. stupeň – fyziologické starnutie, terciárna socializácia. Biografický náhľad na celý život seniora. Pod pojmom socializácie rozumieme celoživotné poznávanie a adaptáciu na nové podmienky a spoločenské normy. Primárna socializácia – prebieha v kruhu rodiny, a preto je tu veľmi dôležitý pocit domova, bezpečia a dôvery. Sekundárna socializácia – ovplyvnená už školskou dochádzkou, novými priateľmi a postavením v kolektíve. Terciárna socializácia – formovaná voľbou povolania a celým pracovným procesom. Vzťahy na pracovisku, zodpovednosť za výkon sú ďalšími faktormi, ktoré zohrali dôležitú úlohu v tejto oblasti. Komunikácia: Senior je schopný porozumieť informáciám, ktorému personál odovzdá, rozumie obsahu i forme odovzdaného, je schopný adekvátnej reakcie a tiež vykoná to, čo je požadované.
2. stupeň – označovaný za stupeň regionálneho dialektu a prísloví (Böhm uvádza i termín materského vtipu). Biografický náhľad na obdobie veku seniora v jeho 18 – 25 rokoch. Tu bolo vo vývoji jedinca dôležité všetko, čo ho oddeľovalo od dospelého. Komunikácia: klient stále rozumie obsahu odovzdaného, aktivizačná forma starostlivosti je pre klienta adekvátna, a tiež touto formou starostlivosti je interakcia s klientom priechodná.
3. stupeň – štádium sociálnych a emocionálnych potrieb. Biografický náhľad na obdobie 30 veku seniora v jeho 12 – 18 rokoch. Pre tento stupeň regresívnej interakcie je singulárna biografia hlavnou témou pre základné porozumenie klientovi. Mnoho potrieb dospelého človeka zostáva už v pozadí záujmu a zostávajú tie najdôležitejšie potreby, ktoré sú špecificky zapísané v pamäťových stopách ako naučené automatizmy a rituály. Komunikácia: Klient prestáva rozumieť obsahu odovzdávaného, v komunikácii je nutné využívať napríklad dialekt klienta, zvoliť pre neho známe slová s použitím porekadiel a ustálených slovných spojení.
4. stupeň – stupeň zvykov a rituálov. Biografický náhľad na obdobie veku seniora v jeho 6 -12 rokov. Správanie klienta je ohraničené časom, miestom a naučenými rituálmi, ktoré zaisťujú pocit bezpečia. Naučené spôsoby správania na prekonanie záťažových situácií z detstva nadobúdajú na význame. Strach a obavy sú často pozorované práve u klientov v tejto fáze. Dôležité pre seniora v tejto fáze je vlastniť a mať v zásobe. Agresivita pri hygiene voči personálu je v tejto fáze veľmi častým javom. Komunikácia: Senior prestáva rozumieť informáciám, ktoré mu personál odovzdáva, nerozumie obsahu i forme odovzdaného, a to predovšetkým v situáciách, kedy je atakovaný mnohými informáciami, ktoré už nedokáže roztriediť.
5. stupeň – stupeň pudov a inštinktov. Biografický náhľad na obdobie veku seniora v jeho 3 - 6 rokoch. Pudy, sny, fantázie nadobúdajú na význame a sile v správaní

klienta, ale tiež v starostlivosti, kedy je nutné mať na pamäti, čo je možné v tomto veku s deťmi robiť. Komunikácia: Komunikácia s klientom na tejto úrovni začína byť zameraná na obsah rozprávok a detských básní a piesní. Dôležitá je komunikácia na základe biografických vetných spojení: Mamička mi vždy hovorila.

6. stupeň – stupeň intuície. Biografický náhľad na obdobie veku seniora v jeho 1 - 3 rokoch. Tento stupeň regresie charakterizuje strata racionálneho myslenia, kde majú svoje miesto rozprávky, náboženské obrazy a výjavy. Intuícia tu hrá dôležitú úlohu v komunikácii s klientom, ktorý sa orientuje vo svojom svete iba kopírovaním, zrkadlením svojho okolia. Situačná orientácia ostáva. Komunikácia: Alfou a omegou komunikácie s klientom na tomto stupni je opakovanie slov a zvukov.
7. stupeň – stupeň bazálnej komunikácie. Biografický náhľad na obdobie veku seniora v jeho 0 - 1 rokoch. Tento stupeň zodpovedá dojčenskému obdobiu pre oblasť psychiky a tiež fyzická výkonnosť je obmedzená. Pocit slasti orálnej stimulácie je v popredí záujmu, ďalej stály kontakt s vlastným telom, dotyky, škrabanie, cmúľanie si palca. Komunikácia: tento stupeň vyžaduje nonverbálnu komunikáciu na základe konceptu bazálnej stimulácie. Pre určenie štádia regresie je pomocným nástrojom diferenciálno – diagnostický systém vypracovaný Böhmom, ktorý hodnotí osem oblastí prejavov správania seniora pomocou tabuľkového skórovacieho systému, s výslednou číselnou hodnotou (Procházková, 2014). Až na základe určeného stupňa regresie je zvolená adekvátna forma starostlivosti, ktorú Böhm rozdelil na aktivizačnú a reaktivizačnú formu starostlivosti. Aktivizačná forma starostlivosti je určená tým klientom, ktorí sú maximálne integrovaní do starostlivosti, a spočíva v podpore ich samostatnosti a v udržaní ich schopností sebaurčenia a vlastnej zodpovednosti. Postoj personálu tu zohráva dôležitú úlohu.
   Reaktivizačná starostlivosť je charakterizovaná využitím impulzov z biografie klienta k znovuoživeniu psychiky seniora, a tým i schopnosti starostlivosti o seba. Jedná sa o špecifickú formu starostlivosti zahŕňajúcu reanimáciu psychiky a duše starého človeka. Ide tu o remotiváciu, resocializáciu, resenzibilizáciu a revitalizáciu seniora (Procházková, 2009c).

1.4 Ošetrovateľský model v kontexte teórie E. Böhma

Akýkoľvek ošetrovateľský model je abstraktná teória, ktorá sa v praxi uplatňuje formou ošetrovateľského procesu. Ošetrovateľský proces sa skladá z piatich na seba nadväzujúcich krokov, ktoré podporujú personál pri poskytovaní priamej starostlivosti (Procházková, 2014).

1. krok: Hodnotenie – predstavuje zber subjektívnych a objektívnych dát o zdravotných problémoch klienta. Je v priamom vzťahu k jednotke koncepčného modelu (Brobst, 1999). Böhm sa vo svojom modeli a v prvom kroku ošetrovateľského procesu zameriava na personál a jeho schopnosť adekvátneho pozorovania klienta. Zaujíma ho biografia profesionála, ktorá je podmienečne dôležitá v poskytovaní starostlivosti a ovplyvňuje spôsob jeho realizácie. Ďalším dôležitým faktorom, na ktorý sa Böhm zameral, je nutná spolupráca tímu, práve pre adekvátne pozorovanie klienta a zber dát, ktoré sú podmienkou na minimalizáciu chybného hodnotenia klienta iba jednou osobou. Nesmieme sa zamerať výhradne na somatickú problematiku klienta, ktorá je obsiahnutá najmä v dokumentácii klienta, ale je nutné hodnotiť aj psychický stav klienta. Veľmi praktickou pomôckou je naučiť pracovníkov v priamej starostlivosti dokumentovať presne to, čo klient hovorí, a nie špekulatívne hodnotenia pracovníka, ktorý označí klienta za agresívneho v momente, keď sa klient nespráva podľa jeho predstáv či pokynov. Presná citácia klienta v dokumentácii je ďalšou pomôckou a zdrojom informácií o psychickom stave klienta. Súčasťou zberu dát je aj biografia klienta, ktorá zodpovedá základnú otázku „kto je náš klient?“ V holistickom poňatí

ošetrovateľstva nemôžeme vidieť klienta seniora iba ako „status Quo“ , ale je nutné pochopiť ho s celou jeho históriou (Procházková, 2014).

2. krok: Diagnostický proces – nasleduje analýza získaných dát a znamená identifikáciu aktuálnych a potencionálnych problémov, ošetrovateľských diagnóz s prihliadnutím na použitý ošetrovateľský model (Brobst,). Böhm v diagnostickom procese uplatňuje tvorbu hypotézy ošetrovateľskej diagnózy, ktorá je vo vzťahu s medicínskou diagnostikou, ošetrovateľskou anamnézou, hodnotením súčasného stavu klienta, biografiou klienta, diferenciálnou diagnostikou E. Böhma (Böhma, 2009). Diferenciálno – diagnostické skóre je rozdelené na osem oblastí, ktoré sa hodnotia v bodovom systéme:
   - emócie,
   - psychomotorika,
   - schopnosť kontaktu,
   - vôľa,
   - pamäť,
   - orientácia,
   - formálne myslenie,
   - obsahové myslenie (Procházková, 2012).

   Na základe súčtu bodového hodnotenia je možné určiť, do akej interakčnej skupiny podľa stupňa regresie patrí náš klient. Obzvlášť u seniorov s prejavmi demencie je toto skóre vynikajúcim pomocným nástrojom pre správne určenie, akú starostlivosť je nutné poskytnúť, či je to aktivizačná, reaktivizačná alebo starostlivosť s prvkami bazálnej stimulácie. Na základe výsledkov z diferenciálno – diagnostikej tabuľky sa tvorí adekvátny individualizovaný plán starostlivosti (Procházková, 2014).
3. krok: Plánovanie – tvorba plánu starostlivosti – zahŕňa formuláciu cieľov, výsledných kritérií, ošetrovateľských intervencií, ktoré sú v súlade s intervenciami uvedenými v koncepčnom modeli (Brobst, 1999). V plánovaní starostlivosti Böhm ponúka pre využitie impulzy, ktoré majú svoju hodnotu práve v okamihu nestabilného správania klienta. Z praxe je známe, že klient je celý deň orientovaný, adaptovaný, ale vo večerných hodinách sa jeho správanie úplne mení. V takomto prípade hovoríme o nestabilnej fáze klienta, pre ktorú sa osvedčilo začleniť do plánu starostlivosti adekvátne impulzy vyplývajúce z biografie klienta. Impulz je intervencia zameraná na psychiku klienta, ktorá ma zlepšiť psychickú pohodu, ale primárne neovplyvňuje patofyziologický stav klienta. Ponuka starostlivosti je v súlade s psychickým stavom klienta a diferencuje medzi starostlivosťou o zdravých klientov, klientov s ľahkými, strednými a ťažkými zmenami v správaní. Aktivizačné a reaktivizačné programy sa prirodzene čiastočne prekrývajú, pretože klientove správanie sa nenachádza výhradne v jednej interakčnej skupine. Tieto formy starostlivosti sú zahrnuté do oblasti klasickej geriatrickej starostlivosti a následne doplnené psychobiografickou formou starostlivosti, ktorá je špecificky aplikovaná tam, kde je poškodená pamäť klienta, a kde tradičná geriatrická starostlivosť stráca na význame a neprináša pre klienta nič nové a pozitívne. Podľa tohto modelu môžeme pre klienta urobiť ešte veľa s pamäťovým deficitom a s nápadnými zmenami v správaní. Psychobiografické intervencie a impulzy sú použité prevažne tam, kde trpí nielen klient, ale aj jeho okolie. Plány starostlivosti musia vychádzať z individuálnej biografie klienta, pretože iba tento aspekt určuje zmysel a efekt tohto programu. Čo je ale pre jedného človeka pozitívne, môže byť pre iného pravým opakom. Do úvahy musíme vziať aj historického ducha doby, v ktorej náš klient vyrastal, vtedajšie zvyky a obyčaje. Pokiaľ je u klienta stanovený vysoký stupeň

regresie podľa diferenciálnej diagnostiky Böhma, je možné v pláne starostlivosti použiť intervencie z koncepcie bazálnej stimulácie (Procházková, 2014).

4. krok: Realizácia – intervencie v praxi – model podáva inštrukcie, čo sa má urobiť, priamo určuje, ktoré ošetrovateľské zásahy uplatňovať a ako ich realizovať (Brobst, 1999). Böhm sa vo všetkých fázach ošetrovateľského procesu zameriava najmä na psychiku klienta a až potom na ostatné oblasti. Podľa neho je predovšetkým nutné oživiť psychiku klienta, poskytnúť mu adekvátne motivačné stimuly, aby sám chcel a bol sebestačný v rámci svojich možností. Ak je klient dostatočne a adekvátne motivovaný, snaží sa následne o samostatné výkony (Procházková, 2014).
5. krok: Vyhodnotenie – v akom rozsahu klient dosiahol stanovený cieľ? Ako reaguje? Odpovede na tieto otázky pomáhajú vyhodnotiť účinnosť celého zvoleného ošetrovateľského procesu ako i modelu (Brobst, 1999). Pokiaľ bol problém vyriešený a došlo k zlepšeniu stavu klienta, je možné zmeniť plán starostlivosti v súlade s ďalšou problematikou alebo ponechať plán starostlivosti s cieľom zachovať súčasný stav klienta. Böhm odporúča využívať ošetrovateľský proces s implementáciou biografie klienta na to, aby boli zreteľne rozdelené problémy klienta, ktoré je potrebné riešiť, od problémov ošetrujúcich, ktorí reagujú na špecifické správanie klienta neprofesionálne. Diferenciálno – diagnostický systém je určený pre ošetrovateľskú diagnostiku na určenie stupňa regresie klienta so symptómami demencie. Ošetrovateľský proces s integráciou biografie a pozitívneho potenciálu klienta ponúka možnosť zaradiť do plánu starostlivosti zachovalé schopnosti klienta, ktoré sú významné v starostlivosti o klienta s demenciou. Psychobiografický model starostlivosti zahŕňa vo všetkých krokoch ošetrovateľského procesu známe komponenty z biografie klienta (Procházková, 2014).

2. ZÁVER

Alzheimerová choroba patrí medzi chronické ochorenia, ktoré chorého pripútavajú na lôžko. Okrem somatického deficitu, dochádza aj k zrejmým psychickým zmenám, ktoré zreteľne zhoršujú celkovú starostlivosť o chorých. Liečba je náročná, pretože pacientov stav nedokážeme zvrátiť, dokážeme zmierniť progresiu ochorenia. Okrem farmakologickej liečby si pacienti vyžadujú špecifiká v prístupe. Erwin Böhm na základe svojich doterajších vedomostí a skúseností predostiera možnosť ako zvládnuť správanie chorého, aký prístup zvoliť a ako zvládať situácie, ktoré výrazne zaťažujú ošetrujúci personál. Špecifiká prístupu s ohľadom na psychobiografický model E. Böhma nie sú určené iba pre sestry, či sociálnych pracovníkov. Každý člen zdravotníckeho tímu by mal pracovať jednotnou filozofiou teda aj lekári, sestry, zdravotnícki asistenti a pomocní personál nevynímajúc, aby práca sestry či sociálneho pracovníka nebola negovaná nevhodným prístupom alebo komunikáciou ostatných členov tímu.

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PROBLEMATIKA ZVLÁDANIA STRACHU U PACIENTOV S DIABETES MELLITUS

PROBLEMS OF FEAR MANAGEMENT IN PATIENTS WITH DIABETES MELLITUS

Zuzana Novotná, Ľubica Derňárová, Jana Cinová, Andrea Šuličová, Tatiana Šantová, Ľudmila Majerniková, Zuzana Šimová

Abstrakt

Metabolické ochorenie diabetes mellitus patrí medzi ten typ ochorení, pri ktorých opakovane vzniknutá akútna komplikácia môže u pacienta vyvolať obavy, strach a úzkosť. Tieto pocity a reakcie celkovo zhoršujú zvládanie a prežívanie ochorenia, často negatívne ovplyvňujú spoluprácu s lekárom a sú bariérou adherencie a úspešného self-manažmentu. Požiadavkou a cieľom úspešnej edukácie pacienta je sprostredkovať mu vedomosti nielen o povahe svojho ochorenia, liečebnom farmakologickom a nefarmakologickom režime, ale pomôcť mu ochorenie prijať a naučiť ho zvládať strach a obavy, ktoré často zhoršujú kvalitu života pacienta a jeho blízkych. Dôležitým predpokladom dobrej spolupráce a účinnej edukácie je záujem o pacientove pocity, vlastné prežívanie ochorenia, motivácia a očakávania, ktoré má pacient vo vzťahu k svojmu ochoreniu.

Kľúčové slová: *diabetes mellitus, strach, hypoglykémia, self-manažment, self-minitoring, pacient*

Abstract

Metabolic disease of diabetes mellitus is one of the types of illnesses in which a recurrent acute complication can cause fear, distress and anxiety in the patient. These feelings and reactions not only aggravate the management and survival of the illness, often negatively affect the cooperation with the doctor and are a barrier to adherence and successful self-management. The requirement and the goal of successful patient education is to mediate knowledge about not only the nature of his illness, healing pharmacological and non-pharmacological regime but also to help him to accept the disease and to learn him to deal with fears and anxiety that often aggravate the quality of life of the patient and his or her relatives. An important precondition for good cooperation and effective education is the interest in the patient's feelings, self living, motivation and expectations that the patient has in relation to his illness.

Keywords*: diabetes mellitus, fear, hypoglycemia, self-management, self-monitoring, patient*

1. VPLYV STRACHU NA PREŽÍVANIE OCHORENIA

Metabolické ochorenie diabetes mellitus patrí medzi ten typ ochorení, pri ktorých opakovane vzniknutá akútna komplikácia môže u pacienta vyvolať obavy, strach a úzkosť. Tieto pocity a reakcie nielen celkovo zhoršujú zvládanie a prežívanie ochorenia, ale často negatívne ovplyvňujú spoluprácu s lekárom a sú bariérou úspešného self-manažmentu. Požiadavkou a cieľom úspešnej edukácie pacienta je sprostredkovať mu vedomosti nielen o povahe svojho ochorenia, liečebnom farmakologickom a nefarmakologickom režime, ale pomôcť mu ochorenie prijať a naučiť ho zvládať strach a obavy, ktoré často zhoršujú kvalitu života pacienta a jeho blízkych.

1.1 Význam edukácie pre pacienta s diabetes mellitus

Diabetes mellitus patrí medzi chronické ochorenia, ktorých výskyt sa celosvetovo neustále zvyšuje. Zvyšuje sa aj celková dĺžka prežívania pacientov s týmto ochorením a taktiež aj dĺžka poskytovania komplexnej dlhodobej a paliatívnej starostlivosti. Uvedené skutočnosti sa výrazne premietajú do všetkých oblastí zdravotnej a sociálnej starostlivosti a ovplyvňujú aj súčasný trend ošetrovateľstva ako vednej disciplíny, hlavne v oblasti hodnotenia starostlivosti o pacienta s chronickým ochorením. Evidentný je odklon od zamerania sa len na ochorenie, viac sa akcentuje prístup zameraný na pacienta. Taktiež sa v súčasnosti viac zdôrazňuje a preferuje kvalita prežitého života, pred jeho často zbytočným a umelým predlžovaním. Dôležitým aspektom zdravotnej starostlivosti je aj čoraz intenzívnejšie uplatňovanie celostného prístupu a zvyšovanie zodpovednosti za svoje zdravie. Podpora kompetencií pacienta ku účinnej starostlivosti o svoj zdravotný stav a self-management ochorenia, ktorý zahŕňa úpravu dávok inzulínu, diétny režim a fyzickú aktivitu sú základnými cieľmi modernej, personalizovanej edukácie. Napriek vysokej miere prevencie, edukácie a zdravotnej výchovy sú zdravotnícky pracovníci v praxi stále častejšie konfrontovaní s odmietaním, nedodržiavaním a prerušovaním ordinovanej liečby. Aj po opakovanej edukácii sa niektorí pacienti rozhodnú pre alternatívnu liečbu, ktorá je v mnohých prípadoch neoverená a môže pacientovi spôsobiť závažné zhoršenie ochorenia alebo celkového stavu. Pre účinnú motiváciu dlhodobo dodržiavať odporúčania lekára a pozitívne ovplyvnenie postojov a správania pacienta nestačí iba edukácia o povahe samotného ochorenia, ale pre edukátora sú veľmi významné informácie o tom, ako pacient ochorenie subjektívne vníma, prežíva, ako reaguje na jednotlivé symptómy, liečebné postupy a zmeny životosprávy, ktoré si ochorenie vyžaduje. Samotné ošetrovateľstvo je vedná disciplína, ktorá sa prioritne zameriava na realizáciu edukácií pacientov, a v odbornej literatúre sa často a vyčerpávajúco venuje hlavne vzdelávaniu pacientov s chronickým ochorením. Pozornosť však venuje predovšetkým vedomostiam o chorobe a liečbe, menej už zručnostiam smerujúcim k sebaopatere, self-managementu a self-monitoringu a spôsobom prežívania ochorenia a vyrovnávania sa s ním. Jedným z kľúčových faktorov, ktorý môže významnou mierou ovplyvňovať prežívanie choroby pacientom je strach, ktorý je najčastejšie spojený s účinkami liekov, komplikáciami, priebehom ochorenia a jeho prognózou. Strach môže byť u niektorých pacientov tak intenzívny, že môže významne znižovať adherenciu k liečbe (vynechanie, odmietanie a neakceptovanie štandardných liečebných postupov).

1.2 Obavy, strach, úzkosť v ošetrovateľskej klinickej praxi

Ak hovoríme o problematike strachu v kontexte ošetrovateľskej klinickej praxe je potrebné zmieniť aj pojmy úzkosť, obavy, fóbie/fóbický strach. Aj keď každý z týchto emocionálnych prejavov má svoju charakteristiku, v praxi sa tieto reakcie niekedy ťažšie diferencujú. Rozlíšiť tieto reakcie ja však nutné vzhľadom k tomu, že každá z nich si vyžaduje iný rozsah intervencií v zmysle jej hodnotenia, monitorovania a riešenia. *Obavy* sa pri ohrození alebo poškodení zdravia charakterizujú ako myšlienky týkajúce sa neistoty z toho čo bude, ako sa stav vyvinie do budúcnosti. *Úzkosť a strach* sú už emocionálne reakcie pacienta, ktoré ovplyvňujú jeho vnímanie a prežívanie choroby. Základným rozlišujúcim znakom medzi týmito dvoma reakciami je bezprostredná a reálna existencia zdroja nebezpečenstva. *Strach* odborná literatúra opisuje ako reakciu na prítomné, už existujúce ohrozenie alebo reálne hroziace nebezpečenstvo (invazívne vyšetrenie, pooperačná komplikácia pri zlom zdravotnom stave, agresívna liečba, rana ktorá sa nehojí). Zdroj strachu je väčšinou známy a bližšie určený, pacient je sústredený hlavne na vonkajšie podnety ako sú konkrétne prostredie, situácia alebo určitý objekt. Príčinou strachu u pacientov môže byť aj nedostatok vedomostí o problematike ochorenia, jazyková bariéra, nejednoznačnosť vyjadrení zdravotníkov, zhoršenie zmyslového vnímania. K objektívnym charakteristickým príznakom

patrí agresivita, útek, široko otvorené oči, nervozita, impulzívnosť, tachykardia, silné potenie, zvýšené napätie. Subjektívne má pacient zlú predtuchu, je vyplašený, vyľakaný, napätý, ustaraný, má schopnosť a vie rozpoznať predmet strachu. *Úzkosť* sa chápe ako nejasný pocit stiesnenosti a neistoty, ktorá je často vyvolaná zlou predtuchou nebezpečenstva. Úzkosť sa definuje ako reakcia na niečo čo sa blíži, čo sa očakáva alebo čo prinesie určitú alebo neurčitú zmenu. Sprevádzajú ju subjektívne prejavy ako rozrušenosť, nesústredenosť, nervozita, ľútostivosť, plačlivosť, pocit beznádeje. K typickým objektívnym prejavom patrí zhoršenie očného kontaktu, bezúčelná aktivita, neuvedomelé pohyby, chvenie hlasu, prehnaná bdelosť a ostražitosť, chvenie hlasu, znížená pohyblivosť, pasivita, nechutenstvo. Výrazné môžu byť aj vegetatívne prejavy ako zvýšená potivosť, zrýchlený pulz, zvýšený alebo znížený krvný tlak, návaly tepla v tvári, pocit nutkania na močenie a pod. Úzkosť je viac zameraná na ohrozenie autonómie a integrity pacienta, jeho hodnôt, jeho vlastného ja. Prežívanie úzkosti súvisí z budúcnosťou, vývinom udalostí a ich následkov (úzkosť či sa prebudím z narkózy, či budem po operácii chodiť, pracovať, športovať...). V klinickej praxi je niekedy ťažké tieto reakcie odlíšiť, pretože často splývajú, navzájom sa prekrývajú a podmieňujú – úzkosť prechádza do strachu, alebo strach môže prechádzať do úzkosti. Takého vzájomné podmieňovanie býva typické pre hypoglykémie u diabetikov, kedy úzkosť z rizika vzniku a následkov zníženia glykémie v krvi podmieňuje strach z toho kedy a kde tento stav nastane, či ho adekvátne zvládne, či bude v prípade potreby pomoci niekto na blízku a pod. *Fobický strach* sa charakterizuje ako silný až extrémny strach z určitých vecí, alebo situácií (zviera, výťah, výška). Väčšinou sa jedná o strach, ktorý nemá racionálny základ, a je obmedzený iba na túto jednu situáciu alebo objekt. Pod *fóbiou* sú zahrnuté vysoko špecifické situácie, pri ktorých je strach subjektu neprimeraný danému nebezpečenstvu alebo ohrozeniu.

1.3 Compliancia a adherencia ako podmieňujúce predpoklady úspešnej liečby a prežívania ochorenia

Pri chronických ochoreniach sa pri vyššej hladine strachu stáva problematickou oblasťou motivácia a adherencia pacienta pri dlhodobom dodržiavaní terapeutického režimu. Chronický pacienti vykazujú menšiu úroveň spolupráce so zdravotníckymi pracovníkmi ako pacienti s akútnym ochorením. Špecifické správanie pacienta vo vzťahu k dodržiavaniu odporúčaní a pokynov zdravotníkov sa označuje ako compliancia alebo adherencia. Sú dôležitými podmieňujúcimi aspektami nadobúdania vedomostí a túžby jednotlivca po vzdelávaní sa v problematike zdravia alebo aktuálneho ochorenia. Prejavujú sa tým, že človek rozpozná potrebu učenia, akceptuje ju a dobrovoľne vynakladá energiu na to aby sa niečo nové naučil, a to by sa malo neskôr prejaviť aj na jeho správaní. *Compliancíu (spoluprácu)* v zdravotníctve môžeme definovať ako stupeň súhlasu a ochoty pacienta medzi vyžadovaným liečebným postupom a jeho dodržiavaním. *Compliancia* v liečbe znamená doslova ochotu vyhovieť tomu, čo požaduje zdravotnícky pracovník. Označuje sa tiež ako uvedomelá spolupráca, disciplinovanosť pacienta, ale tiež jeho súhlas, poddajnosť a ochota dodržiavať rady zdravotníckych pracovníkov, stotožnenie sa s terapeutickými odporúčaniami, podrobenie sa navrhnutému režimu. Mnohokrát sa interpretuje ako poslušnosť pri dodržiavaní liečby. Naopak *non-compliancia* znamená, že pacient nedodržuje odporúčania lekára. Vo väčšine prípadov ide o osobnostné dôvody pacienta ako je zábudlivosť, nedostatočná disciplína, nízka úroveň vzdelania. Non-compliance ohrozuje pacienta diabetika nielen vznikom akútnych a chronických komplikácií, ale aj pridružených ochorení. Kým compliancia sa chápe ako pasívny až submisívny postoj pacienta, *adherencia* je pojem významovo užší a môžeme ho vysvetliť, ako užívanie medikácie s aktívnym prístupom chorého, alebo ako mieru súzvuku v správaní chorého, vrátane medikácie a riadenia sa radou lekára. *Adherencia* pacienta k liečbe predstavuje jeden zo základných predpokladov kontroly ochorenia a úspešnosti liečby chronických ochorení. V liečbe znamená doslovne dodržiavať,

rešpektovať a striktne sa držať, toho čo bolo prikázané, teda dodržiavať a rešpektovať pokyny lekára, sestry a ďalších členov zdravotníckeho tímu. Neznamená pasívne dodržiavanie terapeutických, režimových opatrení, resp. pokynov zdravotníckych pracovníkov. Charakterizuje ju aktívna participácia pacienta v liečbe a pláne starostlivosti, ktorý vychádza zo vzájomnej dohody o liečbe (medzi pacientom a lekárom, sestrou). Adherencia sa netýka len správnosti, resp. nesprávnosti dodržiavania terapeutických a režimových opatrení, ale aj dĺžky ich dodržiavania (perzistencie). Práve pri chronických ochoreniach sa motivácia a adherencia pacienta pri dlhodobom dodržiavaní terapeutického režimu stáva problematickou oblasťou, pretože chronický pacienti vykazujú menšiu úroveň spolupráce so zdravotníckymi pracovníkmi, ako pacienti s akútnym ochorením.

1.4 Hypoglykémia ako významný zdroj strachu u diabetika

K akútnym komplikáciám, ktoré postihujú diabetika a najčastejšie vyvolávajú strach patrí hypoglykemický syndróm a ketoacidóza. Častejšie postihuje diabetikov 1. typu (DM1). Bežné hypoglykémie sú v priebehu liečby inzulínom častejšie ako prípady ketoacidózy, ťažké hypoglykémie sú u edukovaných diabetikov skôr vzácnosťou. Hypoglykémia je stav keď dochádza v organizme k poklesu koncentrácie plazmatickej glukózy. Frekvencia hypoglykémií u diabetikov 1. typu sa uvádza na 2 epizódy symptomatickej hypoglykémie týždenne – tisíc epizód v priebehu života a 1 epizóda ťažkej hypoglykémie v priebehu roka. Okrem toho má diabetik množstvo asymptomatických hypoglykémií, a z nich sa dajú iba niektoré zachytiť pravidelným selfmonitoringom glykémií.

Strach z hypoglykémií sa definuje ako strach spojený s hypoglykemickými epizódami a ich negatívnymi dôsledkami. Zahŕňa strach z negatívnych akútnych zdravotných dôsledkov, strach zo straty kontroly a prechodných kognitívnych zmien, ktoré sa môžu prejaviť sociálne nevhodným chovaním alebo poranením. Taktiež v sebe obsahuje strach z reakcie okolia na behaviorálne, motorické a kognitívne zmeny počas trvania hypoglykémie. Opakované negatívne skúsenosti, často ako následok ťažkých hypoglykémií spojených s bezvedomím vedú k rozvoju obáv z ďalších epizód a ich dôsledkov. Tie môžu vyvolať hyperkompenzačné správanie – prejedanie sa, udržiavanie vyšších glykémií, vyhýbanie sa činnostiam, ktoré by mohli spôsobiť hypoglykémiu. Dlhodobým negatívnym dôsledkom takého správania môže byť nedostatočná glykemická kontrola, nízka adherencia pacienta k liečbe a v neposlednom rade rýchlejší rozvoj chronických komplikácií DM. Predchádzanie ďalších epizód vedie u pacienta k vyhýbavému správaniu (vyhýbanie sa podnetom a situáciám, ktoré by mohli viesť k hypoglykémii). Strach z hypoglykémie sa spája s prežívaním dlhodobého stresu, úzkosti, depresií a zhoršením kvality života, ktoré DM spätne negatíve ovplyvňujú. Úzkosť môže svojou vegetatívnou a telesnou symptomatológiou skomplikovať identifikáciu hypoglykémie, respektíve viesť k nesprávnej interpretácii, zamieňať symptómy úzkosti za prejavy hypoglykémie a naopak. Vysoká miera obáv tak môže byť spojená s problémami s rozlišovaním medzi skorými prejavmi hypoglykémie a úzkosťou. Následkom toho sa môže stať, že pacient nesprávne zareaguje, nezasiahne pri hypoglykémii a zvýši si riziko ťažkej hypoglykémie. Druhý prípad je liečenie úzkosti ako hypoglykémie, ktoré môže mať za následok zvyšovanie glykémie. Strach z hypoglykémie a s ním súvisiace vyhýbavé správanie môže plniť adaptívnu funkciu, pokiaľ je pacient ohrozený rizikom hypoglykémií. Primeraná miera obáv z hypoglykémie môže viesť k lepšiemu manažmentu glykémií u pacientov a glykemickej kontrole DM. Z hľadiska liečby je prirodzené, aby si pacienti uvedomovali reálne hroziace riziko, pretože obavy sa maladaptívnymi môžu stať vtedy, ak nereflektujú reálne aktuálne riziko hypoglykémií. Rizikovými môžu byť pacienti s fobickým strachom (s nízkym rizikom hypoglykémií a vysokou mierou strachu z hypoglykémie) a pacienti popierajúci riziko hypoglykémie (s vysokým rizikom hypoglykémie a nízkou mierou strachu z hypoglykémie). Závažné a opakované hypoglykémie môžu postupne viesť k rozvoju strachu

z hypoglykémie a následnej non-adherencii pacientov k liečbe. Strach z hypoglykémie môže viesť v rámci self-manažmentu pri stravovaní k prejedaniu, vyššiemu príjmu sacharidov alebo k nočnému jedeniu. Strach z hypoglykémie vznikajúcej po cvičení alebo fyzickej námahe môže viesť k výraznému obmedzovaniu fyzickej aktivity pacientov.

1.5 Edukačný plán zameraný na sebaúčinnosť a self-manažment pacienta

Edukačné programy pre pacientov s chronickými chorobami sa prioritne zameriavajú na poskytnutie dôležitých informácií o chorobe, jej liečbe a úprave životného štýlu, menej na prežívanie ochorenia a zmenu správania. Tradičná edukácia je definovaná ako plánovaný, systematický, postupný proces učenia a vzdelávania pacientov, vychádzajúci z posúdenia, diagnózy individuálnych potrieb a hodnotenia efektívnosti využitých intervencií. V tradične chápanej edukácii je zdravotník expert, ktorý dáva pacientovi rady a odporúčania čo má robiť, stáva sa riešiteľom vzniknutých situácií a zodpovedným za ich výsledky a spôsob ako budú zmeny správania dosiahnuté. K lepšiemu zvládaniu ochorenia a strachu zo symptómov, ktoré negatívne ovplyvňujú prežívanie pacienta s diabetes mellitus je vhodné zahrnúť do edukačného plánu prvky na podporu sebaúčinnosti (self-efficaty). Tento pojem sa v slovenskej odbornej literatúre prekladá aj ako sebauplatnenie, sebaefektívnosť, vedomie vlastnej účinnosti alebo autoefektívnosti.

Bandura sabaúčinnosť vo svojej sociálne-kognitívnej teórii definoval ako vieru človeka v schopnosť kontrolovať vlastné fungovanie a udalosti, ktoré vplývajú na jeho život. Podľa Banduru sa dá sebaúčinnosť využiť nielen pri ovplyvňovaní danej situácie, ale aj pri adaptácii na danú situáciu. Svoju teóriu postavil na vzájomnom determinizme, zdôrazňujúcom samoreguláciu t. z. schopnosť jedinca premýšľať, predvídať a regulovať vlastné správanie vo vzťahu k vplyvom prostredia a kauzalite správania. Napríklad presvedčenie jedinca o tom, čo je v rámci liečby schopný pre seba urobiť (schudnúť, zvýšiť telesnú aktivitu) a aké dôsledky to bude mať (zlepšenie zdravia, pohyblivosti), ovplyvňuje jeho skutočné správanie, ktoré sa týka liečby a zdravotnej starostlivosti, a tá následne svojimi podmienkami (prístup personálu) ovplyvňuje ďalšie očakávania pacienta. Viera vo vlastné sebauplatnenie vo vzťahu k ochoreniu determinuje ako ľudia prežívajú a hodnotia ochorenie a liečbu, a v konečnom dôsledku aká je ich miera adaptácie na chorobu, respektíve adherencia k liečbe. Sebaúčinnosť tak reflektuje konkrétne presvedčenie jedincov o ich schopnostiach zvládať ťažkosti vyplývajúce z ochorenia a jeho liečby. Edukačné programy zamerané na self-manažment chronického ochorenia sú ovplyvnené predovšetkým Bandurovou sociálne-kognitívnou teóriou. Edukáciu v self-manažmente charakterizuje kooperujúca aliancia (pacient – zdravotnícky pracovníci), starostlivosť založená na empirickej spolupráci, pri ktorej je zdravotník odborníkom na ochorenie a pacient je expertom na svoj vlastný život. Zdôrazňuje sa vnútorná motivácia a proaktívny postoj pacienta k vlastnému zdraviu. Zdravotníci neposkytujú „*know how* ako ísť na chorobu“, ale poskytujú pacientovi príležitosti pre učenie sa k zručnostiam v self-manažmente, ktoré môže následne využívať pri ochorení, rôznych životných situáciách a pri riešení úloh súvisiacich s upevňovaním zdravia alebo udržiavaním primeranej kvality života pri zhoršení zdravotného stavu. Edukačné programy cielene zamerané na self-manažment chronických ochorení sa najčastejšie zameriavajú na manažment relevantných symptómov (napr. dýchavica, bolesť, hypoglykémia/hyperglykémia), zvládanie depresie, redukciu stresu a zlepšovanie kopingových stratégií prostredníctvom rôznych kognitívnych a behaviorálnych techník. Tie sú prioritne orientované na problém a nie na vedomosti, čo významne pripomína koncept problémového učenia. Ich cieľom by malo byť rozvíjanie a podpora piatich kľúčových vedomostí a zručností pacienta:

1. Riešiť konkrétne problémy – schopnosť pacienta identifikovať problémy každodenného života a vedieť ich riešiť (zhoršilo sa mi dýchanie, alebo je len dusno?).

2. Vedieť sa rozhodnúť – schopnosť robiť každodenné rozhodnutia v liečbe (koľko cvičiť a kedy prestať, pridať si inzulín a koľko).
3. Vyhľadať zdroje pre riešenie a zvládnutie situácie (vyhľadanie informácií, odborníka na telefóne).
4. Formovať partnerský vzťah zdravotník/pacient, vytvárať kooperujúcu alianciu so zdravotníkmi (aktívna spolupráca pravidelné kontroly, kladenia otázok, informovanie sa pri nejasnostiach).
5. Jednať – zrealizovať svoje rozhodnutia.

V centre výskumu v Stanforde vytvorili všeobecný program pre self-manažment chronických ochorení a jeho aplikované verzie pre vybrané ochorenia (napr. diabetes mellitus, onkologické ochorenia, chronickú bolesť). Obsah programu je naplnený problematikami zameranými na rozvoj vedomostí a zručností v self-manažmente chronických ochorení:

1. techniky zvládania únavy, frustrácie, bolesti a sociálnej izolácie (emocionálny self-manažment),
2. vhodné cvičenie na udržanie a zlepšenie telesnej kondície, sily a pružnosti (medicínsky self-manažment),
3. adekvátne užívanie liekov (medicínsky self-manažment),
4. efektívna komunikácia so zdravotníckymi pracovníkmi, rodinou, priateľmi (rolový self-manažment),
5. výživa (medicínsky self-manažment),
6. realizácia primeraných rozhodnutí v liečbe (medicínsky self-manažment),
7. hodnotenie nových spôsobov liečby (medicínsky self-manažment).

Tento program je zameraný na dosiahnutie dlhodobej adherencie pacienta k liečbe a môže slúžiť ako základ pre naplánovanie edukačného plánu pre pacientov s chronickým ochorením.

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PREVENCIA A ŠPECIFIKÁ PSYCHICKEJ ZÁŤAŽE POMÁHAJÚCICH PROFESIÍ V PRAXI

PREVENTION AND SPECIFICS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL BURDEN OF HELPING PROFESSIONS IN PRACTICE

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Abstrakt

Pracovné prostredie pomáhajúcich profesií sa vyznačuje určitými rizikovými faktormi, ktoré významne ovplyvňujú psychické zdravie, celkovú psychickú pohodu, ako aj prežívanie spokojnosti s prácou. Nadmerná pracovná záťaž zvyšuje riziko chybných výkonov a rozhodnutí, pracovných úrazov a psychosomatických ochorení u pracovníkov. Pociťovanie nadmernej fyzickej, ako aj psychickej záťaže sú vo všeobecnosti u pracovníkov pomáhajúcich profesií dôvodom odchodu zo zamestnania. Najzávažnejším typom záťaže pracovníkov pomáhajúcich profesií je psychická záťaž, ktorá výrazne ovplyvňuje emocionálnu a sociálnu oblasť. Z tohto dôvodu je dôležité uplatňovať preventívne opatrenia súvisiace so syndrómom vyhorenia.

Kľúčové slová: *pomáhajúca profesia, sestra, lekár, psychológ, pedagóg, psychická záťaž, prevencia, prevention, syndróm vyhorenia, prieskum.*

Abstract

The environment of work of helping professions is characterized by certain dangerous factors that significantly affect mental health, overall mental well-being and survival of job satisfaction. Excessive workloads increase the risk of misconduct and decisions, occupational accidents and psychosomatic diseases in professions. The feeling of great physical and mental stress are generally the case in helping the professions as a reason for leaving the job. The most serious type of helping the professions is psychological stress which significantly affects the emotional and social dimension.

Key words*: helping the profession, nurse, doctor, psychologist, teacher, psychological burden, burnout syndrome, research.*

1. SÚČASNÝ STAV PROBLEMATIKY PSYCHICKEJ ZÁŤAŽE

Pracovníci pomáhajúcich profesií či už v oblasti zdravotníctva, sociálnej sféry, školstva, pedagogiky, psychológie alebo v iných pomáhajúcich profesiách pomáhajú širokým skupinám obyvateľstva rôznych vekových kategórií. Práca im na jednej strane poskytuje radosť a uspokojenie, na druhej strane ovplyvňuje ich zdravie, čo sa podpíše na ich celkovom telesnom i duševnom stave. Často pri práci musia čeliť dlhodobému stresu a záťažovým situáciám, ktoré negatívne ovplyvňujú zdravie, ale aj pohodu samotného pracovníka. Pomáhajúci dávajú do svojej práce veľa úsilia a emócií a snažia sa pomáhať za každú cenu až na úkor svojich možností. Psychická záťaž je podľa Vévodu et al. (2013) zjednoteným pojmom všetkých vplyvov, ktoré pôsobia na psychiku človeka teda môžeme povedať, že je súhrnom všetkých hodnotiteľných vplyvov práce, pracovných podmienok a pracovného prostredia pôsobiacich na kognitívne, senzorické a emocionálne procesy človeka, ktoré ho

ovplyvňujú a vyvolávajú stavy psychického napätia a zaťaženia psychofyziologických funkcií. (16)
Jednotlivé stupne záťaže môžeme charakterizovať nasledovne:

1. stupeň bežná záťaž
Vzniká na základe nesúladu medzi tlakom vonkajšieho prostredia a našimi možnosťami vytvárať protiklad. Spočíva v takých úlohách s ktorými sme sa už veľakrát stretli a dokázali ich úspešne riešiť.
2. stupeň zvýšená záťaž
Je viazaný na také pracovné situácie v ktorých nestačíme so zaužívanými spôsobmi riešenia a reagovania. Sú pre nás nové, a preto na ich zvládnutie musím vynaložiť zvýšené úsilie. Je potrebné zdôrazniť, že práve zvýšená záťaž je pre náš život nevyhnutná, pretože nás dokáže posunúť vpred. Núti nás rozširovať si okruh poznatkov, skúseností a pracovať na sebe.
3. stupeň hraničná záťaž
Vzniká ak sa objavuje výrazný nesúlad medzi našou pripravenosťou a nárokmi vonkajšieho prostredia na nás. Riešiť takéto situácie môžeme len vynaložením mimoriadneho úsilia v ktorom sa predpokladá ísť až na doraz a siahnuť až na dno svojich psychických rezerv. Pri danom stupni záťaže dochádza k rôznym spôsobom správania a k výrazným fyziologickým zmenám. Daný stupeň psychickej záťaže odhaľuje skutočnú kvalitu osobnosti človeka.
4. stupeň extrémna záťaž
Objavuje sa vtedy ak medzi požiadavkami vonkajšieho prostredia a našimi možnosťami potrebnými na ich zvládnutie je obrovský rozpor. Pretrvávajúca extrémna záťaž vedie k narušeniu vzťahov so spoločenským prostredím. Narastaním množstva záťažových situácií v krátkom čase môže nastať rýchly prechod jedného stupňa záťaže do druhého vyššieho stupňa (1). Psychické vyčerpanie v práci sestry je následkom emocionálne náročných situácií, ktoré je potrebné riešiť. Emocionálne vyčerpanie sú pocity beznádeje, že človeku niet pomoci a je chytený do pasce. Tieto negatívne atribúty pramenia z rozporu medzi očakávaným a reálnym stavom v ošetrovateľskej praxi, čo má za následok syndróm vyhorenia. (10).

1.1 Špecifiká syndrómu vyhorenia u sestier v klinickej praxi
Pojem „syndróm vyhorenia“ (burn-out) zaviedol Freudenberger v roku 1974 a opísal ho ako stav fyzického, mentálneho a emocionálneho vyčerpania, ktorý je častým dôsledkom kombinácie vysokých očakávaní a pretrvávajúceho situačného stresu (12).S psychickou záťažou v práci sestier priamo súvisí aj jej zvládanie, teda coping. Zvládanie záťaže môžeme rozdeliť na efektívne a neefektívne zvládanie záťaže. Pojem „coping“ pochádza z anglického jazyka a v preklade znamená „zvládanie záťaže“. V našich podmienkach sa v odbornej literatúre používajú dva pojmy. Copingom sa podrobne zaoberal (11).V práci sestier sú najefektívnejšie copingové stratégie, ktoré sú zamerané na riešenie konkrétnych problémov. V niektorých prípadoch sú nazývané taktiež aj „kognitívne stratégie**.** Zvládanie záťaže je ďalej možné špecifikovať aj v rámci uplatňovania jednotlivých copingových zdrojov a copingových stratégií v práci sestry, ktoré môžu byť zamerané na problém, na emócie, ako aj na únik z problémovej, respektíve záťažovej situácie. Všeobecne o copingových stratégiách môžeme povedať, že sa jedná o typické spôsoby, akými ľudia pristupujú k zvládaniu záťažových situácií. (13).

1.2 Reziliencia a prevencia nadmernej psychickej záťaže
Prevencia je jednou z najdôležitejších oblastí v kontexte efektívneho vykonávania pomáhajúcich profesií, nevynímajúc povolanie sestry. Bez preventívnych opatrení by mohli byť rizikové faktory v práci sestier ohrozujúce a deštruktívne nielen z pohľadu ich osobnostnej štruktúry a psychického a fyzického zdravia, ale aj z pohľadu výkonu ich

povolania. Sekundárnou obeťou pociťovania nadlimitnej psychickej záťaže by boli pacienti. Z pohľadu prevencie je nutné podotknúť fakt, že v niektorých prípadoch kedy je nutné zvládať ťažké životné situácie, ktoré v nás vyvolávajú určité napätie nejde len o určite stratégie ich zvládania, ale taktiež o takzvanú „rezilienciu“ odolnosť (8). Čím je človek viacej rezilientný, teda odolný, tým ľahšie zvláda záťažové situácie. V tomto prípade môžeme hovoriť aj o takzvanej „frustračnej tolerancii“. Reziliencia je opakom zraniteľnosti. Vyjadruje to, ako sme odolní v ťažkých životných situáciách. Psychická odolnosť je z pohľadu viacerých autorov takzvaná „kvalita ľudskej psychiky“, pre ktorú je príznačná schopnosť nenechať sa „vyviesť z miery“ a rýchlo po odznení záťaže obnoviť pôvodný stav schopnosti tolerovať určitú záťaž a adaptovať sa v prostredí (11).

2. VPLYV PSYCHICKEJ ZÁŤAŽE SESTIER A JEJ DOPAD NA KVALITUPOSKYTOVANEJ OŠETROVATEĽSKEJ STAROSTLIVOSTI

2.1 Cieľ štúdie

Hlavným cieľom štúdie je zistiť psychickú záťaž sestier pracujúcich na detských oddeleniach a jej dopad na kvalitu poskytovanej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti. Čiastkovými cieľmi sme chceli zistiť vplyv veku sestier pracujúcich na detských oddeleniach fakultných nemocníc na zistenú mieru výskytu emočného (psychického) vyčerpania, zistiť vzťah medzi dĺžkou praxe sestier pracujúcich na detských oddeleniach fakultných nemocníc a mierou výskytu emočného (psychického) vyčerpania, zistiť vplyv miesta bydliska sestier pracujúcich na detských oddeleniach fakultných nemocníc na zistenú mieru výskytu emočného (psychického) vyčerpania.

2.2 Metodika

Prieskumný súbor tvorilo 121 sestier pracujúcich na detských oddeleniach fakultných nemocníc J. A. Reimana v Prešove a v Detskej fakultnej nemocnici v Košiciach. Ako merací nástroj pre zisťovanie miery výskytu emočného (psychického vyčerpania) sme si zvolili štandardizovaný dotazník MBI (Maslach burnout inventory) (9, 15). Ide o dotazník, ktorý je použiteľný vo všetkých sférach pomáhajúcich profesií. Okrem nami sledovanej emočnej (psychickej) záťaže, je ním možné zistiť mieru depersonalizácie a mieru zníženia osobnostného výkonu, respektíve aj celkovú mieru výskytu syndrómu vyhorenia. Otázky prislúchajúce k dimenzii emočné (psychické) vyčerpanie, ako aj skórovanie pre jednotlivé stupne pociťovania emočnej (psychickej) záťaže uvádzame v nasledujúcej tabuľke.

Tabuľka 1: Otázky dotazníka MBI pre dimenziu emočné (psychické) vyčerpanie a skórovanie

Dimenzia MBI	**Otázky v dotazníku**	***Stupeň vyhorenia***	***Skóre***
Emočné (psychické) vyčerpanie EE – Emotional exhaustion	1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 20,	1	0 - 16
		2	17 - 26
		3	27 a viac

Zdroj: Venglářová et al., 2011, s. 43-44.

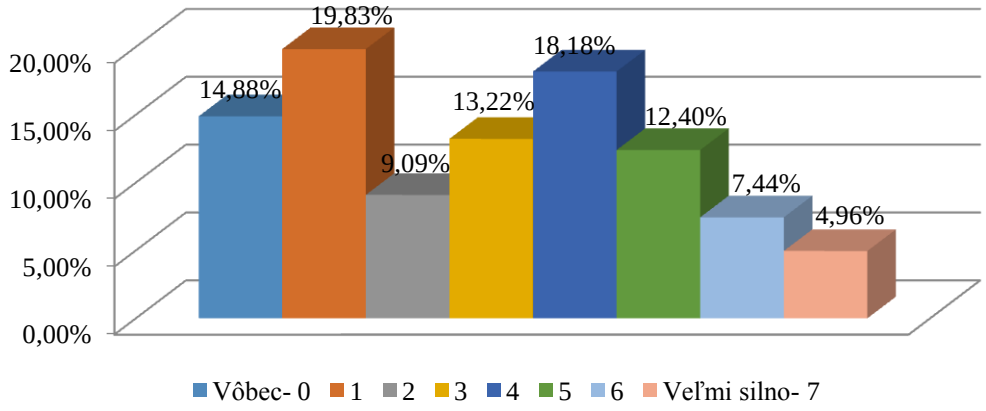
Respondenti mohli odpovedať na jednotlivé otázky, respektíve vyjadriť súhlas / nesúhlas s uvedeným výrokom na 7-bodovej Likertovej stupnici, pričom „0“ znamenala, že s výrokom vôbec nesúhlasia a „7“, že s výrokom veľmi súhlasia. Otázky, respektíve výroky, na ktoré respondenti odpovedali boli nasledovné:

- Práca ma citovo vysáva. (1 MBI)
- Na konci pracovného dňa sa cítim byť na dne so silami. (2 MBI) Keď ráno vstávam a pomyslím na pracovné problémy, cítim sa unavený. (3 MBI)

- Celodenná práca s ľuďmi je pre mňa skutočne namáhavá. (6 MBI)
- Cítim „vyhorenie“, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce. (8 MBI)
- Moja práca mi prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia. (13 MBI)
- Mám pocit, že plním svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ma to vyčerpáva. (14 MBI)
- Mám pocit, že som na konci svojich síl. (20 MBI)

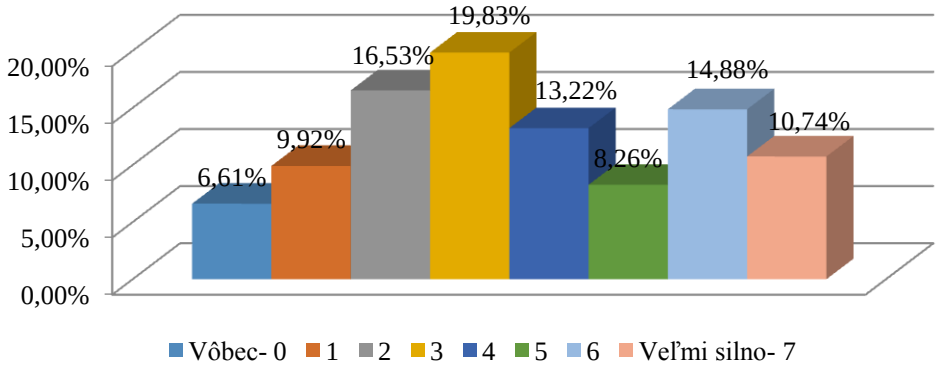
2.3 Výsledky

Za účelom štatistickej analýzy a spracovania zozbieraných dát sme použili program SPSS a následne tiež Microsoft Excel. Štatistické analýzy boli realizované za pomoci Chí kvadrát testu nezávislosti pre kontingenčnú tabuľku, ktorý je využívaný v prípadoch, ak chceme zistiť, respektíve rozhodnúť, či medzi dvomi javmi (premennými) existuje súvislosť, respektíve závislosť. Ide o veľmi častú metódu využívanú pri spracovávaní výsledkov dotazníkových zistení (5). Testovanie prieskumných otázok sme realizovali na hladine významnosti α= 0,05.



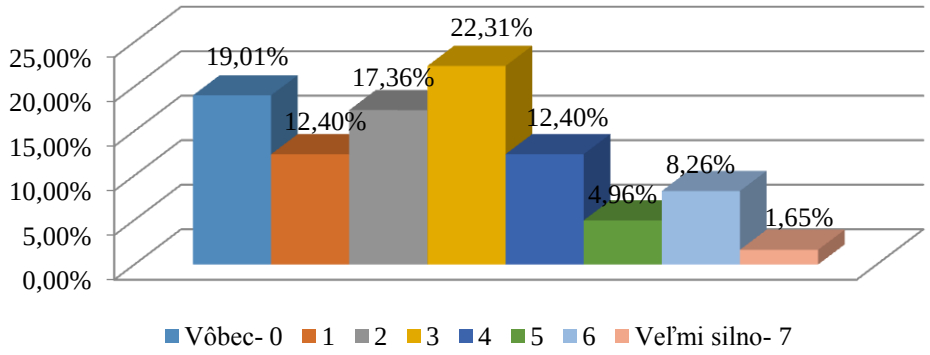
Graf 1: Práca ma citovo vysáva (MBI 1)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Celkovo 14,88% (n=18) respondentov uviedlo, že ich práca vôbec citovo nevysáva. Iba 4,96% (n=6) respondentov uviedlo, že práca ich veľmi silno citovo vysáva. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 1 (19,83%; n=24). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 2,92. Na základe platnosti vzťahu p=0,012 < α=0,05 sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach respondentov na otázku, či ich práca citovo vysáva.



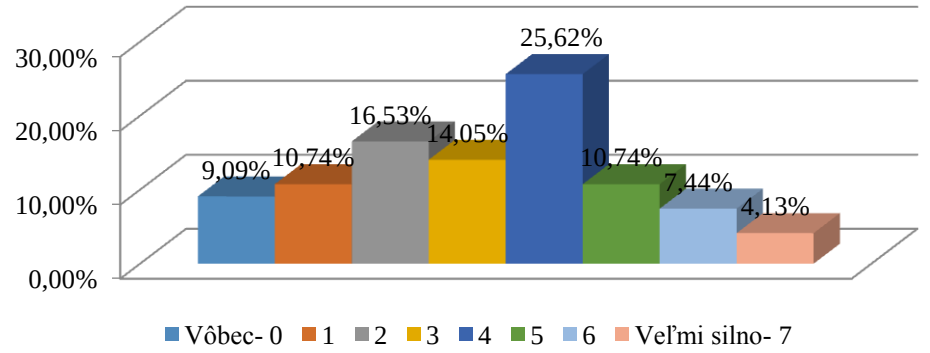
Graf 2: Na konci pracovného dňa sa cítim byť na dne so silami (MBI 2)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

6,61% (n=8) respondentov uviedlo, že sa vôbec na konci pracovného dňa sa cítia byť na dne so silami. 10,74% (n=13) respondentov uviedlo, že sa veľmi silno cítia na konci pracovného dňa ma dne so silami. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 3 (19,83%; n=24). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 3,61.



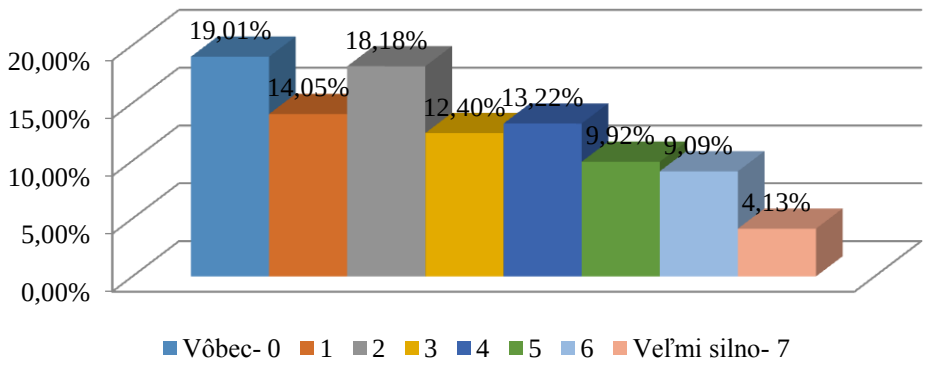
Graf 3: Keď ráno vstávam a pomyslím na pracovné problémy, cítim sa unavený (MBI 3)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Len 19,01% (n=23) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec sa necítia unavení, keď ráno vstávajú a pomyslia na pracovné úlohy. Iba 1,65% (n=2) respondentov uviedlo, že sa veľmi silno cítia unavení ráno, keď vstávajú a pomyslia na prácu. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 3 (22,31%; n=27). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 2,54.



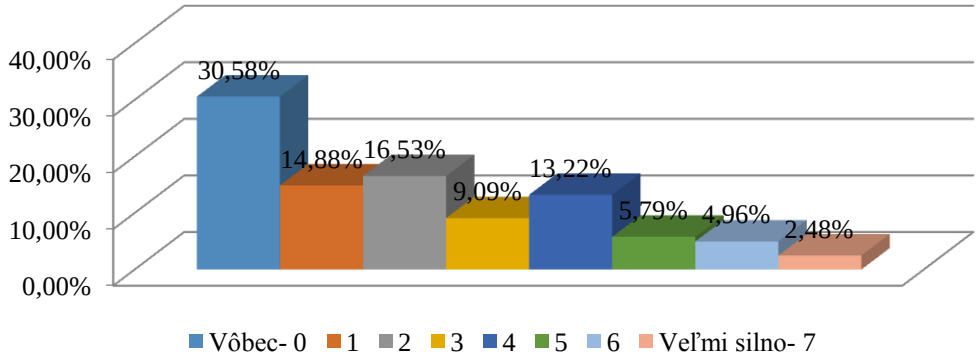
Graf 4: Celodenná práca s ľuďmi je pre mňa skutočne namáhavá (MBI 6)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Celkovo 9,09% (n=11) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec nie je celodenná práca s ľuďmi pre nich skutočne namáhavá. Iba 4,13% (n=5) respondentov uviedlo, že sa veľmi silno cítia, že celodenná práca s ľuďmi je pre nich skutočne namáhavá. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 4 (25,62%; n=31). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 3,21



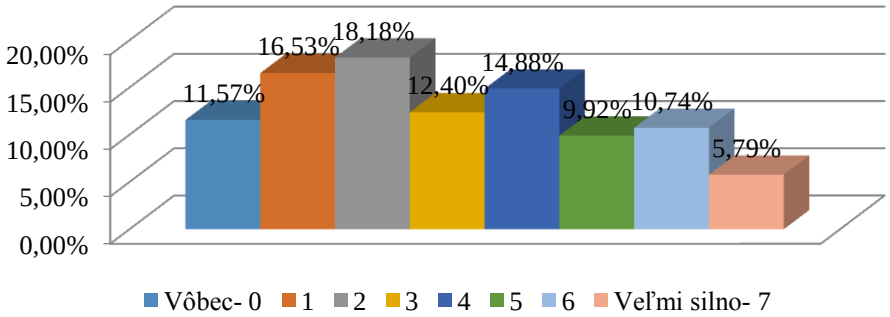
Graf 5: Cítim „vyhorenie“, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce (MBI 8)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

19,01% (n=23) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec necítia vyhorenie, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce. Iba 4,13% (n=5) respondentov uviedlo, že veľmi silno cítia vyhorenie, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 0. V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 2,74.



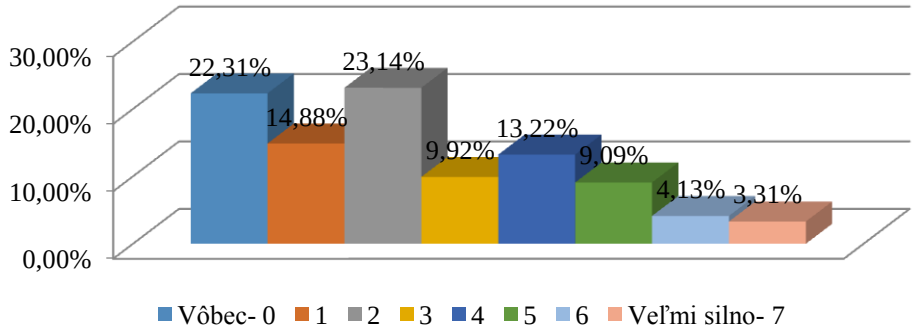
Graf 6: Moja práca mi prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia (MBI13)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

30,58% (n=37) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec nevnímajú, že ich práca im prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia Iba 2,48% (n=3) respondentov uviedlo, že ich práca im veľmi silno prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 0. V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 2,09. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p<0,0001 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach respondentov na otázku, či respondentom práca prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia.



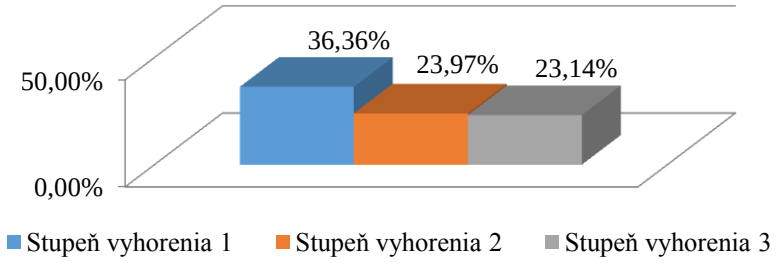
Graf 7 Mám pocit, že plním svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ma to vyčerpáva (MBI 14)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

11,57% (n=14) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec nemajú pocit, že plnia svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva. Iba 5,79% (n=7) respondentov uviedlo, že veľmi silno majú pocit, že plnia svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 2 (18,18%; n=22). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 3,04. Na základe platnosti vzťahu p=0,155 > α=0,05 sa nám nepotvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach respondentov na otázku, či majú pocit, že plnia svoje pracovné úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva.



Graf 8 Mám pocit, že som na konci svojich síl (MBI 20)
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

22,31% (n=27) respondentov uviedlo, že vôbec nemajú pocit, sú na konci svojich síl. Iba 3,31% (n=4) respondentov uviedlo, že veľmi silno majú pocit, že sú na konci svojich síl. Najčastejšie respondenti uviedli hodnotenie 2 (23,14%; n=28). V priemere hodnotili respondenti prácu ako tú, ktorá ich citovo vysáva na úrovni 2,37. Na základe platnosti vzťahu p< 0,0001 < α=0,05 sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach respondentov na otázku, či majú pocit, že sú na konci svojich síl.



Graf 9 Stupeň vyhorenia – Emočné (psychické) vyčerpanie
Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

U 36,36% (n=44) respondentov sa potvrdil stupeň vyhorenia na úrovni 1. U 23,97% (n=29) respondentov sa potvrdil stupeň vyhorenia na úrovni 2 a u 23,14% (n=28) respondentov sa potvrdil stupeň vyhorenia na úrovni 3.

2.4 Diskusia

Zistili sme, že v miere pociťovanej emočnej záťaže sestier nie je štatisticky významný rozdiel (p=0,083 > α=0,05). 36,36% sestier vykazovalo 1 stupeň vyhorenia v kontexte psychického vyčerpania, 63,64% sestier vykazovalo 2. stupeň vyhorenia v kontexte psychického vyčerpania a 3. stupeň vyhorenia v kontexte psychického vyčerpania vykazovalo 23,14% sestier, čo bolo relatívne pozitívnym zistením, pretože sme očakávali, že percentá v rámci 2. a 3. stupňa vyhorenia v rámci psychického vyčerpania budú ukazovať významne vyššie hodnoty. V miere pociťovane psychickej záťaže sestier z hľadiska veku nie je štatisticky

významný rozdiel ($p=0,671 > \alpha=0,05$) z čoho vyplýva fakt, že pociťovanie psychickej záťaže nie je ovplyvňované vekom. Sestry pociťujú istú mieru psychickej záťaže bez rozdielu veku. Zistili sme vplyv dĺžky praxe na mieru výskytu psychického vyčerpania sestier, a to v rámci tretej stanovenej prieskumnej otázky. Zistili sme, že dĺžka praxe nemá vplyv na mieru pociťovanej psychickej záťaže sestier ($p=0,531 > \alpha=0,05$) z čoho vyplýva, že sestry pociťujú určitú mieru psychickej záťaže bez rozdielu celkovej dĺžky praxe. Rovnako to je aj v prípade ak by sme zisťovali vplyv dĺžky praxe na aktuálnom oddelení na mieru pociťovanej psychickej záťaže sestier ($p=0,016 < \alpha=0,05$), neboli zistené žiadne významné rozdiely. Bydlisko nemá vplyv na mieru pociťovanej psychickej záťaže sestier ($p=0,370 > \alpha=0,05$), z čoho vyplýva, že pocit psychickej záťaže sestier nie je ovplyvňovaný z hľadiska bydliska. Sestry pociťujú istú mieru psychickej záťaže bez rozdielu bydliska. Celkovo 14,88% sestier uviedlo, že ich práca vôbec citovo nevysáva, pričom úplne práca citovo vysáva iba 4,96% sestier, čo je relatívne pozitívnym zistením vzhľadom na nízke percento z pohľadu závažnosti pociťovania psychickej záťaže. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p=0,012 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či ich práca citovo vysáva.

Celkovo 6,61% sestier uviedlo, že sa vôbec na konci pracovného dňa necítia byť na dne so svojimi „silami“, pričom opačne sa cíti 10,74% sestier, čo je už o niečo vyššie percento ako to bolo v prípade prvej otázky z dotazníka. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p=0,063 > \alpha=0,05$ sa nám nepotvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či na konci pracovného dňa sa cítia byť na dne so silami.

19,01% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec sa necítia unavené, keď ráno vstávajú a pomyslia na pracovné úlohy, pričom silný pocit únavy v spojitosti s uvedenými myšlienkami má iba 1,65% sestier čo je pozitívnym zistením. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p<0,0001 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či sa cítia unavení, keď ráno vstávajú a pomyslia na pracovné problémy.

9,09% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec nie je celodenná práca s ľuďmi pre nich skutočne namáhavá, avšak 4,13% sestier pociťuje veľmi silnú psychickú záťaž spojenú práve s týmto faktorom. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p=0,00012 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či je pre nich celodenná práca s ľuďmi skutočne namáhavá.

19,01% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec necítia vyhorenie, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce a iba 4,13% sestier uviedlo, že veľmi silno cítia vyhorenie, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce, čo je taktiež pozitívnym zistením. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p=0,025 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či cítia vyhorenie, vyčerpanie zo svojej práce.

30,58% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec nevnímajú, že ich práca im prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia a iba u 2,48% sestier bol zaznamenaný presný opak tohto tvrdenia, čo je tiež pozitívnym zistením. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p<0,0001 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či respondentom práca prináša pocity márnosti, neuspokojenia.

11,57% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec nemajú pocit, že plnia svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva a na druhej strane iba 5,79% sestier uviedlo, že veľmi silno majú pocit, že plnia svoje úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p=0,155 > \alpha=0,05$ sa nám nepotvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach sestier na otázku, či majú pocit, že plnia svoje pracovné úlohy tak usilovne, že ich to vyčerpáva.

Celkovo 22,31% sestier uviedlo, že vôbec nemajú pocit, sú na konci svojich síl. Veľmi silno má pocit, že sú na konci svojich síl iba 3,31% sestier. Na základe platnosti vzťahu $p< 0,0001 < \alpha=0,05$ sa nám potvrdil štatisticky významný rozdiel v odpovediach respondentov na otázku, či majú pocit, že sú na konci svojich síl.

36,36% sestier vykazovalo stupeň vyhorenia spojeného s psychickým vyčerpaním na úrovni 1. 23,97% sestier vykazovalo stupeň vyhorenia na úrovni 2 a 23,14% sestier vykazovalo stupeň vyhorenia spojený s psychickou záťažou na úrovni 3.(14)
Aj napriek tomu, že sa nám nepotvrdili významné rozdiely v miere pociťovania psychickej záťaže vo vzťahu k vyhoreniu a jeho jednotlivých stupňom môžeme uviesť, že sestry pracujúce na detských oddeleniach patria do rizikovej skupiny jedincov, ktorí sú syndrómom vyhorenia spojeného s pociťovaním nadmernej psychickej záťaže ohrození, čo je v súlade s overeným tvrdením Cinovej a kol. (2017). Vo výskumných výsledkoch uvedenej autorky a kolektívu bolo zistené, že práca s detským pacientom je pre sestry náročná, čo spôsobuje psychické zaťaženie. (4)
Bérešová (2010) zisťovala zdravotno-sociálne problémy sestier v Košickom regióne na rôznych úrovniach výkonu tejto profesie, ktoré sú spojené s výskytom syndrómu vyhorenia, teda aj s pociťovaním nadmernej psychickej záťaže, ktorá vedie k vyhoreniu sestier. Za hlavný príznak vyhorenia považovala autorka príznaky spojené s depresiou. Výskumný súbor tvorilo 218 sestier a bol využitý štandardizovaný dotazník Burnou Measure, ktorý je považovaný za validný výskumný nástroj zaznamenávajúci mieru výskytu syndrómu vyhorenia, rovnako ako to je v prípade nami využitého výskumného nástroja Maslach Burnout Inventory. Zaujímavým zistením bolo, že až 42% sestier z výskumného súboru trpelo depresiou rôzneho stupňa, čo je v súlade s našimi výsledkami, že povolanie sestry je spojené s rizikom pociťovania nadmernej psychickej záťaže, ktorá je priamo spojená s depresiou a následne psychickým vyhorením. Uvedené výsledky sú v súlade aj so štúdiou Dimunovej (2008), v ktorej autorka sledovala pôsobenie pracovného prostredia aj v súvislosti s vyhorením. V tejto výskumnej štúdii uviedlo až 47% sestier na prvom mieste ako rizikový faktor pracovného prostredia neuropsychickú záťaž, ktorá bola v našom poňatí pomenovaná ako psychická záťaž vo všeobecnosti. (6)

3. ZÁVER

Psychická záťaž je procesom psychického spracovania a vyrovnania sa s požiadavkami životného a pracovného prostredia. Dlhotrvajúca psychická záťaž môže vyústiť až do poruchy zdravia, ktorými môžu byť niektoré psychosomatické ochorenia a poruchy v oblasti mentálneho zdravia. So psychickou pracovnou záťažou sa spájajú mnohé faktory práce ako preťaženie, nevyťaženie, vysoká náročnosť práce, časový tlak, intenzita práce, monotónnosť, vnútené pracovné tempo, interpersonálne konflikty, riziko ohrozenia zdravia či dlhodobá sociálna izolácia (2).Približne jedna tretina sestier (33,9 %) prežívala emocionálne vyčerpanie, pre ktoré je charakteristická strata chuti k životu a znížená motivácia k činnosti. Rovnako i približne u jednej tretiny sestier (30,6 %) bola zaznamenaná zvýšená depersonalizácia, ktorá sa prejavuje v oblasti vzťahov s druhými ľuďmi a je charakteristická stratou úcty k druhým ľuďom. Najvyššia miera syndrómu vyhorenia bola zaznamenaná vo faktore osobný výkon, kde až 50 % sestier referovalo o vysokom stupni vyhorenia v danej oblasti (12). V závere uvádzame pozitívne zistenie, že „je na mieste, že sa zvýšenou psychickou záťažou na pracovisku zaoberá aj slovenská legislatíva, v ktorej je zakotvené zisťovanie jej úrovne vyplývajúce z Európskej legislatívy v oblasti zdravia. Legislatíva načrtáva stratégiu pre realizáciu manažmentu a kontroly rizika (3).

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DÔLEŽITOSŤ INFORMOVANOSTI BUDÚCICH UČITEĽOV O VÝZNAMNÝCH ATRIBÚTOCH POHYBU U DETÍ S DM 1. TYPU

THE IMPORTANCE OF INFORMATION OF FUTURE TEACHERS ABOUT THE SIGNIFICANT ATTRIBUTES OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN CHILDREN WITH DM TYPE 1

Jana Cinová, Ľubica Derňarová, Tatiana Šantová, Andrea Šuličová, Zuzana Novotná, Zuzana Šimová, Ľudmila Majerníková, Matúš Kozel

Abstrakt

Diabetes mellitus (DM) 1. typu predstavuje v súčasnosti u detí jedno z najčastejšie vyskytujúcich sa chronických ochorení. Fyzická aktivita je veľmi dôležitý aspekt liečby tohto ochorenia. Deti s DM 1. typu sú integrované do výchovno - vzdelávacieho procesu. Z tohto dôvodu je žiaduce, aby učitelia boli efektívne informovaní o významných špecifikách pohybovej aktivity u týchto detí, nakoľko v súčasnosti na školách absentuje pozícia školskej sestry. Autorky v príspevku uvádzajú do pozornosti výsledky prieskumu zameraného na úroveň informovanosti učiteľov o dôležitosti významných atribútoch pohybovej aktivity u detí s DM 1.typu. Konštatujú, že budúci učitelia a učitelia s pedagogickou praxou majú minimálne alebo nesprávne informácie v danej oblasti. Zistený fakt, môže výrazne ovplyvniť vznik vážnych komplikácii, nevynímajúc ani negatívny vplyv na kvalitu života detí.

Kľúčové slová: *chronické ochorenie, DM 1.typu, liečba, dieťa, učiteľ, pohybová aktivita, informovanosť, prieskum*

Abstract

DM type 1 is one of the most common chronic diseases in children present. Physical activity is a very important aspect of treatment of this chronic disease. Children with DM type 1 are integrated into the educational process. Desirable is to be effectively informed about the significant specifics of physical activity in these children for teachers, becouse there is no school nurse at school. The authors point to on the results of a survey focused on the level of informations of teachers about the importance significant attributes of physical activity of children with DM type 1. They state that future teachers and teachers with pedagogical practice have minimal or incorrect informations. This fact can significantly affect the development of serious complications and the quality of children life.

Key words: *chronic disease, DM type 1, treatment, child, teacher physical activity, awareness, research*

1. VÝZNAMNÉ ASPEKTY FYZICKEJ AKTIVITY U DETÍ S DM 1.TYPU

DM 1.typu predstavuje autoimunitné ochorenie, ktoré vzniká v dôsledku autoimunitnej deštrukcie β- buniek pankreasu produkujúcich inzulín. *Príčinou vzniku DM 1.typu u detí* sú školský stres, zvýšená expozícia k infekčným chorobám, rýchly rast či vyšší emocionálny stres. K rizikovým skupinám patria deti diabetikov, najmä ak majú DM 1.typu obaja rodičia, prvostupňoví príbuzní pacienta s DM 1.typu, deti, ktoré prekonali rubeolu alebo iné infekčné ochorenie, pacienti so známym autoimunitným ochorením inej endokrinnej žľazy, orgánu alebo orgánového systému. Podľa Medzinárodnej diabetologickej federácie je u detí vo veku od 0 do 14 rokov z celkovej populácie 1,5 miliardy detí viac ako 490 000 detí trpiacich

chronickým ochorením diabetes mellitus (DM) 1. typu. V roku 2015 bolo na Slovensku evidovaných a liečených s diagnózou DM 1. typu vo veku od 0 do 19 rokov 2 024 detských pacientov. Vo vekovej skupine od 0 do 4 rokov 141 detí, od 5 do 9 rokov 467 detí, od 10 do 14 rokov 676 detí a 740 detí vo vekovej skupine 15 do 19 rokov. Podľa Národného centra zdravotníckych informácií (2016) za posledných 12 mesiacov pribudlo až 80 detských pacientov vo vekovej skupine od 5 do 9 rokov, čo predstavuje najviac diabetikov v tejto vekovej skupine za posledné roky. Komplikácie vyskytujúce sa pri ochorení DM 1.typu môžeme deliť na komplikácie akútneho a chronického charakteru. Medzi významné riziká pohybovej aktivity u detí s DM 1. typu patrí predovšetkým stav hypoglykémie, nakoľko sa pri telesnej námahe spotrebúva glukóza. Pri zvýšenej pohybovej aktivite je možný výskyt aj mikrovaskulárnych komplikácií či stav hyperglykémie. Súčasťou liečby ochorenia DM 1.typu u detí a mladistvých je nevyhnutnosť fyzickej aktivity. Fyzická aktivita musí mať primeraný a pravidelný charakter a ako prostriedok metabolickej kontroly vychádza z metabolickej kompenzácie ochorenia. Obmedzenia a zásady v rámci pohybu nie je vždy jednoduché a bezproblémové zo strany dieťaťa dodržiavať. Dieťa, jeho rodičia, ako aj učitelia v škole musia u chorého dieťa vždy zohľadniť správny výber športu, prispôsobiť tomu energeticky výdaj stravy a inzulínový režim. Dieťa si v plnej miere musí osvojiť zásady triády liečby diéta - inzulín – pohybová aktivita. Vhodná fyzická aktivita u detského pacienta s ochorením DM 1.typu je významná v udržiavaní optimálnej telesnej hmotnosti, zlepšuje kardiorespiračnú vytrvalosť, svalovú silu, lipidový profil, reguluje glukózu a tiež zvyšuje účinok endogénneho a exogénneho inzulínu. Zároveň zabezpečuje prevenciu ďalších chorôb. Tiež zlepšuje psychickú pohodu a sociálne kontakty dieťaťa. Indikovaná je len u kompenzovaných pacientov, u ktorých je riziko rozvoja akútnych metabolických komplikácii minimálne, nakoľko pôsobí aj ako extra dávka inzulínu.

1.1 Vhodné a nevhodné športové aktivity u detí s DM 1.typu

Pri určovaní vhodnej fyzickej aktivity je potrebné rešpektovať štádium ochorenia a vek dieťaťa. O účinnosti fyzickej aktivity rozhoduje jej frekvencia, intenzita a doba trvania. Detskí pacienti s DM 1.typu trpiaci obezitou by mali vykonávať fyzickú aktivitu minimálne 3 - 4 krát za týždeň. U detí s výraznejšou inzulínovou rezistenciou sa odporúča vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu denne. Vhodné pohybové aktivity u detí s DM 1.typu sú dynamická (aeróbna) záťaž, športy zaťažujúce veľké svalové skupiny, akými sú chôdza, turistika, bicyklovanie, jogging, plávanie, lyžovanie, tanec alebo korčuľovanie. Optimálna fyzická aktivita by mala trvať približne 20-30 minút, ak sa vykonáva 4-5 krát týždenne prípadne 45-60 minút, ak sa vykonáva 2-3 krát do týždňa. Naopak za nevhodné športy sa považujú športy s prevažujúcou silovou zložkou, rýchlostné športy, športy spojené so zvýšením vnútrohrudníkového tlaku, športy s nadmerným psychickým stresom. Zároveň je potrebné nepreferovať športy vyžadujúce náhlu zmenu polohy tela, ako aj športy spojené s vyšším rizikom úrazu či vrcholové športy typu lietanie, potápanie, horolezectvo**.** Dôležitý je selfmonitoring pred fyzickou aktivitou, počas a po fyzickej aktivite, aby sa zabránilo hypoglykémii.

1.2 Špecifiká príjmu diabetickej stravy a aplikácie inzulínu v závislosti od pohybu

U detí s DM 1.typu je najčastejšou chybou pri fyzickej aktivite nedostatočné zníženie inzulínu pred cvičením alebo po ňom, ako aj neadekvátne zvýšenie sacharidov pred cvičením alebo pri ľahkom stupni hypoglykémie. Po ukončení aktivity ešte niekoľko hodín pokračuje pokles glykémie. Z tohto dôvodu je potrebné, aby nasledujúca porcia jedla obsahovala viac energie. Hlavne vtedy, ak bola fyzická aktivita vykonaná v popoludňajších hodinách. Dôležitý je selfmonitoring (samostatná kontrola hodnôt glykémie dieťaťom) pred, počas a po fyzickej aktivite v rámci prevencie hypoglykémie, ako aj počas noci. Pri pohybovej aktivite je nutné

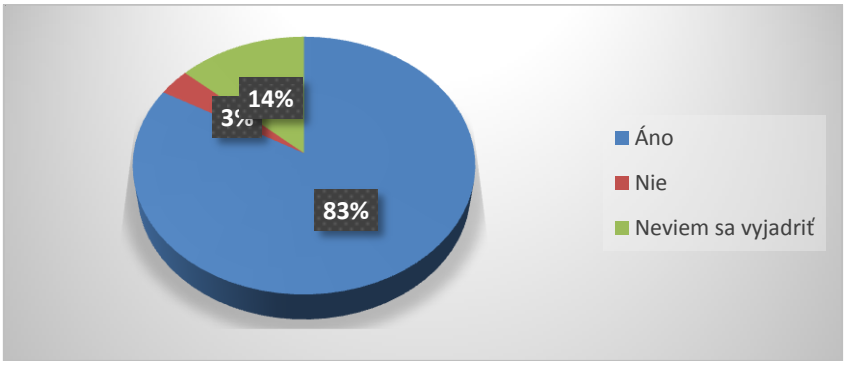
kontrolovať a správne dopĺňať aj príjem jedla. Ak počas športovania nechceme pridávať dieťaťu jedlo je možné znížiť dávku podávaného inzulínu. Pri krátkodobom, málo intenzívnom pohybe postačí ubrať 5-10 % z inzulínovej dávky, ktorá v dobe pohybu pôsobí najviac. Pred stredne intenzívnym pohybom trvajúcim hodinu je potrebné ubrať 20-30 % z príslušnej dávky inzulínu a pri veľmi intenzívnom pohybe trvajúcom dve hodiny alebo viac ubrať 30-50 % z príslušnej dávky inzulínu. Pri športových aktivitách je dôležité rešpektovať aj intenzitu pohybu a dobu trvania. Pri hyperglykémii (hodnota glykémie nad 15- 16 mmol/l) sa neodporúča začínať s telesnou aktivitou. Ak má dieťa normálne hodnoty glykémie (nemala by klesnúť pod 4 mmol/l), môže športovať avšak počas vykonávania športovej aktivity musí mať možnosť zmerať si glykémiu alebo má mať umožnenú prestávku na príjem tekutín a stravy. Ak dieťa avizuje hypoglykémiu (hodnota glykémie pod 4 mmol/l) je potrebné mu umožniť príjem cukru z potravy alebo nápojom. Zvýšená spotreba glukózy pri pohybovej aktivite spôsobuje zníženie glykémie. Pri plánovanej pohybovej aktivite v ranných a dopoludňajších hodinách je potrebné znížiť rannú dávku inzulínu o 20 % až 40 % a je vhodné zvážiť zníženie nočného inzulínu o 20 %. Ak dieťa vykonáva pohybovú aktivitu v popoludňajších a večerných hodinách je potrebné znížiť večernú dávku inzulínu o 25 % až 75 % a v prevencii nočnej hypoglykémie je vhodné znížiť nočnú dávku inzulínu o 10 % až 40 %. Pokiaľ dieťa nemá naplánovanú pohybovú aktivitu je nutné zvýšiť príjem sacharidov v strave a inzulín o 1 až 1,5 j na 10 kg hmotnosti dieťaťa. Pri neplánovanej aeróbnej záťaži je vhodné prijať 15 až 30g pred pohybovou aktivitou a každých 30 až 60 minút opakovať príjem sacharidov v závislosti od druhu pohybovej aktivity. U obéznych detí s DM 1.typu sa odporúča pri plánovanej pohybovej aktivite prijímať sacharidy len pri nízkej hodnote glykémie a to pred začatím pohybovej aktivity. Pri anaeróbnej pohybovej aktivite nie je potrebný príjem sacharidov, pokiaľ sa jedná o intervalovú záťaž s dlhodobým trvaním, tak príjem sacharidov závisí od selfmonitoringu glykémie. Po ukončení fyzickej aktivity je vhodné prijať sacharidy v potrave 20 až 40g. Po 2 až 3 hod. po ukončení fyzickej aktivity je vhodné doplniť ďalších 15 až 30g sacharidov v potrave. Dôležité je, aby dieťa malo vždy k dispozícií potraviny s vysokým glykemickým indexom (hroznový cukor, športové nápoje alebo gély) pri každej fyzickej aktivite. Pri vykonávaní pohybovej aktivity u dieťaťa s DM 1.typu je potrebné, aby dieťa prijímalo aj dostatok tekutín. Vhodné sú minerálky s obsahom sodíka a draslíka, no naopak nevhodné sú energetické a iontové nápoje.

2. ANALÝZA PARCIÁLNYCH VÝSLEDKOV PRIESKUMNÝCH ZISTENÍ

2.1 Cieľ, vzorka respondentov a metodológia prieskumu

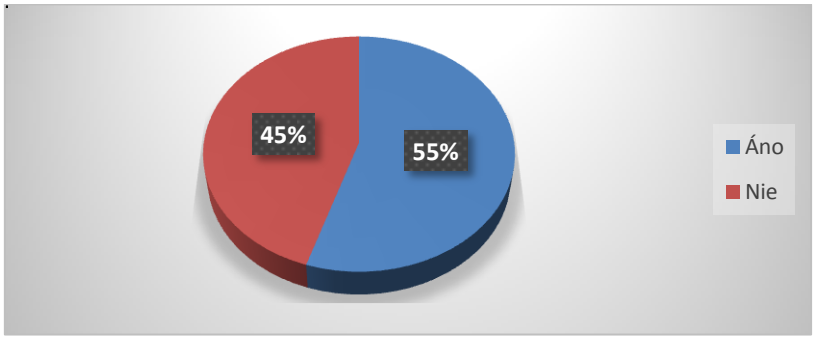
Cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť a analyzovať informovanosť študentov s pedagogickým zameraním a učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou o významných atribútoch pohybovej aktivity u detí s chronickým ochorením DM 1.typu. Reprezentatívna vzorka prieskumu *(kategória 1, kategória 2)* bola zvolená zámerným výberom. *Kategóriu 1* tvorili 120 (100%) vysokoškolskí študenti 3.ročníkov študujúcich program pedagogického zamerania. Ženského pohlavia sa prieskumu zúčastnilo 77 % respondentov a 23 % respondentov tvorili respondenti mužského pohlavia. Veková hranica respondentov predstavovala rozpätie medzi 21 do 28 rokov. *Kategórie 2* sa prieskumu zúčastnili 764 (100%) pedagogickí pracovníci, 91 % žien a 10 %. Respondentov základných škôl bolo 74,2 % (n = 576) a 25,79 % (n = 197) materských škôl. Priemerný vek respondentov bol 44,3 rokov. Ďalším sledovaným parametrom bola dĺžka pedagogickej praxe. Priemerná dĺžka praxe bola 19,96 rokov. Najpočetnejšiu kategóriu 26,83 % (n = 205) tvorili respondenti s praxou od 10 do 20 rokov. Najmenšiu kategóriu 2,36 % (n = 18) tvorili respondenti s dĺžkou praxe viac ako 40 rokov. Údaje boli získavané prostredníctvom neštandardizovaného dotazníka (samostatné verzie neštandardizovaných dotazníkov pre každú kategóriu respondentov).

2.2 Kvantitatívna a kvalitatívna analýza významných prieskumných zistení



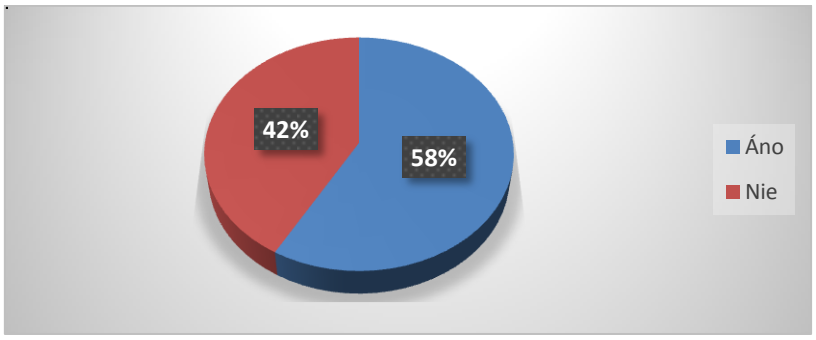
Graf 1: Dôležitosť potreby venovať sa problematike DM 1.typu u žiakov z pohľadu budúcich učiteľov

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že budúci učitelia si uvedomujú význam informovanosti v súvislosti s DM 1.typu, keďže počet žiakov s daným ochorením v školách neustále narastá. Tiež osobnú skúsenosť so žiakom s DM 1.typu počas študentskej pedagogickej praxe uviedlo až 24% respondentov.



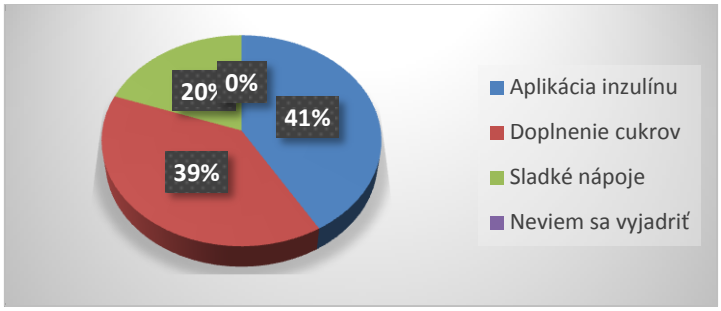
Graf 2: Informovanosť budúcich učiteľov o význame pohybu v súvislosti s liečbou u žiakov s DM 1.typu

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že viacerí budúci učitelia nie sú vôbec informovaní o fakte, že pohyb významne ovplyvňuje zdravotný stav žiaka s DM 1.typu. Vystavujú tým žiaka výskytu závažných komplikácií súvisiacich s neefektívnym manažovaním pohybovej aktivity aj v rámci hodín telesnej výchovy alebo iných školských športových aktivít.



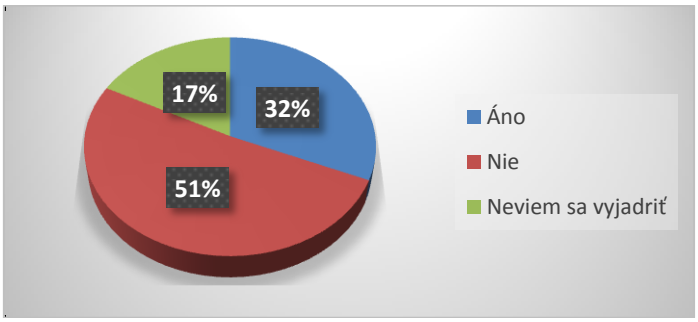
Graf 3: Informovanosť budúcich učiteľov o ovplyvňovaní hodnôt glykémie u žiaka s DM 1.typu pohybovou aktivitou

Z analýzy údajov konštatujeme, že väčšina budúcich učiteľov je informovaná o fakte, že pohybová aktivita ovplyvňuje hodnoty glykémie u žiakov s DM 1.typu. No mnoho ďalších respondentov túto informáciu poskytnutú nemá alebo si neuvedomuje jej dôležitosť. Z tohto zistenia vyplýva negatívny fakt, nakoľko neefektívne manažovaná pohybová aktivita môže ovplyvniť hodnoty glykémie u žiaka a následne vyvolať vznik vážnych komplikácií.



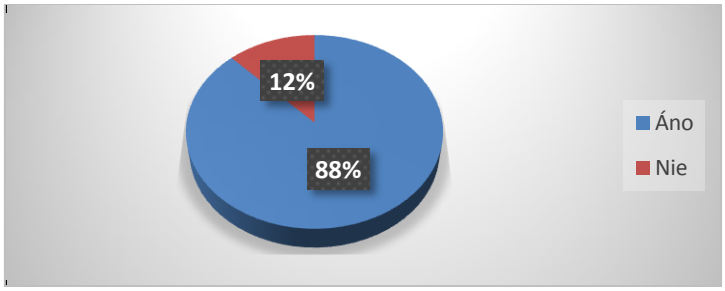
Graf 4: Informovanosť budúcich učiteľov o možnostiach ovplyvňovania hodnôt hypoglykémie u žiakov s DM 1.typu

Na základe analýzy konštatujeme, že väčšina budúcich učiteľov je informovaná o fakte, že prvou pomocou pri hypoglykémií u žiaka s DM 1.typu je podanie cukru. No mnohí respondenti sa domnievajú, že je potrebná aplikácia inzulínu. Uvedené zistenie je závažným nedostatkom, nakoľko jeho aplikácia by predstavovala vážne následky pre dieťa.



Graf 5: Informovanosť budúcich učiteľov o dôležitosti merania glykémie pred hodinami telesnej výchovy u žiaka s DM 1.typu

Z analýzy údajov konštatujeme, že mnohí respondenti nemajú žiadne informácie o tom, že žiak s DM 1.typu si musí pred pohybovou aktivitou merať glykémiu, ktorej hodnoty následne určujú či danú aktivitu môže vykonávať alebo by jej realizácia mohla byť príčinou vzniku komplikácie, resp. žiak si dokáže po nameraní glykémie regulovať následný príjem inzulínu alebo stravy a celkovo prispôsobiť dĺžku jej trvania.



Graf 6: Záujem budúcich učiteľov o informácie týkajúce sa pohybovej aktivity žiakov s DM 1.typu

Z prieskumu môžeme konštatovať, že väčšina respondentov prejavila záujem o informácie týkajúce sa problematiky pohybovej aktivity u detí s DM1.typu.

Tabuľka 1: Kontakt učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou so žiakom s DM 1.typu

počas pedagogickej praxe	početnosť (n)	relatívna početnosť (%)
áno	364	47,64
neviem	22	2,88
nie	378	49,48
spolu:	**764**	**100**

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že 49 % respondentov (n = 378) sa nestretli počas svojej pedagogickej praxe s ochorením DM 1.typu u detí. Naopak 47 % (n = 364) respondentov prišlo počas svojej pedagogickej praxe do kontaktu so žiakom s DM 1.typu.

Tabuľka 2: Hodnotenie vedomosti učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou o problematike DM 1.typu detí

vedomosti o problematike DM u detí	početnosť (n)	kumulatívna početnosť	relatívna (%)	kumulatívna relatívna
výborné	10	10	1,31	1,31
veľmi dobré	31	41	4,06	5,37
dobré	224	265	29,32	34,69
dostatočné	205	470	26,83	61,52
nedostatočné	294	764	38,48	100,00
spolu	**764**		**100,00**	

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme negatívne zistenie, nakoľko najviac respondentov (n = 294) bolo v skupine, ktorí by svoje vedomosti ohodnotili ako nedostatočné, až 38,5%. najmenšiu skupinu (n = 10) tvorili respondenti, ktorí pokladajú svoje vedomosti o ochorení DM 1.typu u dieťaťa za výborné, t.j. 1,3 % všetkých opýtaných.

Tabuľka 3: Obavy učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou učiť žiaka s DM 1.typu

obavy učiť dieťa s DM	početnosť (n)	relatívna početnosť (%)
áno	108	14,14
neviem	214	28,01
nie	442	57,85
spolu:	**764**	**100**

Na základe analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že vzhľadom na vysoký počet respondentov, ktorí sa s ochorením DM 1.typu u dieťaťa stretli počas pedagogickej praxe, je výsledok na túto položku adekvátny. Takmer 60 % (n = 442) respondentov uviedli, že by nemali obavy učiť dieťa s týmto chronickým ochorením.

Tabuľka 4: Informovanosť učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou k oslobodeniu žiaka s DM 1.typu od hodín telesnej výchovy

oslobodenie od telesnej výchovy	početnosť (n)	kumulatívna početnosť	relatívna (%)	kumulatívna relatívna
súhlasím	29	29	3,80	3,80
neviem	255	284	33,38	37,17
nesúhlasím	480	764	62,83	100,00
spolu	**764**		**100**	

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že správne odpovedalo 480 respondentov (62,83 %).

Tabuľka 5: Informovanosť učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou ku kontrole hladiny glykémie u žiaka s DM 1.typu pred hodinou telesnej výchovy

pred telesnou výchovou skontrolovať hladinu glykémie	početnosť (n)	kumulatívna početnosť	relatívna (%)	kumulatívna relatívna
súhlasím	400	400	52,36	52,36
neviem	323	723	42,28	94,63
nesúhlasím	41	764	5,37	100,00
spolu	**764**		**100,00**	

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že správne odpovedalo 400 respondentov (52,36 %).

Tabuľka 6: Informovanosť učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou k vyjadreniu: Ak si dieťa odmeria nízku hladinu glykémie môže cvičiť, ale najprv sa musí najesť

môže dieťa cvičiť s nízkou hladinou glykémie keď sa predtým naje?	početnosť (n)	kumulatívna početnosť	relatívna (%)	kumulatívna relatívna
súhlasím	388	388	50,79	50,79
neviem	326	714	42,67	93,46
nesúhlasím	50	764	6,54	100,00
spolu	**764**		**100**	

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že správne odpovedalo 50 respondentov (6,54 %).

Tabuľka 7: Záujem učiteľov s pedagogickou praxou o získanie základných informácií o ochorení DM 1.typu v detskom veku

záujem o získanie informácii o ochorení DM u detí	početnosť (n)	kumulatívna početnosť	relatívna (%)	kumulatívna relatívna
áno	607	607	79,45	79,45
nie	157	764	20,55	100,00
spolu	**764**		**100,00**	

Z analýzy údajov prieskumu konštatujeme, že najviac 79,45 % respondentov (n = 607) má záujem o získanie informácií o ochorení DM v detskom veku. Naopak, 157 respondentov nemá záujem o tieto informácie.

2. 3 Odporúčania pre prax

Na základe analýzy výsledkov prieskumu navrhujeme odporúčania pre prax určené pre:

- *študentov fakúlt s pedagogickým zameraním:* získavať informácie v oblasti pohybu u detí s DM 1.typu, aktívna účasť na odborných podujatiach zameraných na problematiku ochorenia DM 1.typu u detí, v spolupráci s fakultami lekárskeho aj nelekárskeho zamerania realizovať študentské konferencie v zameraní sa na danú problematiku, publikovať svoje postrehy, postoje, odporúčania k danej problematike vyplývajúce z absolvovania študentskej odbornej pedagogickej praxe;
- *vzdelávacie inštitúcie:* motivovať vysokoškolských študentov k aktívnemu získavaniu nových informácií o problematike pohybovej aktivity u detí s DM 1.typu, realizovať semináre, diskusie s odborníkmi v danej oblasti, vytvoriť pre študentov fakulty športu ponuku nepovinných voliteľných predmetov so zameraním sa na oblasť pohybovej aktivity u detí s DM 1.typu, aktívne reagovať na potreby a podnety študentov zo študentskej pedagogickej odbornej praxe a vyplývajúce efektívne riešenia implementovať do praxe.

3. ZÁVER

Liečba DM 1.typu u detí a mladistvých sa v posledných rokoch významne mení. Dôsledkom je rozvoj nových technológií, ktoré umožňujú zlepšovať flexibilitu liečby, zlepšujú kompenzáciu ochorenia a zároveň zlepšujú kvalitu života chronicky chorého dieťaťa. Ambicióznymi cieľmi liečby DM 1.typu z komplexného hľadiska sú záchrana života detského pacienta, odstránenie klinických príznakov, optimálna metabolická kompenzácia, zníženie akútnych komplikácií, zníženie mikrovaskulárnych a makrovaskulárnych komplikácií, komplexná liečba sprievodných stavov, zlepšenie kvality života, nevynímajúc zníženie mortality. Vhodne manažovaná fyzická aktivita u detí s týmto ochorením aj z pozície učiteľov školských zariadení k stanoveným cieľom liečby význame prispieva.

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ZÁVISLOSŤ MLADÝCH ĽUDÍ OD NAKUPOVANIA

YOUNG PEOPLE´S ADDICTION TO SHOPPING

Ivan Rác

Abstrakt

Cieľom príspevku je mapovať, analyzovať a interpretovať využívané metódy a formy liečby závislosti od nakupovania u mladých ľudí. Autor zaznamenáva prejavy a následky tohto typu závislosti, vymedzuje základné definície súvisiace so sledovanou problematikou. Nosnou časťou príspevku je liečba závislosti od nakupovania vnímaná tak cez teoretickú, ako aj empirickú reflexiu. Autor stručne popisuje dve kazuistiky liečených klientov v špecializovanom zariadení na Prednej hore na Slovensku.

Kľúčové slová: *Oniománia. Chorobné nakupovanie. Novodobá závislosť. Nákupy. Jedinec postihnutý závislosťou od nakupovania.*

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to map, analyze and interpret the methods and forms of drug addiction treatment used by young people. The author records the manifestations and consequences of this type of dependence, defines the basic definitions related to the monitored issue. The main part of the contribution is the treatment of shopping dependence perceived both through theoretical as well as empirical reflection. The author briefly describes two case reports of clients treated in a specialized facility on the place Predná hora in Slovakia.

Key words: *Oniomania. Obsession with shopping. Nowadays addiction. Shopping. A person suffering from addiction to shopping.*

1. DEFINÍCIA POJMOV

New addictions – novodobé závislosti, charakterizuje Baczek (2009, s. 18) ako *„závislosti všetkého druhu, v ktorých chemické látky nehrajú významnú úlohu.“* Mnohé z takýchto závislostí sú priamo prepojené s používaním mobilného telefónu a internetu, s využívaním ich služieb a s prenesením bežných činností do virtuality ako v našom prípade on-line nakupovanie, ale aj iné činnosti ako on-line kasína a on-line stávkovanie (Hupková, 2012). Podobne ako iné formy závislostí, nakupovanie je choroba. No táto na rozdiel od iných druhov závislostí je ešte ťažšia na prekonanie, pretože človek pre svoje prežitie potrebuje nakupovať základné veci ako potraviny a oblečenie (Effects Of Compulsive...,2017). Pri iných podobných druhoch závislosti ako patologické hráčstvo, či alkoholizmus, sa jedinec musí naučiť najlepšie úplne sa vyhýbať herniam a alkoholu, no pri nakupovaní sa jedinec musí naučiť svoju silnú túžbu ovládať a dostať pod kontrolu (Benkovič, 2017). Na oniomániu, patologické alebo nezdržanlivé nakupovanie, závislosť od nakupovania, kompulzívne nakupovanie, shopoholizmus či angl. „shopping addiction“ alebo „compulsive buying disorder“ doposiaľ neexistuje ustálená jednotná terminológia (Hupková, 2012). No charakteristiky viacerých autorov sa zväčša v obsahu zhodujú, aj keď existuje nejednotnosť v názoroch, či sa jedná o závislosť alebo kompulzívne správanie v rámci obsesívnej poruchy (Bernard, 1998 In Benkovič, 2005). Hollander et al. (1996) vo svojej publikácií poukazujú na podobnosti tejto poruchy ako poruchy impulzov s patologickým hráčstvom. Furnham (2014) rovnako tvrdí, že oniománia má spoločný genetický základ s inými poruchami impulzov ako napríklad patologické hráčstvo. Nešpor a Scheansonová (2010) sa vyjadrujú, že základným

podstatným symptómom nezdržanlivého nakupovania, tak ako aj iných závislostí, je zhoršené sebaovládanie, od ktorého sa zároveň odvíjajú iné problémy a poruchy. Kompulzívne nakupovanie je teda porucha, ktorá je charakterizovaná nadmerným nakupovaním a správaním s tým spojeným a vedie k psychickému poškodeniu (Black, 2007). Oniomániu sprevádza neovládateľná túžba ísť nakupovať a v dôsledku toho človek kupuje viac tovaru než potrebuje a než si môže dovoliť (Benson, 2000 In Benkovič, 2009). Človek sa nadmerne zaoberá nakupovaním vecí, ktoré sú zväčša nepotrebné, čo vyúsťuje k zvýšenému pocitu podráždenia, stresu a k sociálnym, rodinným, finančným a vzťahovým problémom. Pre človeka, ktorý trpí oniomániou, je čas venovaný nákupom a myšlienky smerujúce na nakupovanie, na to čo chce alebo to čo si „musí" kúpiť, stredobodom vesmíru. Takýto jedinec je nesmierne pohltený týmito obsahmi a čokoľvek, čo pôsobí proti jeho myšlienkam o nákupoch, predstavuje pre neho pocit nepohody a stresu. Častým vyústením spomínaného správania sú interpersonálne konflikty, pretože jedinec sa vďaka svojej potrebe nakupovať dostáva do rozporov so svojou rodinou, blízkymi a okolím. Ďalej sa pridružujú problémy so zvládaním svojej finančnej situácie prostredníctvom nadobudnutých dlžôb, minutých úspor, minutých finančných prostriedkov, ktoré boli určené na iné dôležitejšie náležitosti a nie na nepotrebnosti, na ktoré ich jedinec minul (Hanzlovský, 2012).

1.1 Prejavy patologického nakupovania

Čo sa epidemiologického výskytu týka, počty postihnutých touto závislosťou v jednotlivých krajinách sú rôzne. Napríklad v nemeckej populácií sa výskyt tohto problému odhaduje na 6,9% u žien a 6,8% u mužov. V štatistikách iných krajín existuje podstatne väčší rozdiel medzi percentom mužov a žien s prevahou prevažne na ženskej strane populácie. Nakupovanie u mužov je prevažne brané skôr ako zberateľstvo, ale v podstate ide o oboch pohlaví o ten istý problém (Mueller et al., 2010). Môžeme to vidieť vo výskume z USA z roku 2007, kde podľa výsledkov touto poruchu trpelo 2% až 8% populácie, z čoho 80% tvorili ženy (Kuchárová, 2015). Taktiež na základe prieskumu univerzity v Oxforde v Británii sú chorobným nakupovaním postihnuté približne 2% populácie, čo predstavuje približne 700-tisíc Britov, ktorí si svoju citovú alebo sexuálnu nespokojnosť kompenzujú nakupovaním (Kernová, 2006). Dokonca tak ako poznáme kluby alkoholikov, vo Francúzsku vznikajú kluby pre chorobných nakupovačov (Kopcsayová, 2010). Presný počet ľudí závislých od nakupovania na Slovensku zatiaľ nie je známy, no podľa odhadov kompetentných ich počet stále narastá (Kuchárová, 2015). No čo poznáme, je počet ľudí, ktorí sa na Slovensku, v jedinom špecializovanom zariadení v Odbornom liečebnom ústave psychiatrickom n. o. na Prednej Hore (ďalej len OLÚP), k roku 2017 liečilo a to približne 11 pacientov a prevažne žien (Benkovič, 2017). Čo sa týka obsahu nakúpeného tovaru, ženy sa zväčša zameriavajú na nákup oblečenia, šperkov, obuvi, doplnkov a kozmetiky. U mužov je predmetom záujmu hlavne elektronika, športové oblečenie a doplnky, tovar týkajúci sa ich koníčkov a pracovné náradie (Kuchárová, 2015). Medzi typické prejavy pri poruchách impulzov a návykov môžeme zaradiť:

- silnú túžbu po zážitkoch nám príjemných a zároveň zaujatosť týmito zážitkami – pri oniománii zaujatosť nakupovaním;
- problémy s kontrolovaním sa pri jednotlivých činnostiach – pri oniománii sa jedná o kontrolu pri nakupovaní, zvyšovanie dĺžky času a frekvencie v nakupovaní;
- preferovanie návykových činností pred inými bežnými činnosťami – napríklad aktivitami, záujmami, povinnosťami, ktoré jedinec zanedbáva;
- pokračovanie v návykových činnostiach aj napriek nepriaznivým dôsledkom, ktoré ohrozujú jedinca – ekonomické (dlžoby), sociálne (problémy v práci, strata priateľov);
- osobnostné (zhoršenie psychického a fyzického zdravotného stavu), rodinné (vzťahové a rodinné) problémy (Hupková, 2012).

Ľudí trpiacich konkrétne oniomániou pred samotným nákupom sprevádzajú pocity zahŕňajúce veľké a neodolateľné napätie s túžbou vlastniť vec, ktorú si vopred vyhliadli. V čase samotného nákupu prebiehajú v tele jedinca silné pocity vzrušenia, šťastia až eufórie, ktoré vzápätí vystriedajú krátkodobé výčitky svedomia, v podobe: *„zasa si neodolala“* či *„veľa si minula“* (McGraw, 2005 In Benkovič 2007). Nešpor a Scheansonová (2010) vo svojom článku spomínané vzrušenie dokonca prirovnávajú k vzrušeniu sexuálnemu. Ako sme spomenuli, tieto výčitky trvajú len krátkodobo, ako taktiež u patologických hráčov. Následne sa proces opakuje odznova, jedinec si opäť vyhliadne nejakú pre neho atraktívnu neodolateľnú vec a hľadá prostriedky na dosiahnutie jej kúpy (McGraw, 2005 In Benkovič, 2007). Podobne sa vyjadruje aj Benson (2000 In Benkovič, 2007), ktorý tvrdí *„že takýto jedinci zväčša nakúpený tovar nepotrebujú a vo veľa prípadoch ani nepoužívajú a skladujú ho na rôznych miestach ako nepotrebný. No aj napriek tomu, že si povedali „dosť“, opäť sa začnú točiť v bludnom kruhu pôžičiek, dlžôb a deficitov“*. Ukojenú potrebu nakupovať takýto jedinci identifikujú ako „liek“ na ich hnev, samotu, opustenosť a smútok. Nešpor a Scheansonová (2010) sa vyjadrujú, že chorobní nakupovači sa dokonca snažia nakúpený tovar a jeho cenu pred blízkymi a rodinou utajiť, aby sa tak vyhli ich negatívnym reakciám a pocitom. Chorobné nakupovanie môže mať kontinuálny alebo epizodický priebeh. V súvislosti s epizodickým priebehom sa Nešpor zmieňuje, že toto ochorenie sa zhoršuje hlavne v období Vianoc, s čím sú spojené veľké výpredaje, ktoré lákajú zákazníkov ešte viac do obchodov ako obvykle. Kúpiť si niečo a vlastniť to, je pre človeka trpiaceho oniomániou spôsobom, ako znovu objaviť seba samého, kompenzovať chyby, regulovať emócie. Môže to dokonca nahradiť pocit prázdnoty, či dokonca vzťah (Furnham, 2014).

1.2 Dôsledky prameniace zo závislosti od nakupovania

Tak ako každá iná závislosť, tak aj oniománia po vstupe do života jedinca zanechá mnoho problémov (Szkanderová, 2017). Pre najlepšie identifikovanie typického správania jedincov postihnutých touto impulzívnou poruchou, je dobré poznať všetky dôsledky, ktoré má ochorenie na jedinca a jeho rodinu. Dôsledky kompulzívneho nakupovania sa väčšinou týkajú osobných vzťahov a finančnej situácie závislého. Tieto dôsledky nemusia byť fyzicky zrejmé ako napríklad pri drogovo závislých jedincoch, ale ich dopady sú rovnako závažné (Effects of shopping addiction, 2018). Medzi najhlavnejšie dôsledky oniománie zahŕňame:

a) *ekonomické dôsledky*: jedinec je pohltený dlžobami, pôžičkami od rodiny, známych a iných organizácií a pociťuje veľký finančný deficit (Benkovič, 2009). Človek trpiaci oniomániou míňa finančné prostriedky bez uváženia. Jeho túžba vyhliadnutú vec vlastniť je silnejšia ako skutočnosť, či si ju môže vôbec dovoliť. Život človeka trpiaceho patologickým nakupovaním sa dostáva do veľkých finančných problémov a ocitá sa v začarovanom kruhu pôžičiek, z ktorého sa bez odbornej pomoci ťažko dostať (Szkanderová, 2017). Rozsah finančných škôd v rodine sa často objavuje až potom, ako sa u jedinca nahromadili veľké dlžoby, ktoré si vyžiadali drastickú zmenu v jeho životnom štýle.
b) *rodinné alebo sociálne dôsledky*: nárazové nákupy a tým pádom aj výdavky, môžu mať za následok interpersonálne, pracovné a rodinné problémy v živote človeka (Effects of shopping addiction, 2018). U jedinca nastávajú rozsiahle problémy v rodinnom spolužití a vo vzťahoch z dôvodu klamstiev o pôžičkách, o minutých finančných prostriedkoch, uskutočnených nákupoch a pod. (Benkovič, 2009). Osoby postihnuté kompulzívnym nakupovaním svoj osobný čas plne venujú nákupu a tým pádom menej času venujú dôležitým ľuďom v ich živote. Silné pocity úzkosti a depresie, ktoré jedinec prežíva, môžu narušiť aj ich výkon v práci či v škole (Effects of shopping addiction, 2018).

c) *osobnostné alebo psychologické dôsledky*: psychické problémy u jedinca postihnutého oniomániou predstavujú prehlbovanie depresií v dôsledku vzniknutých problémov, úzkosť, žiaľ, zhoršený psychický stav, uzatváranie sa do seba (Benkovič, 2009). Jedincov taktiež sprevádzajú časté výkyvy nálad a stupňujúce sa emočné problémy (Szkanderová, 2017). Samotný priebeh nákupu predstavuje pre jedinca intenzívny pocit šťastia a potešenia. Následné výčitky a pocity viny vedú opäť jedinca k nákupu, aby znovu dosiahol krátky pocit šťastia. Výskumy ukázali, že mnohí chorobní nakupovači trpia okrem porúch nálad, ktoré sme už spomínali, taktiež aj zneužívaním návykových látok či poruchami príjmu potravy. Rovnako ako aj u všetkých závislostí, človek sa vlastne stáva závislým od správania, ktoré mu pomáha eliminovať negatívne pocity (Effects of shopping addiction, 2018).

2. LIEČBA PATOLOGICKÉHO NAKUPOVANIA V TEÓRII A PRAXI

Jedinec postihnutý ktoroukoľvek nelátkovou závislosťou sa musí najprv so svojím problémom stotožniť, pochopiť zázemie svojho konania a následne sa učiť krok po kroku žiť správnym spôsobom. Aby sa jedinec zbavil závislosti, musí sa prepracovať nasledujúcimi bodmi. Mal by identifikovať spúšťače chorobného nakupovania a vyhýbať sa im, identifikovať chorobné správanie a nepriaznivé dôsledky. Postihnutý by sa mal zamerať na zmenu kritickosti a postojov k svojej závislosti. Ďalej je dôležité, aby jedinec zapracoval na zmene svojich životných cieľov, zvládaní baženia alebo silnej túžbe po nákupe a zmene hodnotového rebríčka. Jedinec by mal mať stanovený denný režim zdravého životného štýlu (práca, voľný čas, rodina, záujmy), mal by si v spolupráci s odborníkmi a rodinou vytvoriť plán splácania dlhov a naučiť sa exitovať v mesačnom, týždennom a dennom rozpočte. Jedinec by mal mať pri sebe osobu, ktorá bude kontrolovať a dozerať na jeho denný režim a bežné aktivity ako používanie mobilného telefónu, internetu a nakupovania, ktoré sú pre život potrebné, no je dôležité dostať ich pod kontrolu (Benkovič, 2015). Na rozdiel od závislostí s látkovým charakterom, liečba oniománie sa nezačína lekársky kontrolovaným detoxifikačným obdobím, ale zvyčajne sa začína obdobím zmeny správania sa jedinca pomocou jednej alebo druhej formy liečenia (Shopping Addiction Treatment..., 2018). Ďalší zahraniční autori zhodne tvrdia, že podstata detoxu v liečbe závislostí je rovnaká, avšak u chorobného nakupovania detox predstavuje vyhýbanie sa alebo obmedzovanie návštev prostredí bohatých na podnety (napr. nákupné centrá). Po detoxe nasleduje oslobodenie myslenia od psychologických základov ochorenia. Edukácia je ďalším významným krokom v procese liečby, keď sa jedinec učí mechanizmy a techniky na zvládanie nepriaznivých dôsledkov. Pre efektívnu liečbu je pre postihnutých jedincov najlepším riešením pobyt v rezidenčných či lôžkových zariadeniach, kde sú neustále pod dohľadom terapeuta a zároveň je jedincom odňatý prístup k nakupovaniu (Why Should I Get...,2018). Liečebné metódy používané pri liečbe oniománie sa vo všeobecnosti rozdeľujú na dve základné skupiny a to farmakologickú liečbu a psychoterapeutickú liečbu. Farmakologická liečba preferuje použitie antidepresív či stabilizátorov nálad a psychoterapeutická liečba v sebe zahŕňa individuálnu, párovú a skupinovú psychoterapiu. Využívané je tiež právne poradenstvo na riešenie závažných finančných deficitov patologického nakupovania. Najúčinnejšou metódou psychoterapie na Slovensku aj v zahraničí *je kognitívno – behaviorálna* psychoterapia, ktorá je zameraná na zmenu myslenia a správania. Najdôležitejším cieľom pri efektívnej liečbe patologického nakupovania je naučiť postihnutých jedincov v ich bežnom živote kontrolovane nakupovať. Ďalším podstatným atribútom pri liečbe je kontrola nebezpečných spúšťačov a finančná kontrola pri splácaní svojich dlhov voči veriteľom. Zmeny musia nastať taktiež v náplni voľného času jedinca a v zmene hodnotového rebríčka. Pre efektívne vyliečenie dôležitú úlohu zohráva aj rodina a priatelia, ktorých blízkosť a psychická podpora je pre jedinca veľmi podstatná (Benkovič, 2017a). Keď jedinec absolvuje celý proces liečby a vráti sa do

domáceho prostredia, môže sa po nejakom čase opäť zúčastniť na liečbe, ktorá je už iba doplnková a nazýva sa doliečovanie a slúži na prevenciu recidívy (Vasilescu, 2012).

2.1 Metódy liečby patologického nakupovania

Farmakoterapia – teda liečba farmakami, sa používa, keď sa chorobne nakupujúci jedinci ocitajú v mínusových náladách ako depresie, úzkosti a pod. Cieľom farmakoterapie je odpútanie mysle od chorobného nakupovania, zabránenie relapsu a zmiernenie akýchkoľvek komorbidných psychiatrických stavov, okrem porúch nálady a úzkostných stavov aj porúch príjmu potravy, porúch súvisiacich s návykovými látkami alebo iných porúch kontroly impulzov (Koran, Aboujaoude, 2014). Medzi najčastejšie používané liečivá patria antidepresíva ako napr. citalopram a potom profilaktiká, ktoré slúžia na stabilizáciu nálady a teda mali by stabilizovať náladu jedinca namiesto toho, aby si jedinec náladu vylepšoval nákupom (Benkovič, 2017). Najčastejšie používané anatidepresíva, využívané aj pri liečbe chorobného nakupovania, patria do skupiny SSRI – inhibítory spätného vychytávania serotonínu (angl. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors), Môžeme ich definovať ako najčastejšie predpisované antidepresíva, ktoré môžu uľahčiť príznaky strednej až ťažkej depresie, sú relatívne bezpečné a spôsobujú menej vedľajších účinkov ako iné typy antidepresív (Selective serotonin reuptake..., 2016). Zahraniční autori ako ďalšie účinné antidepresívum spolu s citalopramom uvádzajú aj fluvoxamín. Na základe uskutočneného výskumu sa ukázalo, že 9 z 10 participantov, ktorým bol podávaný fluvoxamín uviedlo, že boli menej zaujatí nákupom a tým pádom aj strávili menej času nakupovaním a ušetrili finančné prostriedky (Black, Monahan, Gabel, 1997). Ďalší zahraniční autori Grant (2003) a Kim (1998) (In Black, 2007) tvrdia, že priaznivý účinok na stabilizovanie nálady má aj naltrexon, čo znamená, že tieto liečivá, nazývané autormi ako „protivníci opiátov“, môžu zohrávať dôležitú úlohu pri liečbe chorobného nakupovania. Autori Koran a Aboujaoude (2014) okrem spomínaných antidepresív, hovoria taktiež aj o využití escitalopramu ako ďalšieho účinného antidepresíva pri liečbe. Black (2007) vo svojej štúdií vraví, že štúdie farmakologickej liečby poskytujú málo usmernení a rád a pacienti trpiaci chorobným nakupovaním by mali byť informovaní, že sa nemôžu spoliehať iba na lieky. Podľa Blacka je dôležité, aby pacienti dodržali nasledujúce 4 body: najdôležitejšie je priznať si, že majú poruchu chorobného nakupovania; nemali by mať k dispozícií kreditné karty, pretože sú jednoduchými zdrojmi finančných prostriedkov, ktoré poháňajú ochorenie; jedinci by mali nakupovať s rodinou alebo s priateľmi, pretože blízkosť osoby bez tejto poruchy môže obmedziť tendenciu prekročenia stanovených limitov; jedinec by si mal nájsť spôsob ako efektívne tráviť voľný čas inak ako nakupovaním.

Psychoterapia - Kognitívne-behaviorálna terapia (ďalej len KBT) – KBT sa liečia psychologické poruchy ako úzkostné poruchy, fóbie, schizofrénia, depresie, sexuálne dysfunkcie, poruchy príjmu potravy, poruchy osobnosti, chronické somatické ochorenia, manželské a rodinné problémy, mentálna retardácia a závislosti látkového a nelátkového typu, do ktorých patrí aj chorobné nakupovanie. KBT je v súčasnosti jedným z najrozšírenejších psychoterapeutických smerov na Slovensku, ale i v zahraničí. Obdobie vzniku sa datuje do druhej polovice 20. storočia a vznikla prepojením kognitívnej a behaviorálnej terapie, no vo svojej teórií a praxi integruje aj znalosti z iných príbuzných vedných disciplín a psychoterapeutických smerov. Vďaka efektívnosti a praktickej využiteľnosti sa stala KBT jedným z popredných a najdynamickejšie sa rozvíjajúcich psychoterapeutických smerov súčasnej doby (Inštitút KBT, 2009). Zakladateľom kognitívnej terapie bol Aaron Beck, ktorého cieľom skúmania bola depresia (Krížová, 2012). Kognitívna terapia sa týka postojov, prianí, myšlienok, nápadov a predstáv (Vilímovský, 2014). Stavia na predpoklade, že ľudské myslenie, správanie a emócie sú založené na myšlienkových pochodoch (Krížová, 2012).

Táto terapia je založená na systéme, že určité spôsoby myslenia môžu naštartovať určité psychické ťažkosti ako depresie a úzkosť a taktiež aj fyzické ťažkosti (Vilímovský, 2014). Križová (2012) vo svojom článku pomenúva tieto myšlienkové pochody ako negatívne či iracionálne. Cieľom terapie je porozumieť nepríjemným, nesprávnym myšlienkovým pochodom, ktoré spôsobujú zdravotné ťažkosti alebo ich zhoršujú a zmeniť spôsob myslenia tak, aby sa jedinec týmto myšlienkam vyhýbal (Vilímovský, 2014). Teda pomôcť jedincovi vyrovnať sa s jeho problémovou situáciou a poskytnúť mu alternatívny spôsob myslenia (Križová, 2012). Touto terapiou získava jedinec nadhľad nad svoju situáciu (Vilímovský, 2014).
Behaviorálna terapia je zastrešujúcim termínom pre typy liečby, ktoré liečia duševné poruchy. Ako anglický názov „Behavioral therapy" naznačuje, táto terapia sa zaoberá ľudským správaním a snaží sa odstrániť nechcené alebo maladaptívne, čiže sociálne nežiadúce správanie (Behavioural therapy, 2018). Spomínaná terapia pomáha jedincovi pri zmene potenciálne sebazničujúceho alebo nezdravého správania. Pracuje s myšlienkou, že všetko správanie sa dá naučiť a nezdravé správanie sa dá zmeniť (Behavioral therapy, 2005). Dôležitou črtou behaviorálnej terapie je jej zameranie na aktuálne problémy a aktuálne správanie jedinca, ktoré ho obťažuje (McLeod, 2010) Avšak minulosť je tiež dôležitým fenoménom, pretože terapeutovi odhaľuje kedy, ako a kde sa jedinec nežiaduce správanie naučil (Behavioural therapy, 2018). Vilímovský (2014) v súvislosti s touto terapiou zase hovorí o takzvaných návykoch, ktoré sú pre pacienta obťažujúce a súvisia s jeho ochorením, ako pri oniománii časté návštevy nákupných centier či prezeranie e-shoppov.
Kognitívna a behaviorálna terapia sa teda používajú súčasne, pretože naše správanie často odzrkadľuje to, ako v rôznych situáciách premýšľame (Vilímovský, 2014). KBT skúma naučené správanie, návyky a negatívne myšlienkové vzorce s cieľom zmeniť ich na pozitívne (Cognitive behavioural therapy, 2018).

3. LIEČBA CHOROBNÉHO NAKUPOVANIA V PRAXI

V tejto kapitole sa zameriame na dve kazuistiky muža a ženy, ktorí boli závislí od chorobného nakupovania. V kazuistikách popíšeme základné anamnestické údaje a stručný popis liečby oboch jedincov. Obe kazuistiky sú z prostredia OLÚP, n. o. Prednej Hory, kde boli spomínaní jedinci liečení. O prvej kazuistike sme sa dozvedeli od MUDr. Jozefa Benkoviča, ktorý nám o nej rozprával v priebehu osobného rozhovoru v rámci jedného realizovaného výskumu z roku 2017.

Klient závislý od nakupovania rybárskych potrieb

Prvá kazuistika, ktorej sme venovali pozornosť, je kazuistika muža, ktorý sa na OLÚP, n. o. Predná Hora liečil z drogovej závislosti na mäkkých aj tvrdých drogách. Pacient absolvoval v plnom rozsahu protitoxikomanickú ústavnú liečbu. Po 3 týždňoch liečenia v zariadení sa pri prednáške o nelátkových závislostiach priznal terapeutovi, že jeho veľkým problémom je aj chorobné nakupovanie rybárskych potrieb, čo bol jeho koníček ešte z detstva. Pacient, v snahe odpútať sa od drogovej závislosti a nájsť zmysluplnejšie naplnenie voľného času, nevedome zamenil drogovú závislosť za nelátkovú závislosť – oniomániu. Pacient a tak isto aj rodina a blízki, boli z počiatku pacientovým konaním nadšení, keďže svoju neresť sa mu podarilo nahradiť zdravým zmysluplným koníčkom. No táto, na prvý pohľad nevinná záľuba začala naberať rýchly spád, keď si pacient v priebehu dvoch rokov kúpil niekoľko druhov rybárskych udíc, množstvo rybárskeho oblečenia, návnad, literatúry, pomôcok a celkovo veľké množstvo rybárskych potrieb všetkého druhu. Na rybárske pomôcky pacient minul v priebehu dvoch rokov približne kedysi 300 000 (10 tisíc eur) slovenských korún. Týmto sa u neho rozšíril aj záujem o značkové oblečenie, ktorého si tiež postupom času kupoval prebytok. U pacienta sa začali prejavovať príznaky chorobného nakupovača, kúpené veci ho

po čase omrzeli, tak ich skladoval ako nepotrebné alebo ich podaroval priateľom. Postupne sa pacient začal utápať v dlhoch a pôžičkách.

Spúšťače: Vonkajšie spúšťače predstavovali pre pacienta reklamy, letáky, rybárske časopisy, doplnky a technika. Vnútorné spúšťače boli voľné finančné prostriedky, keďže pacient mal na tú dobu dosť slušnú výplatu, ktorá mu chodila každý mesiac a nízke náklady. Pacient veľa času trávil s kamarátmi rybármi, s ktorými viedli dlhé rozhovory o ich záľube.
Pocity sprevádzajúce nákupy: Pacient prežíval počas nákupu silné pocity napätia, veľké vzrušenie až eufóriu. Po nákupe ho sprevádzali výčitky. Veľkým problémom bolo jeho silné emočné prežívanie, keď uviedol, že samotná rybačka mu neprináša takú radosť ako nakupovanie pomôcok k nej.
Liečba: Pacient bol zaradený do skupinovej psychoterapie nelátkových závislostí, kde bol edukovaný o charaktere svojej závislosti s analyzovaním najčastejších spúšťačov chorobného nakupovania a hľadaním spôsobu ich zabezpečenia. Terapeut, v spolupráci s pacientom, zostavil ciele liečby s hlavným cieľom naučiť sa kontrolovane nakupovať pre bežný život a postupne splácať dlhy. Ďalším cieľom bolo nadobudnúť zručnosť pri zvládaní stresu a pri riešení problémov. Pacient na sedeniach pracoval na zvládaní cravingu, na svojom hodnotovom rebríčku, zostavil si nový plán životného štýlu a denného režimu a snažil sa nájsť novú nerizikovú záujmovú činnosť. Dôležitým bodom pri terapii oniománie je plán splácania dlhov, ktorý si spolu s terapeutom stanovil a nemenej dôležitý bol tiež plán doliečovacích aktivít. Pacient bol v rámci terapie podrobený najzákladnejším nákupom, v podobe kontroly tovaru a preukázania bločkov. Edukácii sa podrobili taktiež aj pacientovi blízki, ktorí absolvovali krátku jednodňovú rodinnú terapiu, kde ich terapeuti oboznámili s problematikou drogovej závislosti a chorobného nakupovania a zainteresovali ich do kontroly pacientových spúšťačov a financií (Benkovič, 2009).

Klientka závislá od chorobného nakupovania kozmetiky
Spomínaná klienta bola slobodná, 45-ročná, vysokoškolsky vzdelaná a do liečebne sa dostala v dôsledku diagnózy alkoholizmu a trojmesačnú ústavnú protialkoholickú liečbu. Po dodatočnom lekárskom vyšetrení bola stanovená aj ďalšia diagnóza a to oniománia – závislosť od nakupovania. Klientka sa veľmi zaujímala o kozmetiku, ktorá sa stala aj spúšťačom jej druhej závislosti. Žena v prehnaných množstvách nakupovala kozmetiku rôzneho druhu a neskôr sa k tomu pridružili aj prehnané nákupy kabeliek a oblečenia. Pacientka na nákupy míňala značnú časť svojich výplat, neskôr siahla aj na úspory zo svojej vkladnej knižky a dokonca aj na úspory z vkladnej knižky svojej matky. Po dvoch rokoch sa pacientka začala finančne zadlžovať, nedokázala splácať byt a brala si pôžičky od rôznych nebankových subjektov. Jej dlhy siahali do výšky, ktorá presahovala 8 000 Eur. Vážne ekonomické a rodinné dôsledky prinútili pacientku vyhľadať odbornú starostlivosť v OLÚP, n. o. Predná Hora. Pacientka začala svoje problémy riešiť aj alkoholom.

Spúšťače: Hlavným vonkajším spúšťačom závislosti bolo rizikové zamestnanie, keďže pracovala ako dílerka AVONu, kde mala bezprostredný prístup ku katalógom, aktuálnej ponuke a samotným kozmetickým výrobkom. V tomto období sa u pacientky prejavili prvé znaky závislosti. Vnútorné spúšťače, ktoré sme u pacientky identifikovali, boli podobne ako v prvom prípade, voľné finančné prostriedky, hlavne v období výplat, kedy sa pacientka najviac zaoberala nákupmi. Ďalej to boli pocity osamelosti a depresie.
Pocity sprevádzajúce nákupy: Pred samotným nákupom prežívala silnú nervozitu a napätie a pri platení pri pokladni vzrušenie až eufóriu, čo sa ešte stupňovalo, keď si pacientka tovar prezerala doma. Nakoniec prišli na rad výčitky a kúpené veci ďalej skladovala v skrini ako nepotrebné.

Liečba: Pacientka bola zaradená do ústavnej režimovej liečby závislostí – alkoholizmu a zároveň aj ústavnej režimovej liečby nelátkových závislostí medzi patologických hráčov s absolvovaním skupinovej kognitívno-behaviorálnej psychoterapie. Pacientka bola edukovaná o charaktere svojho ochorenia. Pacientka sa za pomoci terapeutov učila zvládať stresové situácie, riešiť problémy, stanovili si plán splácania dlhov a finančný rozpočet a učila sa zdravému životnému štýlu. Nacvičovala relaxačné techniky týkajúce sa cravingu a zvládania stresu. V súvislosti s asertivitou nacvičovala komunikáciu s rodinou. Dôležitá bola analýza spúšťačov a ich zabezpečenie, príprava na krízy v abstinencii a aktívna spolupráca s rodinou. Najdôležitejším cieľom, podobne ako v prvom prípade, bolo dosiahnutie pacientky fungovať v bežnom živote a naučiť sa kontrolovane nakupovať veci nevyhnutné k zdravému fungovaniu. Pacientka bola vystavená nakupovaniu pod kontrolou terapeuta s kontrolovaním nákupu a bločkov. Pacientka bola podrobená aj farmakoterapii farmakami zo skupiny SSRI, čím sa u pacientky stabilizovali pocity depresie, impulzivity a kompulzie k chorobnému nakupovaniu (Benkovič, 2007).

4. ZÁVER

Primárnym cieľom predkladaného príspevku bolo identifikovať liečebné metódy oniománie, ako aj zistiť, ktorá z existujúcich metód je najúčinnejšia. Pozornosť sme venovali rovnako tak základným aspektom závislosti od nakupovania a to spúšťačom, prejavom a jej dôsledkom. Teoretické východiská pojednávajú o vzniku a vývoji oniománie, o jej nebezpečných spúšťačoch týkajúcich sa externých a interných činiteľov, charakteristickým znakom, ktorými sa oniománia prejavuje či dôsledkom zo závislosti prameniacich. Čerpali sme najmä zo zdrojov domácej i zahraničnej proveniencie, opierali sa o výstupu snáď jediného odborníka na tento typ závislosti Mudr. Benkoviča.

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MOŽNÉ DETERMINANTY TERORISMU

POSSIBLE DETERMINANTS OF TERRORISM

Jan Břeň, Tomáš Zeman, Rudolf Urban

Abstrakt

Článek pojednává o potencionálních klíčových faktorech vytvářejících předpoklady pro vznik teroristických hrozeb ve světě. Poskytuje základní přehled konkrétních oblastí života a individuálních aspektů člověka, které mohou vést k možným teroristickým aktivitám v budoucnosti. Rešeršní přehled o současném stavu poukazuje na významný vliv specifických bezpečnostních, sociálních, demografických, politických a ekonomických faktorů, které stimulují člověka k připojení se k teroristickým ideám a aktivitám dané organizace.

Klíčová slova: *analýza, bezpečnostní hrozba, faktory, individuální aspekt, motivace, příčiny, terorismus*

Abstract

The article discusses potential key factors that create preconditions for terrorist threats in the world. It provides a basic overview of specific areas of life and individual aspects of a person that can lead to possible future terrorist activities. An overview of the current state of affairs points to the significant impact of specific security, social, demographic, political and economic factors that stimulate people to connect with terrorist ideas and activities of the organization.

Key words: *analysis, security threat, factors, individual aspects, motivation, causes, terrorism*

1 ÚVOD

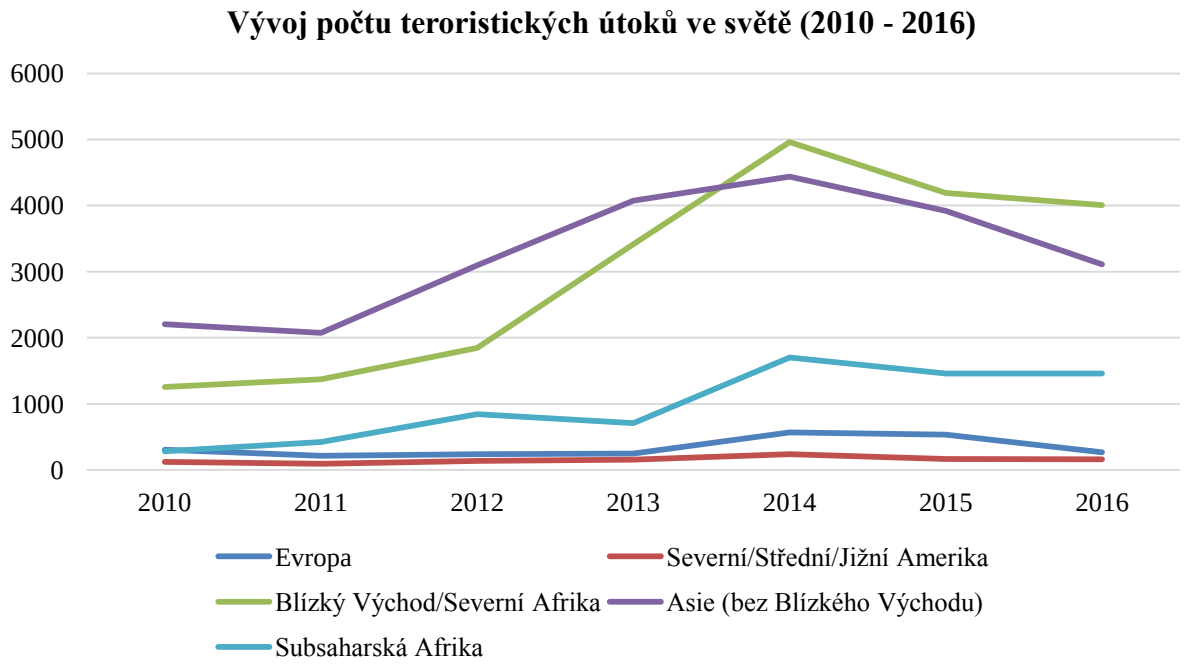
Terorismus představuje vážný problém současného bezpečnostního prostřední a je fenoménem, který může zásadním způsobem otřást společenskou stabilitou. Terorismus se stává od druhé poloviny 20. století novou formou vedení válek, respektive aktéři teroristických činů jsou dalšími aktivními účastníky různých forem ozbrojeného násilí. Terorismus aplikuje prvky nesouměrného boje proti silnějšímu nepříteli a tyto principy nabývají na významu a účinnosti v novodobé historii lidstva.

Hrozba terorismu jako metody násilného prosazování konkrétních cílů je trvale vysoká. Charakteristickým rysem je existence nadnárodních teroristických sítí volně propojených skupin nebo i jednotlivců (tzv. osamělých vlků), které i bez jednotného velení sdílejí ideologii, cíle a plány k jejich naplnění, potřebné zdroje a informace. Jsou schopny přímo ohrozit lidské životy, zdraví a životní prostředí, ale také kritickou infrastrukturu. [1-3]

Nedílnou součástí problematiky terorismu jsou nejen následky a důsledky spáchaných teroristických činů, které vedou k následným bezpečnostním opatřením, ale taktéž příčiny teroristických aktivit, které determinují důvody, proč jsou lidé k těmto aktivitám motivovaní.

Údaje ze světové databáze teroristických útoků GTD (Global Terrorism Database) [4] ukazují, že počet teroristických útoků v posledních letech značně vzrostl. Jejich kvantifikaci vyjadřuje graf 1, který sleduje vývoj teroristických útoků ve světe od roku 2010 do roku 2016.

Z dostupných údajů vyplývá, že počet útoků v roce 2016 (9 010) je více než dvojnásobně vyšší než v roce 2010 (4 170). Nejčastějšími cíli byly státy Severní Afriky a Blízkého Východu. Naopak nejméně útoků bylo cíleno na země Severní, Střední a Jižní Ameriky.



Zdroj: [4], (vlastní úprava)

Bezprostřední příčiny teroristických útoků se různí případ od případu, takže jejich určení není v obecné rovině možné. Můžeme však určit a analyzovat některé faktory, které mohou vytvářet společenské předpoklady příznivé pro vznik terorismu. Ani tyto faktory však nelze aplikovat zcela univerzálně na všechny typy terorismu. Obecně lze vymezit dvě významně odlišné skupiny aktérů teroristických útoků. První skupinu tvoří teroristé působící v rámci teroristických organizací. Druhou skupinou jsou specifické aspekty tzv. osamělých vlků, kteří nejsou přímo ovlivněny, podporovány a napojeny na teroristické organizace. Některé faktory mohou být vzájemně propojené a totožné pro obě skupiny, avšak v některých aspektech se bezpochyby tyto faktory liší. Zatímco u osamělých vlků je nutné identifikovat především faktory vedoucí k jejich radikalizaci, u organizovaných teroristů hrají významnou roli především společenské okolnosti determinující vstup jedince do těchto organizačních struktur.

2 MOŽNÉ DETERMINANTY TERORISMU

Existuje mnoho podnětů, které mohou člověka motivovat k teroristické činnosti. I když zvažované spektrum podnětů může být značně heterogenní, lze předpokládat, že lze najít i společné znaky a rysy, které jsou identické a obecně působící u většiny aktérů terorismu.

Analýza Organizace spojených národů [5] vyhodnocovala faktor motivace k teroristickým aktivitám u 500 bývalých členů různých extrémistických organizací v Africe. Více než polovina respondentů se připojila k extrémistickým hnutím z důvodu, že jejich náboženské vyznání je utlačováno a je pod útokem. Bývalí bojovníci dále uváděli jejich nízkou důvěru ve vládní instituce, vysokou míru nenávisti vůči bezpečnostním složkám, armádě a politikům. Vládní politika byla nepřijatelná pro více než 70 % procent respondentů.

Z uvedeného lze dedukovat, že náboženství a terorismus jsou spolu úzce spojené. Po sebevražedném útoku v pařížském klubu (Bataclan Club, listopad 2015) konstatoval

francouzský velvyslanec o džihádistech: *„…důvodem útoku není fakt, že atentátníci jsou nezaměstnaní a že mají špatné ekonomické podmínky… problém je radikální islám“*, tj. vyznávané náboženství [6]. Zakladatel organizace Network for Teaching Entrepreneurship a pedagog S. Mariotti toto tvrzení zpochybňuje. Podle jeho názoru se často v Evropské unii jako základní impuls uvádí náboženství a úplně se ignorují ekonomické základy terorismu. Eurostat odhaduje nezaměstnanost mezi muslimskou mládeží ve Francii 40 % a v Německu až 50 %. Existují důvodné teze o tom, že finanční zoufalství silně nahrává teroristickým náborářům. Tento stav generuje velký soubor potencionálních teroristů – nikoliv jenom faktor náboženského vyznání. [6] Naopak socio-ekonomický výzkum provedený v roce 2009 v Německu [7] poukazuje na několik významných skutečností determinující terorismus a náboženství se řadí mezi ně. Zejména islámské země jsou obzvláště náchylné k terorismu.

F. M. Moghaddam upozornil ve své studií na sociální a ekonomickou deprivaci jednotlivce jako exemplární příklad radikalizace. Jedinci, kteří jsou ekonomicky a sociálně frustrováni mají k radikalizaci nejblíže. [8] Ukázkovým příkladem je Tunisko, které patří mezi státy s nejvyšším počtem bojovníků po boku Islámského státu. V roce 2015 bylo evidováno přibližně 700 000 uchazečů o zaměstnání (z celkových cca 11 milionů obyvatel). Z tohoto počtu bylo 200 000 absolventů vysokých škol, kteří se ucházeli o 79 000 pracovních míst s nízkou kvalifikací. [9] Stejný názor zastává Clare Richardsonová z Univerzity v New Yorku, která analyzovala teroristické útoky z minulých let. Interakce mezi nezaměstnaností a vysokoškolským vzděláním pozitivně koreluje s nárůstem počtu teroristických útoků. [10]

V Evropské unii, kde většina států je ekonomicky rozvinutá, existují velké rozdíly v nezaměstnanosti mezi přistěhovalci a původní populací. Názorným příkladem tohoto stavu může být Belgie. [11] Sociální a z toho plynoucí společenské rozdíly mohou být způsobeny i jinými faktory, jako je vzdělání nebo jazyková bariéra. Tyto rozdíly však značně přispívají k nárůstu subjektivního pocitu nespravedlnosti v zemi. Belgie patří mezi státy v EU, která má vysoký počet občanů, opouštějící zemi za účelem boje po boku Islámského státu. [11]

Ukazuje se, že nezaměstnanost obecně je statisticky vysoce významným prediktorem terorismu. Adekvátní reakce na výše zmíněný fakt je, že mezinárodní neziskové organizace poskytují podnikatelské vzdělávání a vzdělávací programy mladým lidem z měst s nízkými příjmy. Zpráva světové podnikatelské studie (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor) potvrzuje rostoucí podnikatelskou aktivitu v nejchudších ekonomikách světa od roku 2014. Státy subsaharské Afriky (Angola, Botswana, Etiopie, Ghana, Malawi, Nigérie, Jižní Afrika, Uganda a Zambie) jsou v procesu podnikatelských změn, které oživují regiony s novými příležitostmi, zvyšují zaměstnanost a roste hrubý domácí produkt. Jedním z hlavních cílů těchto podnikatelských záměrů je pomoc mladým lidem s nízkým příjmem a mladým nezaměstnaným odolat motivačním nástrahám teroristických organizací (např. Boko Haram v Nigérii). [12] [13]

Výzkum B. Burgoona [14] analyzuje poměr finančních investic vložených do výše uvedených aktivit mezinárodních organizací a míru jejich úspěšnosti a efektivnosti. Ve své podstatě potvrzuje úspěšnost programu mezinárodních neziskových organizací. Vládní i nevládní subjekty rozvinutých států by podle něj měly navrhovat programy hospodářské a vzdělávací pomoci, které by fungovaly jako součást boje s terorismem v dané lokalitě místo vojenských intervencí.

Naopak výzkum T. Kriegera a D. Meierriekse [15] poukazuje na skutečnost, že špatné ekonomické podmínky jedince neovlivňují generování terorismu v tak velké míře. Poukazují

na to, že důležitějším faktorem je nedůvěra ve vládní instituce. Na základě svých zjištění konstatují, že kořeny terorismu se objevují v místech, která jsou vysoce osídlená, nedemokratická a politicky nestabilní.

2.1 Nábor do teroristické organizace

Významným faktorem pro vstup jednotlivců do extrémistických hnutí byl způsob a organizace vnitřního života členů daného hnutí včetně konkrétního nábožensko-politického proudu takové skupiny. Jednotlivci takto vyhledávají sociální seskupení, která má určitý mocenský status, pospolitost, která jim je blízká a cítí se proto v bezpečném prostředí. [16] Skupinová dynamika a chování dané organizace podporuje jednotlivce v záměru provádět úkoly, které jsou spojené s aktem násilného extrémismu, který snese srovnání i s prvky terorizmu.

Studie zaměřená na tzv. „hotspoty“ (místa či oblasti, kde dochází k propagaci terorismu a rekrutování lidí pro teroristické účely) dospěla k závěru, že radikalizace jedince úzce souvisí s bezprostředním okolím jednotlivce. Radikalizace prostřednictvím společenských interakcí je jádrem náboru ve většině členských zemí OECD (Organizace pro hospodářkou spolupráci a rozvoj), stejně jako v mnoha dalších státech. [17]

Přátelské vazby mezi lidmi vytváří nejvlivnější faktor samotného náborového procesu. Typickým příkladem výše uvedeného faktoru je německé město Hildesheim (cca 100 000 obyvatel). Toto město bylo domovem teroristy spojovaného s útokem na vánoční trhy v Berlíně (prosinec 2016) a dalších 17 osob, kteří odcestovali bojovat za Islámský stát na Blízký východ nebo se podíleli na teroristických útocích v Německu. [18] Neméně důležitým faktorem náborového procesu jsou rodinné a příbuzenské vztahy. Specifickou formu radikalizace tvoří zejména v muslimském světě vztah mentor – žák. Učitel svými myšlenkami, vizemi a cíli zásadně ovlivňuje budoucí jednání svých žáků. [19]

Teroristické organizace taktéž rekrutují bojovníky z rozsáhlého kriminálního prostředí. Vzájemný vztah teror – zločin je novodobým fenoménem spojení organizovaného zločinu a terorismu. Policejní vyšetřování teroristických útoků v Paříži a Bruselu z let 2015 a 2016 odhalilo, že teroristé byly v minulosti zapojení do obchodu s drogami, nelegálního prodeje zbraní a výroby padělaných dokumentů. Spolupráce mezi teroristickými organizace a zločineckými syndikáty je také transakční. Teroristé využívají služeb kriminálního podsvětí k nákupům zbraní, padělaných průkazů atd. [20]
V návaznosti na výše uvedené probíhá teroristická radikalizace osob rovně ve věznicích. Radikalizace a rekrutování osob může být vedlejším účinkem vězeňského systému, který má daného jednotlivce implementovat zpět do společenského života. [21] Extrémisticky motivované osoby se ve vězení snaží vyvinout emocionální vztah a pokoušejí se přesvědčit ostatní vězně o jejich vlastní pravdě a chápání světa. Ostatní vězni, často s mnohými kriminálními zkušenostmi a dovednostmi jsou ideálními potencionálními členy teroristických skupin. [22]

Souvisejícím problémem je i fakt, že v některých věznicích v Evropě tvoří např. muslimové převážnou většinu vězňů ve vězeňském zařízení. Tato nerovnováha podporuje džihádistické ideologie a vytváří tak podmínky pro šíření terorismu. Francouzské úřady například reagují na tuto dysbalanci tím, že se snaží separovat muslimské vězně. [23]

2.2 Osamělí vlci

Osamělí vlci jsou specifickou kategorii teroristů, kteří provádějí teroristické útoky bez přímého vlivu a podpory jakékoli teroristické organizace nebo osob. Možné příčiny vzniku jejich agresivního chování lze identifikovat velice obtížně, právě z důvodu vysoké míry individualizmu v rámci jejich jednání.

Několik výzkumů a studií zdůraznilo tendenci osamělých vlků být sociálně osamocených. [24-27]. Naopak jiná studie [28] toto tvrzení vyvrací a konstatuje, že osamělí vlci nejsou nezbytně zcela společensky izolovaní. Tento výzkum prokazuje, že pouze 28 % osamělých vlků bylo prokazatelně sociálně izolovaných.

Německý sociolog Uwe Kemmesies ve své publikaci [29] analyzuje tři hlavní faktory, které generují motivaci daného jedince k teroristickým aktivitám. Prvním faktorem je samotná osobnost člověka, zejména jeho psychické dispozice. Druhým prvkem je ideologie, která hraje klíčovou roli při ospravedlňování násilí a terorismu. Posledním faktorem je sociální prostředí jedince, které přímo ovlivňuje jeho osobnost (přátelé, rodina, školní a pracovní prostřední).

Ukazatel individuální úrovně člověka klade důraz zejména na psychologickou stránku. Odborník na extrémismus J. Khalil ve své analýze [30] popisuje, že podněty na úrovni jednotlivce, jako je odvaha, postavení nebo touha po dobrodružství, jsou často skutečnou příčinou teroristických aktivit jedince. Jiný názor [31] naznačuje, že se osamělí vlci uchylují k terorismu, protože sami sebe označují za zástupce konkrétních myšlenek a postojů ve společnosti. Důležitým aspektem v této oblasti je duševní zdraví člověka. Někteří autoři [32] [33] poukazují na skutečnost, že osamělí vlci mohou být jen lidé s vysokou pravděpodobností určitého psychického onemocnění. Tuto skutečnost podporuje i několik empirických studií [25] [34-36]. Publikace E. Cornera a kol. [36] analyzuje prevalenci konkrétních duševních onemocnění osamělých vlků a nejčetnější psychickou poruchou je schizofrenie. Prevalence u osamělých vlků přesáhla 8 % ve srovnání s přibližně 1 % prevalence v celkové populaci.

Dalším aspektem je ideologie, kterou jednotlivec následuje. Podle Pantucciho a kol. [37] nejsou útoky osamělých vlků omezeny na specifickou ideologii. Nicméně vidí tři hlavní ideologické proudy, které jsou dominantní v radikalizaci jedince – radikální islám, pravicový extrémismus a vlastní rozvinuté ideologie. Jak bylo již výše uvedeno, osamělí vlci jednají na vlastní pěst. Navzdory tomuto tvrzení mohou osamělí vlci sympatizovat s některými teroristickými organizacemi, i když nejsou jejich členy.

Třetím faktorem, na jehož základě je možná identifikace osamělého vlka, je faktor prostřední daného jedince. Zkoumání současné sociální situace konkrétní osoby není dostačující. Podstatným prvkem je taktéž rodinné prostředí a proces výchovy. Jak uvádí ve své studii Gill a kol. [26], pro osamělé vlky je ve srovnání s organizovanými teroristy charakteristická mimo jiné vysoká míra nezaměstnanosti (40,2 %) a vysoký počet trestně stíhaných osob (41,2 %). Z nich 63,3 % strávilo nějaký čas ve vězení, přičemž přibližně třetina z vězněným osamělých vlků byla radikalizována právě ve vězení.

Pokud jde o radikalizaci osamělých vlků, stále větší význam má při tomto procesu komunikace na internetu. [28] [38] Tabulka 1 rekapituluje výše uvedený text ve formě společných motivačních ukazatelů k teroristickým aktivitám osamělých vlků a stimulačních faktorů člověka pro vstup do teroristické organizace. Informace a poznatky v tabulce vycházejí z uvedeného textu a jsou určitým vodítkem pro hledání příčin teroristických aktivit.

Tab. 1: Společné motivační faktory pro vstup jednotlivce do teroristické organizace a pro teroristické aktivity osamělých vlků

	Teroristické organizace	Osamělí vlci
Náboženství	X	X
Vládní instituce	X	
Politici, policie, armáda	X	X
Vládní politika	X	X
Ekonomické podmínky jedince	X	
Nezaměstnanost	X	
Sociální frustrace jedince	X	X
Vzdělání	X	
Ekonomická síla země	X	
Ideologie	X	X
Sociální prostředí jedince	X	X
Vězeňské prostřední	X	X
Duševní zdraví jedince		X
Kriminální minulost jedince	X	X

Zdroj: vlastní

3 ZÁVĚR

Terorismus představuje v současné době velkou bezpečnostní hrozbu pro celou společnost. Článek analyzuje významnost společenských a ekonomických faktorů, které motivují jednotlivce k připojení se k teroristické organizaci nebo samotnému páchaní teroristických útoků.

Na základně rešeršní analýzy jsou identifikovány poznatky, které lze demonstrovat jako možné determinanty, proč se lidé připojují k teroristickým organizacím a akceptují její ideologii. Deklarované skutečnosti potvrzují, že se jedná o faktor náboženství, ideologie, nezaměstnanosti, ekonomické síly země, ale i jedinců, úroveň vzdělání, vládní politiku, nedůvěru vůči politické reprezentaci a bezpečnostním složkám státu, sociální frustrace jedince, bezprostřední sociální okolí člověka jako je například i prostředí vězení. U osamělých vlků jsou to především aspekty psychologické roviny člověka, duševního zdraví, radikální ideologie, rodinného prostředí a proces výchovy jedince.

Tyto ukazatelé mohou být klíčové pro potencionální identifikaci a predikci teroristických aktivit ve světě.

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THE LINK BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY OF DOCTORAL STUDENT AND PERCEIVED CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDY

Denisa Šukolová, Štefan Porubský

Abstract

The contribution deals with the existence of relationships between students' self-efficacy and perceived characteristics of doctoral studies. The research sample consisted of 53 graduate students from the Matej Bel University of in Banská Bystrica, who studied at the University between 2001 and 2018. We used the "Quality in PhD Process Survey" (Herrmann, Bager-Elsborg, Wichmann-Hansen, 2014) to measure self-efficacy and perceived characteristics of the study and our own items on the evaluation of the acquired scientific-research competencies. The results showed a significant positive relationship between perceived level of self-efficacy and satisfaction with dissertation thesis. Self-efficacy further correlated negatively with psychosomatic problems, negative impact on privacy and loneliness, and correlated positively with the perceived advancement in empowered scientific research competencies.

***Key words**: doctoral study, self-efficacy, scientific-research competencies*

1 INTRODUCTION

Doctoral study represents a significant and increasingly emphasized function of universities - the development of future leaders in industry, commerce and services (Millett, Nettles, 2006). PhD. students may be considered as a stimulating element in the exchange of innovative ideas between academic field and social practice and they are often the impulses to build future educational activities of the faculties and their workplaces (Davis, et al., 2006; Thune, 2009). In addition, these students often bring a large and direct supply of funds (Hanesová, Saari, 2015). Above mentioned attributes, the prestige of schools and their mutually accelerating competitive environment, are collectively reflected in continuous pressure to increase the quality of the scientific and research competencies of these individuals. Parameters of doctoral degree achievement are then reflected in the status of universities in national and international quality rating ranges.

The described trends are also reflected in the international documents, which currently define the third level of education in terms of European region. This is the European Framework for Research Careers (2011), which follows the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF) in particular. The document defines the competencies that should be achieved by "researcher I and II. level - R1 / R2 (period: up to obtaining PhD / since obtaining PhD.)". The identification of the necessary competencies was designed regardless of the applicability within the sector (public, private) or the scientific field. In addition to standard scientific-research competencies and excellent communication skills, the document mentions the requirements for: (a) general orientation in related industries; (b) understanding the importance of research activities in the context of the products and services development; (c) the ability to communicate (even at international level) with a wider community of expertise; (d) the ability to promote cultural, technological or social progress in the knowledge society; (e) the ability to mentor younger colleagues in the process of scientific-research development.

In the context of the described changes, the classical academic idea of a doctoral study (focused on excellent science) was replaced by a pragmatic approach that pursues the support of leadership and broad applicability in the context of scientific thinking which can be used in economic and social innovation. In this matter, it is mentioned a support of the so-called

transverable or generic competencies of researchers (see e.g. Evers, Rush, Berdrow, 1998; Ritter 2009; Saari, Moilanen, 2012, Ritter, 2009).

1.1 Monitored aspects of study and personal context at doctoral students

Academic environment changes led to increasing pressure on the quality of doctoral students and then to the need of monitoring study conditions and a wider range of dispositions or needs of this type of students. According to many authors, the most important factor in the doctoral student's success is his / her relationship with the supervisor (e.g. Halse, Malfroy, 2010). The quality of supervision was monitored in relation to many indicators and was also examined from the perspective of the supervisors themselves, who perceive their approaches differently (Barnes, 2010; Halse, 2011; Lepp et al., 2013). However, as McCormack (2005) indicates, important role in the success of doctoral students also play the factors of psychological disposition, socio-economic situation, discipline, as well as the students' research itself. In this context, many indicators have been investigated such as a motivation to abandon the study (Hunter, Devine, 2016; Lukáčová, 2017), the level of acceptance, partnership and social inclusion the stress and isolation rate (e.g. Jairam, Kahl, 2012), working ethics and the need for free time (Lukáčová, Holubičová, 2017), procrastination and perfectionism (Kearns, Gardiner, Marshall, 2008) or matters of parenthood harmonization and scientific careers of young female scientists (Harvánková, 2016). Other key issues are related to topics such as pedagogical experience, study programs, research and academic writing, employment, career growth, as well as a practice during doctoral studies (see e.g. Jones, 2013). Some surveys have also been oriented towards mapping under-dimensioned doctoral competencies (Ritter, 2009). By listing the investigated aspects, we do not wish to fully appoint the observed characteristics. However, their extent at least partially reflects a real interest in young researchers and process of gathering the data from different aspects for the needs of their effective selection and further enhanced support.

1.2 Positive self-image of the student as a performance predictor

If we are talking about effective education and support of any competencies of adults, from the psychological characteristics of the doctoral students we should focus our attention at the quality of their self-esteem. According to many authors, the positive elements of the self-concept (e.g .self-image, self-confidence) are the crucial components for achieving positive study results (Quigley, 1997; McGivney, 2001; Beder, Medina, 2001). A frequently studied characteristic in this context is the self-efficacy that the author of the term Bandura (1997) defines as a belief in his or her own ability to carry out the activities necessary to achieve certain results and goals. Such conviction manifests itself most in the conative component of self-esteem, specifically in performance, because it directly predicts it. It also expresses an aspect that determines the motivation to perform as well as the individual's access to tasks. Although Bandura (1988) was convinced that people with high level of self-efficacy often succeed in an environment with restricted conditions, while others are unlikely to make significant changes even in an environment that provides many potential opportunities, he considered self-efficacy as situationally rooted and as dynamic cognitive process that can be shaped. Currently we register a number of empirical evidence about self-efficacy and its positive meaning in the context of academic performance (see e.g. Lane, Lane, 2001). In addition, the issue gains in importance from the point of view of individualized approaches to education, which foresee the supportive educational strategies where everyone should experience success, regardless of their dispositions.

1.3 Self-efficacy and research competencies at doctoral students

The monitoring of the self-concept factors is also realised on the sample of the doctoral students. Many studies very specifically point to the critical importance of well-being (Hunter, Devine, 2016; Pyhältö, Toom, Stubb, Lonka, 2012), which is closely related to the endurance and development of academic knowledge and skills of doctoral students (Bair, Haworth, 2005; Jairam, Kahl, 2012), while the quality of self-efficacy is an important part of well-being. When we look at the support models of academic knowledge and skills of doctoral students, which have emphasized wider scientific-research competences in recent years, it is no wonder that self-efficacy issues have come to the forefront in regards of research quality. The findings suggest that a low level of trust in own research abilities represent a significant barrier for academic professionals that may negatively interfere with the processes of learning, teaching, conducting and presenting research (e.g. Baltes et al., 2010; Ghadampour, Garavand, Sabzian, 2015). Students with low self-esteem in research feel uncertain, do not believe that their efforts will lead to success, they often experience stress and anxiety, especially in situations where they will be evaluated (Bierer, Prayson, Dannefer, 2015). The fact that the link between self-efficacy and the quality of scientific work has been repeatedly confirmed in several scientific fields, it gave rise to a new concept named "research self-efficacy". This is one of the key assumptions of scientific work, that refers to student confidence in his / her own scientific-research capabilities (e.g. Forester, Kahn, Hesson-McInnis, 2004).

1.4 Research problem and the aim of study

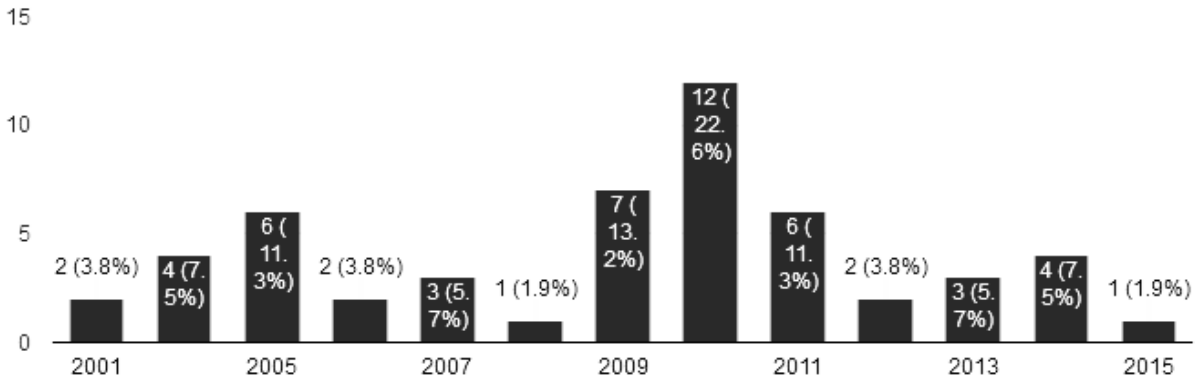
The self-efficacy factor appears to be a fundamental psychological characteristic of a student with an impact on his / her performance, and we can assert that it is a construct that is underlies the situational influence and is domain dependent. This applies especially in the context of academic performance, where content, the learning objectives and the reference framework we compare with are constantly changing. In order to plan successful intervention and support for doctoral students through educational activities, research and supervision, it is therefore crucial to look at this characteristic in relation to other variables also at the institutional level. Therefore, the presented study (based on previous findings) has the ambition to verify the relation particularly between the self-efficacy of doctoral student and (1) the satisfaction with the study, (2) psychosomatic problems, (3) the impact on the private life of the students, (4) loneliness, (5) and the perceived advance in the strengthened competencies on a specific sample of doctoral students in pedagogical, social, behavioural and human sciences.

2 METHODS

This research has a descriptive character. It is a correlation study where we used the questionnaire method to collect data. The presented study has the nature of action (institutional) research with application for practice and theory of adult education.

2.1 Research sample

The research sample consisted of 53 doctoral students (43 women, 10 men) of the Faculty of Education of MBU in Banská Bystrica, who studied at the University between 2001 and 2018. In keeping the anonymity, we did not detect the age of the participants, only the year of study entry (see graph 1). Everyone has volunteered to participate in research. The selection of participants was accessible. From the aspect of institutional goal, the selection was also representative. Most of participants were students of full-time study (39 students - 73.6%) and students of pedagogical sciences (48-90.6%).



Graph 1: Description of the research sample – the year of study entry

2.2 Questionnaire

To collect the data, we used the Questionnaire *Quality in the PhD Process Survey* (Herrmann, Bager-Elsborg, Wichmann-Hansen, 2014). The original version of the questionnaire has seven dimensions: (1) motivation to doctoral studies, (2) elements of doctoral study, (3) research environment, (4) relationship with the supervisor, (5) independence and control, (6) workload and (7) satisfaction. We have added our own dimension to the questionnaire, which we have called (8) fields of professional development. Through that we have been examining a perceived development in the various acquired scientific-research competencies. All items were rated by participants on a scale of 1 (always the minimum value - according to the meaning of the item, e.g. minimum agreement) to 5 points (always the maximum value - according to the meaning of the item, e.g. maximum agreement). The level of self-efficacy was calculated as the average value of two items from dimension (5) independence and control: "Sometimes I was worried if what I do is good enough." and "Sometimes I doubted whether I was good enough to be a doctoral student". We monitored the relationship of this score with all other items scores (we were concerned about each item / variable separately because every aspect was important at the institutional level). The self-efficacy scores were inverted (high scores referred to a high level of self-efficacy).

3 RESULTS

Data were statistically analysed by using SPSS programme. The descriptive characteristics of the variables for the entire set of participants were evaluated in the first step from a data distribution point of view through the skewness and kurtosis coefficients. Since some variables did not meet the normal data distribution condition, we used Spearman's correlation coefficient to evaluate relationships. A summary of the descriptive characteristics of the monitored variables is given in table 1.

Table 1 Descriptive characteristics of variables

N = 53	**AM**	**MDN**	**SD**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Self-efficacy	7,57	8	2,28	-.520	-.860
Negative impact on privacy	2.93	3	1.4	-.32	**-1.28**
Somatic problems	2.24	2	1.174	.788	-.229
Loneliness	2.21	2	1.253	.646	-.707
Satisfaction with dissertation thesis	3.98	4	1	-.837	.224
Overall satisfaction with study	3.98	4	1.017	-.586	-.824
Satisfaction with a supervisor	3.88	4	1.285	-.897	-.335

Advancement in the field of methodology	3.86	4	1.249	-.906	-.165
Advancement in the field of academic writing	4.14	4	0.888	-.903	.224
Advancement in the field of data analysis	3.41	4	1.39	-.425	**-1.026**
Advancement in the field of presentation skills	3.97	4	1.059	**-1.031**	.651
Advancement in the field of project management	3.47	4	1.341	-.512	-.862

AM – arithmetical mean, MDN – median, SD – standard deviation

Table 2 provides an overview of statistically significant relationships between self-efficacy and observed parameters. The values of correlation coefficients and statistical significance pointed to a moderate significant positive relationship between level of self-efficacy and satisfaction with dissertation thesis ($\rho = .399$, $p \leq .01$), while the relationship with overall satisfaction with the study and satisfaction with the supervision was not confirmed. There was a weak negative correlation between self-efficacy and psychosomatic problems ($\rho = -.284$, $p \leq .05$), negative impact on privacy ($\rho = -.259$, $p \leq .05$), loneliness during study ($\rho = -.259$, $p \leq .05$), and moderate positive correlation between self-efficacy and perceived advancement in strengthen competencies such as academic writing ($\rho = .324$, $p \leq .05$) and methodology ($\rho = .384$, $p \leq .01$).

Table 2: Correlation coefficients

N = 53	**Self-efficacy**	
Spearman's correlation coefficient	*p*	*ρ*
Negative impact on privacy	**.049**	**- .259**
Somatic problems	**.031**	**- .284**
Loneliness	**.049**	**- .259**
Satisfaction with dissertation thesis	**.002**	**.399**
Overall satisfaction with study	.422	.107
Satisfaction with a supervisor	.953	.008
Advancement in the field of methodology	**.003**	**.384**
Advancement in the field of academic writing	**.013**	**.324**
Advancement in the field of data analysis	.069	.241
Advancement in the field of presentation skills	.110	.212
Advancement in the field of project management	.400	-.113

N – number of participants, p – statistical significance, ρ – correlation coefficient

4 DISCUSSION

We summarize the results of the research in several areas that we discuss in the context of theoretical backgrounds and applications at the level of institutional support for doctoral candidates.

In the field of satisfaction with the study, the relationship between self-efficacy and satisfaction with the dissertation thesis was confirmed and we did not observe the connection between the satisfaction with a supervisor and the overall satisfaction with the study. As stated Doménech-Betoret and his colleagues (2017), it is important to realize that when we talk about learning results, we mostly mean not only cognitive but also the emotional outcome. We are interested in the progress of the student, but also in his / her satisfaction with the T-L process (teaching-learning process). Achievement and satisfaction are two complementary variables in the context of the educational process. While the link between self-efficacy and achievement of the students has been multiple times confirmed (Bandura, 1997; Lane, Lane, 2001), the relationship between self-efficacy and satisfaction with the study has not yet been fully explained. Our data suggests that the self-efficacy will be more

related to the satisfaction of the study, if the specific aspect of satisfaction with the study relates to the student's own personal contribution (e.g. dissertation thesis). There is also the question, whether self-efficacy is related to study satisfaction under all circumstances. It is possible that self-efficacy will positively covariate with satisfaction only after reaching a certain degree of satisfaction with the study. In other words, if the T-L process does not reach a certain level of quality, self-efficacy will not be enhanced and strengthened. These assumptions are suggested to be verified in further research and on a larger research sample, because satisfaction with the study is an important predictor of continuing or completing the study (Levy, 2007). Verifying this assumption could not only have theoretical but also practical relevance for specific institutions in the development phase of various doctoral study programs.

We have also found out that self-efficacy of doctoral students negatively correlated with psychosomatic problems (stress, heart-beat, stomach-ache, depression, restlessness, memory loss), negative impacts on privacy and loneliness during the study. This finding is in line with the conclusions of other authors who have documented that low self-efficacy in the context of study causes psychological discomfort and anxiety, which can often result as well in physiological problems. Authors Pajares and Miller (1994) for example stated that awareness of self-efficacy has a major impact on the level of stress and anxiety experienced by students in the process of solving study tasks. We have also mentioned that low self-efficacy may be a major barrier to perform further study duties (Baltes et al., 2010; Ghadampour, Garavand, Sabzian, 2015) and that students with negative self-image experience stress and anxiety during assessment (Bierer, Prayson, Dannefer, 2015). Similarly, it has been documented the link between low self-efficacy and a higher level of loneliness in the study context (e.g. Lackaye, Margelit, 2008). We propose to investigate the area of negative impacts on privacy through a qualitative approach. The results within the students of various fields, age categories, gender, nationality or socio-demographic status could show different consequences.

Self-efficacy of doctoral students positively correlated with the perceived advancement in reinforced competencies such as academic writing and methodology, correlation with the advancement in data analysis, presentation skills and project management was not confirmed. Based on the above, we can conclude that our results in this matter also confirm generally valid conclusions of other authors that self-efficacy is related to performance and the perception of the effect efforts made. The fact that this also applies to academic skills and scientific-research competencies has also been documented (see e.g. Baltes et al., 2010; Ghadampour, Garavand, Sabzian, 2015). In relation to the presented results, it is also appropriate to point out the strength of measured relationships, which promotes not only the statistical but also the psychological significance of the existence of “research-efficacy” construct. Self-efficacy had the strongest correlation with the perceived advancement in scientific-research competencies and with the satisfaction of the dissertation thesis, which is also closely related to the scientific-research competencies. Consider the given conclusions that have been commented so far, confirming the general findings of other authors, we cannot forget the fact that the positive relation of self-efficacy and the perceived advancement in scientific-research competencies was not recorded in all monitored parameters. The results did not confirm the link between the advancement in the field of data analysis, project management and presentation skills. One possible explanation offers a preview of the descriptive measures of central tendency, from which we can see, that the perceived advancement in the field of data analysis and project management has reached the lowest level. This could indicate that the relationship between self-efficacy and scientific-research competencies that were underdeveloped has not been confirmed, which may be related to the focus of programs for doctoral students in the specific institutional context. Interpretation is

also supported by the fact that evaluated program was created predominantly for students of pedagogical sciences, where the accent on theoretical research has so far dominated, and that only half of the doctoral students (50.9%) were involved in the real research project activity, which was not always related to the problem they have been solving. However, this interpretation does not apply to the relationship of self-efficacy and the perceived advancement in presentation skills, because the shift in this domain was much higher, similarly as in the area of methodology and academic writing. We assume that this competence has already been developed by students during the previous stages of study, so it may not be so directly related to self-confidence. This would mean that self-efficacy is associated with a perceived advancement, especially when competence is sufficiently developed, but this is a relatively new competence that needs to be acquired. However, we recommend further verification of all findings and interpretations.

Typical self-efficacy relationships were also confirmed in the sample of doctoral students from the fields of pedagogical, social, behavioural and human sciences. In the introduction, we have referred to the concept of "research-efficacy", which has been studied so far in the context of students of natural, technical and medical sciences (e.g. Mohamed, Nordin, 2013, Tyiuri et al., 2018). The concept of self-efficacy, which refers to the student's confidence in his / her own scientific-research capacity, was naturally studied first in groups of professions with a stronger empirical tradition compared to pedagogical, social, behavioural and human sciences. Based on our analyses, it is possible to state that we have verified the validity of the previous results on a wider specific population.

5 CONCLUSION

The study can be considered representative from the point of view of the Faculty of Education action plan, but from the point of view of broader generalization, we conclude the need to extend the research sample to students of other fields and institutions. Although the results are somewhat likely to depend on particular institutional conditions in some indicators, the measured context confirms many of the past facts about the self-efficacy construct and its significance in the academic environment. In this direction, we perceive the consistency of the findings as a partial indicator of the validity of the process and the quality of the data, despite the smaller sample. We also recognize the need to verify the findings from the point of view of the measure of self-efficacy, which was not realized through a standardized tool. More precisely, it was "only" an approximate estimate of the characteristic based on two questionnaire items. In theoretical use, we consider the study to be beneficial in terms of expanding the self-efficacy construct and its relationship to a specific sample of doctoral students, as well as some outlined questions about the relationship between self-efficacy and satisfaction or the relationship of self-efficacy and advancement in certain competencies. Implications for practice suggest that self-efficacy should be seen as a significant factor in the selection of candidates for the third stage of study and also during the study it is necessary to work with the self-concept of the students, because it significantly contributes to the student's achievements and motivation to further study.

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EDUKÁCIA O VÝZNAME POHYBOVEJ AKTIVITY U DETÍ S DIABETES MELLITUS 1. TYPU V ŠKOLSKÝCH ZARIADENIACH

EDUCATION ON THE IMPORTANCE OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY IN CHILDREN WITH DIABETES MELLITUS TYPE 1 IN SCHOOL FACILITIES

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Abstrakt

Ochorenie diabetes mellitus 1. typu (DM 1.) významne ovplyvňuje pobyt dieťaťa v škole. Rodič tu nemá možnosť dozoru nad dodržiavaním liečebných opatrení u dieťaťa. Pedagógovia majú byť preto informovaní o zdravotnom stave dieťaťa a potrebných opatreniach, ako napríklad aplikácia inzulínu, meranie glykémie, diétne obmedzenia a špecifiká pohybovej aktivity. Pedagógovia nemajú kompetenciu vykonávať úkony spojené s liečbou diabetu. Môžu dieťaťu poskytnúť len laickú 1. pomoc pri skomplikovaní zdravotného stavu počas vyučovania. Nato je potrebné mať dostatočné informácie, aby mohli včas a správne zareagovať. Pohybová aktivita detí s DM 1. má svoje špecifiká, ako je nutnosť merania glykémie, doplnenie stravy pri nízkej hodnote glukózy a pod. To si vyžaduje dôkladnú edukáciu detí, ich rodičov, ale aj pedagógov. V snahe uľahčiť starostlivosť o deti s chronickým ochorením v škole navrhujeme zriadenie „školskej zdravotnej služby“, kde by zdravotnícky pracovník zabezpečil činnosti súvisiace s liečbou detí.

Kľúčové slová: *edukácia, pohybová aktivita, diabetes mellitus 1. typu, školské zariadenie, pedagóg, rodič*

Abstract

Diabetes mellitus (DM) type 1. significantly affects the educational process the child's at school. The parent is unable to supervise the child's treatment. Teachers should therefore be informed about the child's health status and necessary measures. Teachers are not competent to perform diabetes treatment. They can give the child only a simple first aid in complicating the health condition. It is necessary for the pedagogues to have important information about how to respond in a timely and correct manner to the complications in children with DM type 1. The physical activity of children with DM type 1. has its own specifics, such as the need to measure blood glucose, nutrition supplements and others aspect. This requires the in-depth education of children, their parents and teachers. In order to facilitate the care of children with chronic disease at the school we propose the establishment of a "school nurse", which should ensure that activities associated with the treatment of children with DM 1.type.

Key words: *education, physical activity, diabetes mellitus type 1., school, teacher, parent*

1. POHYBOVÁ AKTIVITA DETÍ

Pohyb patrí medzi základné ľudské potreby človeka tak ako jedlo, pitie a spánok. Pohyb dáva dieťaťu priestor na prirodzenú radosť zo života a taktiež upevňuje dobrý psychický a fyzický stav organizmu. Je preto dôležité uvedomiť si, že pohyb je pre dieťa v školách nevyhnutná časť dňa, je preň dôležitým a primeraným prostriedkom aktivity. Všeobecným cieľom telesnej a športovej výchovy ako vyučovacieho predmetu je umožniť žiakom rozvíjať kondičné a

koordinačné schopnosti, osvojovať si, zdokonaľovať a upevňovať pohybové návyky a zručnosti. Prostredníctvom pohybu zvyšovať svoju pohybovú gramotnosť a zvyšovať všeobecnú pohybovú výkonnosť a zdatnosť, pôsobiť a dbať o zdravie a vytvárať trvalý vzťah k pohybovej aktivite, telesnej výchove a športu (3).

1.1 Špecifiká pohybovej aktivity detí s diabetes mellitus 1. typu

Pohyb je prirodzenou súčasťou života, avšak pre deti s diabetes mellitus 1. typu (DM 1.) je súčasťou liečebného režimu. Diabetes mellitus je endokrinné a metabolické ochorenie, ktorého hlavnou charakteristikou je chronická hyperglykémia (1). Pohyb spolu s inzulínom znižuje hladinu glykémie – glukózy v krvi. Preto je spolu s aplikáciou inzulínu a diétnymi opatreniami jedným zo základných pilierov liečby DM 1.typu.

Pri pohybe sa spotrebováva energia spaľovaním glukózy. Pohyb teda vedie ku spotrebe glukózy a k zníženiu glykémie (5). Dieťa s DM 1. a taktiež jeho rodičia by mali byť edukovaní o dôležitých odporúčaniach pri pohybovej aktivite. Ak je dieťa školopovinné, je nutné s ochorením dieťaťa oboznámiť aj pedagóga a poskytnúť mu základné informácie o možných komplikáciách DM 1., ktoré môžu vzniknúť kedykoľvek, aj počas pobytu dieťaťa v škole.

Základné odporúčania pred vykonávaním pohybovej aktivity dieťaťaťa s DM 1. sú:

- dobrá metabolická kompenzácia ochorenia
- pri glykémii < 4,5 mmol/l a > 15 mmol/l je nutné odložiť pohybovú aktivitu po úprave glykémie,
- pri prítomnosti ketolátok (acetónu) v moči necvičiť,
- monitorovať hodnoty glykémie pred, počas a po fyzickej záťaži,
- preventívne opatrenia pri záťaži:
  - cvičiť po jedle 1 – 2 hod.,
  - zjesť 20 – 40 sacharidov pred a každú hodinu počas záťaže,
  - vyhýbať sa záťaži v priebehu vrcholného účinku inzulínu,
  - aplikovať inzulín do nezaťažovaného miesta,
  - znížiť dávku inzulínu podľa potreby (4).

Vážnou komplikáciou pri pohybovej aktivite dieťaťa je hypoglykémia, teda pokles hladiny glukózy v krvi pod fyziologickú hranicu. Zvládnutie pohybu a prevencia hypoglykémie sa u detí s cukrovkou dosahuje zvýšením množstva jedla, niekedy znížením dávky inzulínu alebo kombináciou oboch postupov. Najjednoduchšie je pridanie jedla pre pohybovou aktivitou, v jej priebehu a po nej a to podľa dĺžky a intenzity pohybovej aktivity. Deti by mali mať od rodičov písomnú informáciu, ako si upraviť dávkovanie inzulínu a množstva jedla pred vykonávaním pohybovej aktivity. Glykémiu je potrebné zmerať pred pohybom, v priebehu a po skončení pohybu. Pri hyperglykémii nad 15-16 mmol/l by dieťa nemalo cvičiť. Vysoké glykémie predstavujú pre telo záťaž. V iných situáciách pohyb glykémiu znižuje, ale pri vysokých hodnotách hladina cukru v krvi ďalej stúpa (6).

2. VPLYV EDUKÁCIE NA DODRŽIAVANIE LIEČEBNÝCH OPATRENÍ PRI POHYBOVEJ AKTIVITE DETÍ S DM 1. V ŠKOLSKÝCH ZARIADENIACH

Efektívna edukácia diabetikovi pomáha zaujať správny postoj k jeho síce nevyliečiteľnej, ale predsa dobre kompenzovateľnej chorobe. Úlohou edukácie je zabezpečovať súlad medzi nadobudnutými vedomosťami a zručnosťami a rozvojom životného štýlu diabetika, prispôsobovanie edukácie tak, aby bol diabetik pripravený uspokojovať svoje meniace sa potreby a tak sa podieľať na skvalitnení svojho života.

2.1 Ciele prieskumu

Na základe odporúčaných špecifík pohybovej aktivity detí s DM 1. pokladáme edukáciu rodičov, detí s DM a následne aj pedagógov za dôležitú pri prevencii možných komplikácií pri pohybovej aktivite. Hlavným cieľom prieskumu bolo zistiť úroveň dodržiavania liečebných opatrení dieťaťa s DM 1. pred, počas a po vykonaní pohybovej aktivity. Zistiť úroveň informovanosti pedagógov o špecifikách pohybovej aktivity detí s DM 1.

2.2 Metodika prieskumu

Prieskum sme realizovali v ambulancii pediatrickej endokrinológie, diabetológie a porúch látkovej premeny a výživy v Prešovskom kraji, ktorá spadala pod vedenie Fakultnej nemocnice s poliklinikou v Prešove J.A. Reimana. Taktiež sme dotazník zverejnili na internetovej stránke „dia mamičky“. Vzorku respondentov tvorilo spolu 78 rodičov detí navštevujúcich materské (43 respondentov) a základne školy (35 respondentov). Zúčastnili sa rodičia 41 dievčat a 37 chlapcov s priemerným vekom 6,5 rokov.
Údaje od pedagógov boli zozbierané prostredníctvom dotazníka s názvom „Informovanosť pedagógov o ochorení diabetes mellitus 1.typu u žiakov“. Dotazník vznikol na základe projektu s názvom *Inovatívne spôsoby edukácie rodičov a detí s ochorením diabetes mellitus 1. typu.* Okrem základných demografických údajov obsahoval 21 položiek väčšinou zatvoreného typu. Bol k dispozícii v printovej a elektronickej podobe. Rozdaných bolo 1260 dotazníkov, vrátených bolo 567 (74,21%) dotazníkov zo základných škôl a 197 (25,79%) z materských škôl. Spolu bolo vrátených 764 dotazníkov.

2.3 Výsledky prieskumu

Tabuľka 1: Spôsob merania glykémie

Možnosti odpovede	N	%
Glukomer	51	65,38
Senzor na meranie glykémie	23	29,48
Iné: Glukomer aj senzor na meranie glykémie	4	5,12
Spolu	78	100

Spôsob merania glykémie: 51 respondentov (65,38 %) odpovedalo, že si ju meria pomocou glukomerov, 23 respondentov (29,48 %) využíva senzor na meranie glykémie a 4 respondenti (5,12 %) využili odpoveď *iné*, z ktorej vyplýva, že využívajú oba spôsoby.

Tabuľka 2: Meranie glykémie pred pohybovou aktivitou

Možnosti odpovede	n	%
Áno, vždy	20	25,64
Takmer, vždy	18	23,07
Niekedy	28	35,89
Nie	10	12,82
Iné: Používa senzor na meranie glykémie.	2	2,56
Spolu	78	100

Meranie glykémie pred pohybovou aktivitou: 20 respondenti (25,64 %) odpovedali: *áno, vždy*. Odpoveď *takmer vždy* označilo 18 respondentov (23,07 %) a odpoveď *niekedy* 28 respondentov (35,89 %). Ďalších 10 respondentov (12,82 %) odpovedalo *nie.* Pri odpovedi

iné 2 (2,56 %) respondenti uviedli, že na meranie hodnôt glykémie pred pohybovou aktivitou ich deti používajú senzor.

Tabuľka 3: Merania glykémie po ukončení pohybovej aktivity

Možnosti odpovede	n	%
Áno, vždy	38	48,71
Takmer, vždy	18	23,07
Niekedy	19	24,35
Nikdy	1	1,28
Iné: Senzor na meranie glykémie meria pravidelne.	2	2,56
Spolu	78	100

38 respondentov (48,71 %)uviedlo, že svojim deťom *vždy* merajú glykémiu po ukončení pohybovej aktivity, 18 respondenti (23,07 %) odpovedali, že *takmer vždy*. 19 respondenti (24,35 %) uviedli, že merajú glykémiu *niekedy*, Do kolónky *iné:* uviedli 2 respondenti, že na meranie glykémie používajú senzor (2,56 %).

Tabuľka 4: Meranie glykémie pred hodinou telesnej výchovy

Možnosti odpovede	n	%
Vždy	16	20,51
Takmer, vždy	11	14,10
Niekedy	32	41,02
Nikdy	6	7,69
Iné: Nemá TV. Už nemeria, podľa toho ako sa cíti. Senzor na meranie glykémie.	9 2 2	11,53 2,56 2,56
Spolu	78	100

Meranie glykémie pred hodinou telesnej výchovy: 16 respondentov (20,51 %) odpovedalo, že si ju meria *vždy*. Možnosť *takmer vždy* označili 11 respondenti (14,10 %) a 32 respondentov (41,2 %) označilo možnosť *niekedy*. *Nikdy* si po hodine nemeria 6 respondentov (7,69 %). 9 respondentov (11,53 %) v odpovedi iné napísalo, že hodinu telesnej výchovy nemá, 2 respondenti (2,56 %) si nemerajú alebo podľa toho ako sa cítia. 2 respondentom (2,56 %) meria glykémiu senzor na meranie glykémie.

Tabuľka 5: Riešenie situácie so zníženou glykémiou

Možnosti odpovede	n	%
Nedovolím mu vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu.	22	28,20
Dovolím mu vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu.	5	6,41
Dovolím, ale priebežne sledujem hodnoty glykémie.	36	46,15
Iné: Doplníme sacharidové jednotky a pokračujeme v pohybovej aktivite.	15	19,23
Spolu	78	100

Riešenie situácie so zníženou hodnotou glykémie dieťaťa 22 respondentov (28,20 %) označilo odpoveď, že nedovolia dieťaťu vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu, 5 odpovedajúcich (6,41 %) sa vyjadrilo, že dovolia vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu, 36 respondentov (46,15 %) dovolí pohybovú aktivitu, ale priebežne sleduje hodnoty glykémie. Do položky iné napísalo 15 respondentov (19,23 %), že dovolí, ale je potrebné doplniť sacharidové jednotky a až potom môže pokračovať v pohybovej aktivite.

2.4 Diskusia

Najčastejšie používanou pomôckou na aplikáciu inzulínu je inzulínové pero - 54 respondentov. Menšia časť respondentov - 24 využíva inzulínovú pumpu. Našu vzorku respondentov tvorili vo väčšine rodičia detí mladších ako 6 rokov – až 63%, boli deti navštevujúce materské školy. Deti navštevujúce ZŠ už zvládajú činnosti ako aplikácia inzulínu a meranie glykémie samy. Deťom v MŠ môže podať inzulín a merať glykémiu len rodič. Učiteľky nemôžu vykonávať tieto činnosti. Ak spozorujú zhoršenie zdravotného stavu, kontaktujú rodičov. Poskytnúť môžu iba laickú 1. pomoc, pri rozpoznaní hypo- alebo hyperglykémie. Využívanie inzulínovej pumpy sa odporúča až po dovŕšení 6 rokov. Pri zisťovaní frekvencie merania hodnôt glykémie v krvi v súvislosti s vykonávaním pohybovej aktivity väčšina oslovených rodičov odpovedala, že merajú glykémiu vždy pred pohybovou aktivitou. 38 rodičov odpovedalo, že vždy merajú glykémie po záťaži. Kontinuálnym monitoringom glykémie v priebehu pohybovej aktivity si diabetici merajú glykémiu 60 minút, 30 minút a tesne pred, v priebehu a po pohybovej aktivite. Dôležitosť merania glykémie pred pohybovou aktivitou spočíva v tom, že u detí s DM 1. typu sa môžu objaviť rôzne reakcie na pohybovú aktivitu rovnakej intenzity a trvania (7). Zaujali nás aj odpovede rodičov detí na otázku, či si ich dieťa meria hodnoty glykémie pred hodinou telesnej výchovy. Zo všetkých odpovedí sa väčšia časť respondentov zhodla na tom, že ich dieťa si pravidelne meria hodnoty glykémie pred hodinou telesnej výchovy. Malé percento rodičov sa vyjadrilo k danej otázke, že dieťa si nikdy nemeria glykémiu pred hodinou TV. Väčšia časť detí s DM 1. nie je oslobodená od hodiny telesnej výchovy, práve naopak, pravidelný pohyb im zabezpečuje dobrý zdravotný stav. Je nutné, aby deti s cukrovkou zvládli povinné a pravidelné hodiny TV. Medzi tieto povinnosti spadajú úlohy rodičov zabezpečiť posilnenú desiatu alebo mimoriadne meranie glykémie v deň pohybovej aktivity. Ďalšou úlohou rodičov je potrebné preveriť, či vie samotné dieťa posúdiť, akým množstvom stravy má mimoriadnu pohybovú aktivitu pokryť. Čo sa týka možnosti aplikácie inzulínu u detí v škole, mimo pohľadu ostatných, viac ako polovica respondentov sa zhodla na tom, že ich deti majú túto možnosť. U menšej časti respondentov sme sa stretli z negatívnou odpoveďou na túto otázku. Hladina cukru v krvi je závislá od rozličných faktorov. Z toho dôvodu je nutné mať správne hodnoty glykémie vždy pod kontrolou. Je dôležité spomenúť aj odpoveď rodičov, ktorých deti navštevujú súkromné škôlky, kde im vďaka tomu aplikujú inzulín vychovávateľky alebo sestry na ošetrovni v areáli škôlky. V súvislosti s vykonávaním pohybovej aktivity sme postrehli informáciu od rodičov detí s ochorením s DM 1, že prevažná väčšina uviedla ako správnu odpoveď možnosť dovoliť svojim deťom vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu s priebežným sledovaním hodnôt glykémie. Opakom tejto odpovede bola časť respondentov, ktorá vyjadrila nesúhlas s vykonávaním pohybovej aktivity pri zníženej glykémii. V položke iné doplnili odpoveď, že je nutné doplniť sacharidové jednotky a ďalej pokračovať v pohybovej aktivite. Pre pacientov s DM 1. liečenými inzulínom je potrebné rozlíšiť jednorazové zmeny režimu podľa aktuálnych hodnôt glykémie a príjmu sacharidov. Tie spočívajú hlavne v regulácii inzulínu pred prijatím stravy a napomáhajú k stabilizácii hyperglykémie alebo hypoglykémie, k oprave aktuálneho príjmu sacharidov (2). U detí s inzulínovou pumpou nás zaujímalo, či vie dieťa v súvislosti s pohybovou aktivitou správne ovládať pumpu a dávku jedla, aby dosiahlo čo najlepšiu hodnotu glykémie. Respondenti odpovedali, že vypnúť inzulínovú pumpu, doplniť

sacharidové jednotky alebo nevypínajú inzulínovú pumpu, ale doplnia sacharidové jednotky stravy. Dieťa môže vykonávať pohybovú aktivitu so zapnutou pumpou, ale je potrebné sledovať hodnoty. Najväčší počet odpovedí sa zhodlo na tom, že všetky z uvedených možností k otázke v súvislosti s inzulínovou pumpou pri pohybovej aktivite sú správne, záleží od konkrétnej hodnoty glykémie. Zaujímali sme sa aj o to, ako riešia situáciu rodičia dieťaťa, ak zistia vysoké hodnoty glykémie (15 mmol/l). Najväčší počet respondentov 63 (80,76 %) odpovedali správne, že pohybová aktivita sa neodporúča pri hodnote glykémie pod 4 mmol/l a nad 15 mmol/l (8).

Pri hodnotení znalostí pedagógov (567 pedagógov zo základných škôl a 197 z materských škôl) o ochorení DM, sme sa zamerali na informácie o fyziologickej hodnote glykémie v krvi nalačno, rozpoznanie príznakov hypo- alebo hyperglykémie, vedomostí o príčinách vzniku týchto komplikácií, a 1. pomoci pri komplikáciách. Takmer 68 % (n = 519) respondentov vedeli uviesť fyziologickú hodnotu glykémie v krvi nalačno. 68% respondentov vedelo správne rozpoznať príznaky hypoglykémie: potenie, tras, hlad, zrýchlený pulz, nervozita, závraty, bolesti hlavy dvojité videnie až kŕče. Väčšinou ide o hodnotu nižšiu ako 3,5 mmol/l. Ako najčastejšie príčiny vzniku hypoglykémie označilo správne iba 12,6% respondentov nadmernú fyzickú aktivitu, nedostatočný príjem stravy a aplikáciu vyššej dávky inzulínu. Podať sladký nápoj, jedlo a privolať lekársku službu prvej pomoci pri hypoglykémii označilo ako správnu kombináciu odpovedí iba 6,41 % respondentov. Na otázku, či by dieťa s DM malo byť oslobodené od hodín telesnej výchovy 62,83% odpovedalo záporne, teda nemali by byť oslobodené od telesnej výchovy. Dieťa s DM pred hodinou telesnej výchovy si musí podľa väčšiny - 52% respondentov skontrolovať hladinu glykémie. Ak si dieťa odmeria nízku hladinu glykémie môže cvičiť, ale najprv sa musí najesť, je správna odpoveď, ktorú uviedlo takmer 51% respondentov. Výskyt ochorenia DM v dnešnej dobre čoraz viac narastá, aj u detí a mladých ľudí. Preto je nutné, aby o tomto ochorení boli informovaní predovšetkým pedagógovia a vychovávatelia v školských zariadeniach, ktorí sa môžu so žiakom s diabetes mellitus počas svojej pedagogickej praxe stretnúť. Zároveň by mali byť informovaní ako postupovať v prípade akútnych komplikácií diabetu a dokázali tak žiakovi adekvátne pomôcť. Celkovo môžeme zhodnotiť, že pedagógovia majú základné informácie o ochorení diabetes mellitus a o akútnych komplikáciách diabetu. Prieskumom sme identifikovali aj oblasti, v ktorých pedagógovia nemali dostačujúce vedomosti. Domnievame sa, že hlbšie poznanie tejto problematiky odbremení pedagógov od strachu mať dieťa s DM 1.v triede.

2.5 Záver

Edukácia predstavuje prostriedok k zlepšeniu kvality života dieťaťa s ochorením diabetes mellitus 1. typu vo všetkých jej dimenziách. Vplyv edukácie na kvalitu života možno efektívne monitorovať. Dobré vedomosti a správna motivácia rodičov a detí s DM 1. by mali viesť k efektívnemu selfmonitoringu a liečbe ochorenia. Avšak rodič nemôže zabezpečiť všetky činnosti spojené s liečbou DM 1. počas vyučovania v škole. Vzhľadom na stúpajúcu incidenciu ochorenia DM sa budú učitelia čoraz častejšie stretávať počas pedagogickej praxe s deťmi, ktoré sa liečia na toto ochorenie. Aj od učiteľa sa v budúcnosti očakáva, že dokáže adekvátne reagovať na vzniknuté problémy u týchto žiakov počas vyučovania, v krúžkoch a prípadne v školskom klube detí. Pedagóg nemá kompetencie podávať lieky, aplikovať inzulín ani merať glykémiu. Môže však dozerať na dieťa, či všetky tieto činnosti vykonalo. V snahe uľahčiť starostlivosť o deti s chronickým ochorením v škole, vzišiel podnet a požiadavka z praxe, znovu vytvoriť pozíciu akejsi „školskej zdravotnej služby“.

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ČAS NA PREHODNOTENIE PSYCHAGÓGIE VO VZDELÁVANÍ ŽURNALISTOV

TIME TO REVISIT THE PSYCHAGOGY IN THE EDUCATION OF JOURNALISTS

Anna Sámelová

Abstrakt

Vychádzajúc z empiricky potvrdených zistení o dlhodobo upadajúcom stave vzdelanosti na Slovensku navrhuje autorka rozšíriť výchovu a vzdelávanie žurnalistov o prvok celoživotnej seba-kultivácie človeka, psychagógiu. Pedagogický proces orientovaný na zhromažďovanie memorovateľných poznatkov z jednotlivých vedných odborov, zdá sa, nedokáže naplniť očakávania v oblasti dosahovania komplexnej osobnosti. Osobitnú dôležitosť má v časoch „alternatívnych faktov" a „alternatívnych právd" osobná integrita novinára. Ak má totiž čeliť výzvam post-pravdivej éry, potrebuje na to aj špecifickú výbavu kognitívnych, technologických i mravnostných kompetencií. V ich harmonickej jednote.

Kľúčová slova: *žurnalistika, psychagógia, vzdelávanie, profesionalita, hodnoty*

Abstract

Based on empirically confirmed findings on the long-standing decrease in level of education in Slovakia, the author proposes to enrich the process of education and training of journalists through psychagogy, an element of lifelong self-cultivation. The pedagogical methods focused on memorising and collecting knowledge in the fields of sciences and arts do not seem to be able to meet the expectations of reaching a complex personality. In the era of "alternative facts" and "alternative truths", the personal integrity of the journalist is of key importance. If the journalist has to face the challenges of the "post-truth" era, he also needs a specific set of cognitive, technological as well as moral competencies. Within their harmonious unity.

Key words: *journalism, psychagogy, education, professionalism, values*

1 PEDAGOGIKA A ABSOLVENT ŽURNALISTIKY

Výchovno-vzdelávací proces chápeme komplexne ako párovú jednotku; ako dynamický plynulý priebeh cieľavedomého utvárania osobnosti v rámci pedagogického pôsobenia, v ktorom deliaca čiara medzi výchovou a vzdelávaním nie je zreteľná. Úsilie pedagógov však smeruje (alebo by malo smerovať) k dosahovaniu rovnako odborových vedomostí (vzdelanosť), ako aj hodnotových návykov a zručností (vychovanosť) u jednotlivcov i celých skupín podriadených pedagogickému pôsobeniu. Samotná pedagogika je však od čias Johanna Friedricha Herbarta (19. stor.) samostatnou vedeckou disciplínou, ktorej úlohou nie je iba vychovávať a vzdelávať, ale zároveň vykonávať v oboch týchto oblastiach vedecký výskum.

O komplexné vzdelávanie spoločne na tele i na duchu sa usilovali už archaickí Gréci (viac než päť storočí pred Kristom) vo svojom učení sa „umeniu života“.[1] Ideálom im bola tzv. *kalokagatia* – v procese vzdelávania striedali gymnastické cvičenia so „zmysluplnou a ušľachtilou intelektuálnou činnosťou“[2] s cieľom naučiť sa súčasne fyzickej zdatnosti i oddanosti vlasti.[3] Ich súkromný a verejný svet sa vo veľkej miere prelínali, dobrý život znamenal život v dobre spravovanej spoločnosti aktívnych občanov. Ambícia vzdelanosti sa napĺňala v procese výchovy cnostných občanov. „Hlavnou akademickou hodnotou nebol titul alebo publikácia, ale snaha o dobrý a zmysluplný život. […] Akademická kultúra bola súčasťou žitej reality, prirodzeného sveta.“[4]

V priebehu 20. storočia akceleroval pedagogický proces v oblasti efektivizácie postupov a dosahovania výsledkov práve tak, ako ostatné špeciálnovedné disciplíny. S istou mierou zveličenia možno konštatovať, že aj z výchovno-vzdelávacích praktík priamo na vyučovaní sa postupne stala veda. V tomto kontexte vyznieva inšpirujúco koncept *pedagógie* ako diltheyovskej výchovnej praxe v protiklade k pedagogickej teórii (hoci samotný pojem pedagógie sa medzi akademikmi veľmi nerozšíril).[5]

Na rozdiel od antických Grékov, ktorí svojím celoživotným vzdelávaním žili, a zároveň sa celý svoj život usilovali žiť vo vzdelanosti, výchovno-vzdelávacie ambície post-moderného človeka na Slovensku na začiatku tretieho tisícročia sú iné. Výchovu a vzdelávanie chápe zväčša ako jednu životnú etapu. Tá sa zvyčajne viaže k detstvu a mladosti, a sprevádza ju inštitucionálne a inštitucionalizované zhromažďovanie poznatkov z jednotlivých vedných odborov. Nie nadobúdanie „umenia života“. Napríklad: mladý Slovák[6] sa neučí rétoriku ani argumentáciu, aby vedel prakticky používať materinský jazyk, učí sa lingvistiku materinského jazyka, aby nadobudol schopnosť zrealizovať slovný a vetný rozbor. Ten prevýšil nad zručnosťou rétoriky v jej gramatickej i štylistickej podobe a takmer celkom vytlačil umenie slova zo školských osnov. Je známe, že čítanie s porozumením sa dá natrénovať len v dialógu či diskusii, no metodickú podstatu vyučovania a preverovania vedomostí tvorí na Slovensku písanie a testovanie. Analogicky sa mladý Slovák neučí ako funguje svet, učí sa však fyzikálne, biologické či chemické vedy, kde schopnosť priradiť vzorec a dosadiť doň konkrétne hodnoty prevýšila nad zručnosťou nájsť vo svete závislosti a súvislosti. Do tretice sa mladý Slovák neučí hodnotám, učí sa o hodnotách; čiže neučí sa, ako žiť hodnotami, učí sa teóriu rôznych hodnotových systémov. Dlhodobým výsledkom výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu v slovenských pomeroch sú zistenia, že:

a) mediálna gramotnosť obyvateľstva, ktorej súčasťou je aj čítanie s porozumením, je nízka: v Indexe mediálnej gramotnosti 2018 sa Slovensko umiestnilo spomedzi 35 skúmaných krajín Európy až na 22. mieste;[7]

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[1] SEID, T. *Philosophical Roots of Ancient Christian Practice and its Current Potential for Well-being*. [online]. Earlham School of Religion. Programmed worship, Sept. 25, 2014. Dostupné na internete: <http://esrquaker.blogspot.com/2014/09/philosophical-roots-of-ancient.html>. [Prístup 2018-06-12]

[2] ŠKVRNDA, F.: Akademické hodnoty v antike. In Višňovský, E. (ed.). *Univerzita, spoločnosť, filozofia: realita versus hodnoty*. 1. vydanie. Bratislava: Iris, 2014, s. 188.

[3] Tamže, s. 188.

[4] Tamže, s.197, 198.

[5] Pozri heslo „pedagógia“. In PIAČEK, J., KRAVČÍK, M.: *FILIT*, c.d. [online]. Dostupné na: <http://dai.fmph.uniba.sk/~filit/fvp/pedagogia.html>. [Prístup 2018-06-12].

[6] Rovnaký výchovno-vzdelávací proces sa vzťahuje aj na ženy, t. j. na mladé Slovenky. V rámci prehľadnosti textu však používam v štúdii iba jeden rod – mužský.

[7] OPEN SOCIETY INSTITUTE – SOFIA: *Media Literacy Index 2018*. [online]. Dostupné na: <http://osi.bg/downloads/File/2018/MediaLiteracyIndex2018_publishENG.pdf>. [Prístup 2018-06-11].

b) základná aplikačná gramotnosť premeny poznatkov na vedomosti, tzv. funkčná gramotnosť je nízka a naďalej klesá vo všetkých skúmaných oblastiach čitateľskej, matematickej i prírodovednej gramotnosti: v meraní PISA dosahujú slovenskí žiaci významne nižšie skóre, než je priemer v krajinách OECD;[8]
c) aktívna participácia občanov na verejnom živote klesá: empirické dáta z reprezentatívnych výskumov dokazujú, že okruh aktívnych občanov sa na Slovensku nerozširuje, ale zužuje.[9]

Štúdium žurnalistiky je tiež súčasťou tohto nastavenia výchovy a vzdelávania mládeže na Slovensku. Teoretička a pedagogička v odbore žurnalistiky Svetlana Hlavčáková skúmala profil absolventa. Vo svojej štúdii[10] sa sústredila na širokú škálu čiastkových problémov od 1) určenia, či novinár vôbec potrebuje nejaké univerzitné vzdelanie, a ak áno, tak aké; cez 2) špecifikáciu odlíšenia študijného odboru žurnalistiky od odboru masmediálnych štúdií, 3) riešenie tradičnej dilemy pomeru teoretických a praktických predmetov, 4) koordináciu akademického vzdelávania žurnalistov s potrebami trhu až po 5) rozsah potreby flexibilne reagovať na všetky zmeny v danom čase (multimedializácia masmédií, konvergencia publikačných platforiem, kreovanie multimediálneho novinára). Svetlana Hlavčáková napokon konštatuje: „Študijné programy žurnalistiky nie sú bezpodmienečne povinné sledovať a reagovať na každú, i tú najmenšiu zmenu (technologickú novinku) rýchlo sa meniacich masových médií. Ich poslanie je širšie – mali by prinášať koncepty a metodologické nástroje na hlbšie pochopenie diania vo svete a jeho adekvátneho stvárnenia.“[11]

Študenti žurnalistiky majú v aktuálnom pedagogickom procese dostatočné zázemie na nadobudnutie teoreticko-dejinných poznatkov i praktických zručnostných návykov vo svojom odbore. Napriek tomu z nich, zdá sa, nevyrastajú nasledovaniahodní intelektuáli s vysokou odborovou gramotnosťou, zrelou kogníciou a zároveň vysokou občianskou mravnosťou, ktorých súkromný a verejný život by boli harmonickou jednotou systematického úsilia o dosiahnutie zmysluplného života. Jedno aj druhé totiž nie je záležitosťou niekoľkých rokov inštitucionálneho výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu, ale celoživotného prístupu k sebe samému a k svetu, v ktorom žijem. Ide tu o starostlivosť o seba samého, čiže o *psychagógiu*.

2 PSYCHAGÓGIA A ZODPOVEDNÝ ŽURNALIZMUS

Samotný pojem psychagógie je odvodeninou pojmu psychológia. Psychológia skúma ľudské ja a ľudskú myseľ, psychagógia ich sprevádza – je takpovediac „sprievodcom duše“.[12] Ak Wilhelm Dilthey zaviedol pedagógiu ako výchovnú prax v protiklade k pedagogickej teórii, tak psychagógia plní podobnú úlohu výchovnej praxe v protiklade k teóriám psychologických vied. Pretože poznanie zákonitostí psychickej regulácie správania človeka a systematické uplatňovanie týchto poznatkov na skvalitnenie jeho života (čo je základná definícia

[8] NÚCEM: *Národná správa PISA 2015*. [online]. Dostupné na: <http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27//NS_PISA_2015.pdf>. [Prístup 2018-06-11].
[9] BÚTOROVÁ, Z., GYÁRFÁŠOVÁ, O.: Občianska participácia: trendy, problémy, súvislosti. In *Sociológia*, 2010, roč. 42, č. 5, s. 447-491.
[10] HLAVČÁKOVÁ, S. Profil absolventa univerzitného štúdia žurnalistiky v digitálním veku. In *Otázky žurnalistiky*, 2017, roč. 60, č. 3-4, s. 24-38.
[11] Tamže, s. 27.
[12] SEID, T. W. *Psychagogy in Paul: What Is It, How Does It Help Us Understand Paul, and Why Does It Matter?* [online]. Earlham School of Religion. Dostupné na internete: <https://www.scs.earlham.edu/~seidti/psychagogy.pdf>. [Prístup 2018-06-12]; alebo aj

psychológie)[13] nemusia nutne viesť k želateľným výsledkom (viď analógiu s výsledkami aplikácie vedeckého pedagogického procesu v praxi výchovy a vzdelávania mládeže na Slovensku). Filozofka Sabína Gáliková Tolnaiová upozorňuje práve na problematickosť súčasnej paradigmy: samotný výchovno-vzdelávací proces prirovnáva k výrobnému procesu, pretože v ňom okrem iného „ide o dosiahnutie istého určeného výsledku, ktorý, ak nebol dosiahnutý u konkrétneho jedinca, tak sa považuje podobne ako menej vydarený či nevydarený výrobok za 'menej-cenný', pretože 'nevydarený'."[14] Povedané inak, pedagogický proces sa sústreďuje na žiaka/študenta ako na *objekt* výchovno-vzdelávacieho pôsobenia s lepšími či horšími výsledkami. On je však *subjektom* tohto procesu a nedá sa od neho oddeliť. Miera dosahovania jeho (ne)úspechu je priamo závislá od miery jeho osobnej (ne)participácie na procese výchovy a vzdelávania. Dôležitá je motivácia a v tomto smere sa vhodným metodologickým nástrojom javí práve psychagógia.

Psychagógia je seba-kultiváciou človeka prostredníctvom vyhodnocovania žitých udalostí v rámci konkrétnych hodnôt. Sabína Gáliková Tolnaiová nazvala tento proces „učením sa životu" – učením sa „ako žiť, ako pobývať vo svete, ako sa ho zúčastňovať, pričom podstatným psychagogickým (spolu)pohybom, resp. udalosťou je v tom 'životný obrat' k zmyslu a hodnotám."[15] Je to úloha na celý život, ktorej cieľom je nerezignovať na zmysel a hodnoty v akejkoľvek žitej situácii. Takéto zadanie cieľa pedagogického procesu si však vyžaduje dlhodobú aktívnu participáciu na oboch stranách – tak na strane vyučujúceho, ako aj na strane vyučovaného. Prvý musí vedieť a chcieť umenie života odovzdávať, druhý ho musí vedieť a chcieť prijímať. Nemecký neurológ a filozof Viktor von Weizsäcker skúmal účinky napomienok a výčitiek na zmeny v správaní napomínaného človeka. Zistil, že priame napomínanie je neúčinné a že významnejší efekt v zlepšení vyčítaného stavu má pohovor a dohoda.[16] Pohovor a dohoda však v sebe skrývajú istú prekážku: „v praxi neumíme na lidi působit větší silou, než jaké jsme sami dosáhli, neumíme řešit konflikty na úrovni, na níž jsme je sami nevyřešili; […j]e otázka, jaká síla se tu míní. […] vůbec ne rázu vitálně psychického, nýbrž duchovního. Musí to tedy být například síla intelektu, vědění, dobroty, lásky, moudrosti, síly nebo vytrvalosti. Hledat řád těchto sil a jejich význam pro náš problém je nezbytným úkolem systematické psychagogie."[17]

Keď sa však v súvislosti s procesom výchovy a vzdelávania povie *duchovno*, často nasleduje predstava spiritualizmu, mysticizmu, skrátka čohokoľvek, čo nie je zlučiteľné s racionálnym a racionalizovaným náhľadom post-moderného človeka na svet. No duchovno má širšie významové zázemie. Pre Michela Foucaulta napríklad je duša väzením tela[18] – a na mysli tu nemá nič mimovedecké, ale fenomén, ktorý Zygmunt Bauman neskôr nazval D.I.Y. panoptizmom[19] – čiže väzenie sebakontrolou, sebaregulácioU, sebadisciplínou človeka, z ktorej sa dá čiastočne vymaniť práve starostlivosťou o seba samého – seba-kultiváciou. Treba povedať, že podobnú rolu duchovného sprievodcu v procese seba-kultivácie človeka

[13] Pozri napr. heslo „psychológia". In PIAČEK, J., KRAVČÍK, M.: *FILIT*, c.d. [online]. Dostupné na: < http://dai.fmph.uniba.sk/~filit/fvp/psychologia.html>. [Prístup 2018-06-12].
[14] GÁLIKOVÁ TOLNAIOVÁ, S. *Problém výchovy na prahu 21. storočia alebo o „obrate k psychagógii" v súčasnej filozofii výchovy.* 1. vydanie. Bratislava: Iris, 2007, s. 18.
[15] GÁLIKOVÁ TOLNAIOVÁ, S. *Idea psychagógie v holistickej perspektíve*. 1. vydanie. Bratislava: Iris, 2014. s. 124.
[16] WEIZSÄCKER, V. von. Čtyři přednášky o zásadách psychagogie se zřetelem k jejím biologickým a ontologickým základům. In Němec, J. (zost.). *Bolest a naděje. Deset esejů o osobním zrání*. Praha: Vyšehrad, 1992, s. 100.
[17] Tamže, s. 122.
[18] FOUCAULT, M. *Dozerať a trestať. Zrod väzenia*. 2. vydanie. Bratislava: Kalligram, 2004, s. 34.
[19] BAUMAN, Z., LYON, D. *Tekutý dohled*. 1. vydanie. Olomouc: Broken Books, 2013, s. 62-64, 68, 73.

zastáva aj tradičná náboženská pastorácia. Teologička Hedviga Tkáčová Hennelová však tvrdí, že samotná potreba starostlivosti o seba „ďaleko presahuje hranice kresťanstva alebo cirkvi.“[20] Upozorňuje na to, že online médiá na seba prevzali úlohu niekdajších náboženstiev tak z hľadiska interpretácie sveta, ako aj z hľadiska symboliky. Dokážu meniť životný štýl, myslenie a správanie sa ľudí. Internet sa, podľa jej slov, „stáva arbitrom pravdy, keďže reálne a dôležité je to, čo ľudia vidia ’na vlastné oči‘.“[21]

Globalizovaný svet je iný než polouzavretý svet národných štátov. Používa iné technológie, iný životný štýl, iné formy komunikácie. Náhľad na tento svet profesionálni novinári formujú, udržiavajú i menia. Ich konkurentmi sú však publikujúci ne-profesionáli, ktorí zverejňovanie svojich textov, zvukov a obrazov v online médiách považujú rovnako za zábavné spestrenie zabehnutej rutiny svojho života, ako aj za možnosť ovplyvňovať a meniť svet. Bez ohľadu na faktickú pravdivosť či nepravdivosť svojej vízie sveta. Na to, aby tomuto svetu difúznych právd, polopravd i lží žurnalistickí profesionáli dostatočne porozumeli a dokázali sa v ňom zmysluplne orientovať, ich však treba vybaviť náležitými schopnosťami, zručnosťami, kompetenciami. „To si vyžaduje aj schopnosť hĺbkovej analýzy a hľadania skrytých, často v prvom momente len intuitívne tušených premenných a zároveň holistický a kritický pohľad nielen na dianie vo svete ako také, ale preventívne, v rámci zásad kritického myslenia a jeho metódy zdvorilého spochybňovania pochádzajúcej už z čias Descartovej metodickej skepsy, aj kritický pohľad na vlastné presvedčenie o tomto dianí.“[22]

Kľúčovým prvkom žurnalistiky budúcnosti sa v tomto kontexte stáva osobná integrita novinára. Pretože dnes dominantné techniky mediálnej praxe (rutinné publikovanie tlačových správ, informácií z brífingov a iných pseudo-mediálnych udalostí) budú patriť do publikačnej sféry autonómnych robotov a štandardných počítačových softvérov. Ľudskému novinárovi dá konkurenčný potenciál jeho hodnotovo orientovaná tvorba. Vidíme ju aj dnes v špecializovaných odvetviach profesionálov. Napríklad v investigatívnej žurnalistike, konštruktívnej žurnalistike či žurnalistike riešení. Sú to však nákladné (a aj menšinové) žánre, a nie synonymá výrazu *profesionálny žurnalizmus*.

3 ZÁVER

Výchova a vzdelávanie profesionálnych žurnalistov – založené na objektivizovateľných metodikách memorovania a zhromažďovania poznatkov špeciálnych vied 20. storočia – ukazuje v súčasnosti svoje slabiny. Zodpovedná žurnalistika 21. storočia však má pred sebou významné technologické, kognitívne i mravnostné výzvy. V čase všeobecnej proliferácie tzv. *alternatívnych faktov* a *alternatívnych právd* je totiž „nesmierne dôležité odlíšiť manipulačné tendencie reklamných obsahov a kriticky pristupovať k tým mediálnym.“[23] To si však vyžaduje významne inú duchovnú výbavu žurnalistov, než akú predkladá súčasná metodika pedagogického procesu v Slovenskej republike. Riešenie ponúka učenie sa praxi v starostlivosti o seba samého, celoživotnej praxi seba-kultivácie, čiže psychagógia.

[20] TKÁČOVÁ HENNELOVÁ, H. Internet – postmoderný nástroj pastorácie. In *Otázky žurnalistiky*, 2013, roč. 56, č. 1-2, s. 150.
[21] Tamže, s. 149.
[22] IVANIČ, P. Teoretické, metodologické a pedagogické východiská predmetu Globálne výzvy (nielen) pre žurnalistov. In *Otázky žurnalistiky*, 2017, roč. 60, č. 3-4, s. 178.
[23] HACEK, J. Mediálna výchova – vzdelávanie od kolísky po hrob. In *Otázky žurnalistiky*, 2013, roč. 56, č. 1-2, s. 130.

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10. NÚCEM: *Národná správa PISA 2015*. [online]. Dostupné na: <http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27//NS_PISA_2015.pdf>. [Prístup 2018-06-11].
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THE IMPACT OF A FACEBOOK GROUP ON DEVELOPING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' EFL COMPETENCE: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

The presented case study approaches Facebook from the foreign language education perspective. The aim of the study is to identify the components of English communicative competence in which the university students benefited from our Facebook group. The set goal is achieved by means of semi-structured interviews, diaries, and content analysis, while the topic is inspected from the students' point of view. The research material involves qualitative data acquired from thirty-four college students. As for the outcomes, the students benefited from the Facebook group in five areas of their foreign language communicative competence, including vocabulary, writing, reading, grammar, and cultural knowledge. Our results indicate that Facebook groups can have positive influence on students' performance in English.

Keywords: *Facebook group, teaching / learning English as a foreign language, EFL communicative competence, university student, case study*

1 INTRODUCTION

Multimodal pedagogies that blend real-life interaction with Facebook groups can be employed in academia for at least three reasons. First, the use of Facebook in tertiary (foreign language) education is anchored in learning theories (such as social constructivism or Situated Learning Theory) which reflect the changing nature of knowledge consumption and creation (Selwyn, 2010; McLoughlin and Lee, 2010; Hung and Yuen, 2010). These changes are tied with student-driven learning and high connectivity, collectivism, and creativity of students (ibid.). Second, a Facebook group is a dynamic environment that "challenges the learners and the educators to provide original and creative solutions for learning" (Meishar-Tal et al., 2012, p. 37). Third, a Facebook group not only breaks the hierarchy and static nature of courses created in traditional learning management systems but also can substitute them in their key roles, because it allows interactive study activities and can serve as a platform for storing e-materials (ibid.). The mentioned reasons have provided a solid ground for a closer investigation of Facebook's potential in higher education, while we focused on the opportunities it offers for developing communicative competence in English as a foreign language (EFL).

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

During the past decade, researchers have continually studied the potentials of this social networking site for the English classroom at the tertiary level of formal education. The reviewed research approaches the topic from two (usually) intertwined points of view - the intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic. Although extra-linguistic aspects play more or less important roles in the EFL learning process, they are marginalised in this report due to space limitations.

In terms of the intra-linguistic perspective, students' use of the English language on Facebook prognoses their EFL performance (Kao and Craigie, 2014), while there are indications in the reviewed research that Facebook can play a role in developing EFL reading and writing skills. Al-Shehri (2011) reported positive perceptions of using English on Facebook among Saudi

Arabian university students, and further, the participants felt that their ability to process ideas from multiple English-written sources had improved. Drouin (2011) did not rely on subjective data but proved Facebook's suitability for developing EFL reading with an objective measurement in which a positive correlation between frequency of messaging and fluency of reading was found. As for EFL writing, Razak et al. (2013) concluded that certain activities conducted in their Facebook group (such as interaction among its members or sharing information) enhanced students' writing skills. Sun (2010) and Hsu (2013) added that students often become more engaged in the writing process and care more about the language quality of their output due to extended exposure; thus, a writing practice in a Facebook group can foster self-directed EFL learning. Shih (2011) also implemented a Facebook group into writing instruction, while a noticeable improvement in participants' vocabulary, spelling, grammar, content, and paragraph organisation was observed. Other authors (e.g. Kabilan et al., 2010; Yunus et al., 2012; Bani-Hani and Al-Sobh, 2014) agreed that Facebook had helped EFL students in overcoming spelling mistakes and developing vocabulary, though a considerable number of students did not notice any significant change in their English performance (Kabilan et al., 2010). Furthermore, Andwaruddin (2012) declared that Facebook had encouraged a significant number of students to use deviant forms of English (e.g. informal contractions or simplified syntax).

Several studies, including some of the aforementioned ones, examined the implementation of Facebook in this particular foreign language education (FLE) context also from the extra-linguistic perspective. The adoption of this tool made EFL learning an enjoyable experience (Romano, 2009) and implanted a positive attitude towards EFL learning and communication (Kabilan et al., 2010). However, research also demonstrates that the level of university students' motivation to learn English either remained unchanged (Simpson, 2012) or decreased to the initial state, after the novelty abated (Hsu, 2013). Besides extrinsic motivation to learn English, the researchers discussed Facebook in connection with (1) ubiquitous exposure to the English language and unprecedented student-teacher interaction (Yunus et al., 2012), (2) "pressure-free" atmosphere for English communication and learning (Andwaruddin, 2012; Simpson, 2012; Hsu, 2013; Small, 2014), (3) distraction potential (Yunus et al., 2012; Bani-Hani and Al-Sobh, 2014), (4) students' inhibited capability to follow daily postings (Hsu, 2013; Razak et al., 2013), and (5) technical problems (Razak et al., 2013).

3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

The aim of the present study is to identify the components of EFL communicative competence that our Facebook study group helped to develop. In order to achieve in-depth understanding of the studied phenomenon, we designed a qualitative case study. Our approach focuses exclusively on the student perspective, and it is based on multiple research methods (semi-structured interviews, diaries, and content analysis), applied in real context (our Facebook group), and confronted with theory (the reviewed literature).

3.1 Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews with college EFL students present the first source of data. The principal aim of the semi-standardized interview is to obtain an informant's subjective response to a known situation from his or her lived world. Scheele and Groeben (1988) termed this rich inventory of information about the topic of interest as subjective theory. In our case, the semi-structured interview is aimed at reconstructing university students' subjective theories (in terms of their perceptions, views, beliefs, opinions, and attitudes) related to the influence of the Facebook group on EFL performance. Using a modifiable

interview guide, we conducted pre-interviews (after students' first contact with EFL instruction supported by Facebook) and post-interviews (after the study experience with the Facebook group) to get a fairer picture of students' subjective theories and to trace potential changes in the data.

The second source of data has the form of diaries kept by university students. We used the method of diary studies to validate our interview instrumentation and to track further students' language learning activities connected with the Facebook group. The student diaries have the form of semi-structured response journals in which the participants recorded their language learning activities and actual EFL learning progress within an environment between fixed and absent structure.

3.2 Data Analysis

The first phase of the process involved identifying research-related ideas, phrases, actions, connections, or features in the interview transcripts and differentiating these items with code labels. The initial codes emerged from the raw interview data. As coding is a dynamic process (Benaquisto, 2008), the labels identified in the initial coding phase were refined. Similar ideas were joined together into broader concepts, and some ideas were reduced or reconceptualised by searching for other variations. This process of refinement resulted in creating the final analytical system.

The developed system was also applied in the second phase. There are two reasons for this approach: one is that the interview data is superior to the diaries which mostly act as supplements; the other is that the diaries are used for increasing interview validity. The diary entries were thus processed by seeking out ideas related to the interview coding system. The only code label that occurred exclusively in the diaries was then logically assigned to the existing framework.

3.3 Sample

The research sample included thirty-four university students, ranging from freshmen to juniors. The sample consisted of teacher trainees (n=22) and students of the programme "Occupational Safety and Health" (n=12). These students were enrolled in our "English for Academic Purposes 1" (EAP 1) course and its Facebook module.

From the available sample, seventeen students were randomly selected for the pre-/post-interviews. Two students participated only in one phase; therefore, we conducted thirty-two interviews in total. The length of the interviews ranged from 17′ 46″ to 50′ 30″. All research participants (n=34) kept semi-structured diaries. These student products tracked an eight-week period of the EAP 1 course, and the material for analysis included 606 diary entries.

4 FINDINGS

The findings are based entirely on participants' subjective theories, and similarly to most of the reviewed studies, they lack an objective data component. The analytical system encompasses five categories which are further segmented into ten more precise codes (see Tab. 1).

4.1 Vocabulary

That the Facebook study group somehow assisted in developing lexis was noted one hundred twenty times in the data (19x in the interviews and 101x in the diaries), while traces of this

component were found among thirty-two students. The positive impact of the Facebook group on vocabulary development seems to be its major benefit for EFL learning in our case study.

Twenty-four students (1a, 2a, 3a, 5a, 6a, 10a, 12a, 14a, 15a, 16a, 18a, 2b, 4b, 5b, 6b, 8b, 9b, 11b, 12b, 14b, 15b, 17b, 19b, and 20b) *claimed that they have learned new words thanks to the study group.* Student 12a stated that as "[...] we used English all the time, I have learned there new vocabulary". In her diary, however, she highlighted the assistance in vocabulary development as "the only benefit of the Facebook group". Student 14b claimed in the post-interview that "there was some improvement thanks to the seminars, but the group caused the most radical improvement" in her EFL vocabulary. Apart from the vague responses of students 8b (who "noticed improvement in vocabulary") and 20b (who "learned a lot of new words thanks to our Facebook group"), no further context was presented in the remaining interviews. According to their diary entries (except for students 12a and 14b), the Facebook group aided in acquiring unspecified vocabulary items related to schooling (students: 3a, 10a, 15a, 2b, 4b, 8b, 11b, 19b, 20b), scientific texts (students: 2b, 5b, 8b, 11b, 19b), and work (students: 10a, 2b, 4b, 5b, 6b, 8b, 11b, 15b). Students 1a, 2a, 5a, 6a, 14a, 16a, 18a, 9b, 12b, and 17b recorded the learned lexical items in their diaries, though it is still not clear from their data how exactly the EAP 1 Facebook group helped them to expand their vocabulary. The examples are arranged according to the aforementioned categories: (1) schooling - *all-nighter, boarding school, (to) cram, department, dean, dictation, freshman, lecture, novice, sophomore,* etc.; (2) scientific texts - e.g. *aim, conclusion, result, (to) conduct, (to) examine, (to) indicate, interviewee, researcher,* or *stimulus*; and (3) work - *ambitious, applicant, attachment, decisive, desirable, essential, experienced, jack-of-all-trades, job hopper, post, salary, skilful, teamwork, wage,* etc.

Eight participants (4a, 7a, 13a, 17a, 1b, 10b, 13b, and 18b) allowed deeper insight into the discussed topic, since they *connected vocabulary development with reading, repeated exposure, and homework.* As the content of the group was in English, student 13a was forced to read and translate the text and that "helped [her] mostly in vocabulary". However, she noted only two examples in her diary, namely *(to) cram* and *tuition*. Similarly, reading English texts in the Facebook group "almost daily had a positive impact on developing vocabulary" (student 4a, post-interview). Students 10b and 18b explained in the interviews and diaries that they acquired new words such as *advertisement, (to) attend, curriculum, (to) enrol, expertise, influence, responsible, requirement, salary,* or *volunteer* by reading others' comments. Student 13b expressed the same opinion in his diary. Student 7a noticed several words (e.g. *foreign language, previous, propose*) multiple times in members' postings, and it helped her to remember them. Student 1b enriched his vocabulary via "Facebook homework". Similarly, an assignment in the group "forced [student 17a] to think about vocabulary", and this was helpful for remembering new lexical items (including *aim, result,* or *conclusion*).

4.2 Writing

A sample of twenty-two students provided evidence pointing to beneficial effects of the EAP 1 Facebook group on English writing performance. Positive influence on students' writing output is the second most prominent feature of the Facebook group, as it was identified fifty-two times, namely ten times in the pre-/post-interviews and forty-two times in the student diaries.

In the related data, students 10a, 17a, 2b, 8b, 9b, 10b, and 13b *concluded that writing activities in the Facebook group* (i.e. regular homework or extra tasks) *were helpful in developing EFL writing.* Student 8b admitted having problems in written communication, but

since the Facebook group offered a lot of writing opportunities "it is getting better". As the tasks in the group required writing several sentences, "it definitely helped [student 10a] to improve writing". Student 9b explained in the post-interview that "the most significant improvement" occurred in writing skills. Students 17a and 10b praised "Facebook homework" as a means of English writing practice. "It definitely helped [her] in this aspect" (student 17a). Compared to the above interview responses, more specific clues were extracted from the diaries of students 2b, 9b, and 13b. Facebook writing tasks impacted their ability to create syntactically correct sentences (13b), formulate "answers as whole sentences" (2b), and "express in a concise and clear manner" (9b).

In their diaries, participants 2a, 3a, 5a, 7a, 14a, 15a, 16a, 18a, 15b, 18b, and 19b *valued the practical context of the Facebook writing practice*. They appreciated writing an abstract (3a, 14a, 16a, 18b, 19b) and/or motivation letter (3a, 14a, 16a, 18a, 19b) and the activities aimed at practising correct word order (5a). Furthermore, students 2a, 7a, 15a, and 15b agreed that the posted study materials and exercises helped them to write abstracts and motivation letters relevant for their own academic and professional purposes.

Six students, namely 17a, 18a, 8b, 9b, 11b, and 18b *benefited from others' postings in their own writing output.* In the initial interview, student 8b replied: "It is also great that I can read what others wrote, and this helps me a lot in my own writing". Similarly, "others' comments in the study group helped [student 11b] in formulating [his] own sentences" (diary entry). Student 17a faced several problems while composing sentences, but she could "see others' comments, recall previous knowledge, and then use it in writing [her] own comment". She recorded in her diary that comments from other group members had positive influence on word choice and syntax. Student 18a was able to produce a sentence but had problems with the position of adverbials. The others' work "had definitely helped [her] with this", as she stated in the post-interview. According to her and student 18b's diary, it was also helpful in writing compound and complex sentences. Additionally, student 9b mentioned in the diary that he had successfully used the preposition "due to" in a sentence thanks to other comments in the group.

The group audience forced students 4a, 13a, and 16a *to focus on semantic, formal, and structural aspects of their writing output.* Students 4a and 16a aimed to use suitable expressions and form syntactically correct sentences. Student 13a, on the other hand, focused "on correct spelling and intelligibility of the comments".

Finally, student 5b *admitted* after the study experience *that the Facebook group supressed her EFL writing anxiety.* Furthermore, "it was interesting to practise English writing in the Facebook group".

4.3 Cultural Awareness

The idea that the content of our Facebook group raised students' cultural awareness was presented by twenty-four research subjects and appeared twenty-nine times in their data (4x in the interviews and 25x in the diaries). Although there was only a single culturally-oriented task (a collaborative activity in which the students developed a database of information about schooling in English-speaking countries), the potential of the Facebook group for developing cultural knowledge was apparent.

All twenty-four *participants* who mentioned this code *claimed to learn new information about schooling in Anglophone countries*. Student 20b found out in the homework assignment that

Australian students wear uniforms at school. Except for this one participant, none of the interviewees (10a, 12a, and 13a) provided particular examples of acquired cultural knowledge related to school systems. The diary data of students 1a, 2a, 3a, 7a, 10a, 15a, 16a, 17a, 18a, 1b, 6b, 8b, 10b, and 17b did not allow us to track further any related context; the entries simply agreed upon gaining new knowledge related to schooling in English-speaking countries via the given task. The remaining diaries, on the other hand, contained at least examples of the acquired cultural knowledge, including: a.) school dress code in Anglophone countries (6a, 14a, 2b, 20b); b.) the most prestigious public schools in the UK (9b and 20b); c.) the oldest and most prestigious Australian universities (6a and 9b); d.) subjects taught at UK secondary schools (9b); e.) US grading system (6a); f.) cheerleading (13b); g.) Australian summer holidays (5a); and h.) typical teachers and head teachers in English-speaking countries (19b).

4.4 Reading

Six students reported in the diaries that the EAP 1 Facebook group positively influenced their EFL reading skills. This diary-exclusive code occurred twelve times in the data.

Students 13a, 17a, 9b, 10b, 11b, and 14b *developed reading comprehension via the content of the Facebook group.* Students 17a and 11b agreed that since every group post was in English, the group aided in reading comprehension. In the case of student 14b, her "improved ability to understand an English text" was caused by one of the digital tasks. Student 10b also reported positive impact on understanding texts written in English. Moreover, he mentioned two particular reading "micro-skills" in which he had improved with the assistance of the Facebook group. He was able to identify required information in the text and decide whether a piece of information is correct or incorrect. Students 13a and 9b developed their reading comprehension skills via reading others' posts. Student 9b further explicated that he "improved in understanding the "core" meaning of a comment". The group postings also helped him to "sense meaning connection" between different ideas.

4.5 Grammar

Enhanced knowledge of grammar was mentioned six times (four times in the interviews and twice in a diary).

It was the *teacher's feedback* in the form of comments that *helped* students 8b, 9b, 10b, and 20b *to understand grammatical rules.* Teacher's comments with simple grammar explanations and hyperlinks for further reading helped student 10b to understand that "verbs in 3rd person plural do not have -s at the end" and "I is always capitalized" (diary entries). Student 9b also "witnessed some improvement in [his] grammatical structures", as he explained in the post-interview. Again, a teacher's post was valuable and helped him to understand "how to use do and does appropriately". The post-instruction interviews with students 8b and 20b uncovered very similar (though not so specific) ideas. From the teacher's reactions, student 8b "learned what grammatical mistakes [he] made". Student 20b "understood some grammatical rules thanks to [teacher's] or others' feedback".

5 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Starting from a more general perspective, the findings suggest positive perception of the EAP 1 Facebook group as a tool of FLE education. As in Romano (2009), Kabilan et al. (2010), or Al-Shehri (2011), the EFL instruction by means of a Facebook group did not connote any negative associations. Apart from that, the participants mentioned five different areas (connected with the EFL communicative competence) in which they benefited from the

Facebook group. However, the reported improvements in students' English should be further investigated, since an objective measurement is lacking in our study.

Among other significant benefits of Facebook groups as complements to English classes, Shih (2011), Kabilan et al. (2010), Yunus et al. (2012), and Bani-Hani and Al-Sobh (2014) listed positive influence on vocabulary development. In fact, the same potential turned to be the most frequently occurring one within the limits of this case study. A dominant part of the students (n=24) expressed vaguely that they have learned new words thanks to the Facebook group. However, it was not clear how. Some students (n=8) were more specific. They learned new lexical items via reading others' posts, repeated exposure, and completing posted assignments.

Twenty-two students felt that the Facebook group helped them in developing their EFL writing skills. Razak et al. (2013) pointed to peer interaction and sharing materials as vehicles of developing EFL writing, but in our case, the process seems to be closely related with the exposure to others' writing products and the writing practice itself. However, the present study parallels in two writing-related aspects with the studied literature. First, the EAP 1 group promoted autonomous EFL learning through its audience. Similarly to Sun (2010) and Hsu (2013), the idea of a larger audience composed of more proficient members probably "forced" few participants to focus on structural, formal, and lexical correctness of their EFL writing output. Second, the modifier "pressure-free" can be added to the characteristics of the learning environment of our Facebook group, as there is a record in the data that "Facebook writing" lowered one student's EFL writing anxiety. This finding supports the idea that a Facebook group puts students at ease when using English (Andwaruddin, 2012; Simpson, 2012; Hsu, 2013; Small, 2014). Moreover, no traces of deviant English caused by the relaxed atmosphere (as in Andwaruddin, 2012) have been found.

The data also pointed to the potential of the Facebook group for raising target culture awareness. A group of twenty-four participants became familiar with new cultural knowledge related to schooling thanks to the Facebook group. However, its potential for developing students' knowledge of the target culture must be viewed in a wider context, since teachers can post culture-oriented content with a high level of cultural authenticity or ask students to follow culturally-relevant Facebook pages founded by native speakers.

Six participants enhanced their ability to process a written English text. Based on their subjective theories, the improvement in reading comprehension was connected with the study activities in the Facebook group (e.g. reading others' comments). The collected data did not allow us to inspect whether the Facebook group assisted in developing reading fluency (Drouin, 2011) or processing information from multiple English sources (Al-Shehri, 2011).

We also detected in the data that teacher's comments (feedback) helped four students to understand particular grammatical rules (such as the use of do/does or capitalization of the personal pronoun I).

Tab. 1 - The components of EFL communicative competence in which the university students benefited from the EAP 1 Facebook group

Components	**Times occurred** + source	**Code Labels**
I. Vocabulary	**120x**	***1.) students developed vocabulary via the Facebook group***

	(I: 19x; D: 101x)	***2.) students developed vocabulary via reading, repeated exposure, and homework in the Facebook group***
II. Writing	**52x** (I: 10x; D: 42x)	***3.) students developed writing via Facebook homework and extra tasks***
		4.) students valued the practical context of the Facebook writing practice
		5.) students benefited from others' postings in their own writing output
		6.) the audience of the Facebook group triggered autonomous EFL learning
		7.) the Facebook group supressed EFL writing anxiety
III. Cultural Awareness	**29x** (I: 4x; D: 25x)	***8.) students developed cultural knowledge via the Facebook group***
IV. Reading	**12x** (D: 12x)	***9.) students developed reading comprehension via the Facebook group***
V. Grammar	**6x** (I: 4x; D: 2x)	***10.) teacher's feedback in the Facebook group helped students to understand grammatical rules***

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ZAVÁDZANIE INKLUZÍVNYCH TÍMOV DO SLOVENSKÝCH ŠKOL (VÝZKUMNÉ ZDĚLENÍ)

INTRODUCING OF INCLUSIVE TEAMS IN SLOVAK SCHOOLS (RESEARCH RESULTS)

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Abstrakt
Cieľom výskumu, ktorého výsledky prezentujeme v príspevku je opísať zmeny prostredia a podmienok, ktoré nastali pod vplyvom zavedenia inkluzívnych tímov do škôl. Riešitelia reagovali na jedinečnú príležitosť, ktorú priniesol národný projekt PRINED, ktorý prebiehal v období rokov 2014 a 2015. V rámci projektu získalo 100 základných škôl možnosť zamestnať si špecialistov a pedagogických asistentov, ktorí dovtedy pôsobili skôr mimo terénu bežných škôl. Vybraná skupina odborných a pedagogických zamestnancov sa stala vzorkou prezentovaného výskumu. V štúdii autori prezentujú výsledky obsahovej analýzy prepisu výpovedí 18 fokusových skupín, na základe ktorej formulujú závery. V príspevku prezentujú výsledky hľadania odpovede na otázku, aká bola povaha spolupráce medzi členmi inkluzívnych tímov a pracovníkmi manažmentu škôl. Opisujú 3 identifikované kľúčové determinantmi kvality tejto spolupráce.
Kľúčové slová: *inklúzia, inkluzívne vzdelávanie, inkluzívny tím, manažment základných škôl*

Abstract
The purpose of the research presented in this study was to describe changes in the school environment and conditions that have occurred under the influence of the introduction of inclusive teams. Researchers responded to the unique experience brought by the national project PRINED, which was implemented in 2014 and 2015. Under the project, 100 primary schools had the opportunity to employ specialists and pedagogical assistants who till then worked outside the field of mainstream schools. Our sample was formed by a select group of members of these teams. In the study, the authors present the results of a content analysis of the statements transcript from 18 focus groups, based on which they formulated conclusions. The purpose of the research presented in this study was to find answer to the question: What was collaboration between members of inclusive teams and school management staff like? Researchers present 3 key determinants of the quality of such cooperation.
Key words: *inclusion, inclusive education, inclusive team, management of elementary schools*

1 ÚVOD

V roku 2008 prebehla na Slovensku dlho očakávaná reforma kurikula. Ideou reformy bolo decentralizovať vzdelávanie na školách. Reforma mala okrem iného prispieť k silnejšiemu ukotveniu inkluzívnych hodnôt v kurikulu a implementovať tieto hodnoty do vzdelávacieho procesu na základných školách.

Teraz, po odstupe niekoľkých rokov môžeme konštatovať, že reforma nič zásadné pre inkluzívne vzdelávanie nepriniesla. Vytvorila síce dokumenty, ktoré dávali školám väčšiu autonómiu, ale školy na tento prvok zásadnejšie nereagovali. Napr. v rozsiahlom výskume spomenutej kurikulárnej reformy, ktorý prebehol v rokoch 2014 až 2017 na Slovensku (viď

Porubský et al., 2016) sa reforma ústami učiteľov a riaditeľov základných škôl skloňovala ako nezmyselná liberalizácia školy, ktorá opúšťa fungujúci systém centrálne diktovaného kurikula. Kvalitatívna časť uvedenej výskumnej štúdie založená na analýze výpovedí zamestnancov škôl v rámci štruktúrovaného interview, priniesla zistenia, že viac ako polovica dopytovaných osôb si myslí, že reforma bola ústupkom pre slabé deti na úkor kvality vedomostí úspešných žiakov.

Nelichotivý stav inkluzívneho vzdelávania na Slovensku je pomenovaný aj vo viacerých dokumentoch. Publikácia Segregácia alebo inklúzia Rómov vo vzdelávaní: Voľba pre školy (Huttová, Gyárfášová, Sekulová, 2012) jednoznačne odkryla skutočnosť, že v školách s vysokým zastúpením rómskych žiakov sa výrazne znižuje šanca na úspešné ukončenie základného vzdelania ako podmienky na pokračovanie v štúdiu na strednej škole. Zaujímavé fakty o začleňovaní detí so špecifickými vzdelávacími potrebami do bežných tried na základných školách zistili aj autori Farenzenová, Kubánová, Salner (2014). Tí v publikácii Cestovná mapa pre riešenie problému nadmerného zastúpenia rómskych detí v špeciálnej škole – analýza realistických krokov ponúkli počty individuálne integrovaných žiakov na bežných školách. V školskom roku 2011/12 bol celkový počet týchto detí v SR 4,7 %. (voči počtu všetkých detí na základných školách). Nárast tohto čísla voči obdobiu spred šiestich rokov (čiže voči školskému roku 2006/07) predstavoval necelé dve percentá. (Farenzenová, Kubanová, Salner, 2013, s. 26). V súčasnosti (k 15.9. 2017) sa počet žiakov vzdelávaných formou individuálnej integrácie na bežných základných školách pohybuje na úrovni približne 6,3 % z celkového počtu žiakov základných škôl. Percentuálne vyjadrenie sa zdvojnásobí na úroveň 12,3 %, ak k počtu žiakov, ktorých evidujeme ako vzdelávaných formou individuálnej integrácie pripočítame aj žiakov evidovaných v kategórii „žiak zo sociálne znevýhodneného prostredia“[1]. Z uvedeného vyplýva, že počet žiakov vyžadujúcich individuálnu starostlivosť priznanú zaradením žiaka do niektorej z kategórií tzv. špeciálnych vzdelávacích potrieb a zároveň s odporúčaním individuálnej integrácie neustále stúpa.

Vo verejnom diskurze cítiť rezistenciu voči zavádzaniu inkluzívneho vzdelávania do systému. Dôkazom môžu byť diskusné príspevky pod článkami analytickej skupiny projektu To dá rozum.[2] Inkluzívne vzdelávanie je často častované atribútom „... že nie je dobré“ Najčastejšie sú skloňované dva dôvody:

„Nie je dobré“ ako kritika zlého organizačného zabezpečenia tohto vzdelávania na školách.

„Nie je dobré“ ako kritika liberalizácie hodnôt, ktoré myšlienka inklúzie prináša.

Kritika liberalizácie hodnôt vyvoláva silné kontroverzie v názoroch. Naopak, kritika organizácie vzdelávania je konzistentná. Kritické názory odborníkov (ale aj laikov) sú zacielené na najväčšiu slabinu inkluzívneho vzdelávania. Touto slabinou je personálne zabezpečenie inkluzívneho vzdelávania na základných školách. V tabuľke 1 uvádzame vývoj počtu odborných zamestnancov na bežných základných školách v období posledných 6-ich

[1] Kritériá zaraďovania detí a žiakov do kategórie „sociálne znevýhodnené prostredie“ boli naposledy upravené listom zn. 2013-12192/36264:2-914 zo 6.8.2013 adresovaným Generálnym riaditeľstvom sekcie regionálneho školstva MŠVVaŠ SR obvodným úradom - odborom školstva v SR. Zároveň sa novelizáciou § 107 a ďalších príslušných ustanovení zmenilo ponímanie takýchto žiakov. Zo zmeny vyplýva, že žiaci v kategórii „žiaci zo sociálne znevýhodneného prostredia“ sa nepovažujú za klasickú integráciu, a ani nemôžu byť zaraďovaní do špeciálnych tried, či špeciálnych škôl (bližšie pozri napr. interný metodický materiál Štátnej školskej inšpekcie – Školská integrácia..., 2016, s. 17)

[2] Príspevky zamerané na oslabenie mýtov o inkluzívnom vzdelávaní nájde čitateľ na https://www.facebook.com/pg/todarozum/posts/?ref=page_internal

školských rokov. Jednoduchým pomerom počtu jednotlivých kategórií odborných zamestnancov a počtu bežných základných škôl môžeme konštatovať, že v súčasnosti na niečo vyše 10 základných škôl pripadá 1 školský psychológ, 1 špeciálny pedagóg pripadá na 3,75 školy. Logopédov, liečebných pedagógov či sociálnych pedagógov je v teréne škôl najnižší počet, len približne 1 na 17 škôl.

Tabuľka 1. Vývoj počtu odborných zamestnancov na bežných základných školách za posledných 6 školských rokov

Školský rok / kategória OZ	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18
Školský psychológ	112	134	164	164	157	196
Školský špeciálny pedagóg	456	455	534	536	491	558
Ostatní OZ[3]	-	-	153	138	62	122
SPOLU	568	589	851	838	710	876

Je nesporné, že nedostatok špecialistov prítomných priamo na školách je pre inkluzívne vzdelávanie veľký problém. Zároveň si ale treba uvedomiť, že ani zvýšenie podielu špecialistov na školách nie je priamočiarym riešením. Do problému totiž vstupuje faktor spolupráce medzi odbornými a pedagogickými zamestnancami škôl. V podstate ide o to, do akej mieri dokážu uvedené dve skupiny zamestnancov úspešne (v prospech rastu dieťaťa) interagovať. A práve tento faktor sme sa rozhodli v nižšie opísanom výskume sledovať.

2 METODOLÓGIA

V texte publikujeme čiastkové zistenia z realizovaného výskumu VEGA č. 1/0765/16 pod názvom Kvalita vybraných komponentov školskej kultúry ako podmienka tvorby inkluzívneho školského prostredia. Výskum bol zameraný na problém spolupráce členov inkluzívnych tímov s kmeňovými zamestnancami základných škôl.

2.1 Formulovanie problému

Fungujúcim mechanizmom podpory inklúzie na zahraničných základných školách sú tzv. inkluzívne tímy[4]. Táto idea predpokladá existenciu dvoch skupín zamestnancov škôl. Prvou skupinou sú pedagógovia spolu s manažmentom školy. Druhou skupinou sú odborníci,

[3] Ostatní odborní zamestnanci sú s najväčšou pravdepodobnosťou školský logopéd, liečebný pedagóg a sociálny pedagóg.

[4] Pojem inkluzívny tím chápeme širšie ako je uchopený v nami prezentovanom výskume. Inkluzívny tím vnímame ako skupinu všetkých aktérov, ktorí sa podieľajú na vzdelávaní dieťaťa, vytvárajú podporné prostredie a také podmienky, vďaka ktorým môže dosiahnuť svoje osobné minimum a rozvinúť svoj vrodený potenciál. V tomto poňatí patria do inkluzívneho tímu učitelia, ostatní pedagogickí zamestnanci, rôzni odborníci, riaditeľ či riaditeľka školy, rodičia, ako i ostatní personál interného, ale i externého prostredia školy. Dôležité je, či sa dokážu stretnúť v dialógu, v centre ktorého je záujem dieťaťa. V prezentovanom výskume používame pojem inkluzívny tím v jeho užšom poňatí, tak ako bol zadefinovaný v projekte PRINED. Išlo o 4-6 členné skupiny pedagogických a odborných zamestnancov, ktorí boli financovaní z rozpočtu projektu a implementovaní do prostredia škôl ako nový prvok.

ktorých úlohou je realizovať diagnostické a intervenčné úkony pri práci s deťmi. Tiež je ich úlohou koordinovať vzdelávací proces pedagógov s dôrazom na saturáciu špecifických vzdelávacích potrieb zaškoľovaných detí.

Myšlienka inkluzívnych tímov nie je na Slovensku rozšírená. Je ju preto ťažké dôslednejšie analyzovať.

Publikovaným výskumom sme reagovali na príležitosť, ktorá sa naskytla v súvislosti s realizáciou národného projektu pod názvom Projekt inkluzívneho vzdelávania, ktorý je známy pod skratkou PRINED . Jedinečnosť projektu spočívala v myšlienke tvorby inkluzívneho prostredia. Z rozpočtu takmer 16 miliónov eur bola veľká časť investovaná do pokrytia miezd 200 pedagogických asistentov a 365 špecialistov, ktorí pracovali v prostredí našich škôl 20 mesiacov (1.4.2014 do 30.11.2015). V rámci projektu tak získalo 100 základných škôl možnosť zamestnať si špecialistov (špeciálnych, sociálnych, liečebných pedagógov, logopédov, školských psychológov) a pedagogických asistentov, ktorí pôsobili dovtedy skôr mimo terénu bežných škôl. Inkluzívne tímy pôsobili priamo na základných školách a poskytovali pomoc nielen škole, ale aj materskej škole, ktorá geograficky spadala do pásma jej pôsobnosti. Veľkosť a zloženie tímu vychádzalo z potrieb školy. Väčšinou však išlo o 4-6 členné skupiny pracovníkov, kde väčšinou nechýbali dvaja asistenti učiteľa a sociálny pedagóg. Nielen potreby, ale i možnosti školy rozhodovali o tom, či v tíme pracoval aj školský psychológ, špeciálny pedagóg, logopéd či liečebný pedagóg.

V súvislosti s ukončením projektu PRINED sme sa v rámci uvedeného projektu VEGA rozhodli spoznať špecifiká práce inkluzívnych tímov na základných školách. Konkrétne sme sa zamerali na popis pracovných úkonov, ktoré zvyšovali kvalitu práce inkluzívnych tímov. Tiež sme sa zamerali na opis problémov, s ktorými sa museli členovia inkluzívnych tímov vysporiadať.

Pre tento účel boli formulované výskumné otázky. Vo vzťahu k prezentovaným výsledkom v tomto článku išlo o otázky:

- O1. Dá sa práca členov inkluzívnych tímov (ďalej v texte ČIT) všeobecne popísať? Ak áno, akými prvkami a vzťahmi?
- O2. Dajú sa identifikovať podporné činitele kvality práce inkluzívnych tímov (ďalej v texte IT) na školách? O čo konkrétne ide?

2.2 Použité metódy a postupy

Z metodologického hľadiska sme sa rozhodli získať dáta prostredníctvom analýzy prepisov výpovedí skupinových interview (tzv. focus groups). Položili sme si otázku: Aké obsahy budú vypovedané ČIT v retrospektívne ladenej diskusii? Snažili sme sa teda zachytiť čo najvernejšie prežitú skúsenosť ČIT.

Celkovo bolo realizovaných 18 diskusií. Každá diskusia sa týkala iného IT. Diskusie boli moderované výskumníkmi a obsahy výpovedí boli prevedené do písomných prepisov. Výber tímov do vzorky IT (tzn. do vzorky osemnástich fokusových skupín) bol realizovaný dostupným výberom.

Závislou premennou, ktorá bola sledovaná vo výskume boli spomienky ČIT na obdobie svojho pôsobenia na školách. Túto premennú sme špecifikovali do troch menších (viac konkrétnejších) premenných:

- informácie (vypovedané fakty, ktoré sa v spomienkach explicitne vyskytujú)
- vzťahy (spojitosti medzi vypovedanými faktami)
- témy (rámce, ktorých sa fakty a vzťahy dotýkajú)

Pre účel analýzy dát bola použitá obsahová analýza textov. Analyzovali sa ňou prepisy výpovedí ČIT, získané z nahrávok fokusových skupín. Analýza spočívala z identifikácie analytických jednotiek a z ich triedenia do významových kategórií. (p. a. podľa významu v nich explicitne vypovedaného obsahu)

Analytickými jednotkami boli fragmenty textov. Išlo o ľubovoľne dlhé časti prepisov, ktoré vypovedali o obsahu, ktorý bol pre výskum relevantný. Hranice relevantnosti obsahu neboli presne definované. Boli iba tematizované slovným spojením „práca a problémy IT na základných školách“.

Stavba obsahov výpovedí prebiehala procedúrou analytickej indukcie. Na jej začiatku boli stanovené významy pre jeden prepis (jednu fokusovú skupinu). Následne sa analyzovali ostatné prepisy, v priebehu čoho dochádzalo k modifikácii predošle stanovených významov do konečnej podoby.

Tabuľka 2. Priebeh obsahovej analýzy prepisov

Fáza	Zámer analýzy	Produkt analýzy
1.	Analýza vypovedaných obsahov v rámci jedného prepisu	Identifikovanie informácií, vzťahov medzi informáciami a témy
2.	Konceptualizácia vypovedaných obsahov	Formulovanie prvých hypotéz
3.	Začlenenie hypotéz do analýzy ďalších prepisov	Modifikovanie a spresnenie hypotéz
4.	Zovšeobecnenie výsledkov do konzistentnej teórie	Vystavanie všeobecných téz

3 VÝSKUMNÉ ZISTENIA

Výskumom boli odkryté štyri rámce obsahovej stránky výpovedí:

- Spolupráca členov IT medzi sebou
- Spolupráca manažmentu s IT
- Spolupráca pedagogických zamestnancov s IT
- Spolupráca rodičov detí s IT

V priestore každého rámca sme zoskupili veľké množstvo výpovedí. Obsahy, ktoré boli v týchto výpovediach komunikované sme ďalej analyzovali a následne zaradili do rámcových podskupín Ďalším krokom bolo hľadanie vzťahov medzi výpoveďami s cieľom popísať presahy medzi obsahmi rôznych rámcových podskupín. Týmto procesom sa nám podarilo identifikovať v priestore každého rámca viacero určujúcich a aj podmieňujúcich vzťahov vo výpovediach ČIT. Z dôvodu ľahšej čitateľnosti textu sme tieto vzťahy formulovali do všeobecných téz, ku ktorým nižšie v texte ponúkame ich dôslednejšie vysvetlenia. Tézy sú

popisom vzťahov, ktoré sa dali vyčítať na úrovni analyzovaných textov a nie je možné na ich základe formulovať akékoľvek zovšeobecnenia vo vzťahu k akejkoľvek populácii.

Rozsah textu nám nedáva priestor prerozprávať tézy v ich plnej šírke. Zameriavame sa preto iba na jeden rámec analýzy – spoluprácu ČIT s manažmentom škôl .

TÉZA 1. Kompetencie manažmentu v oblasti riadenia práce IT sú určované znalosťami teórie inkluzívneho vzdelávania.

Vo výpovediach odznela kritika nízkej odbornosti riaditeľov a zástupcov škôl. ČIT najviac kritizovali, že riaditelia nepoznali náplň ich práce. *„… riaditelia nemali prehľad o tom... keď sme prišli na výberové, tak vedela pani riaditeľka, len o funkcií pedagogického asistenta, lebo na tejto škole predtým fungoval pedagogický asistent. Čo prídu robiť kolegovia, nemali šajnu... možno len zo štúdia nejakej odbornej literatúry, ako .. ale z praktickej stránky nie.“ (IT č. 12)*

Predmetom kritiky sa tiež stala zlá znalosť legislatívy inkluzívneho vzdelávania u pracovníkov manažmentu škôl. *„… nikto to nekonkretizoval, aká práca, čomu sa venujem, alebo vlastne teda, kde až siahajú tie moje kompetencie. Nikto to to riadne nevymedzil.“ (IT č. 10)* ČIT vo svojich výpovediach uvádzali, že vedúci pracovníci porovnávali ich prácu s prácou pedagogických zamestnancov (učiteľov). Toto bol podľa názoru členov IT dôvod prečo učitelia nerozumeli úlohe IT na škole. *„Ako oni vás často porovnávajú s ich profesiou a dávajú vás na tie vážky, že proste. Veď ty skoro nič nerobíš a my tu makáme celý deň. Ako dosť často som sa s týmto stretla, nie takto povedané, ale bolo to tam cítiť, že my sa len tak povaľujeme a sme tu za dobrý plat. Veľmi nás riešili týmto smerom.“ (IT č. 14)*

Podľa slov členov IT mala neznalosť teórie inkluzívneho vzdelávania aj sekundárny (na prvý pohľad nie až tak vypuklý) dopad na riaditeľov. ČIT tvrdili, že aj tí riaditelia, ktorí sa snažili

vychádzať v ústrety potrebám IT nevedeli samostatne (bez dôslednej komunikácie s IT) vytvoriť vhodné podmienky pre prácu členov IT. Sťažovali sa na nevhodnosť pracovných priestorov. Najčastejšie im prekážala nízka miera intimity pri práci s dieťaťom ale aj rušivé vplyvy od ostatných zamestnancov školy. *„Je chyba, že nemáme nejakú spoločnú miestnosť, pretože niekedy sme sa týždeň nevideli. Lebo my sme boli na prvom stupni, oni na druhom. Potom nejaké dieťa malo nejaký problém na porade sme to riešili. To je, toto je obrovská nevýhoda. Ja by som dala všetkých nás spolu a nejako by sme to …“ (IT č. 14)*

V prípade viacerých IT nastali momenty, že riaditelia rozdelili členov tímu do viacerých miestností. Tento krok členovia IT skôr odmietali ako vítali. Podľa ich slov to narušilo kontinuitu ich vzájomnej spolupráce a tiež znížilo pružnosť komunikácie vo vnútri IT.

Celkovo sa ČIT zhodli v tom, že kvalita vedomostí riaditeľov z teórie inkluzívneho vzdelávania je v priamom vzťahu s kvalitou ich manažérskych kompetencií. Členovia IT vyjadrili potrebu intenzívneho vzdelávania riaditeľov (formou pravidelných prednášok). Za najviac problematické kompetencie riaditeľov označovali:

- nedostatočne vecnú a nesystematickú komunikáciu s členmi IT
- zlú komunikáciu v oblasti predstavenia práce IT na škole (ostatným zamestnancom školy)
- slabú až absentujúcu koordináciu práce členov IT

- alibizmus pri riešení konfliktov a napätia medzi IT a pedagogickými zamestnancami školy
- nízky záujem o prácu členov IT, o výsledky ich práce a aj o ich potreby.

TÉZA 2. Kvalita práce IT je závislá od toho ako je IT na škole predstavený/uvedený

Vo všetkých prepisoch sa objavili výpovede, ktoré sa týkali témy príchodu IT na školu. Podľa slov ČIT bol tento moment zo strany vedenia podcenený, resp. nezvládnutý. Najviac bol vytýkaný fakt, že vedenie školy iba minimálne oboznámilo zamestnancov školy s tým, kto sú členovia IT a aká bude ich úloha v rámci školy. *„... mal by ich predstaviť, stačí predstaviť kto to je, toto je inkluzívny tím. Pozostáva zo špeciálnych pedagógov dvoch, trebárs psychologičky, proste vysvetliť kto sme- čo sme. My sme napríklad do dnes asistenti. Žiadnych... akože mne to nevadí, lebo ja si s tým dieťaťom robím, ona si robí, každý z nás, ale sme v ich očiach takto. Ako asistenti, aj teraz keď som si brala tohto chlapca, každý deň tak nepovie pani učiteľka, ale pani asistentka." (IT č.15)*

Na základe výpovedí ČIT ale nie je možné hovoriť, že by riaditelia či riaditeľky vôbec neuvažovali o ich predstavení Výčitky sa viac týkali obsahu ako formy. Formálne sa totiž takéto predstavenie udialo. Obsahovo však bolo podľa slov ČIT vágne až bezobsažné. *„... my sme mali na tej úplne myslím, že tej úvodnej porade, tam nás vlastne zoznámilo vedenie s učiteľmi, tak akože, bolo to tam o tom hej, že kto som, čo som, ale tí učitelia aj tak nevedeli presný názor, že na čo sa majú obrátiť na mňa, na čo sa má na sociálneho pedagóga, na čo na asistenta. Čiže, to už súvisí s tým, čo hovorila kolegyňa, že nemáme presne stanovené tie pozície. Ani to vedenie nevedelo, že v čom vlastne no. Potom sa vlastne stala tá vec, že sme tu boli ako to dievčatko pre všetko" (IT č. 16)*

Keďže kmeňoví zamestnanci školy nedostali potrebné informácie o obsahovej náplni ČIT, cítili sa na škole nechcení. Tieto pocity často súviseli s nedorozumeniami v otázkach personálnej politiky školy. Najčastejšie išlo o obavy učiteľov, že s príchodom ČIT na školu prichádzajú o značnú časť svojej práce, čo by mohlo mať negatívny vplyv na ich mzdu. Učitelia si tiež kládli otázky: Z akých mzdových prostriedkov sú členovia IT platení? Vytvárali sa pri tom rôzne šumy, čo malo dôsledok na kvalitu vzťahov na škole. *„Najskôr by som povedala, že by mal oboznámiť učiteľov že na čo sú tí ľudia na tej škole. To je ten prvý a podstatný základ. Aby to oni nebrali že sme niekomu prišli zobrať robotu, ale že sme prišli pomôcť deťom a že sme my tiež sme si hľadali robotu a že sme." (IT č. 15)*

Neschopnosť vedenia zdôvodniť prečo je IT na škole a vysvetliť čo presne je ich práca malo vplyv na výkon práce ČIT. Učitelia neboli ochotní vpúšťať ich na vyučovacie hodiny. Neboli ochotní poskytovať materiály o deťoch v rozsahu ako si to želali ČIT. Viacerí ČIT uviedli, že si diagnostickú činnosť museli zabezpečovať a aj organizovať úplne sami. *„... a preto to tak potom dopadlo, ako to aj dopadlo, ja ambiciózna september-október som tam behala s dotazníkmi po zborovni, tí ani nevedeli odkiaľ čo som, kto som, čo chcem od nich. Lebo mohla som to aj ja zase ináč spraviť, no nevedela som, čo môžem čakať, hej." (IT č. 3)*

Vyskytli sa však aj výpovede, v ktorých členovia IT vyjadrili pochvalu riaditeľom za to, že pri otázkach učiteľov smerom k IT sa vedenie nezachovalo alibisticky a snažilo sa obhájiť potrebu IT na škole. Za seba (ako analyzujúci prvok diskusií) však dodávame, že táto obhajoba bola informačne veľmi slabo vystavaná. Jej základom boli formulácie, že príchod IT je veľkým prínosom pre školu a pod. Úplne absentovali fakty, ktoré by učiteľov viac zorientovali v téme.

Postupne (po načítavaní väčšieho množstva dát) sa začal ukazovať fakt, že predstavenie ČIT na škole má vplyv na kvalitu práce ČIT viac v období adaptácie ČIT na prostredie školy ako na obdobie celého pôsobenia ČIT na škole. Členovia IT poukázali na skutočnosť, že svojou vlastnou prácou si postupne dokázali získavať učiteľov. Časom teda dochádzalo k zlepšeniu vzťahov medzi ČIT a učiteľmi a tiež k zlepšeniu ich vzájomnej spolupráce pri výkone práce IT.

V súvislosti s adaptačným procesom členovia ČIT hovorili o tom, že riaditelia mali veľmi silné slovo u učiteľov. Dobre nasmerované príkazy od riaditeľov boli účinnými prostriedkami pri zvyšovaní kvality spolupráce medzi ČIT a učiteľským zborom. *„Že aj tí učitelia sa možno potom, tým, že im to bolo nakázané alebo si to naozaj niektorí prehodnotili na tej porade, tak proste to vedenie nás podržalo a mne osobne sa potom oveľa lepšie robilo, lebo som sa necítila ako taký votrelec v tej triede. (IT č. 1)*

Popri učiteľoch sa v prepisoch ako cieľová skupina pri predstavovaní IT na škole objavili aj rodičia. V tomto smere bol manažment školy skôr kritizovaný. Najčastejšie išlo o to, že k rodičom sa dostávalo málo informácií o práci ČIT. *„Rodičia musia byť informovaný o tom, akú robotu ja robím. Pokiaľ oni to nevedia, tak ani neprídu za mnou a ani nemajú o to záujem. Ak oni vidia tú osobu a povedia si aha niekto tu je, ale pokiaľ nevedia akú ja mám pozíciu, tak nie je tam tá šanca. Tak to je základ, tak sa predať, povedať na verejnosť, dajme tomu je začiatok roka alebo čo, keď už sme v tej Hornej Dolnej vraveli tak nech ten riaditeľ zoberie tých ľudí nie len ich dá nastúpiť ale nech jasne povie, alebo je rada školy, alebo na začiatku čo býva to rodičovské plenárne povie, toto robia títo ľudia, ak budete mať záujem dá sa, individuálne, nie je problém.“ (IT č. 15)*

Dotknutí členovia ČIT vo veci zlej komunikácie vedenia s rodinami detí vypovedali aj niektoré svoje ťažoby. Opisovali situácie, v ktorých sa neprávom ocitli v negatívnom svetle. Poukazovali hlavne na momenty, kedy nemali dostatok informácií o rodine a ani rodina o nich veľa nevedela a riaditeľ im vyčítal prípadné vznikajúce problémy s dieťaťom. *„Lebo to sú problémy, lebo tie problémy potom majú výstup vonku a oni končia u riaditeľa. Riaditeľ sa pýta a prečo ste to nepodchytil, prečo tu chodí žiačka tri roky, ktorá žije u nejakej svojej tety a nie je tam vysporiadané, že tej tete je ona zverená, pozor riaditeľ, tu máš žiačku tretiačku, ktorá matka je inde, otec je v base a kto tebe vystupuje na rodičovskom, keď nemáš zákonného zástupcu, rieš to.“ (IT č. 3)*

Veľmi všeobecne sa dá tvrdiť, že v rámci všetkých prepisov sa dali nájsť state, ktoré poukazovali na súvislosť medzi predstavením IT na škole a kvalitou práce ČIT. Za najdôležitejšie obsahy, ktoré odkazujú na potrebu dôsledného uvedenia IT v škole členovia IT považovali:

- Predstaviť jednotlivých členov IT, ich špecializáciu a úlohu v IT. Ponúknuť námety pre spoluprácu s týmito členmi.
- Vysvetliť náplň práce IT, že IT tu je kvôli deťom.
- Vysvetliť, že členovia IT sa nezameriavajú na sledovanie a kontrolu práce (ani učiteľa ani rodiča).
- Vysvetliť kompetencie členov IT, aby nikto z nich nemal obavy, resp. aby sa nikto necítil nimi ohrození.

TÉZA 3. Určujúcimi prvkami kvality práce ČIT je vytvorenie fungujúceho systému manažérskej kontroly výsledkov práce ČIT.

V oblasti spolupráce vedenia s IT sa najviac výpovedí týkalo riadenia a kontroly práce ČIT.

Z výpovedí vyplynulo, že členovia IT vnímali riadenie ich práce vedúcimi za nedostatočné. Táto nedostatočnosť mala podľa ich slov zásadný vplyv na priebeh ich práce. Ako tvrdia, omnoho viac sa museli spoliehať pri plánovaní a kontrole svojej práce na seba ako na manažment školy. *„Začiatky, boli dosť ťažké, pretože tie informácie prišli s omeškaním, takže mám pocit, že ani vedenie celkom nás nevedelo presne nasmerovať, že teda ktorým smerom, takže sme si to každý sám snažili, sme sa pridržiavali náplni práce a podľa toho si to tak manažovať. Každý tú svoju prácu s prihliadnutím na tú pracovnú náplň sám za seba" (IT č. 4)*

Vedeniu v oblasti riadenia práce IT vytýkali:

Absenciu zadania zákazky pre ich prácu. Vedenie podľa slov ČIT nemalo jasno, ktoré deti si vyžadujú pomoc IT ani ako má vyzerať táto pomoc. *„No zo začiatku to bolo ťažké, lebo my sme sa prišli a prvé týždne, dva my sme vôbec nevedeli kto čo má robiť. o koho sa starať, o koho.. my sme nemali.. biedne potom sme sa postupne do toho dostávali. Ale ten prístup mohol byť oveľa lepší zo začiatku, aby nás oboznámili konkrétne čo máme robiť a nie že tu sedia.. a niečo. Konkrétne žiakov, či už učiteľky, vedenie .. tu si baby vyhľadali sami vlastne .. dá sa povedať" (IT č. 14)*

Všeobecnosť až vágnosť riadiacich pokynov smerom k ich práci. ČIT tvrdili, že chýbal systém riadenia ich práce IT. Pokyny riaditeľov boli často nejasné, všeobecné, prípadne sa úplne vytratili. Členom IT najviac chýbalo: stanovenie plánu práce s úlohami (najlepšie ak by bol týždenný), vytvorenie si rozvrhu práce (tzn. koordinovať činnosti IT s deťmi a učiteľmi pomocou dohodnutého harmonogramu zhora), operatívne zasahovanie do procesu výkonu práce IT (iniciované vedením so zámerom pomôcť členom IT pri manažovaní si svojich aktivít s inými zamestnancami školy a rodičmi detí). *„Si myslím, možno to, čo sme rozprávali je v pohode, ale že je dôležité tomu od začiatku dať nejakú štruktúru. Že nenechať to moc ako na tých ľudí, ktorí tiež ako prídu na nové... ako napríklad ja som to cítil zo začiatku lebo... ako tie asistentky to mali možno trošku ľahšie v tom, že dostali pevný rozvrh. Ja som to mal trošku ťažšie, pretože ako som nevedel presne, že čo, ako, kedy a musel som sa s každým učiteľom nejak dohadovať, kedy treba s nejakým dieťaťom robiť a tak." (IT č. 6)*

Nízku iniciatívu vo veci sledovania priebehu spolupráce IT s učiteľmi, rodičmi a deťmi. ČIT chýbala aktívna komunikácia vedenia s nimi. Tvrdili, že na veľa problémov museli vedeniu upozorňovať oni. Riaditelia a riaditeľky podľa nich kládli málo otázok, ktorých zámerom by bolo predísť možným problémom v komunikácii s učiteľmi alebo rodičmi. Dôsledkom toho bolo, že vznikalo mnoho problémov, ktorým sa dalo operatívne predísť.

Veľkým problémom bol aj systém kontroly práce ČIT. Výpovede ČIT svedčia o tom, že na školách manažment takýto systém vôbec nezavádzal. Práca IT bola koordinovaná a kontrolovaná iba samotnými ČIT medzi sebou. ČIT pritom mali pocit, že všetka zodpovednosť za úspechy, resp. zlyhania detí, ktorým sa venovali je na nich. Komunikovali, že sa vytrácala zodpovednosť na strane učiteľov a aj na strane riadiacich pracovníkov

V dôsledku absencie systému explicitnej kontroly práce sa cítili ČIT nedocenení, pretože ich úspechy boli pripisované iným. Týmito výpoveďami ČIT narážali hlavne na pedagogických zamestnancov. Naopak, stretli sa aj s výčitkami zo strany manažmentu. Slabý progres u detí,

ktorým sa ČIT venovali bol zo strany vedenia komunikovaný ako ich zlyhanie. Medzi najvážnejšie problémy kontroly práce IT zo strany manažmentu ČIT zaradili:

- Neschopnosť vedenia pravidelne monitorovať prácu IT
- Neschopnosť vedenia zabezpečiť supervíziu práce ČIT.
- Neschopnosť cielene sa systematicky sa zaujímať o prácu všetkých členov IT (vedeniu vytýkali, že väčší záujem prejavovalo o prácu asistentov učiteľa ako o prácu ostatných ČIT)
- Lipnutie na byrokratickej administratíve práce ČIT, ktorá sa javila ako málo pružná a často nefunkčná metóda kontroly práce ČIT.
- Zlé nasmerovanie optiky pri kontrole práce ČIT. Kontrola bola nasmerovaná na výsledky práce ČIT pričom ČIT sa domnievajú, že kontrola má byť orientovaná viac ako na nich na dieťa.

4 ZÁVER

Text vypovedal o mnohých problémoch, ktoré takýto koncept základným školám prináša. Bolo by zatváraním očí pred realitou ak by sme sa domnievali, že manažment väčšiny základných škôl na Slovensku je spôsobilý skutočne proaktívne interagovať s členmi inkluzívnych tímov. Výskum skôr predstavil opačnú (menej lichotivú) stranu skúseností oboch skupín aktérov, tzn. inkluzívnych pracovníkov a aj pracovníkov vedenia škôl. Plochy ich efektívnych pracovných presahov sa vo výpovediach členov inkluzívnych tímov spomínali iba veľmi ojedinelo. Naopak, veľmi častými výpoveďami boli výrazy ako neschopnosť, neodbornosť, nechápavosť, resp. celková nepripravenosť manažmentu na príchod inkluzívnych zamestnancov do škôl.

V reakcii na vyššie uvedené zistenia si je potrebné uvedomiť, že Slovensko ratifikáciou medzinárodných dokumentov (bližšie Porubský et al., 2017) a získaním členstva v European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education v roku 2012 „vyslovilo“ prísľub, že pri akýchkoľvek reformných krokoch bude dbať na dôsledné uplatňovanie princípu inklúzie vo vzdelávaní. Napriek všetkým deklaráciám je ale otázka inkluzívneho vzdelávania v dnešných dňoch skôr príťažlivou témou pre odbornú verejnosť než realitou našich škôl. Hoci záujem odborníkov o túto problematiku stúpa, nedá sa povedať ani to, že by medzi nimi vládol všeobecný konsenzus o podstate, význame, potrebnosti, či uskutočniteľnosti inkluzívneho vzdelávania (Petöcz, 2015).

Inkluzívne vzdelávanie zatiaľ nie je pociťované ako spoločenská potreba a preto je málo pravdepodobné, že ju zadefinujú tvorcovia verejných politík. Mentalita slovenských obyvateľov je skôr v rozpore s myšlienkou inklúzie, z čoho vyplýva, že zavádzanie inkluzívneho vzdelávania si vyžaduje i nemalú politickú odvahu (Vančíková, Porubský, Kosová, 2017). Tá zatiaľ chýba. Výskumný zámer prezentovaný v tomto príspevku vychádza z obavy (z hľadiska predchádzajúcich reforiem vzdelávania na Slovensku opodstatnenej), že v momente, keď sa odvaha nájde alebo bude nadnárodný tlak príliš silný, dôjde k legislatívnej úprave, ktorá zabezpečí väčší príliv žiakov so špecifickými vzdelávacími potrebami do hlavného prúdu škôl, avšak bez zabezpečenia adekvátnych podmienok. Obávame sa, že ak zostane školský terén zaskočený a nebude dostatočne pripravený na zavádzanie pro-inkluzívnych opatrení, dôjde k absolútnemu odmietnutiu myšlienky inkluzívneho vzdelávania. Učitelia, rodičia a celá verejnosť môže tento koncept vyhodnotiť ako idealistický, nerealizovateľný a dokonca problematický. Predmetom prezentovaného

výskumu bolo proinkluzívne opatrenie, ktoré odkazuje na potrebu zavádzania inkluzívnych tímov do prostredia škôl. Autori príspevku veria, že svojimi výskumnými zisteniami pomôžu nájsť odpovede na kľúčové otázky, bez ktorých nie je možné systematicky zaviesť asistentov učiteľa a rôznych špecialistov do terénu bežných škôl a v konečnom dôsledku pomôžu aj vedeniu škôl zvládnuť novú neľahkú úlohu. Svojim výskumom tiež chceli vyslať signál, že skúsenosti, ktoré priniesol projekt PRINED sú natoľko jedinečné, že si zaslúžia náležitú pozornosť.

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IMPLICATION OF CONTEMPORARY ART PRACTICES IN PEDAGOGICAL PRACTISE

Sandra Popaďáková

Abstract

The requirements for the content and the form of teaching of art education are changing with the character of the company. The image of today's pupil is a determining factor within formulating the aims of contemporary art education. In the paper, we outline the proposals for better management of current artistic education issues with the intention of incorporating/involving contemporary art strategies into the pedagogical practice. At the same time, we present a part of the dissertation research, while the main problem of the research is to find out how the inspiration in the practice of contemporary art will influence the motivation of pupils to work with waste material.

Key words: *contemporary art, educational strategies, art education, communication, motivation*

1. DIALOGUE OF ART AND COMPANY

Art functions have changed in the society based on the time requirements. From the depicting, imitating, aesthetic, psychological, therapeutical, decorative, educative function we get to the function of communicating. At present, we are increasingly deviating from the aesthetic function of art, and communication is becomming more important function of art. Instead of creating "nice color images," art ironizes, casts doubt, discovers manipulative strategies, opens up serious themes, questions, and responds to ideas from science and technology and its revolutionary discoveries.

1.1 Art Today

Contemporary art is often encountered with the lack of appreciation, not only by laymen and the general public, but also by students of arts departments or pedagogues/teachers. We believe that the reason can be the multisignificance of the works and the incompetence of the audience to interpret their hidden meanings. Art is a step forward at all times. Turzová writes that "the misconception of contemporary art is not any historical news" (Turzová, 2015, p. 21). An example is Vincent van Gogh. During his era, he was considered strange and nowadays he is called "the father of modern art". It is likely that, in the next century, current artistic strategies will be commonly interpreted and adopted by lay society as well. Until then, we should try, not only in art education, to teach reading and decoding the iconography of today's visual communication. The way of viewing the art has changed radically and it is very difficult to predict which tendencies will be determining next development. However, we can mention the characteristic features of today's art, such as plurality, intertextuality, dematerialization, multimediality, intermediality, or the absence of the author.

The conceptual dimension of contemporary art opens up the space for various forms of communication between the author and the viewer. Turzova considers it important to deal with the pupil's audience experience, because "their knowledge opens up opportunities to enrich them and to teach a more sensible viewer" (Turzová, 2015, p.1).

However, in arts education, we are often confronted with the resentment of pupils to new media, which gives us the question: how should we apply the techniques of contemporary art to teaching so that the pupil is motivated to artistic activity?

2. TODAY´S STUDENT, TEMPORARY ART AND FINE EDUCATION

It is said that at the young age the child is a "sponge" that „absorbs“ all the information. In the pedagogical process, we are deliberately guiding this "absorbing" in order to achieve pedagogical and educational goals. Answers to basic questions HOW? WHAT? and WHY? educate are changing according to the requirements of the time in which the pedagogical action of the teacher to the pupil is to be going on. Nowadays, very significant demands are given to the education - it is necessary for the pupil to prepare for the constantly changing world and at the same time fully develop their personality. The current pupil should have a good orientation and ability to move around in the multicultural world and society's contradictions, as well as personal qualities that enables them not to get lost. Kosova argues that, in terms of the needs of contemporary education in a globalized society, "there is no way but to try to educate an authentic, non-conforming person who is aware of his / her possibilities, capabilities and his / her ideals but also of the needs of others and the world itself, who is capable to manage his own life freely but in a moral and responsible way that is concerned with personal plans and at the same time involved in the improvement of the life of society "(Kosová, 2015, p. 161). In art education, the educational process focuses on developing the pupil's specific qualities and at the same time the integrity of his personality, integrating them into cultural values and trying to form their own individuality by expressing an authentic and original artwork and responsible attitudes towards the reality (Innovated State Educational Program for Primary art schools).

2.1 Student in today's world

The generation of today's pupils is heavily influenced by the Internet phenomenon. They grow up in the digitalized and informative age in which they are constantly confronted with images/reflections and visual media. Technological achievements are becoming a daily companion in common life which the way of communicating, receiving information and the ability to work is related with. We can agree with P. Filipova's claim that "the pupils' social life has been digitized". An interesting term, so-called prozument, is quite descriptive of today's generation of students and at the same time reflects current situation in the development of the Internet. Instead of the static internet and a passive consumer, we meet with the dynamic internet and prozumentum. The Internet is currently working on a different communication model, reflecting contemporary art as well - it responds immediately to the development of social events and it is also involved in these changes. Contemporary art is more about today's pupil than the art of previous epochs, because it deals with the world they live in (Filipová, 2015, pp. 30-32).

In school practice, however, thereis still lack teachers' willingness to use contemporary art strategies, although some of the art education goals under SEP are "learners identify selected typical works of visual culture, representing modern and contemporary art and historical styles" or "pupils acquire appropriate cultural attitudes, opinions and value criteria; through the experience of active expression and perception of works of art, they are brought to getting to know the values and the culture - in the relation to the tradition and at the level of actual thinking and interpretation. " So where is the problem? We are not able to answer this question, but in the following subchapter we will mention some of the points of contemporary art education and several suggestions and ways of taking into account the contemporary art practices in the artistic education.

2.2 Problems in Art Education

The nature of art education needs to be adapted to the needs of the society. Because of the rapid growth of the world's knowledge, there is obviously no scientific union that can be used as an example to reach an ideal state in its development at any stage. The same can be applied to the art education.

The problems of contemporary education outlined by M.Guillaume (2010, pp. 24-25):

- placing great emphasis on the art production
- insufficient contact with contemporary art and professional art at all
- weak to inadequate work with the pupil's visual product
- weakening of the educational possibilities of artistic education
- Insufficient holistic understanding of artistic education

In the work of M. Fulková, "Discourse of Art and Education" (2008), there is described the reconstruction of the art education in postmodern thinking, so here are some more specific problems chosen from it:

- providing safe ideas for the creation and popularization of non-challenging themes in the field of fine arts
- not sufficient qualification of the art education teachers
- the requirement for the necessity and visibility
- rejection of the visual culture phenomena in which pupils live outside school

A very important position in the artistic education is, in particular, the role of the teacher who chooses the lesson for the class, which can be key to the formation of visual literacy. If the teacher is passionate about his job, he is looking for new activation methods, then the teaching can be of high quality. If the teacher himself tends to be interested and involved in the contemporary art then he uses these strategies in his methodological approaches. Vice versa, if he is in an opponent position to the contemporary art, then he is not willing to present him to the pupils. The teacher is in charge of the pedagogical process and should therefore adapt the form and content of his teaching strategies to the needs of today's pupil.

2.3 Suggestions for better problem-solving in contemporary art education

Today's student is exposed to the difficult situation – he should learn to live and be knowledgeable in today's multicultural world, to become an independent autonomous personality able to understand the present, and morally responsible to manage their lives but also contribute to the improvement of the society. The teacher should facilitate the pupil on the way to the objectives/goals of education and participate in the forming of his entire personality but also visual literacy, which will enable him to understand the phenomenon of today in a better way.

Concerning the interest in using contemporary art strategies in artistic education and improving the problems in teaching, we suggest:

- to conceptualize the theme: the introduction and the thematization of the subject is the first condition/assumption for the teacher to enter the dialogue with the pupils. Immediately after the introduction of the subject is followed by the concept of his or her artwork and also other strategies are chosen: the role and the goal (Fulková, 2008, p. 180). A good orientation and knowledge of current artistic practices provides the teacher with a theme to correspond with the visuals and themes of today's visual culture

- to remove/eliminate the traditional form of frontal teaching: the arrangement of the class and the school desks has a very important role in art education. The concept of good conditions for creative activity includes the disruption of the transitive model of frontal teaching. The classroom layout, which expresses the ideal of a modernistically understood artistic education system with a historical link to Bauhaus, fundamentally changes the concept of teaching and also the teacher-pupil relationship. In addition to free movement in the room, the atmosphere of intimacy for individual conversation is created (Fulková, 2008, pp. 86-88).
- to introduce active learning methods: active learning methods involve full engagement of each pupil in the whole learning process as well as the development of critical thinking. The pupil is not only a "passive object" of the teacher's interest, but an active co-creator of the course and teaching content. In order to use modern strategies the teacher should recognize a wide variety of teaching methods, regularly inserted variety of teaching methods, learn how to properly choose teaching methods, know the strengths and weaknesses of teaching methods, know the principles and guidance and the use of various teaching methods. As a stimulating form of active teaching for art education we consider group teaching methods that use peer group relationships, peer to peer learning and teaching process. In this type of pupil learning, personal, social, communicative, civic, competencies in learning and problem-solving attitudes and skills are developed (Sitna, 2009, pp. 9-12).
- to promote the development of visual literacy through new media: as mentioned above (SubCh. 2.1), students are in today's informatics and digitized time constantly confronted with the images and the visuals of the product of communication of the society. Based on the above mentioned information, it is necessary to include theart education simultaneously in the media to provide pupils with the wide range of literacy, namely visual literacy. "The teacher can in fact be using new media to help students to develop creativity, imagination and aesthetic survival significantly more effective as the help of traditional media with which the contemporary students have significantly less experience according to which they often feel restraint and mistrust" (Filipova, 2015, p. 32).
- to support pupil´s reflection: an important aspect of communication in the pedagogical process is to lead the pupil to refection to his / her own work. If we do not talk about his product and do not enter the dialogue with the pupils, there is no process of meaning creation. Only classes of school-bored and fed-up artists will be later indifferent to the more demanding or unusual manifestations of art (Fulková, 2028, pp. 184-188). The reflection is of one of the manifestations of contemporary art, which reflects, meanwhile, the real events in society.

3. RELATIONSHIP OF INSPIRATION WITH THE STRATEGIES OF THE CONTEMPORARY ART AND THE MOTIVATION OF THE ACTIVITIES

We further justify that the presence of contemporary art practices is an important aspect of pedagogical practice in shaping the integral personality of the pupil of today's society. The subject of the research is in our dissertation work, besides the use of the current art of teaching in the school, as well as the motivation of the pupils to work with waste matetics. We focus mainly on creative activity with this material and we strive to adapt the issue of recycling in artistic education to the requirements of the time. The aim of the research is to discover and describe the phenomena of motivating pupils to work with waste material in a pedagogical process taking into account contemporary art strategies.

Therefore, the question of the research problem is: How will the implementation of contemporary art practices into pedagogical practice affect the motivation of pupils to work with waste material?

3.1 Methodology

The research of the thesis is focused on methods of qualitative investigation. The choice of the qualitative methodology is justified by the choice of the problem which, according to Dušan Kostrub (2016, p. 24), is „narrowly specific - such a problem refers to the specificity of the phenomenon, the behavior, the thinking of the subject, the subjects, is largely distant from the standard consideration of the issue of uninterested citizens“.

In our case, the problem is specific by introducing new pedagogical practices using current art strategies to work with waste material, and we find their impact on the motivation of pupils to work. Selected groups of participants have a common experience that distinguishes them from non-interested citizens.

21 pupils of the Basic Art School participated in the studied art activities in 4 Fokus groups and 3 observers - practitioners. Observation was carried out by recording the frequency of observed phenomena. As a research tool, we used our own structured observation system, where we observe the pupil's emotional expressions in relation to art activities, teacher-teacher communication, pupil's aesthetic judgments in relation to artwork, motivation for artwork, work with TRASH material and reflection of the pupil.

3.1 Definition of phenomena and categories

Based on our own experience of practice and professional literature, we have produced a system of observed phenomena that we recorded in the observation scheme. The three main phenomena of artistic education (in connection with the subject of our research) are motivation, communication and reflection.

3.2.1 Motivation

Motivation is the driving force of human activity. From the point of view of self-development it is realized by learning, but it can also be perceived from the point of view of socio-psychological aspects. Active social learning enables the formation of performance motivation through organized working conditions (László, 2004, p. 6-7). We understand motivation to exercise in our research as motivation to work with waste material. Under the phenomenon of motivation, we classify the categories examined as emotional expressions of the pupil in relation to artistic activity, motivation for artistic activity and work with the material.

3.2.2 Communication

Communication is a prerequisite for teaching without which education and training could not be carried out. Communication is also a means of realizing interpersonal relations in the classroom. It allows the birth, maturation, development and transformation of relationships between the communicators in the classroom (Gavora, 2007, pp. 28-30). Communication is such a set of activities that provide the flow of information. "Šubová asserts that" when transmitting speech as a set of characters that we control and understand, it occurs when transmitting - sending a message to the sender's encoding and decoding to the recipient "(Šubová, 2007, p.10).

The phenomenon of communication is represented in our observation system as a category - pupil-teacher communication.

3.2.3 Reflection

"Reflection is a perceptual perception of educational reality, which is a tool for the flexible updating of all means - oscillation, aim, methods and forms, as well as the way of communication in the teaching process" (Kasáčová, 2014, p. 16).

The meaning of reflection for art education is described in Chapter 2.3. When looking at the phenomenon of eflection, we also include a category - the aesthetic courts of the pupil in relation to the art work.

3.3 Analysis of observations

Observations were made in 4 focus groups of pupils. In the classroom we implemented contemporary art strategies such as installation, audio installation, scannerphotography and experimental graphics, with the following frequency of observed phenomena:

Observed phenomenons:

Category		Observed phenomenon	Appearance
Emotional expression In relation to the creative activity	**1**	surprise	15
	2	Joy	34
	3	frustration	4
	4	fatigue	4
Communication In relation pupil-teacher	**1**	Help	17
	2	Advice	23
	3	Praise/opinion	22
	4	Without communication	1
Aesthetic courts In relation to art work	**1**	Positive to his work	17
	2	Negative to his work	4
	3	Positive to other´s work	15
	4	Negative to other´s work	1

As the most frequent phenomenon in terms of emotional expression, we have enjoyed the pleasure of art. Pupils expressed joy several times per hour because the number of occurrence is higher than the total number of pupils. Teacher communication was active and mostly expressed positive about their work or the work of others.

Generalization of observation

Category		Observed phenomenon	Appearance
Motivation (M) For artistic activity	**1**	**M is high during the whole hour** (The pupil is excited about artwork)	17
	2	**M gradually decreases** (pupils lose their enthusiasm for the lesson)	1
	3	**M is low** (pupil is poorly motivated, does not show enthusiasm for artwork)	0
	4	**M absent** (pupil is not motivated to artistic activity from the beginning of the lesson)	0
Work with material	**1**	**Pupil works enthusiastically with the material** (the student is interested in material, tries to experiment and find new solutions)	13
	2	**Pupil works with material** (Pupil manifests interest in material, asks for advice and help from teacher)	10
	3	**Pupil reluctantly works with the material** (Pupil does not show interest in the material, but fulfills the tasks	0

		of the teacher)	
	4	**Pupil does not work with the material** (Pupil refuses to work with the material)	0
Reflexia	**1**	Pupils are ehthusiastically discussing about their work and artwork	4
	2	Pupils willingly express their opinion on the teacher's invitation	10
	3	Pupils are less willing to express their opinion on the teacher´s invitation	0
	4	Pupils don´t want to express themselves	1

Generally we can say that the motivation of the pupils was great during the whole hour, the pupils were enthusiastic for the artistic activity and showed interest in the material. They are willing to evaluate their views within the reflection.

4. CONCLUSION

From the observation results, we can assume that the implementation of contemporary art practices in artistic education has a positive effect on the motivation of pupils to work with waste material. Motivation is manifested in pupils when they show surprise and pleasure in art, experiment with waste material, and try to find new solutions separately. We will compare the results of observations in the next steps of the research with the results of the interviews with pupils and scaling (focusing on the evaluation of the artistic technique, the learning experience and the overall assessment of the pupil's artistic activity).

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LIDSKÁ DŮSTOJNOST A JEJÍ RESPEKTOVÁNÍ ČLENEM TÝMU POSTTRAUMATICKÉ PÉČE

HUMAN DIGNITY AND ITS RESPECT FOR A MEMBER OF A POSTTRAUMATIC CARE TEAM

Veronika Křivánková, Roman Říha

Abstrakt

Článek pojednává o lidské důstojnosti a jejím respektování členem týmu posttraumatické péče. Lidská důstojnost představuje uznání práv člověka, vyjadřuje úctu k němu a respektování jeho vlastní osoby. Členové týmu posttraumatické péče musí tyto úkony zvládnout a znát jej, z toho důvodu, že se setkávájí s lidmi, kteří trpí akutní stresovou reakcí.

Klíčová slova: *Lidská důstojnost, posttraumatické péče, akutní stresová reakce, respektování*

Abstract

The article deals with human dignity and its respect for a member of a posttraumatic care team. Human dignity represents acknowledgment of human rights, expresses esteem and respect for its own person. The members of the posttraumatic team have to cope with these tasks and also know them, therefore they meet with people with an acute stress response.

Key words: *Human dignity, posttraumatic care, acute stress response, respect.*

1 LIDSKÁ DŮSTOJNOST

Lidská důstojnost je termín, se kterým se setkáváme především v ošetřovatelství a zdravotnické etice. Tento pojem není přesně vymezen, ale přitom je každé zdravotní sestře, lékaři, psychologovi dobře známý. Diderot (1999) definuje lidskou důstojnost ve všeobecné encyklopedii jako zdůrazňující vědomí člověka a uznání jeho práv ve společnosti. Popovičová (2009) uvádí, že lidská důstojnost se realizuje v přístupu k člověku, ke svobodě člověka, svobodě myšlení, v přístupu jednoho člověka k druhému, k etnickým skupinám, k lidem s odlišným náboženským smýšlením, k umírajícím, vězněným apod., lidská důstojnost se realizuje zastáváním hodnoty lidského života, hodnoty člověka a respektováním jeho potřeb fyzických, duchovních, duševních i sociálních, vyjadřováním úcty člověka k člověku pouze na základě jeho lidství; lidská důstojnost vyjadřuje požadavek zacházení s člověkem jako s člověkem a nikoli jako s věcí, vyjadřuje požadavek respektování všeho, co lidství představuje, požadavek, aby člověk byl vždy účelem a nikoli prostředkem.

Slovo důstojnost pochází z latinského jazyka od slova – *dignus, dignita,* což přeložíme jako povinnost určitého respektu. S termínem lidská důstojnost se setkáváme v Úmluvách o lidských právech a biomedicíně, kde stojí: Smluvní strany budou chránit důstojnost a identitu všech lidí a v souvislosti s aplikací biologie a medicíny ji zaručí každému, bez diskriminace, respektování integrity, ostatních práv a svobod (Heřmanová, 2012).

Věci, které jdou proti lidské důstojnosti, můžeme charakterizovat následovně: vnucování řádu lidem, kteří ho nechtějí, nedovolení vlastního projevu, nerespektování jejich názoru, opomíjení nebo zapomínání základních lidských potřeb. Přehlížení, ignorování, ale i komunikace bez očního kontaktu může být pro druhého člověka nedůstojným projevem vůči jeho osobě (Heřmanová, 2012).

1.1 Tým posttraumatické péče a jeho činnost v pojetí ochrany lidské důstojnosti

Týmy posttraumatické péče fungují v rámci integrovaného záchranného systému České republiky. Tyto týmy fungují u Policie České republiky, Hasičského záchranného sboru České republiky (dále jen HZS ČR), zdravotnických záchranných služeb, neziskových organizací a občanských sdružení.

U HZS ČR se členové týmu posttraumatické péče stávají příslušníci HZS ČR po absolvování tří kurzů a to: První psychická pomoc I., první psychická pomoc II. a posttraumatická péče. Každoročně probíhá instruktážně metodické zaměstnání celého týmu, v rámci kterého probíhá seznamování s novými přístupy, dobrovolnými organizacemi, občanskými sdruženími a odborníky. Pro příklad uvádím České sdružení obětí dopravních nehod, Cesta domů, pohřební služby, nemocniční kaplani. Tato školení zprostředkovávají pohled na různé životní osudy, se kterými se ve své praxi mohou členové setkat a jimž budou čelit.

Člen týmu u HZS ČR je vysílán krajským operačním střediskem na místa neštěstí. Jedná se o situace, kdy někdo zemře, kdy někomu shoří dům, kdy je blízký těžce zraněn. Při první psychické pomoci chrání v prvé řadě bezpečnost a lidskou důstojnost zasaženého, snaží se zajistit základní lidské potřeby – potřebu přežití, dostatek informací a kontakt s blízkými (Psychologická služba HZS ČR, 2012).

Cílem první psychické pomoci je stabilizace psychického stavu tak, aby se situace pro zasaženého již nezhoršovala, byly zajištěny základní lidské potřeby včetně podpory pocitu zajištěného provizorního bezpečí a předání do další péče.

Při poskytování první psychické pomoci se uplatňuje pravidlo šesti „P“: promluv, podepři, připomínej realitu, podpoř, pečuj, předej (Hubová, 2007). K obecným zásadám, které členové týmu respektují, patří: nebát se navázat kontakt, představit se, hledat potřeby oběti, naslouchat a porozumět, nepotlačovat emoce, podávat pravdivé a ověřené informace, mluvit jednoduše a klidně, zároveň krátce a důrazně, držet za ruku, pokud je to potřeba, zajistit bezpečí a chránit lidskou důstojnost, vždy popsat každou činnost, kterou dělám, chránit před zrakem médií, podporovat zasaženého/ zasaženou v běžných činnostech, někomu zasaženého/ zasaženou předat (Křivánková, 2014; HZS ČR, 2010).

Pokud nastane při navázání kontaktu na mlčení klienta, je důležité jej respektovat. Mlčením člověk vyjadřuje úzkost, strach, nedůvěru v osobu, která za ním přišla, může se jednat i o znaky odporu (Špatenková, 2011). I tím, že necháme klientovi prostor pro mlčení, dáváme tím najevo, že jej plně respektujeme a chráníme jej. Ačkoliv se zdá, že chvilka je dlouhá a mlčení trvá mnohdy nepřiměřenou dobu, je na nás si uvědomit fakt, že klientovi v hlavě právě probíhá myšlenkový pochod, který je nutné tolerovat a nechat ho proběhnout.

Člen týmu dbá při setkání se zasaženou osobou na to, aby měla zajištěny všechny základní potřeby: jídlo, pití, soukromí, kontakt s blízkými lidmi. Na místě zásahu jsou faktory, které zabraňují naší práci. Mezi ně patří reportéři z medií, kteří se snaží v místě neštěstí zachytit co možná nejexkluzivnější záběr, případně rozhovor s přímým poškozeným, zasaženým, pozůstalým. Před těmito lidmi je důležité chránit lidskou důstojnost zasažené osoby. Metody, jak chránit lidskou důstojnost nejsou přesně vymezeny. Je důležité dbát na soukromí, osobní prostor, nenutit dělat věci, která zasažená osoba nechce, případně vysvětlit nezbytné kroky, které jsou nutné pro další postup.

2 ZÁVĚR

Na první pohled se může zdát, že některé činy, které vykonáváme v běžném životě, jako je například komunikace s druhými lidmi, nemůže narušit lidskou důstojnost. Na místě zásahu se členové týmu posttraumatické péče setkávají s lidmi, kteří se střetli s určitou překážkou, došlo k narušení jejich osobní integrity a jsou citlivější vůči svému okolí. V tyto chvíle i sebemenší slet písmen, slov, které normálně používáme v běžném životě, dokáží vyvolat reakci, která není žádoucí a dokáže narušit právě lidskou důstojnost. Toto

„nabourání“ může mít za následek vývoj psychické poruchy, vybudování nedůvěry v okolní svět a jiné. Proto je důležité se ke každému chovat tak, jak bychom chtěli, aby se druzí chovali k nám.

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EMPATHY AND PARENTING AS PREDICTORS OF LONELINESS IN ADOLESCENT BOYS AND GIRLS

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Abstract

Loneliness becomes a common part of adolescents' lives. In adolescence, the significant predictor of loneliness comes from social environment. Our aim was to monitor the proportion of selected predictors from the family environment – empathy, emotional relationship and parental control of mother and father – on the variability of loneliness in adolescent boys and girls. The research group consisted of 206 adolescents (84 boys and 122 girls) aged 10-18. We used an adjusted version of Basic empathy scale, Parenting style questionnaire and UCLA- Loneliness Scale (3rd Revision). We found out that selected factors of family environment explain 16.1% variability of loneliness in adolescent boys and 23.4% variability of loneliness in adolescent girls. The most significant from selected factors of loneliness seem to be emotional relationship of the parent of the opposite sex.

Key words: *Empathy of parent. Emotional relationship. Parenting control. Loneliness. Adolescence.*

1 INTRODUCTION

Isolation and self-focus become a normal part of a lifestyle. But the picture of lonely person is mostly associated with an older adult who is doomed to a lonely existence. However the researches show that the age distribution of loneliness is U-shaped, that means that loneliness is more prevalent not only in old but also in young people while its incidence within adolescent is still raising (Luhmann, Hawkley, 2016). Some studies have found an increased sense of loneliness in more than two thirds of young people under 18 (Berguno, Leroux, McAinsh, Shaikh, 2004; Galanaki, 2004). Being alone represents subjectively experienced unpleasant feeling of social isolation, resulting from the absence of satisfactory social relations. The paper comes from the single- factor understanding of loneliness, the rise and persistence of which can be conditioned by many factors (Cacioppo, Hawkley, n.d.).

The loneliness is influenced in different ages by different factors (Luhmann, Hawkley, 2016). In adolescence, the significant predictor of loneliness comes from social environment. Characteristic for this period is greater emancipation from family and the focus on peer relations. Parents and peers are the key socializing factors in the period of adolescence and remain important predictors of loneliness in adolescence, independent from the effects of genetics and personal variables of adolescent or his own self presentation (Jackson, 2007; Junttila, Vauras, 2009). Previous researches have shown that adolescents' loneliness is related to perceived social support and parenting, that is related to denial by peers and feeling of loneliness (Jackson, 2007; Salimi, Bozorgpour, 2012; Zhao, Kong, Wang, 2013). In the present study we have studied variables from the family environment – empathy, emotional relationship and parenting of both parents – as possible predictors of loneliness in adolescent boys and girls.

1.1 Empathy of parent as predictor of loneliness in adolescence

Empathy is one of the important „interpersonal skills" that determines the quality of relations with others. It represents the basic quality of individual to understand (cognitive empathy) and share (affective empathy) the emotional state of other person (Jolliffe, Farrington, 2006). It enables to find what other thinks or feels and helps him to reduce the risk of misunderstanding among people (Mlčák, 2010). Parents who use the ability to react with empathy on teenager's

needs and communicate, create an environment in which adolescent realizes how important it is to understand needs and personal experiences of other people. Empathic parents help adolescent to develop the quality of empathy and other social competencies that are necessary in building effective interpersonal relationships (Shapiro, 2004; Stoica, Roco, 2013). Adolescent educated by empathic parents are able to understand and feel for others, and are able to better deal with social problems and be more popular in the groups (McElwain, Halberstadt, Volling, 2007). They have higher self-esteem and self-confidence, more often initiate social interactions, through which they develop their social competencies and thus have lower loneliness (Repetti, Taylor, Seeman, 2005; Richaud de Minzi, 2006). On the other hand, the lack of emotional attention from parents stiffens the empathy (Buda, 1994). That's way the empathy is an important factor that contributes to reducing the risk of loneliness (Beadle et al., 2012).

1.2 Parent – child emotional relationship as predictor of loneliness in adolescence

Shapiro (2004) argues that for the correct development of adolescent is necessary not only empathy from the parent but also something what we might call as warmth, interest or emotional relationship of parent. Emotional relationship between parent and adolescent create the whole atmosphere in the family and it is a part of parenting style that parent uses without significant changes in parenting since childhood. It moves on a continuum from sensitive and warmth approach (positive component of parenting) to a cool, uninterested approach (negative component of parenting); (Čáp, Boschek, 1994). Parenting warmth, similar as empathy, helps individual to develop assertive behaviour, ability to engage in social groups and solve interpersonal conflicts, support his empathy and prosocial behaviour (Vašašová, 2004; Zahn-Waxler, Radke-Yarrow, 1990). Adolescents who were brought up in a sensitive and warmth environment create a positive image of themselves and they are more confident and trust people more. They create more satisfied peer relationships and less feel lonely (Širůček, Širůčková, 2012). On the other hand, the lack of warmth and care from parents has negative effect in forming social competencies and relationships in adolescence (Buschgens et al., 2010; Macek, Štefánková, 2012).

1.3 Parenting control as predictor of adolescent's loneliness

The important role in parenting plays also another component of parenting – control – consisting of high demands, strict control and use of punishments (component of the requirement) and absence of control with the emphasis on adolescent's autonomy (component of freedom); (Čáp, Boschek, 1994). Positive relationship to adolescent does not mean only affinity but also care, interest and reasonable control. The low demands and excessively benevolent approach are associated with higher level of lonely feelings in adolescent (Lim, Smith, 2008). On the other hand, exaggerated pressure from parents leads to the fears from the reaction of others, aggressive behaviour to peers, introversion and low self-esteem in adolescent as well as his inability to make compromise and solve the conflicts what may be the cause not only loneliness of adolescent but also mental and behavioural problems (Buda, 1994; Mlčák, 2010; Richards et al., 1991; Richaud De Minzi, 2006). Typical for such approach in parenting is the lack of empathy. Presence of cognitive empathy leads parent in conflict situation to better understanding of others and reduces the possibility of hostile or aggressive reaction toward adolescent (Jolliffe, Farrington, 2006; Mlčák, 2010).

1.4 The role of mother and father in parenting

Parents have specific role in parenting that's why some studies have focused on detecting differences between parenting of mothers and fathers in the relation with loneliness of their children. Their results are ambiguous. Regarding gender – related relationships between

parent and adolescents, some psychologists agree that parent of the same sex is more involved in the child rising and vice versa, child responds more to the parent of the same sex. The parent of the same sex becomes the model of the gender role. It helps adolescent to increase his own self-esteem, teaches him the basis of social intelligence, empathy and regulation of own emotions and also develops his intelligence and social competence which can protect him from experiencing the feelings of loneliness (Matoušek, 2003; Oravcová, Ďuricová, Bindasová, 2007). Disrupted relationship with the parent of the same sex is associated with lower prosocial behaviour, problems with identity and emotional instability of adolescent. Low empathy or insufficient emotional reactions to the needs of child of the same sex lead to inadequate adolescent self-esteem, lack of empathy, excessive shyness, social anxiety and problems with adaptation (Corneau, 2012; Matoušek, 2003; Mlčák, 2010). Other authors attribute a decisive role to parent of the opposite sex in adolescent development. Parent of the opposite sex can play an important role to the emotional loneliness of adolescent, experiencing unpleasant feelings due to the lack of close, intimate and confidential relationship with the concrete person (e.g. parent, best friend, partner); (Weiss, 1973 in: Ernst, Cacioppo, 1999). Father represents for his daughter the model of male role and mother for her son the model of female role. Modelling can influence the confidence the adolescent to approach to the opposite sex, which consequently influences the formation of their future romantic relationships, the quality of which is directly related to the degree of emotional loneliness (Richaud de Minzi, 2006).

1.5 The present study

Based on the research results that showed an increased loneliness of young people (Berguno et al., 2004; Galanaki, 2004), the aim of our study was study selected predictors from family environment on the variability of loneliness in adolescent boys and girls. Despite the fact that in adolescence there is a consistent emancipation from the family and orientation to peers, parents continue to be the most important people in adolescent's life and influence his living and behaviour (Jackson, 2007; Osecká, Macek, Řehulková, 2000). Based on these statements, we assume that loneliness of adolescent is somehow associated with factors that are in family environment. We focus on parent's empathy, because previous researches claimed that empathetic parents stimulate and support expression of emotions, teach adolescents empathy, develop their emotional intelligence and prosocial behaviour that adolescent consistently applies in the peer relations (Moreno, Klute, Robinson, 2008; Stoica, Roco, 2013; Strayer Roberts, 2004). The positive emotional relationship between parent and adolescent was measured because it can help create adolescent's positive self-esteem, increases confidence toward people, and perception of his or her own social and emotional competencies. Adolescents who grow up in a warmth family environment create adequate peers relationships and less often feel lonely (Raikes, Thompson, 2008; Širůček, Širůčková, 2012). For correct development of adolescent is necessary to have adequate control and limits (Ďuricová, 2004; Saladin–Grizivatz, 2002). Taking into account, that both parents have specific role in parenting, we monitor all three factors of family environment (empathy, emotional relationship and parenting control) particularly for mother and father. The previous research studies found that the view of the parents is often distorted, and parents have tendency to underestimate or overestimate their emotional expressions toward adolescents (Buschgens et al., 2010; Wray-Lake, Flanagan, 2011). For that all three parents' variables were monitored from the adolescent's point of view. The previous researches have also showed that girls are more sensitive on family environment influences than boys (Macek, Štefánková, 2012), that's why we monitored the portion of individual variables on the variability of loneliness in girls and boys.

In the relation to the aim of the research we are looking for an answer on the question: What is the portion of monitored variables from family environment – empathy, emotional relationship and parenting control – of mother and father on the variability of loneliness in adolescent boys and girls and which from the monitored variables significantly predict loneliness in adolescence.

2 METHODS

We chose the adolescent's age because loneliness in this period is more frequent than in other (Perlman, Landolt, 1999). We define selected age limit according to Macek (2003) who distinguishes early (10/11-13 years), middle (14-16 years) and late adolescence (17-20 years). The upper limit in our study was 18 years, because in this time adolescents finish high school and leave the families and parents cease play important role in their life. Data were achieved from the 138 pupils of the primary school (57 girls and 81 boys) and 68 pupils of the high school (27 boys and 41 girls) aged 10-18 (AM_{age}=14.18; SD_{age}=2.43), who were selected casually and sequentially filled in 3 questionnaires.

We measured the loneliness of adolescent by 3rd Version of UCLA- Loneliness scale (Russell, Peplau, Cutron, 1980 in: Russell, 1996). The questionnaire contains of 9 positive (absent feelings of loneliness) and 11 negative (present feelings of loneliness) formulated statements for evaluating satisfaction with social relations which respondent expresses on 4-point scale from „never“ to „always“. This scale belongs to the most commonly used methods to measure loneliness. Russell (1996) conducted a validation study that confirmed its high validity and reliability (Cronbach's α=0.89–0.94). Good psychometric properties of questionnaire for Slovak population have been confirmed by several studies carried on the adolescents (Molčanová et al., 2007). In the present study, we confirmed adequate internal consistency of UCLA-Loneliness scale (Cronbach's α=0.852). Factor analysis of second-ordered items has confirmed one-dimensionality of the questionnaire (Russell, 1996). Terms such as “loneliness” or “lonely” do not appear in any item to avoid distortion of answers.

We measured the adolescent's view on parent's empathy by modified version of Basic scale of empathy (BES). The original version of the questionnaire (Jolliffe, Farrington, 2006) had 20 items which respondent answered on 5-point scale from “totally agree” to “totally disagree”. In the research study we used the Slovak version of the questionnaire which was translated by Čavojová, Sirota and Belovičová (2012). They subsequently carried out two research studies that confirmed two factor model of empathy and provided support for convergent and discriminatory validity. We have modified the version of items so the respondents do not express their empathy but how they perceive the empathy from their parents (mother and father) toward themselves. The revised questionnaire examined the adolescent's view on the empathy that mother and father applied in his upbringing. We confirmed adequate internal consistency of revised BES (Cronbach's α=0.792–0.816).

We measured upbringing in family from the adolescent's point of view by Parenting style questionnaire. This was created and standardized by Čáp and Boschek (1994). It consists of 10 items for the each of the four components (positive, negative, requirements and freedom). The respondents expressed “yes”, “partially” or “no” to the claims. In particular items they evaluated mother's and father's parenting separately. From the components positive and negative relationship we created a complex characteristic “emotional relationship” and from the component of the requirements and freedom were created a complex characteristic “control”. In the present study, we confirmed adequate internal consistency of questionnaire (Cronbach's α=0.798–0.849).

We processed the obtained data by SPSS.22.0. We verified the normality of the monitored variables and then through enter method of multiple linear regression analysis; we examined how empathy, emotional relationship and control of both parents contribute to the variability

of the loneliness in adolescent boys and girls. We used enter method because we wanted to find out how large is the proportion of variability of dependent variable- loneliness of adolescent – explain by all independent variables together and also which of the selected independent variables are relevant in explaining variability of loneliness in adolescents.

3 RESULTS

Enter method of multiple linear regression statistically evaluates the proportion of independent variables (empathy, emotional relationship and control of mother and father) on variability of dependent variable (loneliness in adolescent boys and girls). First we tested the normality of variables. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test showed that emotional relationship and control of both parents do not meet the criteria of normal distribution. Similarly coefficients of skewness and kurtosis do not meet the criteria for normality, but their values were less than ±2. It was showed that most parents have positive or negative emotional relationship to their children while the medium values occurred in fewer cases. In the control of parents was an increased representation of weak and moderate control while the strong control was less frequent.

Subsequently we focused on testing using Enter method. In Table 1 we present results of regression analysis for adolescent boys. From this results we may state that selected predictors of family environment together contribute on 16.1% variability of dependent variable (R^2=.161), which is loneliness in adolescent boys. From the observed predictors seems to be relevant only emotional relationship of mother which proved to be moderate strong and negative statistically significant predictor of loneliness (β=-.436; p<.05). Negative emotional relationship of mother leads to higher level of perceived loneliness in adolescent boys, while the positive relationship of mother leads to reduction of these feelings.

Table 1 Evaluation of loneliness' predictors in adolescent boys

MODEL 1	R	R^2	B	β	t	p
Loneliness of boys (F=2.438; p=.033; n=84)						
Empathy of father	.402	.161	.178	.192	1.335	.186
Empathy of mother			.072	.073	.477	.635
Emotional relationship of father			-.372	-.041	-.223	.824
Emotional relationship of mother			**-3.838**	**-.436**	**-2.314**	**.023**
Control of father			1.358	.097	.788	.433
Control of mother			-1.792	-.138	-1.123	.265

In Table 2 are presented the results of regression analysis of adolescent girls. Based on these results we note that selected predictors of family environment contribute to 23.4% variability of loneliness in adolescent girls (R^2=.234). From monitored independent variables was statistically significant only emotional relationship of father which was similar than in boys, negative predictor of loneliness (β=-.256; p<.05). Other monitored predictors did not prove to be relevant for explaining the variability of loneliness in adolescent girls (p>.05).

Table 2 Evaluation of loneliness' predictors in adolescent girls

MODEL 1	R	R^2	B	β	t	p
Loneliness of girls (F=5.307; p=.000.; n=122)						
Empathy of father	.484	.234	-.105	-.138	-.915	.362
Empathy of mother			-.138	-.179	-1.233	.221
Emotional relationship of father			**-2.494**	**-.256**	**-2.147**	**.034**
Emotional relationship of mother			-.622	-.064	-.575	.566
Control of father			1.075	.100	.780	.437
Control of mother			-1.588	-.145	-1.170	.245

4 DISCUSSION

Our aim was to determine the portion of selected variables from family environment on prediction of loneliness in adolescents and identified those whose significantly contribute to the prediction of loneliness in adolescent boys and girls. We found out that significant predictor of loneliness in adolescents seemed to be the emotional relationship of parent of the opposite sex. In the case of adolescent boys, the most significant predictor was mother's emotional relationship. We confirmed that negative emotional relationship, reserved approach of mother has a significant influence on feelings of loneliness not only in family environment but also in the group of peers. Negative relationship of mother and lack of emotional attention from her causes negative attitudes of her son to other people, prevents him from creating interpersonal relationships and diminishes his feelings of empathy (Leman, 2008; Shapiro, 2004; Šatánek, 2004). Our results support the claims of several authors who highlight the loving and sensitive approach of mother as protective factor of loneliness in adolescent boys (Biddulph, 2006; Moreno, Klute, Robinson, 2008). Devout mother mainly to the boy's age of 6 years is the model of woman role, helping him to gain confidence in himself and others, better cope with interpersonal conflicts, and be popular in the group of peers (Biddulph, 2006; Oravcová, Ďuricová, Bindasová, 2007; Shapiro, 2004; Stoica, Roco, 2013; Šatánek, 2004). At the same time she helps son to create a relationship with his father which importance rises in the adolescence (Biddulph, 2006).

When examining the loneliness of adolescent girls, the most significant predictor of loneliness was emotional relationship of father. Several authors have claimed that girls pick social competencies over mother and learn how to create and work in relationships with people outside family environment (Barton, Kirtley, 2012; Firmanová, Firmanová, 2004). Our results show importance of the father in the life of adolescent girls. Father's positive relationship proved to be protective factor of loneliness in adolescent girls while the negative relationship led to increase of feelings of loneliness to their peers. Emotionally reserved fathers create in their daughters mistrust in themselves and others and may cause the inability to create full interpersonal relations, excessive shyness, social anxiety and problems with adaptation what subsequently lead to the feelings of loneliness (Corneau, 2012; Mlčák, 2010).

Control of mother and father has not proved to be a significant predictor of loneliness in adolescent boys or girls. Our results showed that in the case of loneliness in adolescents is more important reserved, insensitive relationship, lack of interest from parent of the opposite sex in the comparison to inadequate demands, excessive freedom or excessive control and directive parent control. The possible cause of these findings is the fact, that adolescents who participated in our research evaluated their parents mostly as benevolent with positive relationship. These results support the claims that nowadays parents abstain from control and

punishment and prefer more sensitive and benevolent approach (Kravárová, 2010; Ondrejkovič, 2008).
Parents who practice empathy tend to be more interested in adolescent's needs in conflict situation reducing probability of their hostile of aggressive reaction (Mlčák, 2010). Previous researches have suggested that perceived feelings of loneliness are largely related to the pathological control and lack of love and sensitivity from the parent of the same sex (Richards et al., 1991; Richaud de Minzi, 2006; Scharf, Wiseman, Farah, 2011).

4.1 Limits of the research and recommendation

We consider measurement tools as limit of the research. Self-reported questionnaires are based on the subjective responses of the respondents, which may be distorted because of giving socially desirable responses. This is a risk we encounter in measuring loneliness which is more tolerated in girls who may score higher under the influence of gender stereotypes and are more willing to confess it than boys. We tried to avoid these distortions using questionnaire which did not contain the terms “loneliness” or “lonely”.
The parent's view on empathy and parenting may be also distorted (Wray-Lake, Flanagan, 2011). We tried to avoid these distortions by gaining responses from adolescents, who have expressed empathy and parenting of their mother and father. The view of adolescents may be also distorted under the gender stereotypes where maternal expectations are greater in empathy and warmth, while fathers should be more strict and controlled. Adolescents participating in our research consistent with these stereotypes evaluated mothers as more empathetic but we did not mention differences in the perception of control of mother and father.

4.2 Conclusion

Our aim was to examine the feelings of loneliness in adolescence and identified those factors that predict loneliness of adolescent boys and girls. From the examined factors of family environment (empathy of parents, emotional relationship and control of parents) was as significant protective factor positive emotional relationship of the parent of opposite sex. Nor control of parents neither empathy were shown as significant predictors of adolescents' loneliness. It has been shown that warmth approach of parenting and interests from mother in the case of teenage boys and father in teenage girls help adolescent to build satisfied interpersonal relationships outside the family environment that subsequently protect them from experiencing feelings of loneliness. At the same time it has been shown that monitored factors of the family environment in higher level contribute on prediction of loneliness of adolescent girls than boys, what is consistent with Macek and Štefánková (2012) according who the girls are more sensitive to the influences of family environment.

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STORY READING AND DRAMA FOR VERY YOUNG LEARNERS OF EFL

Edita Horňáčková Klapicová

Abstract

Story reading and drama may contribute greatly to the child's foreign language development. These teaching strategies are highly recommended to be implemented in the curriculum, as they involve practicing listening and speaking skills; pronunciation, stress, rhythm, intonation and aspects of connected speech; vocabulary and meaning; grammatical forms; sentence structure; real language in use; speech acts and social skills. The aim of the present paper is to show some of the positive effects of story reading and drama in teaching EFL to very young learners adopting Steven Krashen's Input hypothesis and the Affective Filter hypothesis through communicative language teaching and the natural approach.

Key words: *story reading, drama, EFL, very young learners, the Input hypothesis, the Affective Filter hypothesis, communicative language teaching, the natural approach*

1. INTRODUCTION

The goal of foreign language instruction is to help learners achieve linguistic competence, and most importantly, communicative competence in the target language. Communicative competence "includes [several] aspects that enable a language user to communicate at adequate language and social levels" (Byessonova and Smetanova 2016, 21). Story reading and drama provide learners with real language used in meaningful contexts for meaningful communication.

Story reading is an effective motivational teaching strategy, which may help the learner develop language skills not only in his mother tongue but also in the foreign language. Very young learners enjoy listening to stories and are generally highly interested in knowing how the story will continue and end (Cf. Wright 2003). They also become emotionally committed to what is taking place in the text (Cf. Kutálková 2002). With the appropriate pre-reading, during reading and post-reading activities, story reading provides the learners with the possibility to practice listening and speaking skills; pronunciation, stress, rhythm, intonation and aspects of connected speech; vocabulary and meaning; grammatical forms; sentence structure; real language in use; speech acts and social skills. Storytelling can also function as a source of motivation.

The use of visual aids, the appropriate tone of voice, clear enunciation, occasional commenting on what is being read, miming, gestures, and even dramatic representation of the story are some of the crucial strategies supporting the achievement of the desired positive effects of story reading in the EFL classroom. Very young learners may not be capable of understanding all of the vocabulary in the text, therefore, the interpretation of the story by another person as well as allowing the learners to become emotionally, mentally and physically involved in the plot will enhance comprehension of the text. Drama provides the learners with an intense emotional experience of the represented events accompanied by the use of language, where participants identify with roles and situations in a fictitious context (Cf. Godfrey 2010). Moreover, the use of drama in the EFL classroom may help the learners acquire and practice "life skills such as cooperating with others, speaking publicly, being creative and imaginative, and becoming more confident" (Vernon 2015).

Through drama activities, very young learners can also develop oral and communication skills, turn-taking rules and cooperation with others. Representing real-life situations, drama is an excellent source of "teaching meaning associated with words, the physical setting and actions" (Hornáčková Klapicová 2017, 78). Furthermore, learners become acquainted with the way "words, phrases and larger units of language are used in specific contexts" (Ibid. 78).
With the implementation of story reading and drama activities, foreign language learning in very young learners resembles first language acquisition. Language development progresses from one stage to another, each time on a higher level, as understood by Krashen's Input hypothesis, which claims that language acquisition will occur when the acquirer is capable of understanding "(via hearing or reading) the input language that contains structure 'a bit beyond' his or her current level of competence" (Brown 2000, 278). Krashen (2013) assumes that a learner who is on level ´1´ will progress in his or her language development through comprehensible language input, which is on level ´i+1´. This can be achieved through listening and drama activities set in context and surrounded by extra-linguistic information (Cf. Krashen 2013).
Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis explains and highlights the influence of affective variables on the process of second language acquisition. Even if learners are exposed to sufficient comprehensible input, language acquisition might be unsuccessful. This is conditioned by the affective filter or mental block caused by a lack of motivation or self-confidence and anxiousness, which prevents the learner from progressing in his or her language development. Story reading and drama belong to those classroom techniques, which help learners to keep their affective filter low by helping them eliminate and overcome possible negative emotional barriers, stress, fear or anxiety.

2. AIMS OF RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

The present paper is part of a research project carried out in an English classroom in a kindergarten in Lower Austria. Coming from families with different ethnic background and mother tongues, the children (3 to 6 years old) used German as common language in kindergarten. During their English lessons, the English language was used exclusively for communication between the instructor and the learners. The aim of this paper is to show how story reading combined with drama were used as an effective teaching strategy to very young learners of English.
The activities presented in the paper were performed in a natural, communicative and interactive way, while making use of various visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, social, and emotional teaching strategies. They were implemented in a variety of ways, considering the very young learners' type of memory, which is short-term, mechanical, unintentional and emotional (Cf. Smetanová 2017, p. 46), with the goal to achieve a specific linguistic and communicative competence in line with Krashen's Input hypothesis and the Affective Filter hypotheses.

3. STORY READING AND DRAMA IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

3.1 Preparation

The story chosen for reading during the English lesson was The Three Bears. The classroom was first set with different scenes representing the characters, objects and events in the story. The visual aids used in the different scenes included: a great big papa bear, a middle-sized mama bear, a wee-little baby bear (Picture 1), a house in the forest (Pictures 1, 2 and 4), a big chair for the papa bear, a middle-sized chair for the mama bear, a wee little chair for the baby bear (Pictures 2 and 4), a great big bed for the papa bear, a middle-sized bed for the mama bear, a wee little bed for the baby bear (Picture 3), a pan and a spoon for the mama bear to coock poridge in (Picture 2), a table set with a big bowl for the papa bear, a middle sized bowl

for the mama bear and a wee little bowl for the baby bear, a tree, flowers, the sky with the sun, clouds and a rainbow providing a setting for the walk in the forest (Picture 6), and Goldilocks (Picture 5).

Picture 1

Picture 2

Picture 3

Picture 4

Picture 5

Picture 6

3.2 Procedure

As the learners entered the classroom, they spotted the stage setup and naturally became very enthusiastic about finding out what was going to take place during the lesson. After the opening activities consisting of a greeting, warm-up songs accompanied by motions and a casual conversation between the instructor and the learners, the learners were introduced to the main activity of the lesson, namely, the story the learners were going to listen to represented in form of a play. It is important to note that the teacher had invited an assistant instructor – a native speaker of English, who role-played the events taking place in the story. During the pre-reading activities, the instructor introduced the main characters in the story (papa bear, mama bear, baby bear and Godlilocks) and the setting (the house, the kitchen, the bedroom and the forest) and commented on the relevant attributes of the main characters and objects pertaining to the setting, such as the age of the characters, their roles, the size and colors of the objects. Next, the instructor reviewed the meaning of most nouns present in the story, such as *mama, papa, baby, chair, house, door, window, tree, sun, cloud, rainbow, flower, bowl, pan, spoon, table, chair, bed, porridge, breakfast*; adjectives, such as *(too) hot, (too) cold, (just) right, (too) hard, (too) soft, big, middle-sized, small, little*; verbs, such as *come, go for a walk, call, knock, open, sit, eat, to be hungry, lie down, run, jump, open one's eyes, see*; and possessive pronouns, such as *my, his, her*.

During reading the narrator (the instructor) made sure she varied the tone of her voice (soft, regular, dramatic), tried to imitate the sound of the different characters according to their role in the story, enunciated clearly but at the same time spoke naturally (not too slow, so her pronunciation would resemble natural connected speech), made pauses when necessary, etc. The actor (the assistant instructor) used the characters (the three bears and Goldilocks) present on the stage to act out the different actions in the story.

Scene 1
In Scene 1 the three bears living in their house in the forest were introduced.
Scene 2
In Scene 2 the three chairs and their attributes were introduced.
Scene 3
In Scene 3 the three beds and their attributes were introduced.
Scene 4
In Scene 4 the mama bear was first cooking poridge for breakfast in a pan, stirring it with a spoon. Then she poured the porridge in the three bowls set on the table.
Scene 5
In Scene 5 the three bears went for a walk in the forest.
Scene 6
In Scene 6 Goldilocks was introduced as she was walking through the woods and came to the three bears‘ house. She opened the door and went in. She spotted the three chairs and sat on each one of them untill, finally, she decided the baby chair was just right for her, but it broke as she sat on it. Then she spied the porridge. She tasted the porridge from all three bolws, but she found the porridge in the wee little bowl just right and ate it all up. Then she went upstairs and tried the beds. She found the wee litle bed so nice, so she lay down on it and went to sleep.
Scene 7
In Scene 7 the three bears came back to the house through the forest. As they stepped into the house, they saw that someone had been there. Each one of them noticed that someone had been sitting in their chair (the baby bear noticed his chair was broken), tasted their porridge (the baby bear noticed his porridge was all eaten up) and tried their beds (the baby bear noticed someone was sleeping in his bed right then).
Scene 8
In Scene 8 Goldilocks opened her eyes and saw the three bears. She was so surprised that she jumped out the window and ran all the way home.
At the end of the story and play, the narrator and the actor stepped into the middle of the classroom and bowed down before the audience to end the story.

3.3 Follow-up
The follow-up activities included active interaction with the learners. The instructor alternating with the assistant instructor asked the learners questions related to the main characters in the story, to the events taking place in the story and to the setting. The learners were asked to provide answers to different kinds of questions, for instance how many bears were present in the story, what their names were, what was the name of the little girl who visited the three bears’ house, were the three bears went for a walk, what they could see in the forest, what happened when they came back home, etc. or perform different kinds of activities, for instance to lie down in the middle-sized mama bear bed or sit in the great big papa bear’s chair.

3.4 Acquired skills
This story reading activity combined with drama permitted very young learners to acquire and practice the following skills: a) pronunciation; prosodic features: stress, rhythm, and intonation; aspects of connected speech: assimilation, elision, and linking; b) personal pronouns: she, it, they; c) possessive pronouns: my, his, her, their; d) verbs: be, come, go for a walk, call, knock, open, sit, eat, to be hungry, lie down, run, jump, open one’s eyes, see; e) regular and irregular simple past tense forms of verbs: was, were, lived, had, made, filled, went, came, knocked, opened, called, sat, broke, spied, said, tasted, lay down, stepped into,

looked, cried, jumped, ran; f) the present progressive tense: was walking; g) the present perfect tense: has been sitting, has broken, has been tasting, has been sleeping; h) the past perfect tense: had been; i) the pronoun *there* used as an expletive subject of *be*: there were; j) articles: a, the; k) common nouns: mama, papa, baby, chair, house, door, window, tree, sun, cloud, rainbow, flower, bowl, pan, spoon, table, chair, bed, porridge, breakfast; l) plural forms of nouns: bears, beds, woods, chairs, eyes; m) adjectives: hot, cold, right, hard, soft, big, middle-sized, small, little; n) intensifier: too; o) indefinite pronouns: someone, nobody; p) prepositional phrases: in a little house, in the forest, for the mama bear, for the papa bear, for the baby bear, for breakfast, through the woods, on the door, come in, in my chair, in the great big chair, in the middle-sized bowl, in his great big voice; at the table; r) collocations and fixed expressions: go for a walk, run all the way home, once upon a time; s) conjunctions: and, so, but; t) interjections: Oh! Humph! Oh, dear! Land sakes! u) onomatopoeic words: thump-thump-thump, trot-trot-trot, skippity-skip-skip; v) social skills through interactive pre-reading, during reading and post-reading activities.

4. CONCLUSION

The present paper recommends story reading in combination with drama as an effective teaching strategy for teaching English as a foreign language to very young learners. The activities described in the paper included various types of visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, social, and emotional aids providing a natural setting with the communicative approach. Real language was used in a variety of contexts for meaningful communication. Learners were regarded as individual and democratic learners. The instructor adopted the role of an organizer, controller, assessor, participant and facilitator. The classroom atmosphere was pleasant, enjoyable and relaxed, assuring a positive and fearless psycho-emotional state of the learners, in support of Krashen's Affective Filter hypotheses. The learners had an opportunity to practice listening, speaking and social skills as well as to review and practice old linguistic forms and acquire new forms on different language levels.

The learners manifested their enthusiasm and emotional involvement in the story performed by the actor(s). The story reading and drama activities sustained the learners‘ attention and kept them interested in finding out who the characters were, what was going to happen next in the story and how the story was going to end. During the interactive tasks the children showed their already high competence in English, as they smoothly and naturally cooperated with the instructor, provided logical answers to the intructors‘ questions and performed the appropriate actions when necessary. The learners demonstrated their ability to comprehend and accurately interpret the story about the three bears, which for the current level of language competence of the learners represented comprehensible language input on level ´i+1´, in line with Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis.

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PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTIVISM IN DIGITAL TEACHING MATERIALS

Markéta Bilanová

Abstract

The present study deals with the employment of principles of constructivism in digital teaching materials (DTMs) which are created by Czech teachers of English and available open access to all teachers. The materials are designed in various formats, from static presentations to interactive ones exploiting latest teaching applications and running on modern digital devices. The focus is placed on chosen DTMs accessible from a website subsidized by the European Social Fund (ESF) and promoted by the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MEYS). More than 100 DTMs were analyzed qualitatively regarding their application of modern didactic principles based on the theory of constructivism. The aim was to find out whether the utilization of modern technology automatically endorses modern pedagogy.

Key words: *constructivism, digital materials, modern didactics, ELT, ESL, TEFL*

1 INTRODUCTION

The term *Digital Teaching Materials* (DTMs) was chosen by the author of the present study to distinguish its concept from *Digital Learning Objects* (DLOs) as well as *Digital Learning Materials* (DLMs) and other similar denominations. The main purpose of this terminological diversion is, through the replacement of the attribute 'learning' with 'teaching', to emphasize the shift of the main target group and function of the materials analyzed in this research.

1.1 Digital Learning Objects vs. Digital Teaching Materials

DLOs started to appear in the 1960's[1] and were defined by Wiley[2] as "digital entities deliverable over the Internet" which include "components (called 'objects') that can be reused in multiple contexts" for educational purposes. Various open source educational media accessible online, have been permeating the Czech educational system since 2007[3], when, in an internal document of the Czech National Institute for Education[4] the term DLOs was used for the first time. It became quickly substituted with a Czech term 'digitální učební materiály' (DUM), though. The attribute *Digital* in DUMs does not necessarily imply a computer assisted method of implementation as is the case with DLOs; it primarily highlights the way of DUMs distribution. DUMs have been prepared by Czech primary and secondary school teachers for a wide range of curricular subjects and shared on multiple portals, some of which have been funded by the Czech state budget and/or the European Social Fund (e.g. EU Money to Schools), and their distribution has even been promoted by the Czech MEYS[5,6].

1.2 Digital Teaching Materials vs. Digital Learning Materials

By using the term *Digital Teaching Materials* (DTMs) as English equivalent to DUMs in the present study, the author also means to challenge other similar terms used in researched literature by some Czech authors (Hubená[7], Tocháček[8]) as well as other non-Anglo-Saxon scientific community authors (Kreijns[9], Vermeulen[10], Luna-Gijón[11], Schoonenboom[12]), namely *Digital Learning Materials* and *Electronical Learning Objects*. They both represent literal translation of the Czech term *digitální učební materiály* (DUM), nevertheless the translation of the attribute 'učební' as 'teaching' as opposed to 'learning' shifts the main target and function of such materials from learner-focused to teacher-focused. Teaching materials, in general, are all resources a teacher uses to deliver instruction. Such materials

play a large role in making knowledge accessible to learners and engaging them with knowledge in different ways. Similar to *teaching aids* used by the teacher to facilitate learning in the course of a lesson, the materials analyzed in this research represent a range of tools the teacher can draw upon in order to assist and facilitate learning. The learners do not use the materials on their own (as *learning aids*), which is the case of e.g. '1:1 learning'[13] where computing devices, such as wireless laptops, tablets and PCs are used by each learner individually.

According to one of their earliest host websites, the Methodological Portal of the Framework Educational Program (FEP)[14], DTMs started as worksheets, presentations, tests, videos and sound bites and their capacity to be used with no additional modifications (so that they were available for immediate usage in the classroom by novice teachers) was stressed and advertised. Their quality and formal aspects were defined by a 'Handbook' available on the Methodological Portal[15] and have not changed since 2008. The materials are subject to a review process prior to their uploading and their authors were, until 2012, financially remunerated. Neumajer[16] explains that the specifics of DTMs were originally defined as follows:

- the content should comply with the Framework Educational Program (RVP) which was, similarly to the Methodological Portal, created by the Czech National Institute for Education[17]
- the assignment of 'expected educational outcomes' as defined in the RVP is a prerequisite of the individual DTMs
- all DTMs available from the Methodological Portal must be checked with regard to the content and grammatical correctness prior to their publication (the quality can also be assessed by anyone who logs into the portal)
- the multiplatform property of the portal creates a constraint on installation of additional programs or rare applications, thus many DTMs are in the OpenOffice.org format
- the DTMs should be instantly utilized by the students, which distinguishes them from other didactic materials (e.g. teachers' books) that are primarily aimed at teachers and thus contain broader methodological input
- they are shared within the Creative Commons license since 2009[18]

2 METHODOLOGY

The aim of the present research was to find out whether the utilization of modern technology in the form of a DTM automatically endorses modern pedagogical principles. As may be often misconstrued, modern didactic methods are devoid of reliance on modern technology. But is it possible to say that by using modern technologies in the classroom, the teacher also implements features of modern didactics?

2.1 Principles of constructivism

By features of modern didactics, the author of this study means namely principles of constructivism, which is by no means a new learning theory. As Yore[19] mentions, "everything that is needed to be known about constructivism [is] already known." The problem, nevertheless, is that "knowing does not mean applying". We will all probably agree, that, in accordance with the constructivist theory, learners of English are not blank slates and knowledge cannot be transferred without the learners making sense of what is being learned in reliance to their current conceptions. Thus, the focus was placed on certain strategies which may be employed in the DTMs, to better facilitate the learning process. For the sake of the present case study, the Constructivist checklist by Elizabeth Murphy[20] was consulted to

establish whether the below mentioned criteria were implemented in or supported by the observed DTMs.

2.2 Research questions and hypothesis

Based on the characteristics of constructivist education summarized by Murphy, the research questions tried to establish whether:

1. Multiple perspectives and representations of concepts and content are present or encouraged in the DTM.
2. Goals and objectives are supposed to be derived by the student or in negotiation with the teacher.
3. The DTM is not teacher focused, teachers serve only as guides, tutors and facilitators, the learner plays a central role in mediating and controlling learning.
4. The DTM encourages metacognition, self-analysis, -regulation, -reflection, -awareness.
5. The DTM presents relevant, realistic and authentic learning situations, environments, skills, content and tasks that represent the natural complexities of the 'real world'.
6. The DTM emphasizes knowledge construction rather than reproduction.
7. This construction takes place in individual contexts and through social negotiation, collaboration and experience.
8. The DTM considers the learner's previous knowledge constructions, beliefs and attitudes in the knowledge construction process.
9. The DTM emphasizes problem solving, higher-order thinking skills and deep understanding.
10. Consideration of errors is provided as the opportunity for insight into students' previous knowledge constructions.
11. Exploration is a favored approach in DTM which encourages students to seek knowledge independently and to manage the pursuit of their goals.
12. Learners are provided with the opportunity for apprenticeship learning in which there is an increasing complexity of tasks, skills and knowledge acquisition with the help of the DTM.
13. Knowledge complexity is reflected in the DTM by emphasizing conceptual interrelatedness and interdisciplinary learning.
14. Collaborative and cooperative learning are endorsed by the DTM in order to expose the learner to alternative viewpoints.
15. Scaffolding is provided in the DTM to help students perform just beyond the limits of their ability.
16. Primary sources of data are used in the DTM in order to ensure authenticity and real-world complexity.

In relation to the above mentioned research questions, the researcher presents a hypothesis that the DTMs, as modern technological tools, do not necessarily include, implement or endorse features of modern didactics.

3 CORPUS

The analysis was carried out on a sample of DTMs retrieved from the Methodological Portal[14] website. Despite the fact that the present case study is a qualitative one, for the sake of clarity, the DTMs will be quantified in the following table:

Table 1

Digital Teaching Material	focus on communicative skills			total
	receptive skills	productive skills	interactive skills	
primary education	16	21	8	45
secondary education	24	36	2	62

The DTMs found on the website are, in the process of uploading, categorized according to several aspects: e.g. their format, the level of English defined by CEFR, their suitability for a specific learner or age group, their topic and, most importantly, on the basis of particular communicative language skills that should be developed according to the FEP. These skills are: receptive skills, productive skills and interactive skills. The analyzed corpus consisted of 107 DTMs suitable for A1 to B1 level learners and all three sets of skills were represented. The first remark, in connection to the constructivist checklist, may concern research question No. 14, as we can see that only ten DTMs focused on interactive skills.

4 RESULTS

In the Constructivist Checklist, Murphy mentions exactly 18 principles of constructivism, nevertheless, for the purpose of the present study, the author deliberately chose to disregard the aspect of authentic assessment due to DTMs natural limitations in this respect and the fact that the research method did not include in-use observations, which will be a part of another study. Several of the DTMs were created with the help of the HotPotatoes™ program which provides automatic feedback, however, as the creators used the 'timing' option for their crosswords and quizzes, it is clear that instead on the quality of knowledge, the focus was placed on how quickly learners retrieve information from memory, which is in no way the primary mode of authentic assessment.

Also, two other principles were observed in relation to each other, thus connecting the role of the teacher during the use of a specific DTM with the role of the learners. If the DTM includes activities where the teacher has to be the transmitter of knowledge (e.g. presentation of facts) it is obvious that the learner is unlikely to play a central role in mediating and controlling the learning (and vice versa).

4.1 Salient constructivist features of DTMs

Among the five most prolific principles of constructivism observed in the present case study belong the inclusion of authentic activities (research question No.5), the principle of knowledge collaboration (research question No.7), previous knowledge employment (research question No.8), problem solving elements (research question No.9), and scaffolding (research question No.15), each of which were observed in approximately 1/5 of the analyzed DTMs.

There were 26 DTMs that were clearly based on the presentation of the 'real world' situations, realistic environments, and content and tasks that developed authentic skills. Tasks such as these also typically included personalization of the activity:

- *Write a short article about the place where you live for a regional magazine.*
- *Prepare a short description of one of your favorite films but don't tell the title to your partners. They are going to guess it.*
- *When you go abroad you need to have some necessary documents. What are they? How do you obtain them?*

- *Do you celebrate Mother's Day? How? Compare it with the International Day of Women.*
- *Prepare a running commentary of your favorite sport.*
- *Imagine that you are a famous person (a singer, an actor, a sportsman). Think of your daily routine. Try to be creative.*

To promote the construction of knowledge through individual contexts and social negotiation, collaboration and experience, learners were, for example, required to work in pairs or groups and gather information about Czech agriculture and industry, discuss which means of transport is the best, the safest, the fastest, etc. Previous knowledge was drawn upon by instructions such as "*When I think of the English (or England), I think of…*", "*What kinds of natural disasters do [these pictures] represent?*", "*Brainstorm the structure of an interview in the radio or on TV.*", or "*Look at the suffixes above and try to add at least two other words formed by the same suffix to each group*". As can be seen, there was a plethora of topics as well as linguistic skills that were in the center of attention.

The fact that DTMs also included some interesting problem solving activities was positively evaluated by the researcher: "*Imagine that you and your friend want to make a day trip. Use the pictures below and decide about the place where to go. Discuss also the date, means of transport, price and activities that you could do during the trip….*", "*Sometimes it is difficult to find English word for some expressions. How would you explain the following [typical Czech food] to an English person?*", or learning to understand the cardinal points on a compass: "*Face west, turn one right angle anticlockwise. Which way are you facing? Where are you?*". Here again, the discussed problems differed in each DTM depending on the level and age group of the learners, nevertheless, it is obvious that problem solving activities can be successfully integrated into DTMs.

Finally, the assumption that DTMs are especially appropriate for facilitation of scaffolding throughout the lesson proved correct. One in six DTMs were provided with additional handouts and worksheets with pictures and tips on what to speak about, useful expressions and common phrases used with a certain topic (sport report, job interview etc.).

4.2 Scarcely observed principles of constructivism

Among the principles of constructivism that were quite sparse but still appeared in at least ten cases were the guiding role of the teacher implying the promotion of learner-focused activities (research question No.3), the emphasis on knowledge construction rather than reproduction of transmitted facts (research question No.6), and conceptual interrelatedness of the subject matter (research question No.13). The learner played, undoubtedly, a central role in mediating and controlling learning in situations like these:

- *Write down at least 5 places of interest within the Czech Republic. Why are they important? What can we find/see there?*
- *What is your favorite menu? Use your dictionary if needed.*
- *Talk about your daily routine. Which day of the week is your favorite and why? Do you like to sleep in? What do you usually do when you leave school?*
- *Learners prepare their own secret code and leave a message to their classmates.*
- *Learners prepare a quiz about their own topic and give it to their classmates.*

As far as knowledge construction rather than memorization is concerned, some activities included finding answers to questions like: "*What's the difference between traveling and*

travelling?", "*Do you know who the people in the pictures are?*", "*Look at the pictures, try to figure out what English breakfast consists of.*", or "*Which tense is typical for this topic*?". All of these examples clearly employ the inductive approach to teaching, thus promoting active learning.

Unfortunately, traces of interdisciplinary learning and the auspicious conceptual interrelatedness was rather rare in DTMs; the only observed disciplines that purposefully interrelated with some of the topics were mathematics (7 times), biology and geography.

4.3 Opportunities for inclusion of principles of constructivism

Surprisingly, the majority of the main principles of constructivism did not occur in the analyzed DTMs at all or were almost disregarded by the creators. Specifically, with regard to research question No.4, the encouragement of metacognition through self-analysis, or self-reflection might have been easily included in the form of self-evaluation, nevertheless, it was non-existent. Similarly, errors as the opportunity for insight into students' previous knowledge were not taken into consideration (research question No.10).

Concerning research question No. 1, only three DTMs included multiple perspectives, e.g.: "*What are the advantages and the disadvantages of traveling?*", "*How do the other nations see the Czechs or the Czech Republic?*". Alternative viewpoints through collaborative learning (research question No.14). were provided by mere four DTMs, e.g.: "*Discuss two advantages and two disadvantages of living [in Prague].*", "*People, all around the world travel for various reasons. What are the reasons?*", or "*Is it good that there are different cultures around the world?*". In today's multicultural world, the construction of knowledge through different perspectives must definitely be encouraged.

Finally, in order to ensure authenticity, the DTMs were analyzed for the promotion and utilization of primary sources of data (research question No.16). Most disappointingly, there were only five instances were learners were required to use dictionaries: "*Define the following words in English: flag, currency, dam, anthem, president, nickname, landscape*", "*Can you find Czech expressions for the names of the dishes below? You may want to use your dictionaries to help you.*", or "*Using your dictionaries or the internet, try to find out what the two following terms mean…*". Only once, even though the corpus consisted of many geographical topics, were the students required to use a map: "*Look in the map/atlas and try to describe the geographical position of Canada (neighbors, oceans, rivers, islands...).*". No other utilization of primary sources was observed.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The above presented analysis of DTMs based on the Constructivist Checklist was a qualitative one, its aim was to establish whether authors of such DTMs take principles of modern didactics into consideration while creating and sharing their didactic tools. In relation to the above mentioned research questions it can be said that only some constructivist principles were salient whereas the majority of them was almost non-detectable. The presented hypothesis that the DTMs, as modern technological tools, do not necessarily include or implement features of modern didactics was thus confirmed. One may argue that a tool without its user is impotent and it goes without question that the most important place in the teaching process is still occupied by the teacher. Nevertheless, DTMs are created specifically with regard to their capability of immediate utilization in the classrooms, so the probability that some modern didactic principles will be post-included is debatable. In most cases, such additional inclusion would mean a complete reconstruction of the DTM in

question, which would be inefficient and the whole concept of such digital materials would lose its purpose. If this tool is then to be used without additional modifications by pre-service or novice teachers, it may even negatively impact the motivation of learners to learn English or their attitude towards modern technology as such.

Finally, it must be clarified that the present study focused primarily on traces of constructivism in DTMs, and other, especially negative aspects of these open-source materials were disregarded throughout the course of the analytical process. This does not mean that they were unobserved: e.g. 50% of the DTMs used Czech as the language of instruction, 20% of the DTMs contained factual errors, another 20% included linguistic mistakes, etc. Bearing in mind that the main target group of these DTMs are probably novice teachers, these findings seem rather worrying. In conclusion, further research into the field of in-use application of DTMs seems now inevitable and will be provided by the researcher's future pedagogical experiment.

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USING CHATBOTS FOR SOCIAL MEDIA ACTIVISM: A PRELIMINARY ASSESSMENT OF *BETA*, THE FEMINIST 'ROBOT'

Camila Schiffl

Abstract

In 2017, a group of activists launched in Brazil a Facebook Messenger chatbot with the purpose of offering to unorganized feminist women a mediating tool with which they could pressure congressmen regarding policies and legislation that concerned them. Though it is a fairly new phenomenon (it is the first openly activist bot on the platform), the case can be placed within a larger academic debate regarding the political uses of social bots; the roles of social media and communication technology in social movements; and the deployment of technical knowledge for political purposes. How does the use of chatbots affect the meanings and practices of advocacy and political participation in general? The paper offers a preliminary assessment of this question. It does so by mapping literature that can guide our understandings of the *hows* and *whys* of the case.

Key words: *algorithm, activism, feminism, technology, social media, chatbot*

1 INTRODUCTION

"A feminist robot until its last code" – this is how Betânia, the Brazilian feminist chatbot launched in 2017, introduces itself. Although the political use of 'hidden' bots in social media has become a contemporary trend, the creation of a program openly designed to render feminist campaigns viral is a fairly new phenomenon. Betânia is the first ever activist robot on Facebook Messenger (Calado, 2018), and its debut spawns a number of questions: why and how have activists embraced this tool? How does it affect people's perception of opportunities for action? And what new meanings does it attach to political participation and activism? In the last decade, a large wave of academic works has been dedicated to the study of the relationship between digitally mediated communication and activism (e.g. Bennett & Segerberg, 2013; Castells, 2015; Milan, 2011, 2015). Studies regarding the political uses of social-bots, however, are still fairly recent and quite scarce (Woolley & Howard, 2016; Gorwa & Guilbeault, 2018; Woolley, 2018). Believing that the analysis of the new phenomenon addressed here belongs amidst a combination of such studies, this paper attempts to map previous findings that could shed some light on it.

The paper is organized as follows: first, I start by introducing Beta, its main functionalities, the contexts in which it operates, as well as its achievements in affecting policy-making. Second, I review some of the few studies regarding the political uses of social media bots, addressing the ways in which Beta could represent a novelty. Third, relying largely on Bennett and Segerberg's (2013) accounts on the personalization of politics and its consequent logic of 'connective action', along with elements of Milan's (2015) 'cloud protesting' theory, I place the feminist chatbot inside a large academic debate over the ways activists and communication technologies interact and the new meanings these interactions bring to civic engagement and contentious politics. Finally, I briefly explore a by-product discussion which arises from the previous ones: the deployment of technical knowledge as a form of activism.

The ultimate goal of this paper is exploratory: it does not cover the entirety of the phenomenon; neither does it systematically address each of the questions elaborated above. The goal is to build a solid preliminary assessment of the case by mapping different types of

inquiries and research endeavors with which it can be connected, serving as a springboard for further analysis of this or other similar cases.

2 THE 'ROBOT'

Betânia, most known by the nickname 'Beta', is a text 'chatbot' – a computer program designed to simulate conversation with human users – which works (rudimentarily) as Siri, Apple's famous virtual assistant, and Alexa, Amazon's software agent. Unlike most chatbots, however, it was not designed for commercial reasons: it is an online political mobilization tool. Beta was launched by *Nossas* (nossas.org), a self-defined 'non-profit activism laboratory' in Brazil, whose activities include the promotion of 'civic technology': technology tools which help people overcome barriers between themselves and political participation (Toledo & Molinari, 2018). Beta is not the only project in which *Nossas* merged technologies and activism: they have also developed BONDE – a platform to help activists and social movement organizations build campaign websites without having to learn computer programming – and the Refuge Map (*Mapa do Acolhimento*, in portuguese) – an online platform that connects victims of sexual violence to therapists and lawyers.

The feminist chatbot operates inside Facebook Messenger and, according to the creators – on their official website beta.org.br – it has three main functionalities: the first one is spreading awareness. The robot is programmed to be able to answer to a variety of questions regarding feminism, ranging from its definition to more specific details about the movement's agenda in the country. The second functionality is to monitor the activities of the Brazilian National Congress in order to identify when policies and legislation that could threaten or benefit women are about to be voted. As soon as Beta identifies a possible threat or opportunity, it massively spreads the word to everybody in its network. Finally, and most importantly, after spotting that an issue sensitive to women is about to be voted, Beta has the function of acting as an aggregator of individual voices: in order to pressure policy makers, it reaches out to its followers and asks them for approval to send a message – in favor or against the policy – straight to politicians' email boxes. The message is sent using the follower's own name and email address, filling the politicians' inboxes with tens of thousands of messages.

In September of 2017, Betânia's email-mechanism reached what the creators claim to have been its first victory. Over 34 000 emails were send to pressure congressmen to vote against a Proposed Constitutional Amendment which could set the path for the absolute criminalization of abortion under any circumstances (invalidating the current laws in the country which guarantee the right for interruption in cases of pregnancy resulting of rape, threat to the life of the woman, or of anencephaly of the fetus) (Candido, 2017; de Lima, 2017; Toledo & Molinari, 2018). The voting has been successfully postponed four times.

According to the creators, the need for a mobilization tool such as Beta arose from the realization that there weren't enough channels of participation for non-organized feminist women (Calado, 2018). To a larger extent, they were under the impression that women in general (whether they recognize themselves as feminists or not) had little or no access to information regarding relevant policy issues, much less regarding opportunities for action (Toledo & Molinari, 2018). In addition to that the programming team responsible for the feminist bot perceived that the customization of communication via big data, fake news and Twitter-robots were tools frequently used by the conservative agenda, and understood that it was time for progressive political movements to dispute the field of technological innovation, in an ethical, responsible and unambiguous way (Calado, 2018). Also, the fact that Beta is a bot idealized and developed by women, was believed to already represent a statement in itself, since the field of computer programming is largely dominated by men (Candido, 2017).

Though developing a chatbot is not necessarily a major technological innovation, developing a chatbot as an explicit political communication and mobilization strategy certainly is. Its innovative character alone brought a lot of spontaneous attention to Beta (it was featured more than 50 times in mass media vehicles) and consequently to the feminist causes it advocates for (Calado, 2018). The deliberate marketing strategies of *Nossas* to bring in new followers, on the other hand, do not rely on mass media, but – as expected – on social media: the bot has been recently featured in a series of YouTube videos produced by feminist influencers of the platform.

3 THE POLITICS OF BOTS

Bots are "pieces of automated software used to do tasks online on behalf of human coders" (Woolley, 2018 p.128). There are many kinds of them: botnets, infiltration bots, doppelgänger bots, humoristic bots, chatbots, spam bots, news bots, earthquake warning bots, editing bots – just to mention a few. According to Stieglitz *et al*. (2017) all these different types can be categorized according to their degrees of imitation of human behavior, and according to their intent: bots which mimic humans are known as *social bots*. They control social media accounts on their own and interact with real users. Among them, there can be those with benign intent (which perform useful services) or with malicious intent (designed to act surreptitiously with the purpose of manipulating and causing harm).

The majority of case studies conducted to date regarding the political uses of bots have focused on *social bots* with *malicious intent*. These became known as *political bots*: social bots which not only mimic real people, but do so in order to manipulate public opinion. They are "deployed, for example, to boost follower numbers and to retweet the content of political candidates on Twitter, to attack political opponents on Facebook, or to drown out activists' conversations on Reddit" (Woolley & Howard, 2016 p.4885). These autonomous agents conduct what Woolley and Howard (2016) defined as *computational propaganda*: big data tasked with the manipulation of public opinion.

While the initial studies of the effects of the internet on politics were hopeful that it would herald democracy, current works highlight this technology as a threat to civic participation and to democracy (Gorwa & Guilbeault, 2018; Woolley, 2018). This disenchantment is largely connected with the role played by computational propaganda in recent significant political events – with bots spreading misinformation during the last French elections' campaigns; pushing hyper-partisan news during the Brexit referendum; infiltrating conversations in the imminence of the last US presidential elections; as well as influencing the Syrian war, the crisis in Ukraine, Venezuelan politics, and regional elections in Germany (Gorwa & Guilbeault, 2018; and Stieglitz et al., 2017 review each of these case studies). The case of Beta does not fit within this cluster of 'computational propaganda'.

Chatbots are usually categorized as benign social bots, used mostly for business-to-customer communication (Stieglitz *et al*., 2017). The two biggest novelties of Beta are, first, the fact that it is a chatbot with an uncommon usage (political instead of commercial) and second, that this usage is not surreptitious, but explicit. These two features make of Beta an innovative type of 'political bot'. In addition to that, all these computer programs like Beta – their extreme popularity and the political scenarios created and influenced by them – make evident the need for investigating the political roles of software. As Woolley (2018) points out, politics today have a techno-social character and studying only their technical or only their social features will result in incomplete inferences. In the following paragraphs, this realization – that algorithms must become units of analysis in political studies – will be

reinforced, this time after tracing the newest developments in the study of online social movements (or social media activism).

4 PERSONALIZATION OF POLITICS, SOCIAL MEDIA, AND ACTIVISM

According to Lance Bennett (2012), globalization and the global spread of a neo-liberal economic regime, with its mantra of personal freedom and individualized market culture, have recently given rise to a more personalized kind of politics. Formal group identifications (such as the church, political parties or unions) have become less important in organizing civic life and replaced by lifestyle values and personalized, large-scale, rapidly forming types of political participation. Castells (2015) also addresses these changes, claiming that the fundamental cultural matrix of contemporary societies is the 'culture of autonomy', in which social actors (individual or collective) define their actions around projects constructed according to their own values and interests, independently of the institutions of society. It is a process of 'individuation', which places the individual at the center of the stage, but not necessarily a process of individualism: the first may still be geared toward collective action, shared ideals, and the creation of communities, while the second disregards all that (p.258).

While there is an increased logic of individuation, there is also increased connectivity: the proliferation of social media and personalized communication technologies allows people to become linked (Bennett, 2012) and networked (Castells, 2015) regardless of how far from each other they live. The combination of the processes of individuation and social media platforms has changed the way activism and collective action come to life. To Bennett and Segerberg (2013), the change in the logic of action, evident through movements like Occupy Wall Street and *Indignados*, has been so drastic, that it can no longer be called 'collective'. These movements are "less like conventional social movements with leaders, organizations and collective identity frames" and more individualized, with a large number of people joining in "loosely coordinated activities" with easily personalized action frames (Bennett, 2012 p.26-29). This results in a "connective action logic" under which NGOs and social movement organizations only assume the role of facilitating personalized engagement rather than managing conventional collective action (p.37) – their presence is not even an absolute requirement for action, since crowds can use social media to self-coordinate.

The role of social media platforms in connective action is essential. These platforms are used for information-sharing, media hosting, and for direct interaction among activists (Bennett, 2012). Activists have been using social media to reinvent their repertoires of action and the use of chatbots could be identified as one of the newest of these reinventions.

Milan (2011, 2015) has also explored the emerging individuation in collective action and its relation to social media use. Interested in better understanding movements like Occupy, she analyzed the "role of social media in the organization, unfolding and diffusion" of such protests (Milan, 2011) and developed what she named 'a notion of cloud protesting'. According to this notion, resources that enable mobilization (identities, narratives, frames, meanings, know-how) are all in the cloud – a sort of 'virtual storage' – from where people can pick and choose and tailor their own participation. Participation can be customized by and for the individual and the costs of mobilization are substantially reduced (Milan, 2011). Along the lines of the logic of connective action, the notion of cloud protesting indicates a specific type of mobilization based on and enabled by social media platforms which reshape the tactics adopted by activists (Milan, 2015 p.1), providing a sense of belonging, but with less responsibility. According to Milan (2015), however, 'cloud protesting' differs from 'connective action' in the sense that it is also interested in the ways how the materiality of social media (namely: its algorithms) shape interactions, and not only in how interactions are

facilitated by social media. The platforms are not only the venue where activism comes to life, but *actors on their own right*: they "set in motion a process that is socialtechnical in nature rather than merely sociological or communicative and thus can be understood only by intersecting the material and the symbolic dimensions of contemporary digitally mediated collective action" (p.1). Studies of 'cloud protesting' phenomena must, therefore, combine social movements studies with technology studies.

The creation of a feminist chatbot seems to be an evidence of these new logics of action. The core idea behind the bot was to facilitate the personalized engagement of unorganized women, giving them voice, while the costs and responsibilities required in return are close to none. On the other hand, the case of Beta, in particular, could re-awake debates over 'slacktivism' which have been dormant for quite a while. 'Slacktivism', as defined by Rotman *et al*. (2011), is a "low-risk, low-cost activity via social media, whose purpose is to raise awareness, produce change, or grant satisfaction to the person engaged in the activity". The concern is first, whether these personalized forms of activism achieve what is required to press their demands successfully (Bennett 2012 p.30), and second, whether people will feel like they have done enough with just one click, dismissing the need for deeper engagement with the causes. In the case of Beta, some activists could be concerned that women would feel as if they have already done their share by emailing congressmen via the chatbot and would not search for other movement activities to become involved with.

5 TECH-ACTIVISM

As evidenced in the previous section, the internet and social media have drastically affected the ways in which activism is shaped, however, this effect is not unidirectional: one can also examine the effects that activists have had on the Internet, how they have shaped the internet to fit both their technical needs and movement goals (Milberry, 2006). The feminist chatbot is a good evidence of activists' *deployment of technical knowledge for social change*. The fact that *Nossas* self-identifies as a 'lab' of activism is not that surprising: not only by developing Beta, but also their other technology-based tools (especially BONDE, the platform for website-creation), the activists offered, for free, their technical knowledge (they are, after all, computer programmers) and their leisure time to bring to life technological tools which will serve to mobilize grievances – be it their own or of others. Woolley (2018) reminds us that the cost of equipment, the free time necessary, and the background knowledge required for building bots place limits upon the sorts of people who can do it (p.128).

According to Milan (2016), the act of defiance here – which she calls 'tech activism' – consists in appropriating technology in ways that subvert their original purpose and/or escape the monopoly of states, media and technology conglomerates. "Rather than merely appropriate off-the-shelf technology, these variably tech-savvy activists put their skills at the service of social movements and engage in the creation of self-organized platforms as part of their struggle for human development, equity and social change" (p.60). To the author, this type of activism is at the same time technical and political and emerges from the realization that technologies are not neutral – they are created to fulfill certain priorities as opposed to others – and one has to engage with them critical of the power relations which they entail.

By the time Beta was launched on Facebook Messenger, there were already over 100 000 chatbots operating on the platform (Johnson, 2017). None of them was fulfilling the same purpose as Beta. The activists of *Nossas* subverted the common usage of bots twice: first by converting an e-commerce tool into a political mobilization tool; second by making this political use very clear and out-spoken, unlike most bot-creators who operate 'underground'. Aligned with Milan's (2016) understanding of tech activism, this act can be interpreted as an

act of repurposing and customizing the technology of bots, to facilitate and fit the needs, values and goals of the activists.

6 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to map approaches which can guide the future analysis of the use of chatbots as tools for social media activism. There are (at least) three possible approaches that could be taken to examine this new phenomenon. (1) The first examines it alongside other studies regarding different political uses of different types of bots. (2) The second looks at it as evidence of how social media has created new logics of action (logics of connectivity, within which chatbots fit perfectly). And finally, (3) the third approach acknowledges that not only the internet shapes activism, but also activists reshape the internet in order to fulfill their needs (tech-activism). To better understand, in its entirety, the phenomenon of chatbots being used as activism tools, a combination of all three approaches seems to be the most appropriate path. In the same sense, the paper makes a strong case for studying both technical and social elements together: social media and people's everyday lives are so intertwined that studying one apart for the other would render any study incomplete.

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CULTURE AND ART AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE STUDY PROGRAM „TEACHING FINE ARTS“

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Abstract

The article addresses the issue of the training of future teachers of Fine Arts Education. Because of the nature of the innovations in the National Educational Program in the 21st century in Slovakia, there is a significant change in the formulation and structuring of the curriculum in the field of art and culture. New requirements in educational content of fine arts education reflect the interconnection of formal and non-formal education. The article analyzes the situation in Slovakia in the field of non-formal education on the platform of visual communication and post-modernist tendencies. From the point of view of the current educational requirements, it provides recommendations for educational practice.

Keywords: *Fine Arts Education, Culture, Arts, Innovations, Visual Culture, Postmodernism*

1 FINE ARTS EDUCATION IN THE GENERAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

The subject of the article is not a retrospective mapping of historical contexts of subject *Fine Arts Education* (hereinafter FAE). The aim is to bring the assumptions to the main topic. The issue of FAE in the system of education is very topical now. In the second half of the 20th century, curricular transformation of education systems took place in many countries, and these changes also affected the formation of the education system in Slovakia. The curriculum within the subject of FAE has become a demand not only for artistic skills and techniques (emphasized in the 20th century), but also for the formation of a concept of content in the context of *postmodern philosophy* (in Slovakia, especially since the 1990s).

1.1 Visual Culture in the Postmodern Era

Visual culture in FAE develops visual perception, attitudes towards artistic and aesthetic values, feelings and reflections. Šupšáková (2010) points to *reconfiguration* of the understanding of visual culture in the field of FAE. Traditional terminology of visual culture *"Visuality and seeing"* is (especially in the 21st century) extended by terms of *visual communication* and *visual literacy*. Under the influence of new digital technologies and media (photography, film, video, television, internet) are defined as new concepts: visual environment and virtual reality with which is directly related to the emergence of a new aesthetic. Badurová (undated) states that *"This aesthetics emphasizes narrativity, depth and expression and is oriented to the pleasure of senses that offers visual culture"*.

Discourse to the above-mentioned terminology terms is often driven from the perspective of postmodern perception and understanding of context in contemporary art. The term *postmodernism* was based on the book of J. - F. Lyotard (1979). The postmodern world is a world of pluralism, of various, diverse, contradictory theories, hypotheses, antitheses, paradoxes. As D. Valentovičová (2012, p. 140) states, "*Duchamp and Swichtter concepts from the beginning of the twentieth century*" are still current in the fine art and culture. Big changes have taken place in the pursuit of culture and its manifestations throughout the 20th century. The phenomena of postmodern culture are mass culture and popular culture. Popular culture no longer distinguishes the traditional arrangement of high and low art. The main feature of mass culture (respectively culture for the masses) is a media production that is associated with the development of communication technologies, globalization, commercialization and fragmentation. Both are like a counterpoint to the traditional and elite

culture. In his work, U. Eco (2006) defines mass culture as anculture. Gažová (2009) states that signs of mass culture are quantity over quality, standardization, mass recipient, commercialization, uniformity and especially understanding of the work of art as merchandising. Originally, this culture was associated with a culture of the lowest level, and only later became signs of a higher culture. The criticism of the mass culture was based not only on the so- primitiveness, but also on the absence of higher level elements, which were elements of intellectual and artistic tradition with a high degree of aesthetics. Regarding the manifestations of mass culture as an accompanying phenomenon occurs fake. Leads to the decline of the culture and devaluation of values, the dominant interest includes "entertainment value". Artistic and aesthetic qualities are in the background, respectively there is the leveling (or questioning), cultural peculiarities and specifics are eliminated. Supported are less demanding styles and uncritical attitudes. Adorno (2009) refers to an artwork that faithfully preserves the mass culture scheme as not historical one (i.e., it does not have an introduction, the core and the conclusion, everything is merged into a single unit).

There is a permanent fusion between high and low in art, thereby losing the uniqueness and autonomy of the original works of art. Mass culture supports passive and uncritical attitudes. A common element for all authors who deal with or have previously dealt with mass culture issues is the critical attitude to the consequences of mass culture. At the end of the 20th century postmodern approach influenced the field of critical theory, philosophy, architecture, art, literature and culture, and this trend cannot be ignored. These are mainly the concepts of *postpostmodernism*, *transmodernism*, *postmillennialism*, *pseudomodernism* or *digimodernism* and only recently "*metamodernism*". The trajectory of modern terms is obviously not closed and its light motive is the orientation on the artistic and aesthetic values of "true" culture.

1.2 New Requirements in the Educational Content of the Subject *Fine Arts Education* with a Focus on Culture

With the situation in society, there are always changes in education, definition of needs, fulfillment of the content and way of realization, constituted on the platform of the sense of its existence (K. Dytrtová, 2014, p. 165). In the late 20th and the early 21st century takes place in the field of Fine Arts education (FAE) discourse concerning the relationship between society, art / culture and subject of FAE. Based on innovations is changing the status of FAE as a subject. In a schematically brief trajectory, we could say that from education, where the emphasis was put on the formal nature of visual arts through the period for which the focus was on visuality (visual culture, communication, literacy, intelligence - in the context of the development of imagination), we come to interactions period.

Since the 1990s, there has been a large increase in visual expression and new visual media. McLuhan (2000, p. 252) expresses the idea that "*new media are not just mechanical tricks for creating illusory world, but new languages with new and original expressive possibilities*."

Of great importance is the socio-cultural environment as well as the area of used and mechanically conceived preconceptions of the perpetrators (unfortunately, often created under the influence of mass and popular culture, which are characterized by their own coding language). In the context of postmodern tendencies, the relationship to cultural and artistic tradition and its values is disturbed. As noted by L. Kitzberger (2014, 185-197) at present, in FAE, it is impossible to work with pupil preconceptions and rely on the general clarity of the work of art. He points out some problems related to the application of unrelated theory and recommends paying more attention to "understanding", formed by updating cultural, religious and literary traditions that would provide horizontal and vertical links to education.

Proportionally increases the requirement for the competence of the teacher of FAE[1] , which are formulated in three basic dimensions – psycho/didactic, artistic education and orientation in the field of art culture and art history. The quality of education and the teacher's relationship to these dimensions influence the productive (practical), the receptive and the theoretical-art component of the art (in the field) of education in his pedagogical practice. From this, logically, the requirement for the quality of higher education and preparation of future teachers results.

In view of the above mentioned tendencies, opinions and fulfillment of the needs, in the subject FAE is strengthened the perception, interpretation, creation and communication in the field of culture and art. As noted by B. Šupšáková, T. Tacol and J. Markofová (2009, p. 21), „*a group of art theoreticians, as well as FAE teachers at home and abroad, refuses to study visual culture and devotes more attention to the study of "material" culture* (emphasizing the material nature of objects , artifacts - three-dimensionality). The radicalism of this statement accelerates to the interface of material and visual culture comparison (of two-dimensional nature). Both of these are based on a generally defined culture, emphasizing that culture is not monodisciplinary[2] (studies of history, development, conditions, character and aesthetics as well as cultural elements are concerned with the following research disciplines: ethnology, folklore, cultural anthropology, religion, aesthetics, cultural studies, architecture, museology, archiving, design, and, last but not least, the theory and history of the various types of art).

From the point of view of Fine Arts education (with an overlap in the general education system), it is important to note that the functions of culture[3] help in key areas of education (development of self-reflection, of creating the identity and cultural senses, experiences, catharsizes, knowledge and critical evaluation).

The discourse between theorists and art teachers on the preferred visual and material culture ends with a combination of both areas of knowledge. In the 21st century pedagogical strategies of artistic education, there are two other approaches that B. Šupšáková, T. Tacol and J. Markofová (2009, p. 24) present under the terms "*mediating of art*" (focus on forming and developing critical thinking in the context of post-postmodern philosophy) and "*eclectic approach*" (means a combination of previous approaches, with art educators building their own methodologies and practices based on their long experience). Based on the above it can be seen that alternative approaches are somewhat optional component.

Postmodern philosophy, pluralism, post-postmodern concepts, dynamic socio-cultural as well as political and economic changes lead to the transformation of the content of education so as to encourage the development of the "*process of personal restructuring*". Since the content of education (curriculum) is directly embedded in the educational system in Slovakia, it can be seen in history as a solid component.

1.3 The Platform of Creation of Contemporary FAE Curriculum and its Structure

At the end of the 20th century, the National Education and Training Program in the Slovak Republic was adopted for the next 15 to 20 years (unofficially "Millennium"). This is a long-term concept of the development of the education system in the Slovak Republic in the spirit

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[1] Views of skills and competences of teachers, as well as an analysis of European trends of this issue are interpreted eruditely, for example, in B. Kosová (2005).

[2] The 2002 UNESCO document defines culture as „*a complex of specific spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or social groups that includes, along with art and literature, a common way of life, lifestyle, value system, tradition and belief*“ Available: http://www.unesco.org/education/imld_2002/universal_decla.shtml.

[3] The most important functions of culture: integration, education and training (contributes to the development of the intellectual, emotional and moral level of a person), social, socializing (related to cultivation), acculturative, humanistic, normative, creative, accumulation, identification, preventive, adaptive, entertaining, therapeutic, communication (in the interpersonal as well as intercultural nature), economic and political.

of the humanization of the school adopted in 2000. Later on, educational reforms followed, according to the character of the changes often identified as "content reforms". The importance is attributed to democratic and humanistic principles, pragmatism, complexity, experience. Specifically, emphasis it the nature of cross-subject learning areas and encouraging cross-curricular (between the subjects of the study) approach.

The objectives, key competencies, framework content, profile and model of a graduate of the relevant educational level, educational areas, cross-cutting themes (cross-curricular themes), curriculum framework and time allocation are defined in *The National Educational Program* (hereinafter "NEP"). Because a two-level participatory model of education management was adopted in Slovakia, an opportunity for own school profiling has arisen. At the local level, individual schools create School educational programs where they can partially adapt to the state-guaranteed minimum formulated in the NEP according to their own needs and conditions.

The school reform was of great importance; the concept of FAE for the elementary schools was created by D. Fischer, M. Mudroch and L. Čarný and the concept of the subject *Art and Culture* (hereinafter AC) at the grammar schools was created by E. Mistrík. New concepts reflect suggestions from the European reference framework (Recommendation of the European Parliament and the European Council) and at the same time tried to consider the needs and requirements of today's society, not excluding new media and electronic media. The concepts touched FAE from the first to the third level of education. In the field of Art and Culture, new teaching subjects were created: at the elementary school there was an *Art Education* (hereinafter AE, only in 7th and 8th year of the study) and *Art and Culture* (AC) was created at grammar schools. The latest innovated NEP concept maintains Art and Culture in the Primary School, including Music Education and FAE, and AC in the Grammar School. AC is taught 1 hour a week in two grades. You can expand the number of hours using the available hours. Despite the reduced number of hours (from 4 to 2) and the reduced content, the thematic units were retained as well as the opportunity to choose the subject for the SAT (secondary school-leaving exam).

1.4 Education in the Field of Culture as a Supportive Form of Art Education in the Sphere of Non-Formal Education

At the time of the creation of new conceptions and strategies in art education, there was an increasingly discussed theme of gallery and museum education with links to school FAE. Unlike the western countries, the gallery and museum education began to systematically form in Slovakia at the beginning of the 21st century under the influence of the development of this issue in Czech Republic (K. Sokolová, 2010, p. 21). Yet, in the Czech Republic, Y. Ferencová (2009, p. 3) presents galleries as an "*independent and already fully developed discipline beyond the boundaries of art pedagogy*" - M. Pavlikánová in 2013 points to the inflexibility of universities in Slovakia who, "*very cautiously and slowly responded to incoming changes and did not reasonably quickly update their study programs*"[4]. Based on the review of published texts (from the first decade of the 21st century) presented directly in Slovakia, it is obvious that this issue has already been institutionally activated.

In addition to the development of gallery and museum pedagogy, the Czech Republic (since the beginning of the 21st century) has also developed a heritage pedagogy that has been continuously emerging from the debate on the importance of culture and the need for its public support. It complements the context of non-formal education, developing the issues of museum pedagogy. However, while museums offer a space for learning artistic artifacts often thrown out of their natural surroundings, the area of "cultural heritage/monument" itself offers

[4] PAVLIKÁNOVÁ, M. (2013).

in-situ learning, authenticity and originality are preserved. As mentioned by T. Drobný (2015), monumental/cultural heritage education and methodology of museum pedagogy are based on an identical source in the formulation of principles and values. The priority is the value of authenticity that allows for an unrepeatable level of understanding based on the immediateness of the experience.

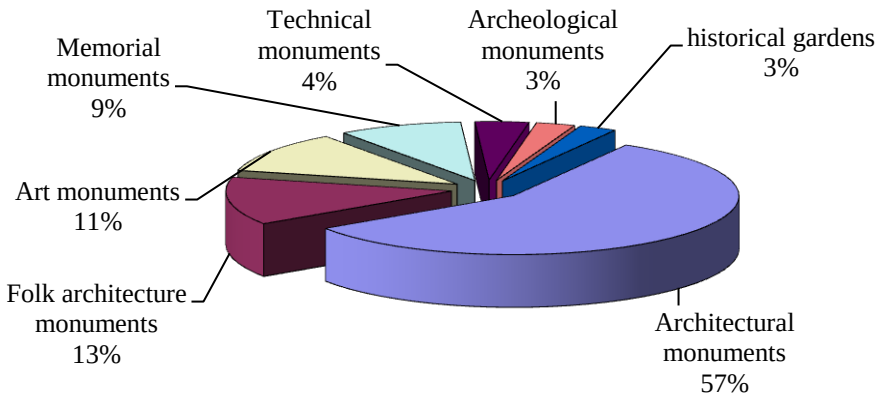
The work of the famous theoreticians A. Riegl (1858-1905) and M. Dvořák (1874-1921) influenced the formation of the concept of the cultural monument values. To date, a value system has been created that includes: "*the value of the historical document, the value of the cultural work, the specificity of the building, the integrity of the building, the value of the uniqueness, the value of specificity, the value of the relationship between the monument and the environment, the value of the symbol, the form of the monument, the emotional value of the monument, the value of the age, the value of the function, the value of the relative meaning of the monument*" (T. Drobný, 2015). In relation to the museum education, the educator can choose what value he or she prefers in the context of education. The relationship of museum education (as non-formal education) to the formal education system has been addressed by several authors, and their conclusions and recommendations can be applied to a certain extent in monumental education.

It is beyond question that monumental education is the contribution and a strengthening of the orientation of educational content on issues of tradition, identity and cultural landscape. Here is the difference between the Czech and Slovak regions. In Slovakia, despite the well-known and widely developed issues of gallery and museum pedagogy and the inspirational program of interconnection of the *National Heritage Institute of the Czech Republic* (hereinafter referred to as NHI) and pedagogical schools[5], the "monumental" education has not developed at all now, neither from the position of the universities nor from the position of the *Monuments Board of the Slovak Republic*. There are several pilot projects that try to use the educational strategies to make available a rich monument fund of national cultural heritage (see Graph 1), but these are fragmented projects without interconnection and follow-up to a unified concept that would be institutionally covered. At present, there is no equivalent to Czech methodologies. Art teachers in this area depend on their knowledge, abilities, skills, opportunities and conditions that obtained in higher education and their teaching practice.

Within the reflections of innovated curriculum documents and within perspective of the Czech cultural and educational environment, it gradually removes the fragmentation in gallery, museum and monumental pedagogy. These areas are more specific to the extent of culture and its educational potential. The concept of "education in culture"[6], which includes all the components of tangible and intangible culture, is increasingly being used.

[5] This is a project: *Educational role of the National Monument Institute: Education as a key tool for improving the care of the cultural heritage of the Czech Republic* (PF12P01OVV014), which was supported by the Ministry of Culture from the Applied Research and Development of National and Cultural Identity Programme (NAKI) in 2012-2015 (Available at: http://www.hiu.cas.cz/en/grant-projects/naki-mk.ep/). Because of the cooperation of the NHI in Czech Republic, the Faculty of Education of the Charles University in Prague and the Faculty of Education of Masaryk University in Brno, the creation of certified Methodology was established. (Available on websites of NHI in Czech Republic).

[6] ŠOBÁŇOVÁ, P. (ed.) (2016).



Graph 1: Division of real estate objects by type registered in the Register of Immovable National Cultural Monuments by the National Monuments Board of the Slovak Republic was prepared by Engineer architect Z. Grúňová, PhD., 2015, (University of Žilina, Faculty of Civil Engineering, Department of Building Engineering and Urban Planning in Žilina, Section of Architecture and Urbanism)[7].

2 ISSUE OF THE EDUCATION OF FUTURE TEACHERS OF FINE ARTS EDUCATION

The structure of universities in Slovakia where the preparation of future teachers of FAE is carried out (in the field of study Teaching of art-educational and educational subjects) includes the following departments:

- Department of Fine Arts Education, Faculty of Education Comenius University in Bratislava,
- Department of Pedagogy of Fine Arts, Faculty of Education, Trnava University in Trnava,
- Department of Creative Arts and Art Education, Faculty of Education of the University of Constantine the Philosopher in Nitra,
- Department of Fine Arts and Culture, Faculty of Education, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica,
- Department of Fine Arts Education, Faculty of Education of the Catholic University in Ružomberok,
- Institute of Music and Arts, Department of Visual Art, Faculty of Arts, Prešov University in Prešov.

Based on the comparison of study programs, it is obvious that the focus is on the teaching of FAE or visual arts, which also affects the subject's composition in individual study programs. Only in one case, within the framework of the accreditation of the study program, there was a change and presentation of the department's direction towards "culture" [8].

From the analysis of the profiles of the graduates of the individual study departments, it can be stated that during study students acquire competence for work in the field of museum and gallery pedagogy as well. Based on the requirements formulated in the updated NEP and the

[7] Note: Slovakia belongs to countries with a high number of registered monuments due to the extent of the landscape. Many have the highest level of protection due to UNESCO registration. The cultural potential of the landscape increases its credit. However, the long-term trend is in a weak use of this potential (one of the reasons is the weak social perception of culture and art).

[8] This change concerns the Department of Fine Arts and Culture at the Faculty of Education of Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica. Before the last accreditation, the department was registered as a Department of Fine Arts Education and Creativity. The change in focus has been activated because of innovation in the NEP (2008 and then 2016) and based on pedagogical practice. However, there has been no significant change in the teaching subjects structure analysis, or it was just a reinforcement of training in Fine Arts.

implementation of pedagogical practice, there is a discussion of the need to change the curriculum of individual subjects and the structure of subject compositions. In line with the reinforcement of the content of fine arts education, there is an effort to strengthen cognitive competences and to increase students' knowledge based on the use of different strategies (project, group or participative teaching, brainstorming, studios, workshops, etc.). In the context of education, the emphasis is placed on more dynamic forms and methods that would activate motivation and would lead to an increase in the quality of teaching.

2.1 History of Fine Art as Subject in the Process of Formal Teaching

Increased attention is paid to art education and the position (function) of art in education. Structure of subject curriculum FAE and subject AC require wider knowledge of art (not only visual), architecture, film, design, etc. The main aim is that pupils and students understand the importance of art and its impact on human life and the community and to be perceived as an integral part of human life. Educational requirements are shaped by multiculturalism, globalization, and profiling of an *intercultural* individual.

The starting point for all educational institutions involved in higher education in the field of culture and art is the subject of *History of Fine Art*. Time allocation and symbiosis of historical knowledge of art and science of art are specified individually by each department. The acquired theoretical knowledge is intensively connected with practical teaching subjects (e.g. painting, drawing, modeling), through the solution of the basic artistic expression elements (shape, light, color, material), or the observation and understanding of the compositional principles (rhythm, equilibrium, tension, symmetry, movement, dynamics, construction, or proportionality and perspective). New technologies and new forms of artistic outputs enter artistic practice, different concepts develop, new genres and forms of art appear, new aesthetics is constituted[9]. The art of new media is changing the boundaries between natural and artificial, *physis and techne* - that is, work with the "second reality". Intertextuality, hypertextuality, intratextuality, double coding principle are used (based on the assumption that the work of art turns to minority requires an educated audience to whom "high codes" are used, and at the same time influences the mass audience to what "folk codes" are used)[10]. Typical elements are irony, parody, metaphors. The principle of quoting, appropriation, representation, deconstruction, evocation and self-reflection (*post-modern eclecticism*) is applied. If the perceiver cannot identify them, he cannot perceive the complexity of the reference of work of art. In view of the above, it is understandable to activate education with a view to forming a critical approach. Seek and verify the new approaches in teaching.

The History of Fine Art is by nature humanistic discipline that belongs to the union of historic and spiritual-social sciences. They are linked to several areas: history, archiving, archeology, heraldry, iconography and iconology, traditional folk culture, epigraphy, monument

[9] Technologies such as the Internet (presented, for example, by the art form of Net Art, Post - Sense art, Post - Internet art), various software (Software art, DadaDada art, System art, Interface) and applications for cooperation or *pro real time* effects, computer games and other digital culture products, or databases, visualization, wireless and mobile technologies, robotics and even emerging biotechnology (Bio art) and nanotechnology (neural aesthetics, for example, based on a combination of artificial intelligence-AI and neural networks). There are many different conceptions based on performance installations, conceptual tendencies that challenge traditional categories of artwork, audience and creator - artist. New genres and forms of art are emerging, Public Art, Object Art, Archive Art (archival aesthetics), Non-linear editing (digital video art), web design, interactive art, algorithmic art, fractal art. Available at: http://monoskop.org/Monoskop with relevant links to resources, and also see: HUSÁR, J.: Komunikácia umením v sieťach. In: ŠUPŠÁKOVÁ,B.(ed):*Vizuálna kultúra a umenie v škole, nové myšlienky a prístupy.* Bratislava : DIGIT, 2004, ISBN 80-968441-1-3, p.135-149 and VANĚK, J.: K estetice fraktálů. In: *Caos, věda a filosofie – Sborník Filosofického ústavu AV ČR*. Praha, 1999, p. 66 – 87.

[10] http://www.pulib.sk/elpub2/FF/Slancova2/pdf_doc/petrikova.pdf.

preservation and cultural heritage. Their content and character have a high interdisciplinary potential, not only for artistical subjects but also for a variety of other subjects (e.g. literature, philosophy, mathematics, ethics, aesthetics, geography, psychology, social sciences, sociology, natural sciences as well as information technologies). The most used strategy in teaching the subject of the *History of Fine Art* is a linear, chronological approach with preference for socio-constructivist interpretation. Frequently used form of education is lecture, in some cases supported by excursion, direct contact with works of art, authentic contemporary writings, interviews with artists and curators, respectively experts and so on. (That means the formal teaching is activated by the educational strategies and informal teaching that facilitate a deeper understanding of theoretical knowledge). Teaching method and approach is based on expertise and teaching experience of the teacher. It is not uncommon that the use of some strategies is limited by the technical equipment of the departments. Limits on study materials have been highlighted before[11].

2.2 Perspectives and Recommendations

Through the longitudinal research (5 years) among students at the Department of Fine Arts and Culture at the Faculty of Education of Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica we can conclude that approximately 45% of students have basic knowledge of the history of visual arts at the beginning of their studies (almost exclusively from world art and not art on the territory of Slovakia). The quality of these skills varies considerably (both in content and terminology). By comparing the obtained information's with other departments [12] it is possible to generalize data. Also surprising is the low level of formal and non-formal learning interconnection at lower levels of education (weak visits to regional museums and galleries or historical monuments). Experiential learning is profiled as "leisure time activities". Pedagogical practice shows that it is not possible to rely on the level of knowledge of students coming to universities. Far higher is their technical and technological equipment, and it is not uncommon that this exceeds the possibilities of equipment at university. When comparing the above findings, curriculum analyzes at all levels of education and current pedagogical practice, there is still actual question by M. Pavlikánová (2013): "*What can we cover in teaching*?"

After processing all the materials, findings, and consultations, we see possible starting points for increasing the quality of teaching in the field of culture and art (orientated towards content) at the following points:

- in the elaboration of didactic of the field of study,
- in appeal to interpretation and communication,
- in increasing of the technical infrastructure and the creation of background,
- in increasing the interconnection between theory and practice,
- in ensuring a good structure of subjects with the involvement of practitioners (e.g. experts on traditional folk and regional culture, architecture, historical monuments). Exploration and processing of the given issue enables us to find new possibilities to support the preparation of future FAE teachers by applying strategies that enable them

[11] BOROŠOVÁ MICHALCOVÁ, M. (2017, s. 179-188).

[12] The comparison was a randomly observed fact in the processing of the dissertation: *"The History of Visual Art and Their Artistic and Historical Content in the Preparation of Teachers of Visual Arts. Analysis, Innovation and Modernization of Content, Forms and Methods of the Subject."* (Miloslava Borošová Michalcová, M.A. from 2015 – to present), Department of Fine Arts and Culture/Education, Faculty of Education, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica. The research was oriented to finding out the current way of teaching within Slovakia. A qualitative research was carried out (an analysis of documents of an official nature and interviews with teachers teaching the subject of History of Fine Art in the preparation of teachers in the field of study Teaching of art-educational and educational subjects) was carried out with a supporting quantitative method (questionnaires).

to apply the acquired knowledge and skills to the FAE teaching process in accordance with the NEP.

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CHARAKTER VZDĚLÁVACÍHO OBORU OBČANSKÝ A SPOLEČENSKOVĚDNÍ ZÁKLAD

THE CHARACTER OF THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD BASICS OF CIVICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

Vanda Vaníčková

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se věnuje představení výzkumu zaměřeného na charakter gymnaziálního vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ. Na sledovaný vzdělávací obor je nahlédnuto skrze kurikulární dokumenty a reflexi učitelů kvalifikovaných k výuce vyučovacích předmětů, které ze vzdělávacího oboru vycházejí. Výsledný charakter zkoumaného vzdělávacího oboru je zasazen do kontextu vnějších i vnitřních vlivů, jež ho podmiňují a utvářejí.

Klíčová slova: *Občanský a společenskovědní základ, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia, základy společenských věd, občanská výchova, učitelé, gymnázia, kvalitativní výzkum, zakotvená teorie*

Abstract

The paper is focused on introduction of research about an educational field Basics of Civics and Social Sciences´ character. This educational field is reviewed through curriculum documents and reflection of teachers who are qualified to teach the subjects made from this educational field. The resulting character of educational field is set to the context of external and internal factors that determine and shape that educational field.

Key words: *Basics of Civics and Social Sciences, Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education, Social Science Education, Civics, teachers, Grammar Schools, qualitative research, grounded theory*

1 ÚVOD

Kvalita veškeré lidské činnosti je ovlivněna tím, zda v ní vidí její aktéři smysl a cíl, k němuž směřují. S prací učitele je to obdobné. Aby mohl učitel efektivně přistoupit k výuce nějakého předmětu, musí vědět, jak je vymezen, co ho tvoří, chápat jeho teoretický a praktický kontext. Zjednodušeně řečeno vědět, jaký je. Ze zkušenosti studenta a absolventa učitelského oboru zaměřeného na výuku předmětů vycházejících ze vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ (dále jen OSZ) se domnívám, že tomuto vzdělávacímu oboru takové fundamentální vymezení chybí.

Předkládaný příspěvek vychází z disertační práce *Charakter občanského a společenskovědního základu* obhájené 2. 2. 2018. Cílem disertační práce bylo popsat právě charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ, který považuji za základ příslušné oborové didaktiky. Akademičtí pracovníci, učitelé, žáci i studenti musí znát a chápat mantinely a specifika vzdělávacího oboru, aby mohli proniknout k podstatě jeho obsahu. V opačném případě se drží pozornost pouze na povrchové úrovni.

Příspěvek vznikl dále v rámci projektu *Regionální dějiny ve výuce výchovy k občanství a dějepisu*, který byl podpořen v 9. ročníku studentské grantové soutěže Univerzity Palackého v Olomouci. Řešiteli projektu jsou členové a studenti Katedry společenských věd Pedagogické fakulty Univerzity Palackého v Olomouci (dále jen KSV PdF UP). Zmíněné pracoviště se tématu regionálních dějin a jejich propojení s výukou na základních a středních školách věnuje dlouhodobě, proto je projekt formulován tímto oborovým směrem.

2 TEORETICKÁ VÝCHODISKA

Název příspěvku předesílá, jaké oblasti se věnuje, i přesto budou nyní specifikována teoretická východiska, na nichž je text vystavěn. První ze dvou stěžejních části představuje pojednání o vzdělávacím oboru OSZ, a to zejména jeho zasazení do státní i školní úrovně kurikulárních dokumentů doplněné o pohled na stav oborové didaktiky. Druhou oblastí je přiblížení metodologické strategie výzkumu, jehož výsledek je v příspěvku předkládán.

2.1 Občanský a společenskovědní základ

Terminologické vymezení vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ je do určité míry paradoxní. Jedná se o neologismus rámcových vzdělávacích programů, čímž se tyto dokumenty státní úrovně stávají primárním zdrojem, který by měl obor definovat. Problémem je však absence popisu samotného vzdělávacího oboru, jež je nahrazena charakteristikou a cílovým zaměřením jemu nadřazené vzdělávací oblasti a výčtem očekávaných výstupů a učiva. Dále objasním strukturu Rámcového vzdělávacího programu pro gymnázia (dále jen RVP G) s akcentem na sledovaný vzdělávací obor.

Aktuální podoba dvoustupňového kurikula, s nímž pracuje český vzdělávací systém, vychází ze státní úrovně (reprezentovaná sedmi druhy rámcových vzdělávacích programů) a školní úrovně (školní vzdělávací programy). RVP G je oficiálním dokumentem pro čtyřletá gymnázia a vyšší stupně víceletých gymnázií, odpovídá národní vizi o vzdělávání (*Národní program rozvoje vzdělávání v České republice*, 2001) a formuluje cíle a výstupy, k nimž by měly školy směřovat své žáky. S ohledem na OSZ je klíčová zejména třetí část RVP G, v níž jsou definovány vzdělávací oblasti.[1]

OSZ náleží společně se vzdělávacími obory Dějepis a Geografie vzdělávací oblasti Člověk a společnost. Při studiu vymezení vzdělávací oblasti Člověk a společnost je jako její významný cíl určen rozvoj kritického myšlení, schopnost utvořit si vlastní názor, reflektovat společenské situace a události, respektovat společnost a druhé lidi (RVP G, 2007).

Samotný vzdělávací obor OSZ není určen charakteristikou či popisem, jak bylo již uvedeno výše, ale vymezením vzdělávacího obsahu. Vzdělávací obor tvoří šest tematických celků, ty rozpracovávají očekávané výstupy (měřitelné formulace činnostní povahy) a učivo (prostředek k dosažení očekávaných výstupů) (RVP G, 2007). Rámcové vzdělávací programy tak představují podle Veverkové (2002) zprostředkující přístup k učivu.

Školní vzdělávací programy (dále jen ŠVP) gymnázií vycházejí z RVP G, v případě OSZ je implementace vzdělávacího oboru do praxe u jednotlivých škol podobná. Seznámení s ŠVP různých institucí potvrzuje, že vyučovací předměty vycházející z OSZ nesou nejčastěji název Základy společenských věd nebo Společenské vědy a jsou vyučovány jako povinný předmět s časovou dotací v celkovém součtu čtyřleté docházky mezi šesti až osmi hodinami. ŠVP vymezují volitelné semináře, zejména pro žáky ve 3. a 4. ročníku, které navazují na obsahové

[1] Uvedená část RVP G (2007) zahrnuje dále vymezení klíčových kompetencí a průřezových témat. Klíčové kompetence by měly být rozvíjeny v rámci všech vzdělávacích oblastí a oborů, explicitně není určeno kdy, jakou formou apod. V případě průřezových témat jsou naznačeny doporučené tematické průniky průřezových témat a vzdělávací oborů. Vzhledem k obsahové náplni průřezových témat se jedná spíše o doporučení, prostor pro implementaci lze nalézt ve všech vzdělávací oborech, viz metodická publikace *Tak trochu jiné soudobé dějiny* (2017, online).

vymezení OSZ. Nejčastěji se jedná o semináře zaměřené obecně společenskovědně, případně specifičtěji - politologie, ekonomie či právo. (Vaníčková, 2018)
Oborová didaktika OSZ je neméně problematickou oblastí, a to zejména kvůli její nejasné podobě a stálému procesu konstituování se. Podle Staňka (2015) je nyní oborová didaktika OSZ ve fázi provádění terminologické expertizy, obsahových analýz kurikula a výzkumů sledujících vyučování a vztah mezi jeho aktéry. Za příčinu relativně pozvolného ukotvení této oborové didaktiky lze považovat společenskou a politickou transformaci po roce 1989, která ovlivnila diametrálně obsah občanského vzdělávání, a vznik nové národní vzdělávací strategie, potažmo obecně rámcové vzdělávací programy.
Z odborných publikací věnujících se oborové didaktice OSZ je na místě upozornit na interní studijní oporu *Didaktické náměty pro učitele občanské výchovy a základů společenských věd* (Havlínová, 2014), která se vymezení vzdělávací oboru OSZ věnuje, a text *Didaktika společenských věd* (Staněk, 2015) přibližující kontext a další zákonitosti oborové didaktiky.

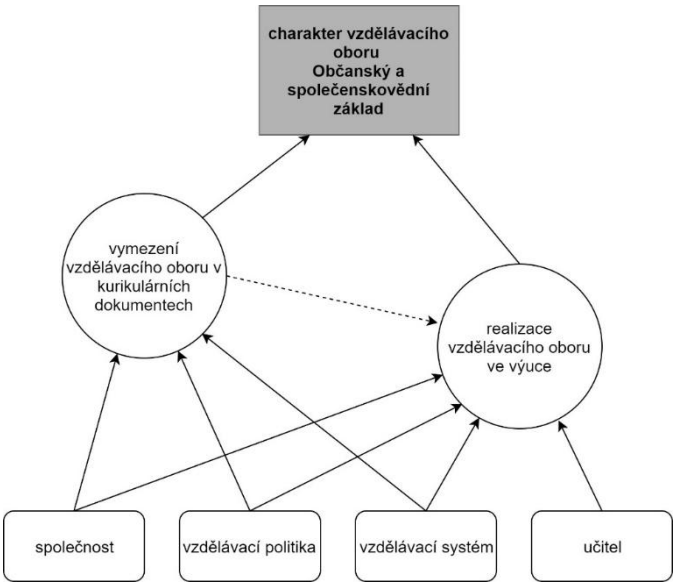
2.2 Metodologická strategie

Předkládaný příspěvek stručně představuje výsledky disertační práce, jak bylo již zmíněno výše. Výzkumný problém představoval popis charakteru vzdělávacího oboru OSZ a byl rozpracován hlavní výzkumnou otázkou (*Jaký je charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ?*) a čtyřmi otázkami dílčími, podrobněji viz Vaníčková (2018). S ohledem na výzkumný záměr, problém a výzkumné otázky byl zvolen kvalitativní výzkum v designu zakotvené teorie. Hlavními metodami sběru dat byla nekvantitativní obsahová analýza kurikulárních dokumentů a hloubkové rozhovory s učiteli.
Kvalitativní výzkum byl upřednostněn pro jeho možnost nahlížet jev z více úhlů, proniknout do hloubky a popsat jeho jedinečnost (Švaříček, 2014). V předkládaném příspěvku reprezentuje jev vzdělávací obor OSZ a více úhlů pohledu představuje vymezení vzdělávacího oboru v kurikulárních dokumentech a názory učitelů.
Design zakotvené teorie je pro oborovou didaktiku společenskovědního vzdělávání netradiční, zde byl použit pro zacílení na obecnou novou teorii namísto jednotlivin, jako tomu bývá například u případových studií (Šeďová, 2014). Výsledkem třífázového kódování dle principů zakotvené teorie je schéma popisující charakter OSZ, viz kapitola *3 Jaký je Občanský a společenskovědní základ?*
Dvě zvolené metody sběru dat navazují na typ výzkumu a jeho design. Nekvantitativní obsahová analýza přinesla vhled do pojetí OSZ v mantinelech RVP G. Nešlo o frekvenční analýzu, ale o přístup, který popisuje Švec (2009) jako zaměření se na kvalitu, jedinečnost a výjimečnost kategorií a jejich dimenzí. Hloubkové rozhovory byly vyhodnoceny jako vhodná metoda pro práci s učiteli, a to zejména pro možnost studovat specifickou skupinu, její jednání, motivace a příčinné vazby (Švaříček, 2014). Polostrukturovaná interview proběhla v roce 2015, celkem byla do výzkumu zapojena data od sedmi učitelů z různě velkých měst. Všichni respondenti museli vyhovět kritériu odborné kvalifikace pro výuku předmětů vycházejících z vzdělávacího oboru OSZ.
Etická stránka výzkumu byla v souladu s Etickým kodexem České asociace pedagogického výzkumu (2013, online) a metodologickou literaturou. Například Švaříček (2014) upozorňuje na písemný informovaný souhlas respondentů se zapojením do výzkumu, pořízením audio nahrávky, následnou analýzu získaných dat a jejich interpretaci. Samozřejmostí bylo anonymizování údajů, precizní přepis nahrávek, dvojí kódování a audit kolegů z KSV PdF.
V rámci metodologického přístupu je nutné pojednat i limity výzkumného šetření, mezi které patří zejména (díky druhu výzkumu) osoba výzkumníka a jeho malé badatelské zkušenosti. Mezi další limity výzkumu lze zařadit absenci třetí metody sběru dat, která by zajistila jejich triangulaci (Chráska, 2007). Rozhodnutí nepoužít další metodu sběru dat souvisí s výše uvedeným lidským faktorem. Na základě konzultace s kolegy a odbornými pracovníky bylo

konstatováno, že výzkum by měl být udržitelný a v rámci profesních možností doktoranda, začínajícího výzkumného pracovníka, což by mohlo kvantum dalších získaných dat ohrozit.

3 JAKÝ JE OBČANSKÝ A SPOLEČENSKOVĚDNÍ ZÁKLAD?

Charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ je formulován na základě dvousložkového modelu *(Obrázek 1)*, který vznikl spojením dvou paradigmatických modelů utvořených ze získaných dat. Centrální kategorii představuje charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ, k němuž jsou vztaženy všechny kategorie analytické kostry příběhu, jež je vytvořena pouze na základě sesbíraných dat, nikoli prekonceptů výzkumníka (Strauss, Corbinová, 1999).
Níže jsou představeny obě složky modelu, následně navazuje finální popis charakteru vzdělávacího oboru OSZ.



Obrázek 1: Model charakteru vzdělávacího oboru OSZ dle zakotvené teorie.
Zdroj: vlastní zpracování

3.1 Kurikulární dokumenty

První složkou uvedeného modelu zakotvené teorie jsou kurikulární dokumenty, primární zdroj sledovaného vzdělávacího oboru na státní (RVP G) i školní (ŠVP) úrovni. Na základě obsahové analýzy kurikulárních dokumentů byly identifikovány dvě roviny vymezení oboru – základní a analytická. Základní rovina zahrnuje data objektivní povahy, která mají unifikovanou možnost interpretace (počty tematických celků, očekávaných výstupů, témata učiva aj.). Analytická rovina konkretizuje, pomocí jakých témat probíhá dosahování cílového zaměření vzdělávací oblasti (zde rozvoj kritického myšlení, znalostí, dovedností a postojů se zaměřením na společensky a antropologicky orientované otázky apod.).
Vymezení vzdělávacího oboru OSZ v kurikulárních dokumentech je závislé na třech vnějších faktorech, které představuje vzdělávací politika, vzdělávací systém a společnost.
Vzdělávací politika, jakožto státní vize vzdělávání, určuje veškerý obsah školní edukace. V současném podobě dokumentů se jedná zejména o zacílení na posilování autentického myšlení žáků, rozvoj dovedností potřebných pro život v dnešní společnosti a posílení gramotností (čtenářská, mediální, digitální apod.). Jak bylo již zmíněno výše, současná tvář vzdělávací politiky vychází kromě přirozeného společenského vývoje z proměny společnosti po roce 1989 a z členství České republiky v mezinárodních organizacích (OSN, Evropská unie).

Charakter OSZ ovlivňují podle získaných dat i dílčí prvky vzdělávacího systému. Jedná se o vliv na úrovni primárního vzdělávání (vzdělávání na gymnáziu navazuje na poznatky ze základní školy a rozvíjí je), sekundárního vzdělávání (gymnaziální forma studia klade na žáky určité nároky na obsah a množství učiva) i terciárního vzdělávání (požadavky vysokých škol na absolventy gymnázií, zejména ve vztahu k obsahu přijímacích zkoušek).
Vliv společnosti je neodmyslitelný vzhledem k tomu, že OSZ je vzdělávacím oborem, jehož předmětem je právě společnost, její vývoj, procesy a konkrétní podoba.

3.2 Realizace vzdělávacího oboru v praxi

Druhou složku prezentovaného modelu zakotvené teorie charakteru vzdělávacího oboru OSZ tvoří realizace vzdělávacího oboru v praxi, respektive jeho výuka. Výuku ovlivňují dle sesbíraných dat čtyři faktory; tři jsou shodné jako u kurikula (vzdělávací politika, vzdělávací systém a společnost, viz výše v kapitole *3.1 Kurikulární dokumenty*). Čtvrtým a zároveň nejvýraznějším faktorem je učitel, jeho osobnost a výukové strategie.
Na základě přístupu učitele ke zprostředkování učiva vzešly z dat dva druhy učitelů; učitel 1.0 a učitel 2.0. Učitel 1.0 sleduje primárně obsah výuky v návaznosti na kurikulární dokumenty, předá žákům to, co má být předáno. Učitel 2.0 vykazuje v rámci výukové strategie přidanou hodnotu ve formě individuálního přístupu ke třídě a žákům, přiblížení učiva (příklady z praxe, návaznost na reálný život žáků) a zapojení profesních preferencí.

3.3 Charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ

Model zakotvené teorie *(Obrázek 1)* reprezentuje schematické pojetí charakteru vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ. Slovním popisem se jedná o vzdělávací obor podřízený a závislý (vazby v rámci dvousložkového modelu). Kurikulární vymezení doplňuje charakter vzdělávacího oboru OSZ o zaměření se na komplexní rozvoj osobnosti žáka na bázi různých témat. Faktor vzdělávací politiky rozvíjí charakter OSZ o orientaci na rozvoj kritického myšlení žáků. Vzdělávací systém a jeho vliv poukazuje na provázanost s dalšími úrovněmi vzdělávání (což podporuje i výše uvedenou vlastnost závislost). Primární vzdělávání podmiňuje rozšiřující a prohlubující charakter, sekundární vzdělávání značný tematický rozsah a terciární vzdělávání povinnost připravovat ke studiu na vysoké škole. Vliv společnosti přidává společenskovědní a proměnlivé zaměření vzdělávacího oboru OSZ.

4 SHRNUTÍ A ZÁVĚR

Příspěvek je stručným resumé obsahu disertační práce *Charakter vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ*, která vznikla s cílem přispět k poznatkům oborové didaktiky občanského a společenskovědního základu. Výsledkem výzkumu je popis charakteru sledovaného vzdělávacího oboru, který vychází z dat získaných během výzkumu z kurikulárích dokumentů a od kvalifikovaných učitelů. Z výše uvedené charakteru vzdělávacího oboru je zřejmé, že vzdělávací obory obecně nelze zkoumat izolovaně, ale v mantinelech dílčích vnějších a vnitřních vlivů. V případě OSZ kromě vzdělávací politiky, vzdělávacího systému a učitele je klíčový vliv společnosti, která je předmětem samotného vzdělávacího oboru.
Přesah příspěvku lze spatřovat v jedné z možností definování vzdělávacího oboru, které je základem nejen pro jeho výuku, ale i pro vzdělávání budoucích učitelů. Právě výše uvedené výsledky slouží jako materiál k polemice se studenty, jak se, s akcentem na profesní kompetence učitele a oborovou didaktiku, co nejlépe připravit na výuku vyučovacích předmětů vycházejících ze vzdělávacího oboru Občanský a společenskovědní základ. V neposlední řadě jsou výsledky výchozí při tvorbě metodických materiálů pro učitele i žáky (viz Vaníčková, Krákora, 2015 či Vaníčková, Cingelová a kol., 2017, online). Příspěvek, potažmo disertační práce, přináší zároveň i postupy a termíny zobecnitelné při analýze

jakéhokoli vzdělávacího oboru, jako je například základní a analytická rovina či učitel 1.0, učitel 2.0.

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COMMUNICATION STRATEGY IN THE AREA OF READERSHIP OF 15-YEAR-OLD PUPILS IN THE MORAVIAN-SILESIAN REGION

Dana Vicherková

Abstract

The article informs about a qualitatively oriented survey of communication strategies (specific reader strategies) for selected fifteen-year-old primary school pupils in the MS Region. The text describes, analyzes, and evaluates the selected outcomes of the exploratory survey of problem phenomena using the semi-structured conversation method with primary school pupils. The aim of the text is to describe factors that can affect the level of reading strategies of pupils in the home and school environments.

Key words: *communication and reading strategies, metamotivation and metacognition of the pupil, self-regulation, literacy models*

1 INTRODUCTION

Currently, the social need to be communicative and literate (to be able to read and write effectively) is increasing. At present, it is clear that the ability of an adult to work on the labour market assumes he/she has a sufficient functional literacy level.
Reading literacy is a key area of functional literacy, and due to the alarming reports from the outcomes of the international reading literacy survey (PISA, 2009, etc.), it is clear that Czech 15-year-old pupils do not reach the average levels of reader strategies so that they have a wide range of communicative skills). The Czech Republic is one of the EU countries in which the 15-year-old pupils of primary schools have long-term significant shortcomings in the field of reading (especially in the focus of text comprehension), in terms of their qualitative as well as quantitative occurrences.

Pupils from the Moravian-Silesian Region have achieved inadequately worse results (in the PISA 2009 survey) than the same age peers in other regions of the Czech Republic. Problems were also perceived among the pupils of the Ústecký and Karlovarský regions. Current reading literacy readings (PISA 2018) are now awaited.

2 METAMOTIVATION, THE METACOGNITION OF THE PUPIL, AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATION COMPETENCES

As an important starting point of our survey, we consider meta-activation and metacognition of the pupil in the field of reader education, and the development of communicative competencies that can be considered key to the life of individuals in the society of the 21st century.

Developing the pupil's metacognitive potential means creating sufficient cognitive activities in the field of educating the reader. Activating readers in pre-reading phases, while reading, and after reading texts, to develop a range of cognitive control and planning tools for pupils, including the management of reader-motivated activities, are among the key tasks of reading education in both home and school contexts.

By correctly diagnosing the reader's understanding of information in the communication process, especially when working with texts, it is possible to determine the role of subjective and objective factors that can be used to achieve both cognitive and metacognitive goals, leading to a higher level of understanding of information data in

everyday life . The pupil's cognitive growth performance is supported by a sufficiently wide database of learning and reading strategies. The regulation of reading speeds, orientation in the text, planning a way to understand unknown words, phrases, sentences, sentence context, and the whole complex of readings leads to metacognitive competence of the development of cognitive and affective expressions of pupils while working with the texts which, at the same time, means expanding the overall understanding of the potential of intelligence.

Games, reader activities, storytelling, sharing of reading experiences and their analysis, reflection, and other mobilization intentions and actions lead to increased efforts to achieve effective learning (e.g. self-regulation of learning by reading with comprehension, etc.). Self-regulation can be understood as an opportunity which can be developed throughout one's entire life. Developing holistic insights into the minds of others when working with texts can be performed through spontaneous or semi-structured interviews with pupils (so-called verbalization).

Hoferová et al (1998, pp. 66-72 in Mareš, 2013, p. 242) classified strategies based on self-regulation into four groups: a) cognitive strategies; b) metacognitive strategies, c) strategies for self-knowledge; d) motivation strategy. We consider important strategies that lead the pupil to recognize what he/she does not currently know, what he/she does not currently understand. Additional strategic strategies include procedures to monitor progress in learning and reading by developing critical thinking, setting achievable goals, a sense of self-reflection, creating reading patterns, co-operation, thinking, asking problem-based questions on the read texts, argumenting and summarising what has been read.

Being reader-literate means to have a set of key competences, because they themselves have a super-subject nature.

The current world trend in the development of reader education can be seen in the constructivist conception of nationwide testing in the field of reading literacy, not only in international research surveys (PIRLS, PISA, PIAAC), but also in the nationwide testing of 15-year-old pupils under JPZk during the transition from primary to secondary schools, as well as in the maturita project for the testing of pupils of the 4th year of secondary schools, ending with the maturita/school leaving exam (state exam forms).

Monitoring the quality of the learning process in terms of the development of reading strategies can also be seen in textbooks and curriculum documents (RVP ZV[1] and others.).

We should not forget about literacy models in relation to cognitive theories and models of information processing. For example, B. Bloom (1968) emphasizes that each individual is able to fulfil a task if his or her individual needs are respected over time.

3 INFLUENCE OF FACTORS INFLUENCING LITERACY

There are many important classifications of factors that affect human literacy. Objective factors are based on the social, cultural, and economic contexts. Conversely, the inner (subjective) factors derive from the innate dispositions, characters, and personality manifestations of an individual.

Doležalová (2005) divided the objective factors of literacy according to environment into three categories: a) macro-environment; b) local environment; c) microenvironment. In agreement with the authors Wild (2012) and Najvarová (2008), it is possible to agree with the fact that it is important to influence the literacy level of pupils regularly, interactively,

[1] Framework education programme for primary education.

by activating work with high quality (diverse) texts and sufficient thought value in the school and home environments.

4 EMPIRICAL PART

4.1 Research aims

The main research aim is:

- to characterize the level of communication reading strategies of 15-year-old pupils in MSR(the Moravian-Silesian Region),
- analyze and describe the factors influencing the level of readership strategies of 15-year-old pupils in MSR.

4.2 Research problems

We are interested in:

- which factors affect the level of reading strategies from the point of view of 15-year-old pupils in MSR,
- which reader strategies are used by pupils when reading different types of texts, and which process does the learner use to understand the text,
- how a pupil expresses their personal relationship to books,
- what the ideas and reflections are of pupils reading today.

4.3 Research sample

For the research sample, we chose 15-year-old pupils (respondents), who form the basic research file.

4.4 Implementation of research

Of 10 approached primary schools, 5 primary schools participated in our research. We worked with 10 respondents, because each school was represented by 2 pupils from the 9th year of primary school.

4.5 Research methodology

For our research intentions in the empirical phase of the survey, we chose interviews with selected respondents the pedagogical research method. Interviewing is a method that collects data about pedagogical reality through direct verbal communication between the researcher and the respondent. The advantage of the conversation is the establishment of personal contact, along with the opportunity to identify personal motives, motivation, and attitudes of the respondent.

As a method of managing the interviews, we chose a semi-structured conversation style. We wrote the data in the written form during the interview, as well as immediately after the conversation ended. Due to the characteristics of the semi-structured interview, we approached the implementation of the interviews with a natural flow of ideas in interpersonal communication.

In a semi-structured interview, we worked with several alternative (or free) answers to individual questions. The respondent had the opportunity to explain his claims, to justify them.

This is a material composition of mixed research design with a predominance of a qualitative nature. We decided to organize individual interviews in the school environment.

The semi-structured conversation included 3 thematic areas:

1. reading strategy

2. school and reading
3. appropriate methods in working with texts contributing to the development of reading strategies in teaching Czech Language and Literature

In each of the thematic areas, a database of questions was constructed. Respondents' individual responses were categorized into related groups, and then described, analyzed, and the most frequent responses were evaluated.

Selected interpretation of research outputs in the thematic area No. 1:
From the partial statistical answers of the pupils it is clear that the respondents' answers can be categorized.
Pupils express what processes, reader strategies, and why a possible understanding of the text occurs.

Question:
Are you searching for the main idea in your text to understand the text?
We can divide these pupils' answers into 2 groups.

A) Why?
Pupils give the reason (why) to search for the main idea in the text for their understanding:
1. for the sake of understanding,
2. to remember better.

We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1:
- so that I can understand the text (to understand the text),
- I usually understand it immediately,
- so that I can understand what I read.

Ad 2:
- so that I can remember it better,
- I better remember the text and the whole story,
- so that I can train my memory.

B) How?
Pupils introduce the way (how) they look for the main idea in the text to understand it:
1. repeated reading,
2. concretizing other ways (trying to understand the plot, thinking, searching for keywords, placing auxiliary words, searching for summarizing ideas, lessons, etc.).

We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1:
- I read it a more times,
- mostly yes, I read it more times,
- I mostly do not search for the main idea, but sometimes I read it twice to understand it.

Ad 2:
- I search for keywords,

- I think about it for myself,
- if I do not understand something, I will ask my mum or someone else,
- I ask myself different questions and I try to understand what the author writes about.

Question:
Do you ask helping questions while reading the text?
We can divide these pupils' answers into 2 groups.

A) Why?
Pupils ask helping questions while reading the text:
1. for a better understanding of the story,
2. for success in learning.

We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1:
- for a better understanding of the story,
- I wonder how the story ends,
- when I'm surprised by the reaction of a character in the story.

Ad 2:
- only when I study,
- I don't have a problem asking questions, that's how I learn,
- I gradually learn by asking questions.

Question:
What and why affects reading comprehension?
We can divide these pupils' answers into 4 groups.

Pupils state that the factors that affect text comprehension include:
1. reading level (how well students read technically)
2. the richness of the vocabulary, the way of thinking, knowledge of sentences construction,
3. attention of the reader,
4. favourable climate (reading environment).

We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1:
- it can affect reading levels,
- it can affect how good readers we are.

Ad 2:
- it affects, we must have an appetite to read, as well as silence,
- also the number of words I know and recognise,
- influence yes, e.g. analysis of sentences, for example sentence breakdown
- due to thinking.

Ad 3:
- it can affect, if I pay attention,

- it can affect thought processes and concentration,
- it may affect our focus or concentration.

Ad 4:

- it can change the understanding of the characters when I'm calm,
- the meaning of the text may be affected.
- attention, calm, quiet environment.

Selected interpretation of research outputs in the thematic area No. 2:

Pupils express why the selected actions and activities in Czech Language and Literature lessons in the field of reading education develop reading strategies, which contributes to the understanding of texts (e.g. textbooks, and so on).

Question:

Why do you study and analyze text in your mother tongue?
We can divide these pupils' answers into 4 groups.

Pupils state that they devote time to reading and text analysis in Czech Language and Literature lessons:

1. in order to learn and understand something (in various ways)
2. in order to learn something by heart,
3. in order to better understand the text,
4. without giving any reason (they do not answer why, they do not give a reason).

We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1:

- to know what we are reading about and what genre it is,
- it helps me grasp the text, understand it and remember it,
- it is good for us in the future (the teacher will explain it to us).

Ad 2:

- in order to learn.

Ad 3:

- in order to better understand the text,
- we talk about the text in a group, then I understand it.

Ad 4:

- in Czech Language and Literature lessons we devote time to texts.

Selected interpretation of research outputs in the thematic area No. 3:

Pupils most often consider "conversations about the read information" to be a suitable method for developing reading strategies in teaching Czech Language and Literature.

We can divide these pupils' answers into 3 groups.

1. Pupils consider conversations about the read information to be an interactive and quick way to understand the read information.
2. Pupils consider conversations about the read information to be an interactive way of individual understanding, but not quickly.

3. Pupils do not consider conversations about the read information to be an interactive and quick path to individual understanding.

WHY? Conversation on read information
We picked the following answers from the pupils' most frequent responses:

Ad 1.

- the conversation is fast, I have an opportunity for an exchange of views on the read text, so that I can understand everything,
- the strength of the conversation is the necessity to quickly respond to the comprehension of the text, and adjust the view of the problem,
- the conversation is the quick exchange of opinion in order to understand what I have read,
- the conversation is a quick check of understanding in a pair with someone.

Ad 2.

- the conversation about the read text can take a long time, but then I find out that I either understood the read information or I didn't,
- the conversation is a different story about whether I have an opinion on the text read, or I can change my opinion according to whom I believe,
- the conversation is a quick reaction to what I have read.

Ad 3.

- the conversation is one person talking about the read text,
- the conversation is telling the story to a classmate.

5 CONCLUSION

Reading strategy
Pupils consider basic reader strategies leading to understanding in communication situations, especially when working with text, primarily searching for the main idea, for the sake of quick understanding and remembering information.
Pupils seek the main idea by repeatedly reading and searching for keywords. Text comprehension is aided by pupils asking questions in order to improve their understanding of the story. It is also interesting to find out that asking questions about the read text helps pupils towards learning success.
Pupils perceive success in the mechanical reading of texts, stylistic dexterity, rich vocabulary, and mental maturity as key factors influencing text comprehension. The pupils also attributed reader attention and a favourable reading environment (climate) as important factors.

School and reading
As a reason why pupils read, they very often say: to learn something, to understand something, to remember something.

Appropriate methods for working with text to develop reader strategies in Czech Language and Literature
Appropriate methods for developing reader strategies involve pupil interviews, discussion on the texts, dramatization.

The key is the conversation on read information method because, according to the pupils themselves, it is a quick way to understand the read information that allows for individual understanding.
The speed of the conversation is appreciated by students because of good (general) understanding of the text, and the possibility of controlling the understanding in pairs. Less often, pupils consider the conversation as a kind of test of understanding the information in the text. Less often, pupils consider the conversation to be an understanding of the text for classification (grading) in the classroom.
Most often, the pupils think that the conversation may take as long as it takes for the pupil to understand the read text. Less often, pupils responded that the conversation was a response to what they were reading. The least often, pupils responded that the conversation was timed to be as long as necessary for both partners to understand everything in the text the same way. The article highlighted the factors that affect the level of readership of fifteen-year-old pupils. As to the control question of whether pupils are considered reader literate, all 10 respondents answered that they considered themselves to be reader-literate, most often reading 3 books per calendar year. Pupils prefer to read in their home environment, but they like to talk to their classmates about the books they have read. Pupils tend to share less reader experiences with their parents.
We are in agreement with respondents in that we consider the development of reader strategies by appropriate methods in a favourable reading climate at school or at home to be one of the most important reader-driven activities that lead to the development of reading and communicative competence for everyday life, both today and in the future.

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DIGITAL COMPETENCE: DISCOURSE DEFINITION OF CURRENT CONCEPTS CONSIDERING THE CZECH ENVIRONMENT

Michal Černý

Abstract

Digital competencies are a topic that meets the almost exponential increase in publishing interest. At the same time, however, it is very vaguely defined, and it is possible to say that almost every author projects his ideas and models in it. The aim of our comparative analysis is to show how the approach to digital competences approaches, based on the five texts with the strongest citation. From the point of view of content analysis, we will then follow two basic dichotomies - are digital competencies a question of personal or social aspects of interventions? Is their description to be implemented primarily in sociological terms, because their absence will result in poverty or is it an individual's voluntarily acquired competencies, the development of which is to be dealt with by the individual himself? The second dichotomy is related to whether digital competencies are something that is indispensable in the person's civic equipment, or whether it chooses them as one of the options besides presentational skills or the ability to effectively manage their time.

Key words: *digital competence, information poverty, philosophy of education, information society*

1 INTRODUCTION

Digital competences are a topic that is abundantly captured both in research studies (whether they are testing a certain population or attitudes) but at the same time relatively theoretically grounded in sociological, philosophical or anthropological contexts. Such thinking is crucial for the learning process. Therefore, in our survey study, we will try to indicate the basic theme of this issue. The aim of this review study will therefore be on five papers to show their certain thematic, discursive and content strides related to the educational reality.

2 DEFINITION OF TERM „DIGITAL COMPETENCE“

The definition of the term digital competence is very problematic and ambiguous. The key document in EC DigiComp 2.0 (DigComp 2.1: The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens with eight proficiency levels and examples of use, 2018) is perceived as a civic competence, thus closely linked to the potential for active citizenship. The authors of the Competency Framework themselves avoid the exact definition when it states that: "DigComp was first published in 2013 as a reference framework to support the development of digital competences of individuals in Europe. It describes what competencies are needed today to use digital technology in a credible, critical, collaborative and creative way to achieve goals related to work, learning, leisure, inclusion and participation in our digital society. "(" Digicomp in action: A user guide to the European Digital Competence Framework ", 2018)

The DigiComp definition itself is then linked to the identification of five areas of competence (information and data literacy, communication and collaboration, digital content creation, security and problem solving) that are further developed and standardized. The definition is therefore given by the content itself.

From the point of view of discourse, it is important that these competencies can be developed, but at the same time it is assumed that they are not an external or facultative skill, but something absolutely crucial. In the context of the aforementioned quotation, it is clear that being a full citizen means having these competences. Otherwise, you may be at risk of

information poverty. In addition to this general framework, there are also specialists for educators, educational organizations and customers.
The concept of competence is consistently linked to both dimensions. It has the significance of both skills or abilities to do something, as well as certain powers or rights. Digital competences are thus associated with the active pursuit of certain activities in the public space.
To a certain extent, the Digital Competence concept is also included in the Digital Education Strategy for 2020: "The education system will ensure that every individual's equipment is indispensable to the information society and use open-ended education throughout life." "The Digital Education Strategy for 2020", 2015, p. 11)
Within this framework, "digital competences are conceived as a set of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values that we need to confident, critical and creative use of digital technologies at work, at work, learning, leisure and social life. Digital competences are understood to be cross-cutting key competencies that enable other key competences to be achieved and related to the many 21st century skills that every citizen has to have to be active in society and the labor market. "(" Digital Education Strategy by 2020 ", 2015, p. 11-12)
The specificity of the Czech discourse is that it emphasizes the labor market (ie education as a means of applying to it) and that digital competence combines with information thinking. (Lassner, 2014) The document also shows tension between the concept of DigiComp, which focuses on lifelong learning, respectively on a person as an active element in society and a "traditionally school" concept as a competence given by education for the labor market.
The very definition of digital competency itself is ambiguous - its concept can be seen as a competence framework itself, which can be directed to the development of civic competences, but also to its contextualization to competencies for the 21st century (and analogous models) ("Partnership for 21st Century Skills ", 2007, Kickmeier-Rust & Dietrich, 2012, Metiri Group & North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 2003, OECD, 2014), some dissolution in existing competencies, partly transforming digital competencies online communication), with links to information literacy, etc. These different concepts differ not only in the chosen emphasis or the theoretical concept, but also in the emphasis on individual competences, their enumeration, importance, structure and continuity to other literacy. In the pedagogical context, the theoretical frameworks of TPCK (Archambault & Barnett, 2010), a model of pedagogical competencies that emphasizes technology as a core component of the teaching profession, or its TPCK-W alternative to online education, are important. (Angeli, C., & Valanides, N., 2014)

3 METHODOLOGY OF TEXT SELECTION

We used the Scopus database to prepare a survey of digital competences. The aim of this study is primarily to show the main research approaches, but also to try to identify the basic thematic units that appear in this area. What we would like to specifically look at are the following:

a) What is the research design used for? Is the text conceived as a research or theoretical?
b) What is the target group?
c) How are digital competences in it as the central concept of our study?
d) Can a paradigm within which digital competences are conceived can be identified in the texts?
e) What is the content of digital competences?

For practical reasons, we used the time focus for 2014-2018. By dynamically changing the content of digital competences, depending on the transformation of the outside world, it is not possible to carry out a consistent assessment of digital competences over too large a time

scale, since it will refer to a de facto other term, albeit with the same designation. This does not mean that the concept of digital competence has been used consistently.
Within SCOPUS searches, it is also possible to use basic statistical methods of processing the results that provide an elementary scientometric view of the problem. Of course, this is relevant to a broader concept, ie to digital competencies as such. Even before a systematic narrowing of the results, it is advisable to obtain a basic insight, for example, on the stability of the results that refer to the research interest. This broader analysis will also allow you to identify key journals or collections that can be targeted in a survey, and will also provide an analysis of key personalities who are or will be able to track the topic over time.
From the methodological context of scientometry, it is necessary to allow in our study the fact that a certain element of fluidity is contained in the very construction of a database that absorbs collections, books and magazines on the one hand in an additive way (the database is constantly expanded with new resources, conditions for indexing), but at the same time removing predators, terminating activities, or those that for various reasons no longer qualify for inclusion in the database. In this respect, it is not possible to overestimate these statistical outputs from databases. The theme chosen by us at the same time does not allow for example the use of Q1 or Q2 peak filtering in the Thomson Reuters Web of Science database.

4 SCIENTOMETRIC PARAMETERS

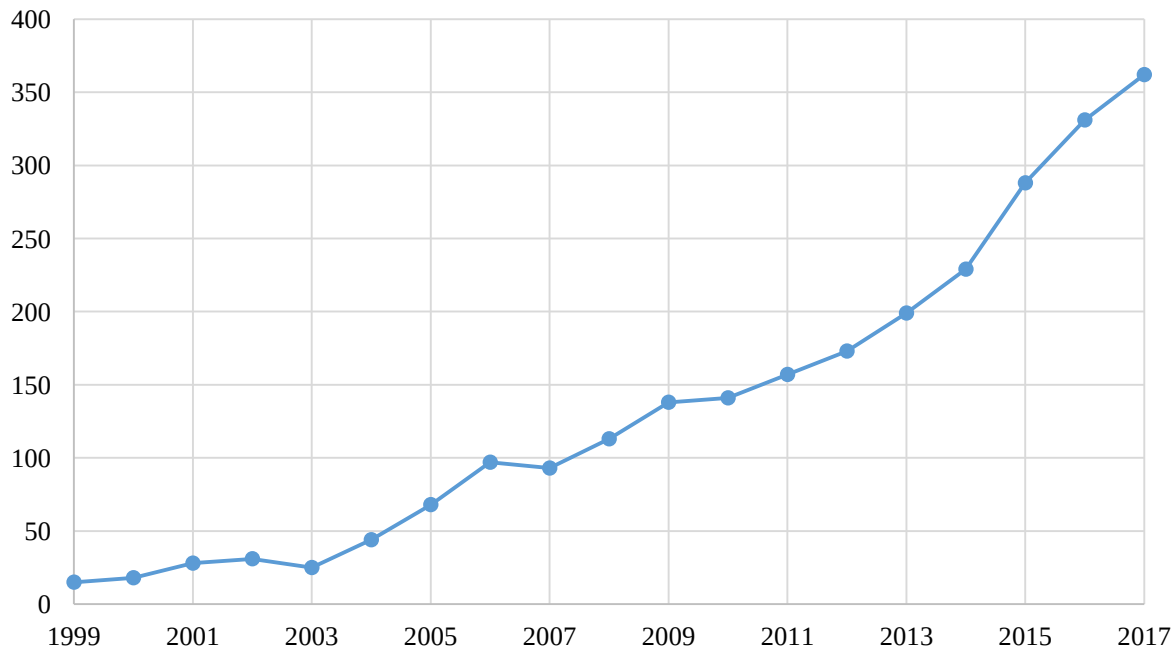
If we work with the term "digital competence", it can be said that somewhat more intense interest can be heard from 1999 (between 1998 and the occurrence of 5 records), when SCOPUS has 15 records. From this year, we can see essentially continuous growth (with exceptions in 2003 (drop from 31 to 25 documents) and 2007 (from 97 to 93 documents) - but they are fluctuating from a scientometric point of view or fluctuations that can be easily explained).
Regarding the structure of documents (a total of 2751 documents were indexed with this keyword), papers (58%) predominated in the conference contributions (25%). Other types of documents are already marginal - Review (6%), chapter chapters (4%).
Regarding the geographical distinction of interest, the texts from the United States of America (508 documents followed by Spain (344), Great Britain (245), Germany (218), Italy (159), Australia (111) and Canada (102) predominate. There are other countries in Europe - Norway (93), Sweden (78), the Netherlands (77) and Finland (60), not just the EC research center in Seville, Madrid and especially Salamanca.
About 38% of publications fall under social sciences, followed by computer science 31% and medicine (28%). The high share of medicine (and related sciences - Nursing and Health Professions have together nearly another 7%) is typical of the whole area of technology in education. While published texts in this area refer to the high interest of medical disciplines in education technologies, they are both thematically and discursively totally different from the rest of the area.
In our survey period (2014-2018), which contains 883 documents, the resulting publication profile is as follows: Social Science (67%), Computer Science 43%, Engineering 10%, and Humanities Less than 10%. Interestingly, in this period, the topic of digital competences is not interesting for the medical profession. The profile of the research countries is changing - the first place is still held by Spain (248 documents), followed by Norway (79 documents) and Italy (57 documents). Also the first place among the research organizations was held by the University of Salamanca (49 documents), followed by the University of Oslo (23 papers).
In the period under review, the most (the most active) authors (sorted by number of documents) are:

Hatlevik, O.E.	12
Scherer, R.	10
García-Peñalvo, F.J.	9
Rodríguez-Conde, M.J.	9
Fuentes, C.	8
Herskovic, V.	8

Similarly, during the reporting period are the most important resources:

ACM International Conference Proceeding Series	40
Computers And Education	29
Nordic Journal Of Digital Literacy	24
Communicar	21
Lecture Notes In Computer Science Including Subseries Lecture Notes In Artificial Intelligence And Lecture Notes In Bioinformatics	20
Computers In Human Behavior	14
Education And Information Technologies	14

From the point of view of both the sources and the publishing personality, it is also obvious that this is a theme - and this corresponds to a change in the thematic term assignment - which moves increasingly into the field of education and remains strong even in computer science or technology.



The graph captures the number of indexed documents in individual years (1999-2017) in the SCOPUS database. It is obvious that the increase is almost exponential.

5 ANALYSIS OF TEXTS

In this part of our review study, we will focus on analyzing texts that deal with digital competences. To analyze texts for the term "digital comeptence", we proceeded in SCOPUS as follows (as of May 31, 2018):

a) find all results;

b) reduce the results for 2014-2018;
c) limit the results to the fact that they do not have to deal with healthcare;
d) we excluded thematically unrelated texts;
e) identified five texts with the highest citability.

Below are the basic characteristics of these texts.

5.1 Can Serious Games Contribute to Developing and Sustaining 21st Century Skills?

Paper Can Serious Games Contribute to Developing and Sustaining 21st Century Skills? addresses the question of whether it is possible to use educational games. The paper works with three research questions: What are Competencies for the 21st Century? Is there evidence that they can be developed by games? How can games be developed? From the point of view of our survey study, the first question is important. The authors work with six competences for the 21st century and make them a point of intersection. This is a documentary analysis. The analysis shows that all frameworks emphasize ICT literacy, collaboration and communication skills and social competence. In the case of DigiComp, there is a strong intersection (not only social or cultural competing). Most frames also mention creativity, critical thinking, product and problem-solving skills, which are again the competencies of DigiComp. What is also important is that the text of competence ranks alongside trivia and gives them a social context - they are essential to being in society.

The text does not work with any specific target group but moves within the pedagogical framework - it wants to help developers of educational games and teachers. He is not bound to a particular educational system or to a curriculum or language area.

The paper has 27 quotes from SCOPUS and IF 15,11. Includes keywords: 21st century skills; competence-based education; education; game-based learning; serious games.

ROMERO, Margarida; USART, Mireia; OTT, Michela. Can serious games contribute to developing and sustaining 21st century skills?. *Games and Culture*, 2015, 10.2: 148-177.

5.2 Teacher educators' digital competence

The paper reacts to the kuticular reform in Norway, for which it is trying to find a model of digital competences for teacher education (or teachers) that could function adequately at the local level. It works with the model shown below, which offers some granularity in the educational process - from the adoption of teacher technology to innovation. These grades are also reflected in the educational environments in which they are used. The paper is thus a theoretical concept that highlights the need for gradual, but personalized, changes in the educational system.

The text is limited by the fact that the author works with the same mental model as in 2007, but the model does not have a clear competence decomposition (nor can it be found anywhere in the paper) and focuses on Norwegian teachers. It is, however, possible to identify some interesting distinct themes from the general characteristics; digital competences are a prerequisite for real education (without them the teacher can not, for example, effectively set up educational strategies, emphasizes the principle of granulity and the relationship between personal dimension and practical social applicability.) Interestingly, while in the Czech environment we are still experiencing a discussion on " all teachers are really needed, "so in the case of Norway, there is a debate about the controlled sequence of their development in the context of a specific kutikular situation.

The paper has 21 citation responses according to SCOPUS and IF 4,84. Contains keywords :: digital competence; ICT policy; documents; teacher educator.

KRUMSVIK, Rune Johan. Teacher educators' digital competence. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 2014, 58.3: 269-280.

5.3 Internet skill levels increase, but gaps widen: a longitudinal cross-sectional analysis (2010-2013) among the Dutch population

The paper "Internet skills levels increase, but gaps widen: A longitudinal cross-sectional analysis (2010-2013) among the Dutch population represents the research that van Dijk reflects in the long term. It does not focus on school practice, but rather it creates a sociological framework within which it tries to explore the digital divide. Digital competencies are perceived here as part of equipment that is related to digital poverty or digital divide. The research is conducted over a representative sample of the Dutch population every year (2010-2013) and is quantitative. It can be said that it is aimed at basic technical skills (opening a PDF file, setting up a browser, submitting an online form), search strategies and, in general, moving on the Internet. The social context and the relationship of competencies to the whole population, or the perception of competences as something, are particularly beneficial.

The paper has 20 citation statements according to SCOPUS and IF 6,77. Includes keywords: 21st digital divide; digital literacy; internet skills; longitudinal survey.

VAN DEURSEN, Alexander JAM; VAN DIJK, Jan AGM. Internet skill levels increase, but gaps widen: A longitudinal cross-sectional analysis (2010–2013) among the Dutch population. *Information, Communication & Society*, 2015, 18.7: 782-797.

5.4 ICT in collaborative learning in classrooms of primary and secondary education

The paper on ICT in Collaborative Learning in Primary and Secondary Education is a research paper based on the analysis of interviews with teachers from the first and second grades of elementary schools in the Spanish regions of Castile and Leon. The aim of the research was to find out how technology teachers perceive technology in relation to classroom collaboration, what they see threats and obstacles or challenges in their development and implementation.

The authors say, "We have to find a new way of changing the view that needs to be made in school practices to encourage the development of ICT cooperation projects so that ICT becomes a communication channel that is essential to providing a learning environment that is open , interactive, full motivation and sources of information, motivate students and focus on skills development "(p. 67). This quotation is actually the outcome of the interviews and frames a situation that is significantly different in Spanish education than in the paper analyzed above from Norway.

The paper has 20 citation responses according to SCOPUS and IF 6.20. Contains the following keywords: Collaborative learning; Curriculum integration; Teacher training; Teaching methodology; Teaching practice; Virtual learning.

GARCÍA-VALCÁRCEL, Ana; BASILOTTA, Verónica; LÓPEZ, Camino. ICT in Collaborative Learning in the Classrooms of Primary and Secondary Education/Las TIC en el aprendizaje colaborativo en el aula de Primaria y Secundaria. *Comunicar*, 2014, 21.42: 65.

5.5 Teachers' professional development for ICT integration: Towards a reciprocal relationship between research and practice

In the beginning, the paper defines three themes for the topic of technology implementation in teaching - sharing and grasping the vision and role of technology in the education process, community aspects of technology use and the creation of personal education networks, and reducing the gap between research and practice in this area. The paper below is a model that shows the foundation of the teacher's personal development, which is essential for the inclusion of technology in teaching. ICT (or digital competence) is perceived here as something that is part of the personal development of a teacher.

At the heart of the paper are examples of four concepts of technology development in education that are associated with teachers. The authors of the study, in each case, reflect the model-defined dimen- sion and try to track to what extent they are filled or expressed in a given strategy. Methodology is therefore a certain documentary analysis of four selected concepts.
The paper has 19 citation statements according to SCOPUS and IF 6,86. Contains keywords: Case study; Design-based research; ICT integration; Teacher professional development; Technology enabled learning.
ALBION, Peter R., et al. Teachers' professional development for ICT integration: Towards a reciprocal relationship between research and practice. *Education and Information Technologies*, 2015, 20.4: 655-673.

6 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

At this point, we would like to make a few comments that are related to our brief survey. The first point of interest is the perception of technology itself - it is possible to meet two extreme approaches, among which it is possible to identify the basic difference. I would like to call the first approach as "here and there," in which the technological world is perceived as being physically, as principally separate. Digital competence can be viewed as something externally, almost optional or extravagant. The second approach draws attention to the fact that cyberspace and physical space are so intertwined and integrated that they can not be separated. It is the integral literacy, the competence to be in the world. This distinction, which is clear from the above analysis, raises questions as to whether a person can carry out his / her task in the world (citizen, teacher,…) without having a digital competence. Whether their absence is not like a "serious offense" like the overthrow of the traditional trivia.
Texts offer another interesting dimension, namely whether community competences (for example, teachers) are a matter of personal development (ie, private affairs) or community-based necessity (as Van Dajk and Deursen (2009) emphasize). This is a discussion that is common to the phenomenon of education as such, but it can be viewed in a digital competence theme differently or differently from the usual discourse in this area.
Even though the most recently analyzed text - Teachers' professional development for ICT integration - Towards a reciprocal relationship between research and practice - looks into the issue of early industrial paradigm on technology in education, it highlights a topic that can be found in some words, but also in other texts. It shows how technology helps build what is referred to as the Personal Education Network (PLN). (Bauer, 2010) It is therefore necessary to perceive a strong role of communication and cooperation in digital competences, since without them not only some forms of PLN can be developed but also some isolation of the individual.
As far as the content of digital competences is concerned, the texts we analyze can not easily be identified. What we can say is that the broadly conceived framework of DigiComp integrates all aspects of the issue. It is perhaps more of a lack of emphasis on the building of communities to make for personal development or learning. All texts agree that digital competences need to be developed and that it is an educational topic across the age or structural diversity of the population.
As regards research methods, neither from the texts analyzed nor from other papers in the leading results in SCOPUS, it can not be said that one preferred research approach could be identified. Teachers' research is the preferred form of interviews, which, according to our court, is more practical than a paradigmatic reason. Frequent research forms are case studies, which seems to be again a reason for the relative simplicity of their implementation.

7 CONCLUSION

In our survey study, we attempted to inspect the discourses that have the context of the philosophy of education and at the same time they appear in our papers. The tension between "here and there" that DigiComp seeks to overcome seems to be an integral part of much of the research papers but also theoretical studies. We believe that this dilemma may be one of the exciting research themes emerging in this area. Reflection and possible change of discourse in this field could and should be one of the important topics of the philosophy of education.

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ŠPECIFIKÁ VEKOVEJ DISKRIMINÁCIE SENIOROV

SPECIFIC AGE DISCRIMINATION IN SENIORS

Iveta Ondriová

Abstrakt

Starnutie je chápané ako obdobie, počas ktorého človek môže len chátrať, v najlepšom prípade si zachováva časť toho, čo získal predtým. Jeho skúsenosti i kompetencie strácajú svoj význam, pre spoločnosť nie je takýto človek už nijakým prínosom. Hodnotový systém spoločnosti, ktorá zdôrazňuje zachovanie predovšetkým biologicky podmienených kompetencií mladosti (mladistvého vzhľadu, výkon a pod.), starých ľudí veľmi znevýhodňuje. Túto tendenciu podporujú aj médiá, ktoré rôznymi spôsobmi potvrdzujú značný význam vonkajšieho vzhľadu a proklamovanej sviežosti ako súčasnú normu.

Kľúčové slová: *vek, senior, diskriminácia, prevencia*

Abstract

Aging is understood to be a period during which a person can only wail, at best preserves part of what he has gained before. His experiences and competencies are losing their meaning, for society is not such a benefit anymore. The value system of the society, which emphasizes the preservation of the biologically-based competencies of youth (youthful appearance, performance, etc.), makes the elderly very disadvantaged. This tendency is supported by the media, which in many ways confirm the considerable importance of the external appearance and proclaimed freshness as the current standard.

Key words: *age, senior, discrimination, prevention*

1. ÚVOD

Podiel starnúcej populácie celosvetovo stúpa. Na konci ontogenetického vývoja každého človeka je starnutie a staroba. Proces starnutia a staroby sa nedá presne zadefinovať, aj keď dnes už existuje množstvo poznatkov a vedeckých teórií. Vo všeobecnosti sa však dá povedať, že starnutie je proces, pri ktorom nastupujú v organizme morfologické, degeneratívne a funkčné zmeny vo všetkých orgánových systémoch. Starnutie je proces, ktorý je asynchrónny, disociovaný a dezintegrovaný. Starnutie a samotná staroba v súčasnosti na rozdiel od minulých storočí postihuje oveľa viac ľudí. Táto skutočnosť je spôsobená predlžovaním strednej dĺžky života a aj napriek tomu má za následok to, že v dnešnej dobe je staroba postihnutá vysokou chorobnosťou a zhoršovaním fyzickej a psychickej sebestačnosti. Starnutie predstavuje neodvratný fyziologický dej, ktorý je vlastne cestou do staroby, ktorá je poslednou ontogenetickou periódou ľudského života. Z medicínskeho hľadiska hovoríme o involučnom úbytku potenciálu zdravia. Pokles pôrodnosti a rast počtu ľudí spôsobuje zvyšovanie podielu ekonomicky závislého obyvateľstva (Balková a kol., 2006). Naše demografické problémy sú dnes veľmi podobné problémom, ktoré majú vyspelé západné štáty. K najvýraznejšiemu nárastu obyvateľstva v poproduktívnom veku dôjde po roku 2015. Ak sa celková populácia v roku 2030 zdvojnásobí oproti roku 1900, populácia v postproduktívnom veku v tomto období narastie päťkrát a počet obyvateľov nad 80 rokov až desaťkrát. Organizácia spojených národov (OSN)

odporučila koncom 60. rokov 20. storočia označovaťpopuláciu podľa počtu osôb vo veku 65 rokov a viac do 4 % za mladú, v rozsahu 4–6,9 % za zrelú a nad 7 % za starú (Abrams et al., 1995). Tento trend populačného starnutia bude u nás, ale aj vo svete ďalej pokračovať (Topinková,2005). Miesto staršej generácii v modernej spoločnosti určujú najmä dve skutočnosti. V prvom rade je to pokrok medicíny, ktorý predĺžil priemerný vek, v druhom rade je to klesajúci počet narodených detí (Fertaľová,2017 Piscová (2007,s.40) uvádza, že: „*seniorská časť populácie u nás nepredstavuje zatiaľ aktuálne ohrozenie pre udržateľný rozvoj spoločnosti a konkrétne pre jej sociálny systém. Predsa aj u nás sa veková štruktúra populácie pomaly približuje k hodnotám, ktoré vo väčšine vyspelých európskych krajín začínajú otvárať diskusie o udržateľnosti sociálnych systémov. Aj napriek blížiacej sa lavíne starnutia našej populácie sa tomuto fenoménu, či už vo výskume, alebo v spoločenskej diskurze – zatiaľ venuje iba malá pozornosť.*“V procese modernizačných premien sa vek stal významnou zložkou sociálneho statusu jedincov, ako aj inherentnou charakteristikou rady sociálnych štruktúr a systémov. V súčasnom období hospodárskej a ekonomickej recesie nadobúda otázka veku nové kontúry, náhľady sa menia, často sa problematika zastiera a bagatelizuje, fakt je ale ten, že nemizne. Jednou z príčin, ktoré nedovolia veku aby sa „stratil“ zo zreteľa sú aj historicky bezprecedentné globálne zmeny v populačnej štruktúre spoločností.

2. AGEIZMUS - VEKOVÁ DISKRIMINÁCIA STARÝCH ĽUDÍ

Ak pojem „etika“chápeme ako súbor princípov a zásad, ktoré umožňujú rozlišovať medzi tým, čo je dobré, zlé, správne i nesprávne, tak je aj aktuálnou témou étosu umiestňovania rôznych vekových skupín na trhu práce. Problematika diskriminácie a ageizmu je veľmi široká a uvedomujeme si, že odbúravanie predsudkov a stereotypov v spoločnosti je „beh na dlhé trate“. Ak však prevládnu snahy pochopiť príčiny tohto antagonizmu a pohnútky z ktorých pramenia naše ageistické tendencie a snahy vedúce niekedy až k segregácii vekových skupín na pracovnom trhu, dokážeme nájsť cestu k interakcii a kooperácii s generáciou, ktorá má také isté práva na rovnaké zaobchádzanie ako všetci ostatní. Jedným z indikátorov rozmanitosti štruktúry spoločnosti môžeme označiť klasifikáciu veku v zmysle systému vekových noriem t.j. vekového odstupňovania, ako aj normami - systémami vekových noriem a požiadaviek. Aj napriek tomu, že na Slovensku máme kvalitnú antidiskriminačnú legislatívu, často sa stretávame s bagatelizáciou a podceňovaním tejto problematiky. Nezanedbateľným negatívnym poznatkom praxe je aj nevedomosť a nízka informovanosťou nielen v radoch laickej, ale často aj odbornej verejnosti. Načrtnuté sociálne súvislosti majú svoj význam a svoju neprehliadnuteľnú logiku na všetkých vekových úrovniach. Táto logika funkčnosti sa stáva výrazným ukazovateľom spoločnosti, ktorá vek a vekové skupiny, často spolu s pohlavím, využíva ako významný organizačný prvok sociálnych vzťahov. A práve alokácia diferenciácie vekových skupín slúži na tvorbu sociálnej politiky tej ktorej spoločnosti. Identifikácia určitých, resp. vekovo preddefinovaných skupín, (deti, stredný vek, starší ľudia), umožňuje tzv. racionálnu definíciu programov, problémov a smerovanie zdrojov pre vekovo definované skupiny obyvateľov.(Fertaľová,2017) Negatívne vnímanie staršej populácie mladšou generáciou nie je novodobým fenoménom. Bol pozorovaný v industriálnej americkej spoločnosti ako negatívny jav vznikajúci pri generačnom strete. Tento odlišný pohľad našej súčasnej spoločnosti na starého človeka priniesla zmena politickej situácie súvisiaca so zmenami politického systému. Koval (2001, s. 24) uvádza, že „*termínom používaným na vykreslenie istých stereotypov a iných škodlivých negatívnych tendencií zameraných proti starším ľuďom sa stal ageizmus*“. Na začiatku 21. storočia bolo nutné (okrem iného) zvládnuť úlohy, ktoré charakterizuje narastajúci počet starých ľudí, a to nielen vo vyspelých, ale aj v rozvojových krajinách, čo prinesie zmenu vekovej štruktúry obyvateľstva. V

súčasnosti je zrejmé, že jednou z nich bude odstránenie diskriminácie starého človeka. Problém starých ľudí je vo väčšine ekonomicky vyspelých štátov čoraz aktuálnejší. Tí, ktorí majú negatívny pohľad na seniora a sú šíritelia rôzneho druhu diskriminácie, považujú starnúceho a starého človeka vo všeobecnosti za senilného, rigidného a otravného tvora, ktorý sa stáva bremenom pre rodinu a okolie (Šuličová a kol.2017). *Diskriminácia starých ľudí je vyhranený vzťah, určitý stereotyp ľudského správania sa voči seniorom, ktorý má spoločné črty s rasizmom*. Prezentujú ju predovšetkým zástupcovia mladších generácií. Násilie na starých ľuďoch patrí do skupiny geriatrických sociálnych syndrómov. Starý človek je len veľmi ťažko schopný rýchlej a účinnej adaptácie na neočakávané zmeny životných podmienok alebo zmeny svojho zdravotného stavu. V našom štáte seniori tvoria početnú skupinu prevažne chorých, nemajetných a bez úspechov žijúcich ľudí. Sociálny status starého človeka patrí do znevýhodnenej kategórie, v starobe klesá počet sociálnych pozícií a senior stráca prestíž (Koval, 2004). Problém ageizmu je problémom modernej spoločnosti. Existencia tohto problému si vyžaduje zabránenie znehodnocujúcich aktivít, ktoré smerujú voči starnúcim ľuďom. Vyspelosť spoločnosti sa prejavuje aj tým, akým spôsobom sa dokáže postarať o seniorov. Možným riešením tohto problému je vytvorenie určitých štruktúr v spoločnosti a špecifikácia niektorých ľudských práv starnúcich a starých ľudí, ktoré by vychádzali z noriem Organizácie spojených národov (OSN) a Rady Európy (Šuličová,2014). Ageizmus sa prejavuje ako nevraživosť mladých ľudí a ľudí v strednom veku voči starším. Pre mnohých vysoký vek symbolizuje choroby, neschopnosť a smrť. Je charakteristický podceňovaním, odmietaním až odporom k starým ľuďom. V dôsledku uvedeného postoja dochádza k symbolickej i faktickej diskriminácii len na základe veku. Spoločnosť priradzuje seniorom nízky sociálny status a už od nich nič neočakáva, tým sa pre ňu stávajú nadbytočnými a hľadí na nich odmietavo, v krajnom prípade s odporom. Opačným variantom je prehnaná starostlivosť a podceňovanie. V každom prípade sa jedná o nadradenosť nad seniormi a spoločnosť sa ich nesnaží prijímať ako rovnocenných partnerov. *Ageizmus je definovaný aj ako forma vekovej diskriminácie, ktorá predovšetkým postihuje starých ľudí a môže viesť až k vekovej segregácií a vyčleneniu zo spoločnosti* To znamená, že čokoľvek, čo také nie je, je považované za podradné. Ageizmus je postoj ktorý vyjadruje všeobecne zdieľanie presvedčenia o nízkej hodnote a nekompetentnosti staroby Pojem ageizmus je prevzatý od anglického slova „age“ - znamenajúci vek alebo starnutie. Ako prvý tento pojem použil v roku 1969 americký psychiater Robert Butler, prvý riaditeľ National Institute on Ageing USA, ktorý už pred 40 rokmi začal hovoriť o diskriminácii na základe veku. Dnes je pojem ageizmus definovaný širšie. Zahrňuje predsudky a negatívne predstavy o starých ľuďoch, prejavy diskriminácie voči staršiemu človeku alebo skupine starších. Niektoré prejavy diskriminácie sú zrejmé, niektoré v podtexte nevyslovené. Ageismus sa často objavuje bez zjavnej logiky. Ageizmus môžeme vnímať ako predsudok voči starým ľuďom. Predsudok je model nepriateľstva v interpersonálnych vzťahoch, namierených proti celej skupine alebo proti jej jednotlivým príslušníkom. Pre svojho nositeľa plní špecifickú iracionálnu funkciu. Úzko súvisí aj s pojmom „diskriminácia“, to je neopodstatnené znevýhodňovanie alebo obmedzovanie jednotlivca alebo skupiny osôb, ktoré sa deje z dôvodu ich pohlavia, rasy, farby pleti, jazyka, veku, sexuálnej orientácie, viery, náboženstva, politického či iného zmýšľania, národného alebo sociálneho pôvodu, príslušnosti k národnosti alebo etnickej skupine, majetku, rodu alebo iného postavenia. Ageizmus môžeme chápať ako proces systematického stereotypizovania a diskriminácie ľudí pre ich starobu. Starší ľudia sú kategorizovaní ako senilní, rigidní vo svojom myslení a spôsoboch, staromódni v morálke a schopnostiach. Ageizmus „dovoľuje“ mladším generáciám vidieť starších ľudí odlišne od nich samých, a preto im bráni, aby sa so staršími ľuďmi identifikovali ako s ľudskými bytosťami. Je manifestovaný širokým spektrom fenoménov ako na individuálnej,

tak na inštitucionálnej úrovni: stereotypy a mýty, otvorené opovrhnutie a averzia alebo jednoducho vyhýbanie sa kontaktom, diskriminačné praktiky v bývaní, v zamestnaní a službách každého druhu, kreslené seriály a vtipy. Niekedy sa ageizmus stáva účelnou metódou, ako spoločnosť propaguje pohľady na staršie osoby. Približne jedna štvrtina starých ľudí v Európe niekedy alebo často čelí diskriminácii z dôvodu veku. Najväčším zdrojom diskriminačného ageistického jednania je čiernobiele-dichotomické myslenie spoločnosti. Názory na starobu sú vytvárané predčasne a vyhodnocované zjednodušene. (Kalvach,2007)

2.1 Zdroje ageistických tendencií

Najčastejšími zdrojmi ageizmu sú**:**strach zo smrti,dôraz na mladosť a fyzickú krásu,produktivita tesne spojená s ekonomickým potenciálom,spôsob zisťovania skutočného stavu spoločnosti vedúci k ageizmu,veková segregácia - oddelenie vekových skupín v spoločnosti,historická zmena statusu staroby - nízky sociálny status starších osôb,nevhodná paradigma veku - negatívny obraz staroby v spoločnosti,jazyk, médiá, kultúra - nevhodné pomenovanie starých ľudí, samotný demografický vývoj.Výrazným činiteľom, ktorý nepriamo stimuluje k rozvoju ageizmu sú média, ktoré väčšinou uprednostňujú súčasný kult mladosti. Starší ľudia sú ignorovaní, pokiaľ sú medializovaní, tak väčšinou negatívne. Dôraz na význam mladosti nespočíva len vo vplyve, ako sú starší vnímaní okolím, ale aj ako oni vnímajú sami seba.

2.2 Škály ageistických postojov

Existuje celá škála ageistických postojov, ktorá sa prelína do úrovne individuálnej, sociálnej a kultúrnej.

Individuálna úroveň-patrí tu predovšetkým strach zo smrti a starnutia ako psychosomatického úpadku. Extrémnym prejavom týchto obáv je gerontofóbia. Je predpokladom, že zdrojom týchto obáv je neznalosť a nezáujem o proces biologického starnutia, z čoho vyplýva, že vyššia informovanosť by mala pozitívny vplyv na znižovanie týchto obáv. Ďalším zdrojom sú identifikované frustrácie a agresie, z ktorých pramení hostilita voči členom minoritných skupín.

Sociálna úroveň-tu môžeme zaradiť konflikt hodnôt, efekt starnutia vyvoláva u starých ľudí pocit nutnosti zastávať iné hodnoty. Prejavuje sa to napríklad v iných politických preferenciách. V súčasnosti vidíme rôznorodosť vštepovaných rodinných hodnôt u detí z dnešnej doby a u detí, ktoré žili v čase našich prarodičov. Ďalšími sociálne podmienenými zdrojmi ageizmu môžu byť modernizačné teórie, dominantné hodnoty, urbanizácia a demografická „panika“.

Kultúrna úroveň-patria tu rôznorodé faktory, ktorými môže byť hodnotový systém, jazyk (hanlivé prívlastky pre seniorov), mediálna kultúra, humor, umenie a literatúra. Často bývajú kultúrne zdroje ageizmu takmer totožné s ich formami.(Poledníková,2006)

Dôsledky diskriminácie staroby majú v zásade dve podoby. Negatívny postoj sa prejavuje spoločenskou izoláciou, ukončením predchádzajúcich aktivít, sťahovaním do segregovaného bývania, abúzom alkoholu a iných návykových látok a v krajnom prípade samovraždou, alebo pokusom o ňu. Prežitá diskriminácia môže byť tiež významným rizikovým faktorom rozvoja depresívneho syndrómu. Niekedy sa ageizmus stáva metódou, ktorou spoločnosť propaguje pohľad na starších s cieľom vymaniť sa zo zodpovednosti voči nim. Najznámejšou formou ageizmu je negatívny úsudok a škodlivé alebo dokonca násilné správanie voči ľuďom vyššieho veku. Útok predstavuje otvorenú formu fanatizmu, niekedy nazývanú " ‘granny bashing’" (mlátenie babičky), je tiež často spájaný s psychickým a fyzickým zneužívaním starších ľudí Takáto diskriminácia môže byť označovaná ako negatívny ageizmus. Súčasný ageizmus je stále viac prejavovaný zaisťovaním tzv. rodičovských podmienok.

Starostlivosť o starých ľudí je spojená so zodpovednosťou a ochranou a môže vyvolať rodičovský postoj mladých voči starším, (napr. "Ja viem, čo je pre vás najlepšie") alebo vykonávaní kompenzačných opatrení (napr. " Dovoľte mi, aby som to urobil za vás"). Uvedená forma je označovaná ako pozitívny ageizmus, často zastiera diskrimináciu vo vtipných alebo ochranných stereotypoch, cez vtipy a paródiu na zníženú kompetenciu starých ľudí.
Self -stereotyp je forma ageizmu najťažšie riešiteľná. Je to intra – individuálny diskriminačný proces voči sebe v myslení a jednaní, starší ľudia posudzujú sami seba ako „príliš starého", alebo neschopného. Tieto úsudky pravdepodobne predstavujú proces naučeného internalizovaného útlaku. Ageizmus v poskytovaní zdravotnej starostlivosti predstavuje zásadnú hrozbu pre zdravie seniorov a spoločnosť. Diskriminácia na základe veku má mnoho podôb a má široký dopad. Negatívne ovplyvňuje zdravotný a psychický stav seniorov a má za následok zlé skúsenosti so zdravotnou starostlivosťou. Ageismus prispieva k zlej zdravotnej starostlivosti o starších dospelých a starých, ale aj k nedostatku pracovných síl vylúčením starnúcich sestier zo zdravotníckych zariadení. Pri poskytovaní zdravotnej starostlivosti vychádzajú prejavy ageistických tendencií z niekoľkých zdrojov. (Vaňo, Králová,2008)

2.3 Formy ageizmu

Najčastejšie sa stretávame s týmto ageistickým správaním:

- zo strany lekárov a zdravotníckeho personálu, napr. prehliadanie, ignorácia, hrubosť, verbálne ponižovanie,
- obmedzovanie dôstojnosti seniora, izolácia, strata nezávislosti,
- neúctivý prístup a veľmi časté oslovovanie - babka a dedko,
- často dochádza k znižovaniu hodnoty seniora nehľadiac na skúsenosti,
- dochádza k ponižovaniu,
- potláča sa sloboda rozhodovania,
- vyhýbanie sa starším pacientom, lebo nikto nemá na nich čas. (Šuličová, 2014)

2.4 Dôsledky ageistických tendencií v zdravotnej starostlivosti sú delené do nasledujúcich kategórií:

- prejavy ageizmu v liečbe seniora - prevažne v inhibícii liečebných postupov,
- prejavy ageizmu vo vzťahu k osobnosti pacienta - preberanie stereotypných ageistických postojov,
- prejavy ageizmu vo vzťahu k blízkym osobám seniora-preberanie ageistického sebahodnotenia,
- prejavy ageizmu vo vzťahu k poskytovateľovi starostlivosti – nedostatočné uspokojenie z vlastnej práce.

Do problematiky ageizmu v zdravotníctve nepatria len vekové reštrikcie (obmedzenia), ale príkladom je aj podceňovanie niektorých chorôb, jednoducho sa pripíšu staršiemu veku a nie sú rozpoznávané ako dôsledok choroby, ktorá má byť riadne liečená.

3. ZÁVER

V minulosti sa o ageizme a vekovej diskriminácii starších takmer nehovorilo. Vyzeralo to tak, akoby tento problém u nás ani neexistoval. Treba však povedať, že miera diskriminácie dnešnej doby znateľne prevyšuje minulé obdobia. Mimo iných je to dané aj súčasnou dobou, životným štýlom, materiálnou zameranosťou ľudí, snahou presadiť, prefereovaním kultu mladosti a krásy, ktorý má pevné miesto v správaní ľudí, predovšetkým mladých.

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THE ANALYSIS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION´S CURRICULUM IN SLOVAKIA WITH THE EMPHASIS ON MULTICULTURAL AND MINORITY SEGMENT

Gizela Tóthová

Abstract

This study is a part of a larger experiment which aim is to create a methodological pattern for Roma pupils for integration at schools with Hungarian as a language of instruction. In this study I focus on laws, recommendations and documents related to minority´s language usage and education to be able to determine laws and regulations connected to Roma pupils education, resp. map those groups of school subjects which enable to introduce Slovakia´s minorities as well as multicultural education, also I´d like to show how the Roma culture might be integrated into education according to these documents. . In this study I specifically deal with the educational system of Hungarian students in Slovakia and within that I focus on the first and second stage. Key words: Roma, educational programme, multicultural education, elementary education.

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1. THE INTRODUCTION

The issue of Slovak Roma minority has been having both a visible and an invisible appearance space: the first one is the regulated space with its regulations and laws, and the second one is connected to minority Hungarian schools regulations and within them formulated objectives are those I am dealing with. That is why in my study I focus on two basic questions: regulations particularly connected to Romas, 2) regulations related to primary schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction. My research solely focuses on primary schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction, I do not deal with specialised secondary schools nor with eight-year secondary grammar schools. The aim of my study is to highlight on the position and the way how multiculturalism appears in the state educational programmes, focus on issues of relation between minorities and different cultures and also how could a Roma culture be integrated into school practice along with the suggestions made. Roma fairy tales should be used at literature lessons. I would not like to focus on the issue of complexity of various languages used by Romas because the issue of Roma language itself is not a part of this study´s objectives.

2. LEGISLATION CONCERNING SLOVAKIA´S ROMA MINORITIES

2.1 Who do we consider being a Roma?

This question may sound banal, but I still need to clear it out that within this study what kind of people ´s definition I do work with. Momentarily, in Slovakia Romas represent the second most populated minority, though it is difficult to state their exact number because through the years they have not regarded themselves as Romas due to their inferiority as well as their discrimination, moreover their place of living, cultural background, lack of designation of dual identity in census surveys also influences their choice to belong to different nationality. Whereas, daily life shows a big number of people with dual or triple identity living on the territory of Slovakia. According to Zsuzsanna Hangácsi these are the typical features of Hungarian Romanies: that Roma considers himself as Hungarian who does not speak any Roma at all, lives in places where Hungarians are in majority, attends Hungarian schools and

does not know the culture of his people. Further factors that influence people in their national affiliation: the belief that one can lead a more meaningful life, worry from being excluded from the society (Hangácsi, 2013: 115). In regard to the above-mentioned facts, this study deals with the group of those Slovak citizens who according to the previous definition might be regarded as Roma: they have completed or might complete Hungarian schools. Let just have a look at the data of the 2011´s census as well as the 2013´s Atlas of Roma communities. While in the 2011´s census 105 738 people regarded themselves of Roma nationality, then the Atlas of Slovak Romany communities states that this number has increased four times, and there are 402 840 Romas (Šuvada, 2015: 73). Due to census survey´s differentiation has become clear the number of those Slovak citizens who consider themselves Romas whereas they marked as their mother tongue or their nationality as Hungarian: from those who declared Hungarian as their mother tongue 10 504 people considered themselves Roma, while 1465 Roma speaking citizens marked Hungarian as their nationality[1] (Obyvateľstvo podľa národnosti, materinského jazyka a pohlavia, 2011). Slovakia belongs to b-type of states, which proclaim the ideology that the official language of the state is the language of majority, and other language can not be considered as equal by no means. Though the usage of minority languages has been declared in a regulation, still the law about the state language states that the state language – Slovak takes priority in usage in comparison to the minority languages (Szabómihály, 2011: 12). A Human being´s most essential factor of his identity of consciousness is a language. Slovak Hungarians are given the chance to attend schools where Hungarian is spoken. However, taking into consideration south Slovakia´s relations one important question may arise: What should be done about the Hungarian Romas of Slovakia?[2] Those who live as minority in minority situation? I fully agree with Zsuzsanna Hangácsi, who regarding Hungarian Roma minority in Slovakia has stated that for those who live in double minority being with Hungarian as their mother tongue and due to outer features it is practically impossible for them at the moment to fit into the Slovak community. Momentarily, for the Hungarian Romas the only way out of this situation which would help them to be integrated into Hungarian community in Slovakia, should be an education based on multiculturalism. I agree with those who regard a mutual, one another way of learning as a good opportunity, as we cannot expect them to give up their identity in order to gain a Hungarian one, and we do not even take knowledge about theirs. Great numbers of Romas are being forced to lose their own identity and tradition due to fast and offensive modernisation and therefore they become lost in the maze of poverty. We should start a process which would enable them to find their own lost values, this can be most effectively done in the frame of primary schools (Hangácsi, 2013: 116-117). I totally agree with this conception and it coincides with my study´s goals as well. It´s just that the number of Roma pupils outnumbers the amount of Hungarian ones in some villages, that is why it is crucially important to deal with the integration of Roma culture into the education process.

2.2 Legislation and documents on Slovak minorities

As Hungarian and Roma people are minorities living in Slovakia, the same law shall apply to them, such as the Constitution of the Slovak Republic, or the law on the Use of Minority Languages. The biggest difference between the two ethnic minority groups is their language.

[1] As far as the Romas distribution is concerned, they live mostly in the eastern and central part of the country. Though this group of Romanies is not homogeneous either, 90% of them belongs to the community of Romungros. The second group is represented by Vlach Romas, the third one is a group of Sinti Roma. From the linguist aspect, we distinguish Hungarian speaking and Slovak speaking Romas. As I have stated before, in this study I entirely focus on the Hungarian speaking Romas.

[2] In the 2017/2018 school year Roma language has been taught at seven Slovak schools (at three primary and four secondary ones) as follows in Košice, Kežmarok and Kremnica.

Hungarians have a strong ethnic identity: preserving the mother tongue, the education in Hungarian language and the culture plays a key role for them. They consider important to preserve the Hungarian schools, their mother tongue, they represent themselves in the political arena, carry out researches and have considerable, serious intellectuals. But most importantly the Hungarian minority group has a fully organized education system. The same does not apply to the Roma people, and this fact is already reflected in the researches on Hungarian Roma people living in Slovakia. It is characteristic for the majority-minority *coexistence* that even though they live in a same country, they do not know each other ´s culture, traditions. Roma people are treated as strangers by the majority and this is causing inhibitions in their behaviour. It is essential that the majority knows the culture of the minority and, on the other hand, the minority shall explore their own culture as well (Hangácsi, 2013: 116-118). Fundamental human rights protection is guaranteed by the Constitution of the Slovak Republic. From the study ´s point of view they would like to draw attention to three articles, two of which (Articles 33 and 34) apply to national minorities and the third (Article 42) to education rights (Szabómihály, 2002: 213). The following document, which is relevant regarding this matter, is a program statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic, which contains the agenda for the 2016-2020 Electoral Round. The Government's roles regarding the Roma minority are the following: the Government continues to pay particular attention to the integration of Roma people by 2020, the European Social Fund is mainly used to integrate marginalized Roma communities, with a particular attention to increase their educational level at the margins of society, and focusing on their education at the kindergarten (Programové vyhlásenie vlády SR na roky 2016-2020). It is worth mentioning the government program, launched in August 2006, which was promoting the preservation of minority rights, but also raised the importance of Slovak national elements. This was particularly evident in the teaching of the official state language and the consolidation of patriotic education. The government does comply with the legislation on general minority rights, but have no intention to raise them to a higher level (Šutaj-Sápos, 2008: 7-8.).

3 THE POSSIBILITIES OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION BASED ON FRAMEWORK

3.1 The Roma minority in the education

The most important body of the Roma education is the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic. The ministry´s responsibility is to manage the entire education system, including the legislation of certain areas of education. The government also makes efforts to ensure the education in Roma language. Article 33 of the Constitution and the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages guarantee for national minorities the education in their mother tongue (Szabómihály, 2002). An extremely important initiative is the Decade of Roma Inclusion, which was linked to the reform of the school system. This is closely linked to the “Millenium education and training program”, launched in 1999, which includes plans for the next 15 to 20 years. It emphasizes the reform of the education system, which favors the special educational needs of Roma children. This is the result of the conceptual material, issued in 2001 about the education of Roma children, which includes only the goals to be achieved in their education (Návrh koncepcie výchovy a vzdelávania rómskych detí a žiakov vrátane rozvoja stredoškolského a vysokoškolského vzdelávania). Based on this a governmental material was adopted in 2003, under the title "The current educational situation of Roma children and students". But the most comprehensive material, adopted by the government in May 2004, is a document containing integration concepts for Roma youth up to the level of university education (Koncepcia výchovy a vzdelávania rómskych detí a žiakov vrátane rozvoja stredoškolského a vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2008). The public education

document is including the regulated management of Roma pupils in education. However, this won´t prove to be the case if we cannot enforce these tasks and find the place where education for Roma culture can fit. The centrally approved State Education Program, issued by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic is a document including the curriculum, based on the classification of ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) grades. According to the law, primary education and education is carried out in accordance with educational programs. The state education program consists of two components: the state education program and the school education program. Public education in Slovakia is regulated by the law of public education. Since the content and objectives of work in education are regulated by the educational program, it is very important to know the areas of education, where the objectives themselves give an opportunity for multicultural education, learning about minority cultures and allowing an intercultural dialogue. If we take into account the number of Roma students in Hungarian primary schools, some schools require this opportunity, because of the high number of Roma children in schools. It is very important that fundamental studies on the integration of Roma people have come to light, such as the study of Elena Gallová Kriglerová: Dopad opatrení zameraných na zlepšenie situácie rómskych detí vo vzdelávaní ("Impact of the measures to improve the situation of Roma children in education"). In her work Kriglerová explains that it is indisputably wrong to classify Roma children into special schools and it happens mostly not because of mental reasons, but simply because this type of school is more accessible, less demanding in the curriculum and provides better scholarship options (Kriglerová, 2003). The pedagogical and organizational information (Pedagogicko-organizačné pokyny na školský rok 2018/2019), containing the pedagogical guidelines for 2018/2019, defines the principles of education for the Roma minority (Národný program výchovy k ľudským právam 2018). In the following chapters I will review the State Educational Programs on the website of the State Pedagogical Institute and focus on subjects and cross-curricular themes that are promising multicultural education and the recognition of minority cultures.

4 EDUCATIONAL AREAS

4.1 ISCED 1 — Primary Education

The educational areas of the State education programme are Language and Communication; Mathematics and Work with Information; Nature and Society; Man and Values; Man and the World of Work; Arts and Culture; and Health and Movement. The cross-curricular themes that should be included in education programmes are the following: Education on Road Safety; Personal and Social Development; Environmental Education; Media Education; Multicultural Education; Protection of Life and Health; Project Preparation and Presentation Skills; and Homeland and Regional Education, Traditional Folk Culture. The primary education programme is designed to prepare pupils for individual engagement and teamwork, to give all of them an opportunity to get to know others and, consequently, to gain personal experience of the significance of mutual respect and appreciation. The programme promotes the reduction of possible (health, social and educational) disadvantages in time, as well as the identification and support of the pupils' special needs, interests and abilities (including their talents). It is important to outreach to and support pupils with special educational needs, to identify these special needs in time and compensate for possible disadvantages (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 1. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 1 – primárne vzdelávanie). Pending the completion of primary education, the acquisition of those core competencies is made a priority which enable pupils to develop a harmonious relationship with the natural and social environment by improving their knowledge on the environment and, consequently, increasing their interest in their own environment. Pupils are enabled to recognise their own abilities and to acquire the methods for self-study and

improving self-awareness. As regards Multicultural Education, it is important to develop the pupils' value orientation and interpersonal skills in order to enable them to integrate into society, develop active social relationships and effectively cooperate with others (e.g. classmates, teachers and parents) in various areas of social life. It is important for pupils to realise and acquire skills that enable them to accept and respect others and diverse cultural values (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 1. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 1 – primárne vzdelávanie). Only those framework curricula and cross-curricular themes are dealt with below which contain recommendations concerning intercultural dialogue and multicultural education. This study does not aim to provide a comprehensive description of framework curricula and cross-curricular themes, but to highlight those of them which allow the inclusion of the thematic area of Roma culture in education.

The educational area *Language and Communication* includes the subjects of Slovak language and literature; national minority language and literature[3] in schools that use minority language as language of instruction; and foreign language[4]. The educational area is divided into three components: Communication through Language, Communication and Composition, and Literary Education. It aims to develop core competencies in order to improve the pupils' abilities necessary to support their self-confidence. These abilities allow pupils to acquire lifelong learning skills and, consequently, to become active members of the social and cultural life. It is important for pupils to learn and understand the given language that reflects the historical and cultural heritage of the nation, and its proper use. The learning of the language enables pupils to express their personal opinions and to arrive at a conclusion. In that context, the aim is to teach pupils the basic rules and patterns of intercultural communication used in the given cultural environment, and to create positive attitudes towards the language. As regards literary texts, the task is to develop competencies that enable pupils to develop positive relationships with texts from the literary canon and to acquire reading skills and other skills necessary for reading comprehension appropriate to their knowledge system. Pupils should have social competencies that improve their self-awareness: the importance of belonging to a nation, the fostering of linguistic culture, and the proper use of the language both in the oral and written form.

The educational area *Nature and Society* includes topics associated with two important areas of human life (man and society) that arouse the pupils' interest even before starting their studies. Pupils perceive the environment they live in, the nature, people, and cultures which are interconnected, interrelated and mutually influence one another. Two subjects help pupils gradually discover the world: science and homeland study. The subject also aims to draw the pupils' attention to other cultures and the diversity of cultures. The subject Nature and Society familiarises pupils with the country they live in.

The educational area *Man and Values* focuses on the pupils' personal development (physical, psychological and intellectual development). The aim is to enable pupils to define their own identity and to have value orientation that is manifested by respect for social environment, cooperation, prosocial behaviour, and respect for national values. The task is to prepare pupils for a harmonious and responsible family and work life and to teach them the behavioural standards of relationships in the society. The educational area covers the optional subjects of Ethic Education and Religious Education. The multidisciplinary nature of Ethic Education provides the opportunity for pupils to get acquainted with Roma culture. The aims of the subject include developing the pupils' ability to define their own identity, as well as moral education and improving their critical thinking skills. One of the aims of the subject is to increase the pupils' awareness of belonging to a community, to enable them to define it, to

[3] National minority languages include Hungarian, Ukrainian, Ruthenian, German, and Roma.

[4] Foreign languages include English, German, Russian, French, Spanish, and Italian.

foster national self-determination, and to enable them to establish harmonious and stable family and social relationships.
The educational area *Man and the World of Work* focuses on the pupils' creative collaboration. The subject familiarises pupils with folk traditions, crafts, and the production process of traditional products not only through concepts but through learning based on practical experiences.
The educational area *Arts and Culture* aims at the development of the pupils' identity in order to enable them to develop a positive attitude towards their own cultural traditions and historical roots, and to acquire skills that allow them to respect cultural diversity. The educational area covers two compulsory subjects: Music Education and Fine Arts Education. It aims to make pupils understand artistic and aesthetic values and their factors in everyday life, to familiarise them with contemporary artistic works and culture, and foster a stronger sense of cultural and historical identity. Pupils acquire behaviour patterns that they can use in their daily lives, such as respect for cultural and social diversity. Having intercultural competencies that are not only necessary for communication with the members of other cultures but also serve as a basis for the formulation of the pupils' own opinions, critical thinking and behaviour patterns is essential for successful cross-cultural communication (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 1. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 1 – primárne vzdelávanie).

4.1.2 Cross-Curricular Themes

The aim of the cross-curricular theme *Personal and Social Development* is to develop the pupils' self-awareness and self-reflection, to enable them to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses, to increase their self-esteem and self-reliance, and to reinforce their sense of personal and social responsibility even when they start primary school. Pupils learn to exercise and enforce their rights. It follows that they acquire competencies that enable them to respect the opinions, rights and needs of others. Social-pathological phenomena (chicanery, abuse, aggressiveness and drug use) are an important element of the cross-curricular theme. The theme aims at the facilitating of people-to-people contacts and the development of social skills needed in personal and social life and for cooperation. The theme can be applied within all educational areas however the pupils' actual needs should be taken into account in the development of the programme.
The cross-curricular theme *Homeland and Regional Education, Traditional Folk Culture* is closely linked to the theme Multicultural Education. The major difference between these two themes is that the former one deals comprehensively and in more detail with the tangible and intangible cultural heritage of Slovakia.
In my view, Roma culture can be best mediated under the theme *Multicultural Education* of the cross-curricular themes. Multicultural Education is one of the cultural environment-related themes that deal with Slovakia where the members of different ethnic, national, religious and cultural groups have been living together for centuries. However, the multicultural nature of Slovak society has never simply implied the peaceful coexistence of different groups; prejudices and stereotypes have always existed, and the various forms of intolerance, racism and xenophobia still persist. It is important for pupils to know the culture, history, customs and traditions of their own nation and other nations and to learn to respect them. Special attention should be given to disadvantaged pupils, as prejudices about different minority groups have been reinforced; it is, therefore, crucial that the discussion of ethnic diversity forms part of education in schools. Multicultural Education in primary schools focuses primarily on the development of the pupils' personal, social and communication competencies. The subject takes as a starting point the value of human life, individual values, the value of community that is the natural environment of people, and respect for individual

human rights and values, including the principle of equality, that are stipulated by laws in force. Multicultural Education contributes towards the pupils' openness to the world, and to the development of their critical thinking skills. Multicultural Education should take local conditions into account, and the cooperation with public institutions and other non-governmental organisations in the region is desirable.
The aim of the cross-curricular theme *Media Education* is to enable pupils to critically assess media messages on the basis of their experience gained. The acquisition of new skills required for that allows pupils to evaluate media messages, to select those messages which could be beneficial for their personal and professional development, to assess the negative impact of media on their personality and to prevent this negative influence (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 1. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 1 – primárne vzdelávanie).

4.2. ISCED 2 — Lower Secondary Education

The objectives at ISCED level 2 are almost identical to those of the primary education programme. The educational areas of the State education programme are Language and Communication; Mathematics and Work with Information; Man and Nature; Man and Society; Arts and Culture; Man and Values; Man and the World of Work; and Health and Movement. The cross-curricular themes that should be included in educational programmes are the following: Education on Road Safety; Personal and Social Development; Environmental Education; Media Education; Multicultural Education; Protection of Life and Health; and Project Preparation and Presentation Skills. I consider it important to stress, in this regard, the interdisciplinary character. Skills development objectives are to foster better knowledge and to develop the pupils' critical thinking and communication skills, and focus on their spatial and temporal awareness. The pupils' knowledge and advancement represent a starting point for acquiring new knowledge and competencies. The main aim is that pupils learn about the cultural heritage of the nation and of the world, acquire adequate levels of communication skills, and act responsibly towards themselves and others. The aim is the acquisition of problem-solving competencies that enable pupils to apply appropriate methods in solving problems based on critical and creative thinking. It is important for pupils to be able to define their identity and, as members of a community, to acquire basic team working practices. Consequently, pupils are enabled to assess and correct the consequences of their own behaviours and attitudes, and to apply general behavioural standards. The acquired cultural diversity skills enable pupils to understand the importance of art and cultural communication not only at the level of individual needs, but also for the society as a whole. They learn to respect artistic, cultural and historic traditions, familiarise themselves with the rules of social life (etiquette), and become tolerant of and show empathy toward other cultures. *Language and Communication* of the educational areas and *Man and Values*, *Multicultural Education*, *Media Education* and *Personal and Social Development* of the cross-curricular themes aim at developing the same skills and set the same objectives as at primary level. Therefore, these areas are not rehearsed in the description of the present level of education. The aim of the educational area *Man and Society* is to preserve the importance of the traditional values of society in the face of the ongoing integration processes. The aim is to trigger patriotism and to arouse national pride in the context of Europeanism and multiculturalism. The aim of instruction in this educational area is for pupils to learn the development of society and important social phenomena and processes found in daily life. Pupils learn to perceive the world in terms of interactions of the natural and social environment. They are introduced to national past and the nations of Europe and the world, the geographical features of Slovakia and of the countries of the world and acquire civic behaviour patterns through social and civic competencies. They learn to respect not only their nation, but also other nations and nationalities. The aim of Man and Society is to inspire

patriotism while making pupils understand the importance of building bridges between European societies and cultures. It is important to instil the acceptance of and respect for the differences between religious and ethnic groups in pupils.
The educational area *Arts and Culture* aims at guiding pupils toward enhancing awareness of their own cultural identity, as well as understanding and accepting other cultures. It stresses the importance of contemporary art in the pupils' lives and urges them to actively participate in the cultural life. Instruction in this educational area focuses on developing respect for people and other cultures. Accordingly, pupils learn to attach importance to social and cultural heritage. They develop responsible attitudes that help them to have an understanding of contemporary cultural offer: fashion, popular culture, and subcultures. In this educational area, pupils become aware of their own cultural identity and are enabled to further develop it.
The educational area *Man and the World of Work* aims at offering information on the world around us and the nature and acquiring competencies necessary for building self-confidence and skills necessary for assessing work processes and understanding technological and environmental processes. Its aim is to pass on general knowledge of the different areas of human activities, to familiarise pupils with the forms of physical and intellectual work, and to acquire the knowledge and skills required for that in order to enable pupils to use the acquired knowledge in their professional development (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 2. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 2 – nižšie sekundárne vzdelávanie).

4.2.1 Cross-Curricular Themes

The cross-curricular theme *Project Preparation and Presentation Skills* focuses on the development of competencies that are related to the pupils' communication skills; on enabling them to cope with different communicative situations, to argue, and to use and work with relevant information. It develops problem-solving, teamwork and collaboration skills. Its main objective for pupils is to learn to effectively work in a team and draw up a timetable for the completion of the given work (Štátny vzdelávací program pre 2. stupeň základnej školy v Slovenskej republike. ISCED 2 – nižšie sekundárne vzdelávanie).

5 CONCLUSIONS

It emerges clearly that State education programmes allow scope to include the thematic area of Roma culture and identity in education, as it is stated in the introduction of the State education programme that it is important to develop the pupils' value orientation and interpersonal skills in order to enable them to integrate in society and to be active participants in social interactions. It draws attention to core competencies in relation to equal opportunities, the importance of belonging to a nation, understanding of and respect for different national cultures, and fostering linguistic culture, to name but a few. I would like to add, with regard to the last one, that, dealing with Roma children attending minority schools that use Hungarian as language of instruction, the fostering of linguistic culture is of dual nature: the domain of language use for those who speak Roma is limited to small-scale family environment; the other aspect is the process of language loss and language shift which means that, in practice, many Roma no longer speak the Roma language and use the Hungarian language as their mother tongue. Language loss or language shift causes a certain degree of identity loss or identity crisis. In addition to all this, the different forms of the social exclusion of Roma people, negative stereotypes of and discrimination against them, as well as xenophobia, create an even bigger gap between Roma and non-Roma people. I therefore consider the inclusion of the thematic area of Roma culture in education through Roma folk tales and tales created by an author as extremely important. The reason why I deal with Hungarian primary school children is noted in the introduction. I would like to say a few words about why I have chosen tales. It is a known fact that tales have a therapeutic effect. I

do not wish to elaborate on the phenomenon in the present study, as numerous studies have been carried out on the subject.[5] Instead, I wish to conclude in a few sentences why the inclusion of Roma tales in basic education would be beneficial in particular for Hungarian Roma pupils living in Slovakia. Double minority status is the main barrier to the integration of Hungarian Roma living in Slovakia, as, besides being members of the Roma minority; they belong to the Hungarian minority. Tales can draw attention to the differences and similarities between different cultures, as well as to diversity, even in early childhood education. It is important for individuals to acquire competencies that enable them to better understand the differences between mainstream society and minority groups, to build tolerance in their lives, and to learn to respect the traditions of other groups. School education provides the best framework for pupils to acquire these competencies. Folk tales or tales created by an author give a comprehensive picture of Roma culture; the functions of primary socialisation, ethnic identity, religion, superstitions, traditions and customs, interactions within the family and outside the family boundaries, ancient homeland, bond with the school, and knowledge as an essential element for subsistence and living a decent life. Applying methodological approaches to research on tales would help, to a large extent, to draw attention to the differences and similarities between different cultures, as well as to diversity, even in early childhood education. Tales give insight in Roma culture; for Roma children, it would mean better understanding of their own culture, and it would contribute to the cultural enrichment of non-Roma people, and could be an intercultural bridge between them.

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DIFFERENCES IN A DARK PERSONALITY TRAITS AMONG STUDENTS OF TECHNICAL AND HUMANISTIC STUDIES

Radka Čopková

Abstract

The aim of the current study is the presentation of partial results found as a part of bigger research focused on norm-violating behavior performed in order to attain specific academic goal (Čopková, 2017). Present study is focused on personality traits that determine or rather say increase the likelihood of norm-violating behavior, specifically narcissistic and machiavellian traits. 319 university students have participated, 165 of them (M_{age} = 21,7; SD=1,78) have filled Narcisstic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Terry, 1988), 154 of them (M_{age}=21,57, SD=1,76) have filled Machiavellian Personality Scale (Dahling, et al., 2008). The sample consists of technical and humanistic studies´s students. Results have shown no significant differences among students of different study fields in narcissistic and machiavellian personality traits. The most interesting point is the fact that 1/3 of tested students shows narcissistic traits and ¼ shows machiavellian personality traits.

Key words: *subclinical narcissism, machiavellian personality, norm violating behavior*

1. INTRODUCTION

Albert Einsten´s quote says that there is no goal high enough that could justify dishonest methods of its attainment. Nicollo Machiavelli would not agree because he claimed that "Ends justify the means."

Nowadays there is nothing special to meet people who act arrogant or haughtily. It looks like they think about themselves in a high way, in their dreams they imagine how powerful and intelligent they are or present themselves as a special personalities. They not only see themselves as a superior and more important than others are, but they despise people who they consider as an inferior. For those people there is no problem to cheat or act dishonestly, because all they see is the win, hedonic indulgence or feelings of mastery. Unfortunately, we can observe the increasing tendency of this phenomenon in population worldwide.

The current study presents the prevalence if narcissistic and machiavellian personality traits in the population of Slovak students in humanistic and technical fields of study. The results come from big study focused on norm-violating behavior performed in order to attain specific academic goal (Čopková, 2017). Narcissistic and machiavellian personality traits were examined as a personality predictors of norm-violating behavior performed in order to attain a goal (Čopková, 2016; Čopková & Matyiová, 2016).

2. NARCISSISM

In its clinical form we consider narcissism as a personality and behavioral disorder. The most acceptable definition of clinical form of narcissism is provided by American psychiatric association (APA, 2013) that sees narcissistic person as one who:

- Overestimates own importance, skills, success and requires others to evaluate his or her in the same way;
- is in his or her fantasy busy with own endless success, power and beauty;
- is convinced about his or her excellence and unique;
- wants to meet only the people who are special in the same way because they are the only ones who are able to understand him or her;
- requires unappropriate admiration from others;

- reclaims the automatic fulfillment of his or her desires;
- uses others to reach his or her own goals;
- is not able to recognize the needs and feelings of others;
- is often jealous and convinced that others envy him or her;
- acts arrogantly and shrewdly.

In 1979 Raskin and Hall made up the new construct – subclinical level of narcissism. The authors wanted to emphasize the fact that in a population there is an increasing tendency to act arrogantly and haughtily but it´s still not enough to set a diagnose of narcissistic personality disorder. Later, the concept of the dark triad of normal personality - narcissism, machiavellianism and psychopathy - was developed (Paulhus & Williams, 2002).

Morf and Rhodewalt (2001a) see narcissistic personalities as ones who have temporary, exaggerative and fragile self-image dependent on social context and situation. They describe narcissistic self in the context of self-knowledge, interpersonal strategies and interpersonal processes. They add four new traits to the narcissistic personality description (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001b):

- The need of a positive reactions;
- reality distortion so it allows the perception of oneself as a better one;
- anxiety when the reality doesn´t reflect the created imagination of oneself (campbell et al., 2004);
- the willingness to sacrifice the interpersonal relationships of high quality because of high social status and appreciation.

Men compared to women are more likely to have narcissistic personality traits (Campbell et al., 2004). Researchers were also focused on narcissistic personality traits of students from different areas, for example medicine (Munro, Bore & Powis, 2005), law (Carney, 1990), economics (Westerman et al., 2011). Students of economics have showed higher likelihood to act in narcissistic way than students of psychology.

The narcissists suffer from the lack of self-control that contributes the inability to accomplish high self-regulation requires of their big and unstable self-concept (Block in Vazire & Funder, 2006). Vazire and Funder (2006) have brought the evidences that there is the clear connection among narcissism and impulsivity. So, narcissists are impulsive, impatient, unable to delay gratification and they have lack of self-control.

Narcissists are not interested in social norms, the morality is not the centre of their attention (Gerhardt & Le, 2013). Their goal is to adapt existing norms and self-regulation to the level they can fulfill their notion about their ideal self (Campbell & Miller, 2012). Their social behavior is focused on maximization of their self-confidence (for example by getting the admiration from others) as a part of proving their grandiose self (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993).

Narcissism is connected with aggressivity, because narcissists are sensitive to insults and prone to hostile reactions (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

3. MACHIAVELLIANISM

Machiavellian way of life is typical by the freedom in moral and ethical issues. Machiavellian personalities prefer their personal goals instead of general social norms. It means that it´s not so important for them to act in a morally right way.

Machiavellian personality type is characterized by willingness to take into account moral standards. People of this personality type see as valuable the behavior that is performed to the detriment of others (Jones & Paulhus, 2009). It´s not immorality in the meaning of manipulation or treason all the time, rather it´s the selective willingness to give up moral standards in a situation of opportunity to get some benefits (Dahling, Whitaker & Levy, 2008).

The most significant machiavellian traits were described as a cynical world view, the willingness to use manipulative techniques to influence and use others to get benefits. Machiavellian people see others in a goal directed way and take them as a tool for reaching their goals (Ali et al., 2009; Christie & Geis, 1970). They are more successful in social dilemmas solving (Czibor & Bereczkei, 2012), because they expect that everybody acts in order to fulfill his or her own needs and interests.

Machiavellians don´t feel guilt or remorse in using these morally ambiguous techniques in goal directed behaviour (Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe & Smith, 2002). This orientation doesn´t include only materialistic issues, machiavellians are willing to ignore rights of intellectual ownership and use confidential reports from work or other places (Winter, Stylianou & Giacalone, 2004).

Machiavellanism is deeply connected with cheating, it doesn´t follow rules about justice or ethical behavior. Wirtz and Kum (2004) found out that participants high in machiavellianism are more likely to cheat in service than participants lower in machiavellianism. Besides that, they more often accept academic cheating in its active way (plagiarism) or passive way (keeping silence if the mistake is in his or her favour) (Turnley & Mudrack, 2010).

Dahling et al. (2008) developed method to explore machiavellianism on the personality level. They described machiavellian personality by four key characteristics:

- Distrust of others – *"cynical outlook on the motivations and intentions of others with a concern for the negative implications that those intentions have for the self."*
- Amoral manipulation – *"a willingness to disregard standards of morality and see value in behaviors that benefit the self at the expense of others."*
- Desire for status – *"a desire to accumulate external indicators of success."*
- Desire for control – *"a need to exercise dominance over interpersonal situations to minimize the extent to which others have power."*

By developing of this method the authors have tried to eliminate deficiencies of widely use method of exploring machiavellianism – MACH (Christie & Geis, 1970) that works in its fifth revision (MACH-V) in this time. The main characteristics representing the machiavellian orientation relate to interpersonal tactics (Výrost, 1998).

4. METHOD

The aim of presented study is to determine the prevalence if narcissistic and machiavellian personality traits in the population of Slovak students in humanistic and technical fields of study.

319 Slovak university students have participated. There were students of humanistic studies – 239 (75%) and technical studies – 80 (25%). 165 students aged from 18 to 26 years old (M_{age} = 21,7 years; SD=1,78) have participated in the survey exploring subclinical narcissism. The sample was made of 56 men (33,9%; M_{age}=22,6; SD=1,7) and 109 women (66,1%; M_{age}=21,2; SD=1,6), 130 students of humanistic fields (78,8%) and 35 students of technical fields (21,2%). 154 students aged from 18 to 25 years old (M_{age}=21,57, SD=1,76) have participated in the survey exploring machiavellian personality. The sample was made of 30 men (19,5%; M_{age}=21,3; SD=1,24) and 124 women (80,5%; M_{age}=21,6; SD=1,76), 109 students of humanistic fields (70,8%) and 45 students of technical fields (29,2%).

Narcisstic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Terry, 1988). The questionnaire is made of 16 pairs of statements. All participants were guided to choose one statement from each pair that describes their feelings and opinions about themselves in the best way. The questionnaire´s key contains information which statements reflect narcissistic personality. For each narcissistic statement we counted one point. According to this questionnaire we have considered as narcissistic personalities that ones who obtained 8 or more points. As non-narcissists we have considered participants who got 7 or less points (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Machiavellian Personality Scale (Dahling, et al., 2008). The scale contains 16 statements reflects Machiavellian personality type that are evaluated by participants on 5-point Likert scale (1=strong disagreement; 5=strong agreement). The scale saturates 4 factors – amoral manipulation, desire for status, desire for control and distrust of others. We have used Slovak version translated from English original, reliability testing shows result 0,854 of Cronbach´s alpha. According to Narcisstic personality inventory we have decided to split participant into 2 groups - as machiavellians and non-machiavellians. As machiavellian personality types we identified the participants who got 49 and more points. As non-machiavellian personality typea we consider the participants who got 48 and less points.

5. RESULTS

In Table 1 we present descriptive data for subclinical narcissism incidence in a student´s population of humanistic and technical studies, gender data were added.

At first we aimed to test whether there is a significant difference in proportion of humanistic students and technical students that suffer from subclinical narcissism. Chi-square testing ($\chi^2(1) = 0,898$; $p=0,343$) have shown that the proportion of humanistic students that suffer from subclinical narcissism is not significantly different from the proportion of technical students that suffer from subclinical narcissism.

Tab. 1: Descriptive statistics of subclinical narcissism (N=165)

	narcissism						**non-narcissism**						**Σ**	
	M		**F**		**Σ**		**M**		**F**		**Σ**			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
H	23	47,9	25	51,1	48	75,0	12	14,6	70	85,4	82	64,6	130	78,8
T	8	50,0	8	50,0	16	23,5	13	68,4	6	31,6	19	54,3	35	21,2
Σ	31	48,4	33	51,6	64	38,8	25	24,8	76	75,2	101	61,2	165	100

H=humanistic study; T=technical study; M=male; F=female; Σ=total; n=number; %=frequency

Then we have tested collected data from two different points of view – gender and field of study. The results have shown that the proportion of humanistic male students who suffer from subclinical narcissism is significantly different from the proportion of technical male students who suffer from subclinical narcissism ($\chi^2(1) =4,051$; $p=0,044$). Male humanists were more likely to reflect subclinical narcissism. The results of women have shown that same - the proportion of humanistic female students who suffer from subclinical narcissism is significantly different from the proportion of technical female students who suffer from subclinical narcissism ($\chi^2(1) =5,493$; $p=0,019$). Female humanists were more likely to reflect subclinical narcissism. From the study field of view, the results have shown that the proportion of humanistic male students who suffer from subclinical narcissism is significantly different from the proportion of humanistic female students who suffer from subclinical narcissism ($\chi^2(1) =4,051$; $p=0,044$). Conversely, the proportion of technical male students who suffer from subclinical narcissism is not significantly different from the proportion of technical female students who suffer from subclinical narcissism ($\chi^2(1) =1,228$; $p=0,268$).

In Table 2 we present descriptive data for Machiavellian personality type incidence in a student´s population of humanistic and technical studies, gender data were added.

Tab. 2: Descriptive statistics of machiavellian personality type (N=154)

	machiavellianism						**non-machiavellianism**						**Σ**	
	M		**F**		**Σ**		**M**		**F**		**Σ**			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
H	3	10,7	25	89,3	28	25,7	13	16	68	84	81	74,3	109	70,8
T	4	40	6	60	10	22,2	10	28,6	25	71,4	35	77,8	45	29,2
Σ	7	18,4	31	81,6	38	24,7	23	19,8	93	80,2	116	75,3	154	100

*H=humanistic study; T=technical study; M=male; F=female; **Σ**=total; n=number; %=frequency*

Secondly we aimed to test whether there is a significant difference in proportion of humanistic students and technical students who reflect machiavellian personality type. Chi-square testing ($\chi^2(1) = 0,206$; $p=0,650$) have shown that the proportion of humanistic students who reflect Machiavellian personality type is not significantly different from the proportion of technical students who reflect machiavellian personality type.

Then we have tested collected data from two different points of view again – gender and field of studies. The results have shown that the proportion of humanistic male students who reflect machiavellian personality type is not significantly different from the proportion of technical male students who reflect machiavellian personality type ($\chi^2(1) =0,403$; $p=0,526$). The results of women have shown that same - the proportion of humanistic female students who reflect machiavellian personality type is not significantly different from the proportion of technical female students who reflect Machiavellian personality type ($\chi^2(1) =0,703$; $p=0,402$). From the study field of view, the results have shown that the proportion of humanistic male students who reflect machiavellian personality type is not significantly different from the proportion of humanistic female students who reflect machiavellian personality type ($\chi^2(1) =0,473$; $p=0,492$). The proportion of technical male students who reflect machiavellian personality type is not significantly different from the proportion of technical female students who reflect machiavellian personality type ($\chi^2(1) =0,474$; $p=0,491$).

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of presented study was the determination of the prevalence of narcissistic and machiavellian personality traits in the population of Slovak students in humanistic and technical fields of study.

Our results have shown that in a population of Slovak university students there is approximately one third suffering from subclinical narcissistic personality disorder – in our sample there were 38,8% narcissistic students – and approximately one quarter reflecting machiavellian personality type – in our sample there were 24,7% machiavellian students. In narcissistic student population we found 75% students of humanistic studies and 25% students of technical studies. In machiavellian student population we found 73,7% students of humanistic studies and 26,3% students of technical studies. We admit that our results are determined by disproportion of the sample - we have tested subclinical narcissism on the sample of 78,8% humanistic and 21,2% technical students; machiavellianism on the sample of 70,8% humanistic and 29,2% technical students. The general testing didn´t prove any significant differences in proportions of subclinical narcissism and machiavellian personality type in a population of humanistic and technical students. On the other hand, the testing of the differences in a proportions due to different aspects brought the upcoming results: Male humanists were more likely to reflect subclinical narcissism compared to male technicians. Female humanists were more likely to reflect subclinical narcissism compared to female

technicians . Male humanists were more likely to reflect subclinical narcissism compared to female humanists. No more significant results were found.
Our results doesn´t agree with the results of Park (2003) who claimed that students of technical fields are more likely to cheat and willing to do a plagiarism, what is the kind of behaviour strongly connected with narcissistic (Carney, 1990; Munro, Bore & Powis, 2005; Westerman et al., 2011) and machiavellian traits (Turnley & Mudrack, 2010). However, it´s likely that our results are strongly influenced by the disproportion of the sample. On the other hand, our results about gender in the population of humanistic students support previous findings of Campbell et al. (2004) who said that men compared to women are more likely to have narcissistic personality traits.

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INTELIGENCIA U DETÍ SO ŠPECIFICKÝMI PORUCHAMI UČENIA

INTELLIGENCE AMONG CHILDREN WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DISABILITIES

Mária Jančiarová, Marta Popelková

Abstrakt

Cieľom príspevku je zmapovať úroveň inteligencie u detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia. Skúmanie intelektových schopností prostredníctvom štandardizovaných inteligenčných testov je nevyhnutným krokom na identifikovanie predností a nedostatkov u detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia (Polleti, 2014). Výskumu sa zúčastnilo 77 detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia vo veku od 7-15 rokov (M=10.35, SD=2.58). Úroveň inteligencie sme zaznamenávali prostredníctvom Wechslerovej škály na meranie inteligencie pre deti (WISC III). Výsledky ukazujú, že úroveň inteligencie u detí s poruchami učenia sa líši od štandardizačnej vzorky. Najľahší subtest s najvyšším dosiahnutým skóre bol Doplňovanie obrázkov, najťažší s najnižším dosiahnutým skóre bol subtest Aritmetika.

Kľíčová slova: *špecifické poruchy učenia, inteligencia, Wechslerova škála na meranie inteligencie pre deti*

Abstract

The aim of the study is to analyze the level of intelligence among children with specific learning disabilities. Analyzing of intellectual abilities through standardized inteligence tests is a necessary step to identify the strenghts and weaknesses of children with specific learning disabilities (Polleti, 2014). Sample consists of 77 children with specific learning disabilities aged 7-15 years (M=10.35; SD=2.58). Intelligence was measured by the Wechsler intelligence scale for children (WISC III). The results show that the level of intelligence among children with learning disabilities differs from the standardization sample. The easiest subtest with the highest score was Picture Completion, the hardest subtest with the lowest score was Arithmetic.

Key words: *specific learning disabilities, intelligence, Wechsler intelligence scale for children*

1 ÚVOD

Saklofske et al. (2016) uvádza, že definícia špecifických porúch učenia (ŠPU) sa neustále vyvíja. V najnovšej piatej edícii DSM 5 (Americká psychiatrická asociácia, 2013), sú špecifické poruchy učenia zahrnuté do samostatnej zastrešujúcej diagnostickej kategórie (špecifické poruchy učenia – specific learning disorders, SLD). Táto kategória zahrňuje deficity, ktoré ovplyvňujú akademický výkon. Tannock (2013) uvádza, že klasifikácia v DSM 5 vychádza z toho, že špecifické poruchy učenia sú charakteristické viacerými znakmi týkajúcimi sa genetického hľadiska, rizikových faktorov prostredia, vývinových znakov, komorbidity a kognitívnych nedostatkov, najmä pracovnej pamäte a rýchlosti spracovania (Schuchardt, Maehler & Hasselhorn, 2008; Wilcutt a kol., 2010; Wilcutt et al., 2013). DSM 5 klasifikácia zahŕňa podtypy špecifických porúch učenia, konkrétne špecifické poruchy učenia s poruchou v čítaní 315.0, špecifické poruchy učenia s poruchou v matematike 315.1, špecifické poruchy učenia s poruchou v písanom prejave 315.2.

Nevyhnutný krok v procese diagnostiky ŠPU predstavuje skúmanie intelektových schopností prostredníctvom štandardizovaných inteligenčných testov a to z dôvodu preskúmania intelektového narušenia a identifikovania kognitívne silných a slabých stránok dieťaťa (Poletti, 2014). Analýza inteligenčných profilov je často využívaná medzi školskými, klinickými psychológmi či neuropsychológmi (Fiorello, et al., 2002). Odborná literatúra je nasýtená rôznymi postojmi k skúmaniu inteligenčných profilov. Na jednej strane sú zástancovia celkového IQ skóre, ktoré je zmysluplné a zavrhujú analýzu jednotlivých subtestov alebo faktorových skóre (Bray et al., 1998). Naopak Hale et al. (2001), Sattler (2002) konštatujú, že profilová analýza na úrovni subtestov je užitočná k pochopeniu silných a slabých stránok dieťaťa a rovnako aj v starostlivosti a v edukačnom procese. Stúpenci analýzy subtestov (Kramer, 1993; Nyden et al, 2001) usudzujú, že skóre jednotlivých subtestov poskytujú špecifické informácie, ktoré v prípade analýzy založenej na faktorovom a indexovom skóre chýbajú. Bannatyne (1971) kategorizoval WISC skóre do troch skupín: priestorová, zahŕňa subtesty Kocky, Doplňovanie obrázkov a Skladačky; konceptuálna, zahrňujúca Podobnosti, Slovník, Porozumenie a tretia skupina sekvenčná, kde zaradil Kódovanie, Zoraďovanie obrázkov a Opakovanie čísiel. Následne uvádza, že deti s poruchou čítania dosiahli najvyššie skóre v priestorovej kategórii, priemernú hodnotu v konceptuálnej a najnižšie skóre v sekvenčnej kategórii.

Empirické zistenia sa zhodujú v tom, ktoré subtesty sú ľahšie alebo náročnejšie pre deti so špecifickými poruchami učenia. Aritmetika a Opakovanie čísiel sú považované vo viacerých štúdiách za najťažšie subtesty (Daley, Nagle, 1996; Mayes et al., 1998; Watkins et al.,2002). Iní autori považujú za najťažšie subtesty Slovník (Grice et al., 1999), Informácie (Daley, Nagle, 1996) a Zoraďovanie obrázkov (Beal et al., 1996). V najľahší subtestoch sa výsledky výskumov značne líšia. Doplňovanie obrázkov uvádza niekoľko výskumov ako najľahší subtest (Beal et al., 1996; Mayes et al., 1998; Watkins et al., 2002), Grice et al. (1999) uvádza ako najľahšie subtesty Skladanie obrázkov, Hľadanie symbolov a Podobnosti. Výsledky štúdií poukazujú na fakt, že deti s poruchami učenia dosahujú nižšie skóre v subtestoch Opakovanie čísel a Aritmetika (Daley, Nagle, 1996; Rotsika et al., 2009) a v indexe Pracovná pamäť WISC IV (Clercq-Quaegebeur et al., 2010). Kódovanie a Hľadanie symbolov predstavujú tiež subtesty, ktoré sú pre deti s poruchami učenia, konkrétne s dyslexiou náročné (Wilcutt et al., 2005). Štúdia o užitočnosti využitia WISC III v kontexte psychologického vyšetrenia ukázala, že celkovo 89% školských psychológov využíva analýzu profilov, a skoro 70% ju pokladá za prínosnú charakteristiku u detí s poruchami učenia (Pfeiffer et al., 2000).

Cieľom nášho príspevku je zmapovať úroveň inteligencie u detí s diagnostikovanou špecifickou poruchou učenia a následne výsledky jednotlivých skóre porovnať s normami štandardizačného súboru, uvedenými vo Wechslerovej inteligenčnej škále pre deti (Dočkal et al., 2006). Predpokladáme významné rozdiely v performačnom, verbálnom a celkovom IQ u detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia v porovnaní s normami. Zameriame sa na identifikovanie dvoch najľahších a najťažších subtestov vo WISC III. Na základe empirických výsledkov predchádzajúcich štúdií (Watkins et al., 2002; Rotsika et al., 2009) predpokladáme, že najľahší subtest, s najvyšším dosiahnutým skóre bude Doplňovanie obrázkov a najťažší subtest s najnižším skóre bude Aritmetika.

2 METÓDY

2.1 Výskumná vzorka

Výskumná vzorka pozostávala zo 77 detí s diagnostikovanou špecifickou poruchou učenia, 60 chlapcov a 17 dievčat. U týchto detí sa nevyskytovala žiadna iná komorbidná porucha. Deti boli vo veku od 7 do 15 rokov, priemerný vek participantov bol 10.35 rokov SD=2.58. Všetky deti absolvovali vyšetrenie inteligencie WISC III. Doplnkové a nepovinné subtesty deťom administrované neboli.

2.2 Metóda

Wechslerova inteligenčná škála (WISC-III)

WISC-III je základnou štruktúrovanou metodikou, ktorá sa v súčasnosti používa v klinickej praxi na zisťovanie úrovne jednotlivých kognitívnych funkcií u detí od 6 do 16 rokov a vyznačuje sa dobrými psychometrickými vlastnosťami. Psychometrické vlastnosti a dôvera v spoľahlivosť výsledkov WISC-III boli overované na širokom americkom štandardizačnom výskume a na britskej a českej validizácii. Podľa Dočkala et al. (2006) údaje získané vo všetkých troch štúdiách vykazujú veľkú mieru zhody, preto niet dôvodu sa domnievať, že by psychometrické vlastnosti slovenskej verzie testu boli zásadne iné. Vzhľadom na malú početnosť slovenského štandardizačného súboru nebolo v slovenskom projekte účelné overovať psychometrické charakteristiky WISC-III.
WISC III obsahuje verbálne subtesty – Vedomosti, Porozumenie, Aritmetika, Podobnosti, Opakovanie čísiel, Slovník. Neverbálne subtesty tvoria Doplňovanie obrázkov, Zoraďovanie obrázkov, Kocky, Skladačky, Kódovanie, Bludiská, Hľadanie symbolov. V našej práci sa zameriame na určenie verbálneho, neverbálneho (performačného) a celkového IQ.

3 VÝSLEDKY

Tabuľka 1 Porovnanie IQ detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia a štandardizačnou vzorkou

	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Verbálne IQ	77	87.82	14.61	27.05	1438	**<.001***
Neverbálne IQ	77	91.79	17.72	32.39	1438	**<.001***
Celkové IQ	77	90.73	13.50	4.25	1438	**<.001***

V tabuľke 1 sú uvedené výsledky porovnania verbálneho, neverbálneho a celkového IQ so štandardizačnou vzorkou, pričom sa preukázali štatisticky významné rozdiely.

Tabuľka 2 Porovnanie subtestov detí s ŠPU so štandardizačnou vzorkou

	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Doplňovanie obrázkov	77	9.44	2.89	1.94	1438	.06
Vedomosti	77	8.29	2.87	5.51	1438	<.0001*
Kódovanie	77	8.55	3.29	3.82	1438	<.0001*
Podobnosti	77	8.28	2.53	5.39	1438	<.0001*
Zoraďovanie obrázkov	74	9.38	3.53	2.34	1435	.02*
Aritmetika	77	8.09	3.09	5.60	1438	<.0001*
Kocky	77	8.69	3.07	4.14	1438	<.0001*
Slovník	69	8.75	2.36	3.71	1438	<.0002*
Skladačky	75	9.35	3.46	2.18	1438	.03*
Porozumenie	72	8.50	2.55	4.59	1438	<.0001*

V tabuľke 2 sú uvedené priemerné hodnoty, ktoré boli dosiahnuté v jednotlivých subtestoch. Najnižšie skóre bolo dosiahnuté v subteste Aritmetika (M=8.09, SD=3.09). Priemerne najvyššie skóre bolo dosiahnuté v subteste Doplňovanie obrázkov (M=9.44; SD=2.89). Štatisticky významné rozdiely sa nám nepotvrdili v subteste Doplňovanie obrázkov.

4 DISKUSIA

Zameranie sa na štruktúru inteligencie a jej meranie prostredníctvom WISC škál je dôležité pre deti so špecifickými poruchami učenia, ktoré majú problémy vo vzdelávacom procese

(napríklad matematika, čítanie) napriek vysokej či priemernej hodnote IQ. Fuchs a Fuchs (2006) uvádzajú, že IQ sa zvyčajne používa na zistenie rozdielu medzi inteligenciou a vzdelávacími výsledkami. Prostredníctvom WISC III škály je možné v relatívne rýchlom čase získať informácie o slabých a silných stránkach dieťaťa. Groth-Marnat (2001) uvádza, že existuje väčšia podpora pre interpretáciu globálnych aspektov a relatívne menšia pre interpretáciu špecifickejších detailov. Preto sa vyššia spoľahlivosť vníma pri interpretácii IQ skóre a indexových skóre. Na druhej strane analýza skóre jednotlivých subtestov by sa mala považovať za hypotézu potrebnú ďalšieho potvrdenia. Niektorí autori sa domnievajú, že profilová analýza by mala byť súčasťou interpretácie WISC škál, nakoľko ponúka najjasnejší popis silných a slabých stránok (Lezak, 1988, 1995, Kaufman, 1990, 1994, Groth-Marnat a kol., 2000). Práve toto je dôležitá otázka pri vyšetrení detí s poruchami učenia, ktoré zahŕňa porozumenie konkrétnych špecifických predností a nedostatkov, ktoré súvisia s touto poruchou (Groth-Marnat, 2001).

Našu výskumnú vzorku tvorilo 77,9% chlapcov a 22,1% dievčat. Ako uvádza literatúra (Daley, Nagle, 1996; Watkins et al., 2002), špecifické poruchy učenia sa vyskytujú častejšie u chlapcov v pomere 3:1. Deti so špecifickými poruchami učenia dosiahli nižšie skóre vo verbálnom IQ než v neverbálnom (performačnom). Keďže jednotlivci s poruchami učenia majú problémy vo výchovno-vzdelávacej oblasti, možno očakávať, že verbálne subtesty budú nižšie ako neverbálne (performačné). Niekoľko štúdií s WISC a WISC III poskytlo tejto hypotéze podporu (Daley, Nagle, 1966). Pri porovnaní dosiahnutého verbálneho, neverbálneho a celkového IQ detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia s normami (Wechslerova inteligenčná škála; Dočkal et al., 2006) sa preukázali štatisticky významné rozdiely. Priemerné hodnoty dosiahnuté v jednotlivých subtestoch, okrem subtestu Doplňovanie obrázkov boli signifikantne nižšie v porovnaní s normami. Najnižšie dosiahnuté skóre sme zaznamenali v subteste Aritmetika, čo sa zhoduje s výsledkami viacerých realizovaných štúdií (Beal et al., 1996; Grice et al., 1999; Mayes et al., 1998; Prifitera&Dersh, 1993;Ward et al., 1999;Watkins et al., 2002); nasledoval subtest Podobnosti a Vedomosti. Tieto subtesty sú verbálne. Subtest Aritmetika vyžaduje schopnosť matematického úsudku, koncentrácie a krátkodobej pamäte, Podobnosti majú vzťah k abstraktnému mysleniu a môžu byť ovplyvnené učením a subtest Vedomosti závisí na schopnosti získavať informácie, na schopnosti učiť sa uchovávať informácie v pamäti. Ako uvádza Rotsika et al. (2009), väčšina štúdií sa zhoduje v najťažších položkách, nezhodujú sa v subtestoch považovaných za ľahšie. Autori uvádzajú ako najľahšie subtesty Podobnosti a Doplňovanie obrázkov. Autori (Beal et al., 1996) udávajú subtest Zoraďovanie obrázkov ako jeden z najľahších, v našom výskume sme Zoraďovanie obrázkov zaznamenali ako druhý najľahší. Subtest Podobnosti Grice et al. (1999) udáva ako jeden z najťažších subtestov, v našom prípade je to druhý najťažší subtest. Najvyššie dosiahnuté priemerné skóre sme zaznamenali v subteste Doplňovanie obrázkov, po ňom nasledoval subtest Zoraďovanie obrázkov a Skladačky. Všetky subtesty sú neverbálne (performačné). Doplňovanie obrázkov zachytáva úroveň zrakovej percepcie, pozornosti a vizuálnu pamäť. Zoraďovanie obrázkov meria úroveň neverbálneho úsudku a závisí od úrovne zrakovej percepcie a pozornosti a subtest Skladačky zachytáva praktický úsudok a manuálnu zručnosť. Výsledky výskumov uvádzajú ako najľahšie subtesty Skladačky (Prifitera et al., 1993; Watkins et al., 2002), čo je v zhode s našimi výsledkami, ďalej Kocky (Beal et al., 1996) a Hľadanie symbolov (Daley, Nagle, 1996).

Domnievame sa, že vyšetrenie WISC III u detí so špecifickými neurovývinovými poruchami (špecifickými poruchami učenia) má význam v oblasti klinickej diagnostiky. V relatívne krátkom čase nám umožní získať informácie o slabých a silných stránkach dieťaťa. Ako slabé stránky detí so špecifickými poruchami učenia sa na základe našich výsledkov v subtestoch môže javiť numerické myslenie, koncentrácia, krátkodobá pamäť, abstraktné myslenie či schopnosť učiť sa. Za Silné stránky na základe skóre subtestov môžeme považovať vizuálnu

pamäť, neverbálny úsudok či manuálnu zručnosť. Sú to dôležité informácie, ktoré je možné ďalej využiť v rámci výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu, aj v procese rehabilitácie. Základné kategórie funkčných nedostatkov u detí so ŠPU ovplyvňujú nielen kognitívny, ale aj psychický vývin. Napr. problémy v oblasti koncentrácie pozornosti a menšia odolnosť voči záťaži môžu negatívne ovplyvniť motiváciu dieťaťa k učeniu. Pri súčasnom trende zefektívňovania výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu v školách je cieľom ponúknuť kvalitné vzdelanie všetkým žiakom. Na druhej strane vzrastá aj počet detí s diagnózou špecifických porúch učenia. Preto je potrebné zaoberať sa ich efektívnym fungovaním v rámci výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu.

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Kontaktní údaje

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VNÍMANIE OCHORENIA AKO MODERÁTOR VZŤAHU OSOBNOSTNÝCH CHARAKTERISTÍK A KVALITY ŽIVOTA

ILLNESS PERCEPTION AS MODERATOR OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND QUALITY OF LIFE

Katarína Dančová, Tomáš Sollár, Andrea Solgajová

Abstrakt

Hlavným cieľom príspevku bolo overiť efekt vnímania ochorenia ako moderátora vzťahu medzi osobnostnými charakteristikami a kvalitou života súvisiacej so zdravím. Vzorku tvorilo 110 kardiologických pacientov, z toho 61 pacientov s diagnózou infarkt myokardu a 49 s diagnózou ischemická choroba srdca. Priemerný vek bol 64,7. Zistili sme, že vnímanie ochorenia ako moderátor zoslaboval negatívny vzťah medzi neurotizmom a kvalitou života, zatiaľ čo vzťah medzi extraverziou, prívetivosťou a kvalitou života bol zosilňovaný v pozitívnom smere. Vzťah medzi svedomitosťou, otvorenosťou voči skúsenostiam a kvalitou života nebol moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia. To ako jednotlivec nazerá na svoje ochorenie, môže ovplyvňovať vnúmanú kvalitu života rovnako, prípadne viac, než osobnostné charakteristiky jednotlivcov.

Kľíčová slova: *vnímanie ochorenia, osobnosť, kvalita života súvisiaca so zdravím, kardiovaskulárne ochorenie*

Abstract

The main aim of our work was to verify an effect of the illness perception as a moderator in the relationship between personality characteristics and the health related quality of life. The sample consisted of 110 cardiological patients, of which 61 with the diagnosis myocardial infarction and 49 with the diagnosis ischemic heart disease. Average age of respondents was 64.7. Illness perception as the moderator has weakened the negative relationship between neuroticism and the health related quality of life, while it strengthened the positive relationship between extraversion, agreeableness and the health related quality of life. The relationship between conscientiousness, openness to experiences and health related quality of life was not moderated by illness perception.

Key words: *illness perception, personality, health related quality of life, cardiovascular disease*

1 ÚVOD

Život s chorobou predstavuje pre jednotlivca záťažovú situáciu, ktorá ohrozuje jeho optimálne fungovanie, pracovnú, spoločenskú kariéru a celkovú kvalitu života. Ochorenie neprináša dopady len na jedinca samotného ale takisto na ľudí v jeho sociálnom systéme, najmä rodinnom. V príspevku sa venujeme problematike vnímania choroby u kardiologických pacientov ako faktora, ktorý zasahuje a modifikuje vzťah osobnostných charakteristík a kvality života.

Vnímanie choroby predstavuje spôsob, akým ľudia spracovávajú emocionálne a kognitívne reakcie na ochorenie. Ak človek pochopí vlastné reakcie, môže nasmerovať svoje správanie k zlepšeniu výsledkov choroby a k plnohodnotnejšej regulácii emócii (Broadbent et al., 2015). Ako uvádza Blatný (2015) osobnosť predikuje kvalitu života a jej pôsobenie je stabilné a

takmer nemenné v čase, no existujú kauzálne faktory, ktoré väčšou mierou vysvetľujú jej variabilitu.

1.1 Kardiovaskulárne ochorenia

Kardiovaskulárne ochorenia patria do skupiny chronických ochorení obehovej sústavy na podklade psychosomatickej etiológie. Sú naďalej najväčšou príčinou mortality na celom svete a spôsobujú smrť viac ľuďom ako všetky typy rakoviny. Prevalencia kardiovaskulárnych ochorení má zvyšujúcu sa tendenciu najmä u ľudí vo veku od 30-70 rokov (Kamenský, 2009). Chronické ochorenia výrazne menia život človeka a spôsobujú zmeny vo fyziologických, sociálnych a psychologických aspektoch. V dôsledku kardiovaskulárnych ochorení sú pacienti nútení prehodnocovať svoje každodenné aktivity a istým spôsobom zmeniť svoje doterajšie návyky v správaní. Preto vidíme dôležitosť skúmania psychických faktorov, ktoré môžu ovplyvňovať zdravotný stav a pochopiť charakter vplyvu osobnosti na vnímanie kvality života.

1.2 Vnímanie choroby

Vnímanie choroby predstavuje kognitívne reprezentácie a presvedčenia jednotlivca, týkajúce sa ochorenia ktorým trpí. Determinujú správanie a ovplyvňujú priebeh a výsledky choroby (Petrie, Jago, Devcich, 2007). Leventhal, Meyer a Nerenz v roku 1980 vytvorili model, prostredníctvom ktorého poukázali na spôsoby spracovávania emocionálnych a kognitívnych reakcii pacientov. Tvrdili, že emocionálne reakcie a kognitívne reprezentácie vedú k regulácii správania v smere zlepšovania zdravotného stavu. Vnímanie choroby nie je statickým a zmenám nepodliehajúcim konštruktom. Subjektívne presvedčenia o ochorení sú integrované už s existujúcimi schémami, ktoré sa odvíjajú od množstva faktorov, ktorými môžu byť individuálne prežívané skúsenosti s ochorením, skúsenosti v rodinnom prostredí alebo všeobecne zdieľaný názor laickej verejnosti na určité ochorenie. Preto pacienti s rovnakým zdravotným stavom a s podobným priebehom ochorenia vnímajú svoje ochorenie diferencovane (Petrie, Jago, Devcich, 2007; Mareš, Ježek, 2012). Podľa stupňa ohrozenia, ktorý v rámci svojej choroby vnímajú, pristupujú k riešeniu situácie a následne vnímanie choroby určuje smer a spôsob ich reagovania (Petrie et al., 2002).

1.3 Päť faktorový model osobnosti

Formálne vymedzenie pojmu osobnosť sa v psychológii diferencuje na základe vhodnosti a užitočnosti pre danú teóriu alebo výskum. Vznik a opis teórii osobnosti je v psychológii ťažiskovým bodom, nakoľko mnohí ľudia reagujú na rovnaké podnety rôznym spôsobom, a práve definovanie osobnostných vlastností prispieva k vysvetleniu rôznych foriem správania. Osobnostné črty päť-faktorového modelu sú dedične ovplyvnené, sú stabilné v čase, avšak nie sú vylúčené externalizujúce vplyvy prostredia, ktoré ovplyvňujú mieru manifestácie daných čŕt (Hřebíčková, 2011). *Neurotizmus alebo emočná labilita* je charakteristická sklonom vnímať realitu ako ohrozujúcu, ťažko zvládnuteľnú alebo problematickú. Vyznačuje sa prežívaním negatívnych emócii (McCrae, Allik, 2002). Vedie k problémom v adaptácii, vo vzniku menej racionálnych presvedčení a v neefektívnom zvládaní záťaže. *Extraverzia verzus introverzia* pojednáva o tendencii vyhľadávať energické a dôverné vzťahy s prostredím alebo s druhými ľuďmi. Manifestuje sa intenzívnou sociabilitou a prežívaním pozitívnych afektov (McCrae, Allik, 2002). *Prívetivosť verzus nepriateľstvo* predstavuje vlastnosti ako záujem voči druhým, podporu, láskavosť, kooperatívnosť, súcit a starostlivosť o ostatných, s opačným pólom predstavujúcim ľahostajnosť a nepriateľstvo, až nevraživosť k ostatným ľuďom (Steptoe, Molloy, 2007; Blatný, 2015). *Svedomitosť, poctivosť* charakterizuje orientácia na úspech a na prácu. Jedinotlivec je schopný ovládať a inhibovať spôsoby správania, ktoré spočívajú v dodržiavaní konvencii, vytrvalosti, organizovanosti a dôkladnosti (McCrae, Allik, 2002).

Otvorenosť verzus konvenčnosť spočíva v aktívnej predstavivosti, v orientácii na intrapersonálny a interpersonálny aspekt, v uprednostňovaní rozmanitosti, zvedavosti a autonómneho úsudku. Otvorení jednotlivci sú schopní racionálne spracovávať pozitívne aj negatívne emócie (Blatný, 2015).

1.4 Kvalita života súvisiaca so zdravím

Kvalita života súvisiaca so zdravím (Heart-Related Quality of Life, HRQoL) predstavuje multidimenzionálny koncept, ktorý sa týka sociálnej, telesnej, emocionálnej a duševnej pohody pacienta. Autori považujú kvalitu života súvisiacu so zdravím za prejav adaptácie pacientov, vzhľadom na ochorenie ktorým trpia a na nový systém a hierarchiu hodnôt, ktoré sú na základe ochorenia výrazne modifikované. Takisto predstavuje subjektívne hodnotenie negatívnych a pozitívnych aspektov zložiek zdravia. Od osemdesiatich rokov minulého storočia, kedy sa pojem začal používať, sa autori snažia definovať aspekty, ktoré sa preukázateľnou mierou dotýkajú psychického alebo fyzického zdravia (Kawecka-Jaszcz, Klocek, Adamczyk, Bulpitt, 2013).

1.5 Ciele výskumu

Hlavným cieľom výskumu bolo overenie moderujúceho efektu vnímania ochorenia medzi osobnostnými črtami a kvalitou života pacientov. Vnímanie ochorenia predstavuje dôležitý determinant vnímanej závažnosti ochorenia a takisto kvality života. Predstavuje kľúčový faktor, ktorý ovplyvňuje výsledky liečby, jej priebeh a následne prognózu ochorenia (Broadbent et al., 2015). Spôsob uvažovania nad ochorením spočíva v spracovávaní kognitívnych a emocionálnych reakcii, ktoré vytvárajú koncepčný rámec a následne podmieňuje spôsoby správania sa pacientov (Stafford et al., 2009). Je známe, že situačné faktory ako napríklad rodinný stav alebo socioekonomická situácia predikujú kvalitu života, avšak autori zdôrazňujú, že osobnostné črty výraznejšie predikujú úroveň kvality života (Pavot, Diener, 2011). Zámerom bolo zistiť či vzťah medzi osobnostnými črtami a kvalitou života bude moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia. Osobnostné charakteristiky a aj vnímanie ochorenia predikujú kvalitu života pacientov. Skúmame, akým spôsobom by mohol byť vzťah medzi osobnosťou a kvalitou života modifikovaný prostredníctvom samotného vnímania ochorenia.

2 METÓDY

2.1 Výskumná vzorka

Výskumnú vzorku tvorilo 110 kardiologických pacientov s diagnózou ischemická choroba srdca a infarkt myokardu. Výskumnú vzorku tvorilo 61 pacientov s diagnózou infarkt myokardu a 49 pacientov s diagnózou ischemická choroba srdca. Rozpätie veku respondentov sa pohybovali od 41 do 83 rokov (M = 64,74, SD = 8,79). Vzorka bola tvorená pacientami liečenými v špecializovanej ambulantnej zdravotnej starostlivosti. Vzorku tvorili pacienti súkromnej polikliniky, všeobecnej polikliniky a všeobecnej nemocnice s poliklinikou. Pacienti boli do výskumu zaradení zámerným výberom.

2.2 Metodiky

Osobnostné charakteristiky sme zisťovali dotazníkom *Mini-IPIP*, ktorý zisťuje päť osobnostných čŕt: neurotizmus, extraverzia, svedomitosť, prívetivosť a otvorenosť. Obsahuje 20 položiek, kde respondenti odpovedajú do akej miery ich dané tvrdenia vystihujú od 1 = vôbec nevystihuje po 5 = úplne vystihuje. Kvalitu života sme zisťovali dotazníkom Heart-Related Quality of Life (Oldridge et al., 2012). Obsahuje 14 otázok, ktoré zisťujú mieru ťažkostí vzťahujúcich sa k ochoreniu srdca za posledné štyri týždne. Respondenti odpovedajú na škále od 0 (nízka kvalita života) po 3 (vysoká kvalita života). Vnímanie ochorenia sme

zisťovali metodikou The Brief Illness Perception Questionnaire (B-IPQ). Ide o sebavýpoveďový dotazník, ktorý zisťuje presvedčenia o 9 dimenziách: choroba ako dôsledok, trvanie, osobná kontrola, liečiteľnosť, identita, obavy, zrozumiteľnosť, emocionálny stav, a príčina vzniku ochorenia. Pacienti odpovedajú na 10-bodovej škále Likertovho typu. Čím je dosiahnuté skóre vyššie tým respondent negatívnejšie vníma svoje ochorenie.

2.3 Priebeh a realizácia výskumu

Zber dát prebiehal počas troch mesiacov. Zdravotnícke zariadenia, resp. ich etické komisie súhlasili s realizáciou výskumu. Do výskumu boli pacienti zahrnutý anonymne a dobrovoľne. Zber dát prebiehal v priestoroch čakární daných ambulancii, kde sme dotazníky vypĺňali spolu s pacientmi, individuálnou formou.

2.4 Procedúry analýzy dát

Pre štatistické spracovanie dát sme využili program IBM SPSS statistics for Windows 21 s programom PROCESS verzia 2.16.3 (http://www.processmacro .org /download.html).
Na overenie výskumných hypotéz, týkajúcich sa predikcie vnímania ochorenia prostredníctvom osobnostných faktorov sme využili lineárnu regresnú analýzu. Dáta spĺňali podmienky použitia lineárnej regresnej analýzy (normálne rozloženie dát, odstránenie vybočujúcich meraní, homoskedasticita dát a autokorelácie hodnôt závislých premenných).
Na overovanie moderujúceho efektu sme použili moderačnú analýzu, ktorá pracuje na princípe viacnásobných lineárnych regresných analýz. Moderačná analýza predpokladá vzťah medzi nezávislou (X) a závislou premennou (Y), kde tento vzťah je moderovaný treťou premennou (M), ktorá vzťah zoslabuje, zosilňuje alebo otáča, teda špecifikuje podmienky, za ktorých daný prediktor súvisí s výsledkom. Moderátor nadobúda rôzne hodnoty, ktoré môžu meniť kauzálny vzťah medzi X a Y. Nezávislou premennou boli osobnostné charakteristiky, závislou premennou kvalita života a moderátorom bolo vnímanie ochorenia. Aanalýzu sme realizovali pre jednotlivé osobnostné charakteristiky samostatne.

3 VÝSLEDKY

V prvom bloku uvádzame výsledok osobnostnej črty ako prediktora kvality života, a v druhom bloku uvádzame výsledok moderačnej analýzy. Tabuľky a grafy uvádzame len pri signifikantných zisteniach.

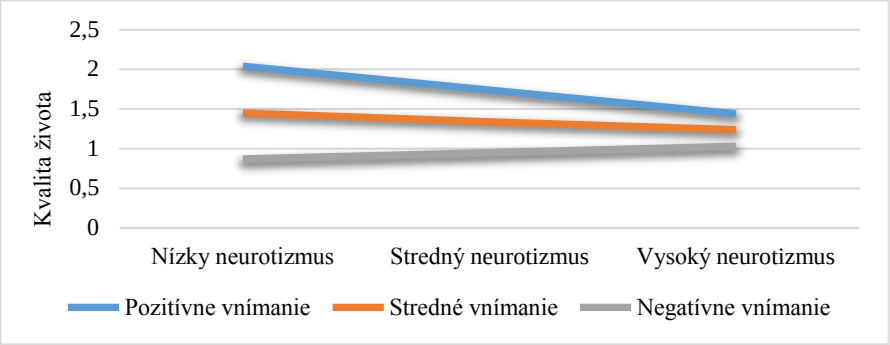
3.1 Vzťah neurotizmu a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Blok 1: Neurotizmus (β = -0,43, $p < 0,001$) negatívne predikuje kvalitu života. 19,1 % variability kvality života vieme vysvetliť prostredníctvom neurotizmu.

Tabuľka 1: Vzťah medzi neurotizmom a kvalitou života (n=108)

BLOK		***B***	***SE***	***β***	***T***	***p***	R^2	$Adj.R^2$	ΔR^2
1	*Neurotizmus*	-0,08	0,01	-0,43	-4,99	<0,001	0,191	0,183	
	Vnímanie choroby	-0,03	0,01	-0,52	-5,83	<0,001			
2	*Neurotizmus*	-0,02	0,01	-0,14	-1,57	0,118	**0,425**	**0,408**	**0,057 ****
	Interakcia X x M	0,05	0,01	0,23	3,21	**0,002**			

Závislá premenná: Kvalita života. Vysvetlivky: n-počet, B- neštandardizovaný regresný koeficient, SE- štandardná chyba, β- štandardizovaný regresný koeficient, t- výsledok t-testu, p- štatistická signifikancia, R^2-koeficient determinácie, Adj.R^2- upravený koeficient determinácie, ΔR^2- zmena koeficientu determinácie



Graf 1. Vzťah neurotizmu a kvality života pri pozitívnom, strednom a negatívnom vnímaní choroby

Blok 2: Premenné sa podieľajú na vysvetlení variancie kvality života R2 = 42,5 %, F(3,104)= 26,65, p< 0,001. Premenná interakcie pozitívne predikuje kvalitu života (β = 0,239, p < 0,01). Neurotizmus signifikantne pozitívne predikuje kvalitu života len pri pozitívnom vnímaní ochorenia (B = -0,07, p < 0,01), no nie pri strednom (B= - 0,02, p > 0,05) a negatívnom vnímaní (B = 0,02, p> 0,05) (graf 1). Vnímanie ochorenia štatisticky významne moderuje, tzn. zoslabuje, negatívny vzťah medzi neurotizmom a kvalitou života. Premenná interakcie vysvetľuje ďalších 5,7% rozptylu kvality života.

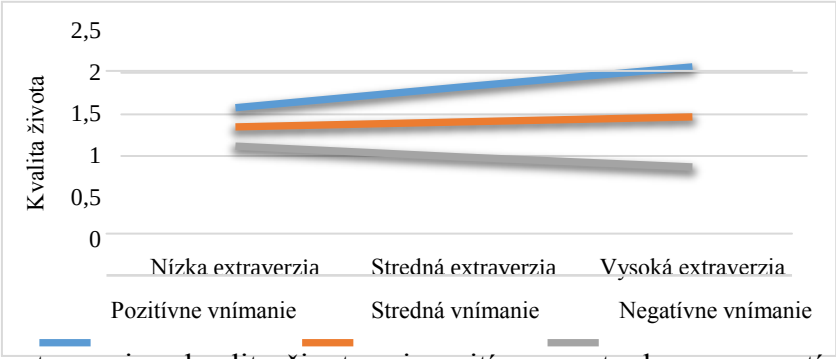
3.2 Vzťah extraverzie a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Blok 1: Extraverzia (β = 0,362, p< 0,001) pozitívne predikuje kvalitu života. 13,1% variability kvality života môžeme vysvetliť premennou extraverzia. Blok 2: Premenné sa podieľajú na vysvetlení variancie kvality života R^2 = 42,6%, F(3,104) = 29,62, p< 0,001. Interakcia extraverzie a vnímania choroby negatívne predikuje kvalitu života (β= -0,305, p< 0,01). Extraverzia negatívne predikuje kvalitu života len pri pozitívnom vnímaní ochorenia (B= 0,06, p< 0,01), no nie pri strednom (B= 0,01, p> 0,05) a negatívnom vnímaní (B= -0,03, p> 0,05) (graf 2). Vnímanie ochorenia štatisticky významne moderuje, tzn. zosilňuje, pozitívny vzťah medzi extraverziou a kvalitou života. Premenná interakcie vysvetľuje ďaľších 6 % rozptylu kvality života.

Tabuľka 2: Vzťah medzi neurotizmom a kvalitou života (n=108)

BLOK		***B***	***SE***	***β***	***T***	***p***	***R^2***	***Adj.R^2***	***ΔR^2***
1	*Extraverzia*	0,06	0,01	0,36	4,01	<0,001	0,131	0,123	
	Vnímanie choroby	-0,03	0,01	-0,50	-5,69	<0,001			
2	*Extraverzia*	0,01	0,01	0,11	1,03	.306	**0,426**	**0,409**	**0,060 ****
	Interakcia X x M	-0,01	0,01	-0,30	-3,06	**.003**			

Závislá premenná: Kvalita života. Vysvetlivky: n-počet, B- neštandardizovaný regresný koeficient, SE- štandardná chyba, β- štandardizovaný regresný koeficient, t- výsledok t-testu, p- štatistická signifikancia, R^2-koeficient determinácie, Adj.R^2- upravený koeficient determinácie, ΔR^2- zmena koeficientu determinácie



Graf 2. Vzťah extraverzie a kvality života pri pozitívnom, strednom a negatívnom vnímaní choroby

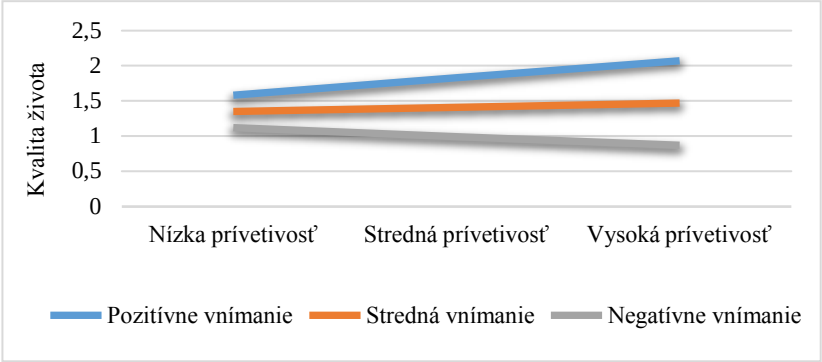
3.3 Vzťah prívetivosti a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Blok 1: Prívetivosť (β = 0,188, p > 0,05) nepredikovala kvalitu života. Blok 2: Premenné sa podieľajú na vysvetlení variancie kvality života R^2 = 40,5 %, F(3,104)= 25,60, p < 0,001. Interakcia prívetivosti a vnímania choroby negatívne predikuje kvalitu života (β = -0,210, p = 0,01). Prívetivosť signifikantne negatívne predikuje kvalitu života len pri pozitívnom vnímaní ochorenia (B = 0,07, p < 0,05), no nie pri strednom (B = 0,01, p > 0,05) a negatívnom vnímaní (B= -0,03, p > 0,05) (graf 3). Vnímanie ochorenia štatisticky významne moderuje, tzn. zosilňuje, pozitívny vzťah medzi prívetivosťou a kvalitou života. Premenná interakcie vysvetľuje ďalších 5,1 % rozptylu kvality života.

Tabuľka 3: Regresná analýza moderácie na vzťah medzi neurotizmom a kvalitou života (n=108)

	BLOK	***B***	***SE***	***β***	***T***	***p***	***R^2***	***Adj.R^2***	***ΔR^2***
1	*Prívetivosť*	0,04	0,02	0,18	1,97	0,051	0,035	0,026	
	Vnímanie choroby	-0,03	0,01	-0,38	22,32	<0,001			
3	*Prívetivosť*	0,01	0,01	0,04	0,90	0,365	**0,405**	**0,389**	**0,051 ****
	Interakcia X x M	-0,01	0,01	-0,21	-2,62	**0,01**			

Závislá premenná: Kvalita života. Vysvetlivky: n-počet, B- neštandardizovaný regresný koeficient, SE- štandardná chyba, β- štandardizovaný regresný koeficient, t- výsledok t-testu, p- štatistická signifikancia, R^2-koeficient determinácie, Adj.R^2- upravený koeficient determinácie, ΔR^2- zmena koeficientu determinácie



Graf 3. Vzťah prívetivosti a kvality života pri pozitívnom, strednom a negatívnom vnímaní choroby

4 DISKUSIA

4.1 Vzťah neurotizmu a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Neurotickí pacienti vnímajú svoje ochorenie negatívne, nakoľko požiadavky prostredia a spôsoby vyrovnávania sa s ochorením sú vnímané ako problematické. Schopnosť adaptívne zvládať záťaž je pre pacientov limitujúca. Pri neurotizme je charakteristická negatívna afektivita, nižšia frustračná tolerancia a nízka odolnosť voči stresu (Caspi, Roberts, Shiner, 2005). Výsledky moderačnej analýzy preukázali, že neurotickí pacienti môžu vnímať kvalitu života vyššie, ak na svoje ochorenie nazerajú pozitívnejšie. Ak prostredníctvom subjektívne menej ohrozujúceho vnímania ochorenia dokáže jednotlivec regulovať svoje správanie a emocionálne reakcie, aj napriek dispozícii k neurotizmu, môže byť u neho kvalita života percipovaná v pozitívnejších intenciách. Vnímanie ochorenia je možné prácou s pacientom modifikovať v pozitívnom smere rôznymi intervenciami. V longitudinálnej štúdii Petrieho et al. (2002) zistili, pacienti po šiestich mesiacoch intervenovania udávali vyššiu kvalitu života, ich prístup k liečbe bol výrazne lepší a takisto lepšie boli výsledky ich zdravotného stavu.

4.2 Vzťah extraverzie, prívetivosti a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Extraverzia je charakteristická schopnosťou zmierňovať prežívanie negatívnych emócii. Jednotlivci sa vyznačujú vysokou sociabilitou, kde zameranosť na vlastné problémy zachádza do úzadia. Sú schopní racionálne reagovať a hodnotiť svoj zdravotný stav (Straten et al., 2007). Prívetiví ľudia sa orientujú skôr na kvalitu interpersonálnych interakcii, sú viac uvoľnení a tým nezameriavajú svoju pozornosť na problémy spojené s fyzickým diskomfortom alebo väčším pociťovaním bolesti. Aj napriek tomu, že prívetivosť nepredikuje kvalitu života, vzťah je moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia, takým istým spôsobom ako pri vzťahu extraverzie a kvality života. Výsledky moderácie naznačujú, ak pacienti pozitívne vnímajú svoje ochorenie a takisto sa vyznačujú extraverziou alebo prívetivosťou, ich kvalita života je podstatne vyššia. To znamená, že pozitívny pohľad na ochorenie dokáže zvýšiť kvalitu života u extravertovaných a prívetivých pacientov. Môžeme usudzovať, že extraverzia a prívetivosť sú charakteristické schopnosťou racionálne regulovať emócie smerom k prevahe pozitívnejších afektov nad negatívnejšími, a preto môže byť kvalita života hodnotená pozitívnejšie.

4.3 Vzťah svedomitosti, otvorenosti a kvality života moderovaný vnímaním ochorenia

Obe osobnostné črty nepredikujú kvalitu života a takisto vzťahy nie sú moderované vnímaním ochorenia. Wieder-Huszlu et al. (2014) vo svojej štúdii zistili, že svedomitosť a otvorenosť najmenšou, skôr zanedbateľnou mierou korelujú s kvalitou života súvisiacou so zdravím. Svedomití ľudia svoje správanie orientujú na svedomité plnenie úloh, ktoré je pre nich dôležité a otvorenosť je charakteristická zvýšenou stimuláciou a aktivitou, prijímaním nových ideí a schopnosťou imaginácie. Ľudia dosahujúci vysoké skóre v otvorenosti majú menej zameranú pozornosť na emocionálne aspekty svojej choroby, sú schopní prispôsobovať svoje prežívanie okolitým zákonitostiam, vyvinúť snahu zmeniť svoje správanie, s ktorým častokrát experimentujú (Říčan, 2010). Jednou z podmienok moderačnej analýzy, ktorú sme použili je existujúci vzťah medzi nezávislou a závislou premennou. V našom výskume tento vzťah nebol preukázaný a preto vnímanie ochorenia nemoderovalo vzťahy medzi danými premennými (Hayes, 2013).

4.3 Limity a silné stránky výskumu

Za silnú stránku výskumu vnímame formu zberu dát, ktoré boli zbierané individuálnou formou a dotazníky sme vypĺňali spolu s pacientmi. Priamy kontakt umožňoval zhodnotiť vierohodnosť odpovedí, preto sa v analýzach nevyskytovali problematické odpovede. Priamy kontakt s pacientom však počas vypĺňania dotazníkov mohol spôsobiť, že na otázky

odpovedali v smere žiadúcej odpovede, podľa určitého vzoru. Limitom bol dotazník kvality života, vytvorený pre špecifickú vzorku kardiologických pacientov. Pacienti boli vyššieho veku, s ktorým sa zvyšuje komorbidita ochorení a pre respondentov bolo namáhavé odpovedať na otázky s dôrazom na ochorenie srdca a ostatné sprievodné javy, spôsobené iným ochorením ignorovať.

5 ZÁVER

Úroveň kvality života môže byť vnímaná rôzne. Rozdiely môžu byť spôsobené osobnostnými charakteristikami, ktoré určujú smer jej percepcie. Výsledky ukázali, že ak neurotickí pacienti nazerajú na ochorenie pozitívnejšie, hodnotenie kvality života je vyššie. To znamená, že kvalita života nemusí byť výrazne nízka u neurotických pacientov, ak sú presvedčení, že ochorenie výrazne neohrozuje ich život. Extraverzia a prívetivosť zvyšuje kvalitu života. Extravertní a prívetiví pacienti boli presvedčení, že ochorenie nespôsobuje výraznejšie prekážky v plnení si každodenných aktivít a takisto neprispieva k prežívaniu výrazne negatívnych emócii. Ak však aj títo pacienti nazerali na svoje ochorenie pozitívnejšie, ich subjektívna kvalita života bola značne vyššia.

To ako jednotlivec nazerá na svoje ochorenie, vo väčšej miere ovplyvňuje kvalitu života, než osobnostné charakteristiky jednotlivca. Aj keď sú osobnostné črty stabilnou súčasťou v osobnosti každého jednotlivca, pohľad na ochorenie ovplyvňuje väčšou mierou kvalitu života. Práca s vnímaním ochorenia predstavuje kľúčový faktor, pretože pozitívny pohľad na ochorenie zlepšuje výsledky liečby, spôsob prístupu k rehabilitácii a celkový priebeh ochorenia.

Aj keď väčšinu kardiologických ochorení nie je možné vyliečiť, obraz, ktorý si pacienti vytvárajú o svojom ochorení je veľmi dôležitý. Definuje ich správanie, ovplyvňuje priebeh ochorenia, kvalitu života, výsledky a následne prognózu.

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POST-TRAUMA RESPONSES OF TURKİSH PEOPLE LİVİNG İN SLOVAKİA CAUSED BY HATRED DİSCOURSE

Bilal Akbey

Abstract

The research analyses individuals exposed to racial and hatred discourses. Turkish people (Turkey and Macedonian Turks) living in Banska Bystrica region of Slovakia, a European Union member country, represent a research sample. The reason why this region of Slovakia is chosen as a sampling place is that the only nationalist party member governor of the country among 8 regional governors in Slovakia was elected in regional elections in this region. The data were collected by the means of a questionnaire and focus group interviews. While 60 individuals responded to the questionnaires, focus group interviews were conducted with 15 individuals chosen randomly. According to the results of the research, it is observed that 55% of the individuals are over-emotional, 53,3% of them have intense anxiety, 56,6% of them suffer from depression symptoms, 51,6% have distractibility disorder, 51,6% cannot control anger tension, 53,3% have self-esteem problems and 53.3% have sleep disorders due to experienced hatred discourse. Possible implications of this situation are suggested.

***Key words**: Hatred discourse, Post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms, Turks, Banka Bystrica, Slovakia*

1. Introduction

Racism, xenophobia and hatred discourses are aggrieving millions of people from every part of the world. Considering racism and hatred discourses, people are exposed to attacks every day and are being dragged into a psychological depression. These people, who have been exposed to discrimination and hatred discourses, can't live their lives at usual pace as other people do and usually go through a constant trauma. This can be called as post traumatic stress disorder emerging after racist and separating discourse. Racism, xenophobia and hatred discourses have traumatic effects mostly on children and women. The racist and separatist approach is not new to our world. Since the Second World War, humanity has been trying to combat with this problem. As racist and discriminatory hatred discourses not only hurt human dignity but also damage the ordinary life of individuals in the fields of social life, education and mental health. Individuals or groups mostly affected by such discourses are the ones who had to emigrate from the areas of deep crisis, wars and terrorism or who have a different approach, language, religion, race and preferences.

Present in every individual, hate is a negative emotion being felt against a person or a living creature. In short, hatred discourse is any form of discriminatory expression style targeting at a concrete person or a group. In this context, there is a big difference between the feeling of hatred and the hatred discourse. About this subject, Göregenli says that "it is necessary to separate hatred, which is a human feeling, and hatred discourse." (Göregenli, 2013, p.57). Even though the hatred discourse originated from the feeling of hate, trying to explain the hatred discourse just with its terminological expression simplifies its meaning. Although hatred discourse is frequently used expression, it is quite difficult to define it. There are different perspectives on this subject specific to the states. While some countries evaluate hatred discourse within the freedom of expression, the others interpret it as abusing freedom of expression with the statement that it is realized in direction of a certain ideology and purpose. At this point, it is necessary to find a solution within the context of international law and to eliminate this conflict. Freedom of expression should be restricted rather than being protected due to the possibility of including hatred discourse against other individuals by the

virtue of state mechanisms. The states, in this sense, have to take administrative and legal measures and put them into practice. When it comes to hatred discourse, the state mechanisms shall lose their functions of immobility and non-interference from the point of human rights within the context of freedom of expression (Karan, 2012, pp. 82-83)

Since we will conduct our study in Banska Bystrica region of Slovakia, which is a member of the European Union, we emphasize the importance of recommendation of the European Union Council of Ministers Recommendation dated in 1997, referring to the hatred discourse. With this degree, definition of the crime was defined partially and the limits of hatred discourse are determined. Accordingly, hatred discourse is defined as "any form of expression that emits, encourages, advocates or legitimizes other forms of hatred based on xenophobia, racial hatred, anti-Semitism and intolerance." (Alğan & Şensever, 2010, p.15; Karan, 2012, p.84; Weber, 2009, p.3). While the debate on this subject is still ongoing on the term is often described as a "category of discourse that includes advocacy for violence, hatred and discrimination against individuals and groups on the basis of race, color, ethnic origin, national origin, religious belief, sexual orientation or other statutory basis" (Boyle, 2010, p.65). As it exists in every period of history, one of the most important ways of understanding society today is the determination of the discourses used in daily life, for discourses construct societies and groups. While certain beliefs, attitudes, values, ideologies and ideas revealed through discourses strengthen the relations in groups, they also strengthen the sense of belonging and make the belonging meaningful. The discourse is never considered apart from the ideology. The powerful and governing groups determine not only the boundaries of human liberty in life; they also control people's minds with their discourses or direct them to the desired direction via enabling individuals thinking according to their will. As (Slattery, 2007) transfers Foucault's view, who searches the relation between discourse and governship, Foucault states that discourse is the instrument of creation, discussion, control and distribution of power. In other words, since discourse loves power and governship, it is impossible to consider it separate from power. According to Foucault, " there isn't a discourse without power and the discourse always overlaps with power" (Özulu, 2015,pp. 25-26). According to Cinar (Çınar, 2013, p.138), who examines the relation between power and discourse, the discourse is something that establishes and legitimizes hegemony, produces social rationality towards that hegemony, determines right and wrong, good and evil as social concepts, and places these concepts as ideological notions in the form of social norms. In other words, by trying to control the ideologies and the minds as it has drawn the boundaries through discourses, the power ensures the daily circulation of the ideological expressions reproduced in accordance with it. Hence, we confront with discourses especially in the fields such as racist ideology and prejudice. Hatred discourse is also spread on the basis of these ideologies and prejudices. For the group selected as a research sample the situations originating from the racial and religious discrimination will be investigated. "Prejudices lay at the root of hatred discourse and elements such as cultural identities and group characteristics influence the hatred discourse" (Alğan & Şensever, 2010, p. 15). It is not definitely clear whether the political preferences of people in this region of Slovakia originate from opposition to power or from support of racial discourses. Immigrants, coming from Syria and other countries in particular, heading toward Europe have increased the sensitivity at this issue also in Slovakia. At this point, especially in media, the news has caused to form the concepts of 'us and the others' between the immigrants and locals.

Personality characteristics, shaped by genetics and environmental factors are transformed into identities within the society to which they are attached. Societies are classified by power and status. In this classification sometimes race, sometimes religion and sometimes preferences come to the forefront. The group or community members in the higher position consider themselves superior to other groups. "As a result of social classification, the stereotypes are

formed for certain groups and some people react in a special way to individuals of the groups they belong to (Bektaş, Karacan & Alhan, 2015, p.38). Hate crimes come in sight as a natural consequence of hatred discourse. Hate, which is the cause of hate crimes and hatred discourse, is outsourced underneath prejudices, discrimination and stereotype. With hatred discourse, certain groups are always exposed to provocative, aggressive, discriminatory and angry discourses and thus to be alienated.

Hate crimes, which come in sight as a consequence of hatred discourse, are a crime of human rights. It is rather difficult to identify these crimes. First of all, identification and the evaluation of the attacker by the victim of these crimes are needed. If the criminal has acted with prejudices and targeted the victim according to his/her affiliated society or group rather than individual characteristics, then s/he has committed a crime of humanity. If the victim is unable to express himself or herself (physical disability, etc.), in this regard, eyewitness statements of the surrounded people become important. The ones who committed this crime of humanity reveal themselves with words, gestures and mimics. The offense clearly violates the right to life, which is the most fundamental right of the victims. Hate crimes leave deep traces within society. Namely, everything related to hate crimes, by its nature, is social; not only the understandings of assailants or the victims, but also the life style of all members, the understanding of the whole society and finally it is directly associated with the results of this understanding and as well as the ideology (Göregenli, 2009). As a result of hate crime, victims may be exposed to various negative situations. Hate crimes, unlike other crimes, cause negative psychological effects both on the victims and in general, on the society. In addition, along with the physical damage of victims by hate crimes, negative psychological consequences such as fear and perpetual stress shall be observed (Özulu, 2014, p.25). Therefore, hate crimes should not be unpunished. In this respect, the effect of trauma created by hate crimes is much higher than by other crimes. Because of this, when the legal regulations in different countries are glanced over, it can be noted that the legal sanction imposed on the hate crime is heavier than the punishments imposed on other crimes (Sınar, 2013).

Therefore, hate crimes should not be left unpunished. In order for victims being able to integrate into the society, it is necessary that the society protects and looks after the individuals within it. In situations where victims are ignored by the society, it can be concluded that the society favors the attack. This encourages the criminals and leads to the alienation of the victim. Encouraging criminals, this may indeed lead to repetition of hate crimes in the future. On the other side, it can cause victims to feel isolated and discriminated and thus to be filled with feelings of revenge. "Therefore, hate crimes may lead to the division of the society, depending on the differences such as race, ethnicity, gender, religion and may trigger social conflicts" (İnceoğlu, 2012, p. 109). In order to provide social peace, it is important to punish and combat hate crimes.

Some of the immigrants are also located just in the middle of Europe, in a democratic country, in the Slovak Republic. Slovakia is a place where warm-blooded and tolerant people live. Being a member of the European Union, the country undergoes a rapid change and development in all areas. In this country being tight-knitted to democratic tendencies, no verbal or factual actions have been encountered against foreigners so far. The refugee crisis that took place in 2015 affected the entire countries of the EU, as well as Slovakia. We are of the opinion that, the discourses of the political parties, the actions of a party in power and the way the media reflect these events have slightly changed the discourses and behaviors of some people. In this study, we will try to explain whether the Muslim Turks living in Banska Bystrica region of Slovakia, where an extreme rightist party had high voting rates, face discriminatory and exclusionary expressions in daily life or not, and what post-traumatic stress symptoms are revealed by the hatred discourses.

2. Method

In this research, quantitative and qualitative research methods are used together. Our research has been conducted via multiple individual and personal methods. The questionnaire is used as a quantitative research technique and the focus group interviews were conducted as a qualitative research technique. The participants of this research were Turkish people living in the Banska Bystrica region of Slovakia, and they completed the questionnaires in May 2017. 75% of the Turkish people who filled the questionnaire in migrated here from the Gostivar city of Macedonia, and all of them are individuals working in pastry and kebab business. 25% of Turkish people came from other parts of Turkey and settled down in Slovakia due to various reasons such as work and marriage.

In this study, we analyze the types of post-traumatic effects that Turkish people being exposed to hatred discourse and discrimination experience and how hatred discourse and the discrimination affect their lives. 60 Turkish people who participated in the questionnaire were randomly selected from the Turkish population living in Slovakia. Focus group interviews were also performed with chosen randomly 2 female and 13 male participants.

The questions of the questionnaire consist of the five Likert type answer choices (totally agree, partially agree, no comment, partially disagree, totally disagree). Before the questionnaire was applied, it was tested by conducting a pilot scheme with 10 respondents to assess the question comprehension by Macedonian Turks. Inappropriate questions were removed; the questions not understandable were changed into more meaningful and concrete ones. Focus group interview questions were based on open questions. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, and the study was conducted with the participants who were voluntarily willing to take part in the study. The focus group interviews were recorded and transferred into the results of this study.

3. Results

The emotional reactions that occur as a result of hatred discourse are considered normal if they have been observed within the first two weeks. If these feelings keep their presence and intensity after the first one or two weeks, this can lead to a possible psychological disorder. Traumatized people often experience feelings such as fear, anger, shock, helplessness, guilt, hopelessness and emotional apathy. The emergence of these emotions is described as a psychological harm that is caused by the psychological state. "Psychological harm is attributed to certain psychological influences such as hurt, humiliation, and feelings of self-harm on such discourses (such as hatred discourse)" (Uslu, 2013, p.192).

Table 1: The Impact of Hatred Discourse on the Emotional State of Individuals

I feel Myself Over-Emotional As A Result of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	15	25
Partially Agree	18	30
No Comment	-	-
Partially Disagree	9	15
Completely Disagree	18	30
Total	60	100

According to Table 1, 55 % of individuals express themselves as over-emotional related to the post-traumatic situation which came in sight due to the hatred discourse. The focus group interviewees stated that "they were afraid of being alone, they wanted to sit and chat with the people who share the same values from the same roots, their eyes were filled with tears even

in the simplest occasions, they got bored, their breaths were being constricted and they felt drowned. They also expressed that they look for a closest friend in their surroundings, they wanted to hear good words, they could not watch the news, they were constantly trying to be cautious and careful, they did not want to hear words like immigrants, war, racism, discrimination and they were sensitive to over-emotional situations." This pattern of emotional life extension can be explained by the preference of communication language based on dramatic stresses such as waiting for attention, not being able to be lonely and crying when they are alone. The individuals who are exposed to these conditions are over-emotional and psychologically in risk.

The first condition for post-traumatic stress diagnosis is that the individual is exposed to a traumatic event. The perception of the individual's severity of threat is determined by possible reactions that may arise in the later period. "The more an individual perceives the situation as threatening, the more intense anxiety s/he will experience" (Yılmaz, 2007, p. 140). Some of the symptoms increase the arousal response of anxiety, unexplained anger and restlessness due to post-traumatic stress experiences.

Table-2: The Effect of Hatred Discourse on the Anxiety of Individuals

I Feel Myself Anxious/Worried As A Result Of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	24	40
Partially Agree	8	13,3
No Comment	1	1,6
Partially Disagree	14	23,3
Completely Disagree	13	21,6
Total	60	100

According to Table 2, 53,3% of individuals say that they feel "worried and anxious" because of the situations they encounter in their surroundings. Individuals in focus group interviews stated that "their concerns have increased recently because of emigrants from different countries, especially Syrian refugees, have affected negatively opinions of people living in the European Union, the individuals were concerned about death, exclusion, loneliness and their families, they constantly felt that something would happen to their family members and sometimes they were subject to verbal harassment." The two men, whose spouses were dressed according to their own cultural and religious beliefs, stated that they were anxious of verbal harassment of their spouses and that they worry to send their wives alone to do shopping.

Depression has been described as a mental disorder. Along with depression, sensitivity to stimuli, entrepreneurial strength and self-confidence are dissolved and later replaced by despair and pessimism. According to Bibring (1953), each individual has expectations that s/he tries to achieve in order to be compassionately harmonious, valuable and strong personality. On the other hand, depression, as interruption of these expectations, represents a loss of power and beginning of helplessness situation perception. (Dilbaz, 2001).

Table 3: The Effect of Hatred Discourse on Depression of Individuals

I Feel Myself Depressed As A Result Of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	18	30
Partially Agree	16	26,6
No Comment	3	5
Partially Disagree	11	18,3
Completely Disagree	12	20
Total	60	100

According to Table 3, 56,6 % of the individuals said that they felt depression due to the trauma. In the focus group interviews, the individuals stated that "They have felt the fear of losing something, they felt empty and provided help seemed meaningless, their unhappiness increased day by day, they did not know what to do in the event of a civil strife that might have happened in Europe and they thought about it frequently, these thoughts dragged them into a dead-end vortex." These explanations display that these individuals are experiencing depressive feelings such as worthlessness, despair, unhappiness, indecisiveness, failure to act, unable to work and being guilty. These feelings cause disruptions in their lives and they were full of psychological harms.

Indications of attention problems may emerge at early ages or as a result of a lately experienced traumatic event. Individuals who have observed these problems have difficulty in concentrating their attention. Outward stimuli disrupt their attention and avoid them to be organized and fulfilling their responsibilities. Parents of individuals who have had an attention disorder since childhood often ignore this problem, emphasizing different aspect of the child and trying to bring it to the foreground. If attention problems and hyperactivity are not noticed and treated at the proper time, it might have negative impact on all their life areas from childhood to adulthood. "If depression and hyperactivity disorders are not treated, behavior problems and school failures of a child or adult due to structural difficulties shall continue. The risk of getting negative criticism from surrounding will increase. All of these will lead to the development of secondary problems in a child or adult´s life. In other words, school failures may lead to future failures in business life, and problems among friends and family relationships may lead to future problems in social relations and even in marital life" (Öner, Öner & Aysev, 2003, p.99).

Table 4: The Effect of Hatred Discourse on the Attention of Individuals

I Face Attention Problems As A Result Of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	19	31,6
Partially Agree	12	20
No Comment	-	-
Partially Disagree	12	20
Completely Disagree	17	28,3
Total	60	100

According to Table 4, 51,6% of the individuals said that they had attention problems due to trauma. Individuals in the focus group interview stated that "they had difficulty in focusing while working, listening or watching anything or reading a book, they daydreamed, they had difficulty in recognizing the people who greeted them in the streets, they forgot what they had planned to do and that they couldn't listen to a song or watch a movie till the end."

The basic emotion of anger is a primary response to unfilled will, undesired outcomes and unfulfilled expectations and it is very hard to control it. Anger is a result and it is necessary to understand the situations being the reasons of this feeling. "Anger is evaluated as a negative sentiment that is a behavioral style of emotional, cognitive symptoms and experiences that may vary from mild nervousness to hate and violence " (Güleç, Sayar & Özkorumak, 2005, p. 94) and is very commonly revealed due to post-traumatic stress disorder.

Table 5: The Increase of Anger Due to the Effect of Hatred Discourse

I Cannot Control My Anger As A Result Of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	20	33,3
Partially Agree	11	18,3
No Comment	4	6,6

Partially Disagree	10	16,6
Completely Disagree	15	25
Total	60	100

According to Table 5, 51,6 % of the individuals stated that they experienced problems with self-control of the anger due to trauma of hatred discourse. In the focus group interviews, individuals stated that "they used to be quiet and introverted personalities at first, but now they could not recognize themselves, they react suddenly and impulsively to simple stimuli, they raised their voices while being in difficult or stressful situations, their faces got red with anger and they were involuntarily squeezing their teeth and clenched their hands." These individuals who have participated in the focus group interviews also pointed out that "although it is frequently encountered with the discriminatory discourses which rise all over Europe, the individuals living in this region of Slovakia have raised their voices against those who proceed hatred discourses, and that the reactions imposed by the state institutions against hatred discourses give hope on behalf of their future".

Subjective well-being (happiness) represents satisfaction and joy from life, experiencing positive emotions more and negative emotions less. Individuals with a high level of subjective well-being, experience positive emotions more often, enjoy less painfully negative emotions and enjoy life. While positive feelings include emotions such as enthusiasm, honor, interest, joy, happiness and confidence, negative feelings include such as shame, being guilty, hate, hatred and anger.

Table-6: The Effect of Hatred Discourse on Individuals' Self-Esteem Status

I Face Self-Esteem Problems As a Result of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	17	28,3
Partially Agree	15	25
No Comment	1	1,6
Partially Disagree	12	20
Completely Disagree	15	25
Total	60	100

The change of living conditions is one of the most important factors affecting subjective well-being. As a result of this, the individual may begin to experience negative feelings more frequently. Negative emotions may lead the individual to consider himself as worthless. According to Table 6, 53.3% of the individuals stated that they had experienced self-esteem problems due to trauma. In the focus group interview, individuals expressed that "they felt themselves lonely and poor, that there was nobody who cared for them and valued them, they looked at life pessimistic, happiness is gone, they were alone in crowds and that they did not enjoy life." The positive and negative views of the individuals' life are also effecting social relations. It is observed that "Individuals with a high level of subjective well-being not only feel themselves better but also are more successful in interpersonal relationships" (Diener and Seligman, 2002, p. 81). The underlying reasons for the negative emotions result from the fact that individuals having these emotions have not been adequately satisfied with their lives since their early days. This can be alleviated, especially by contributing to the development of the individual and creating self-perception.

Sleeping disorder is defined as having difficulty in falling into sleep. People may have sleeping problems at some period of their life. If these problems are experienced for a long time and they affect the life negatively, in the future it may lead to conditions which are difficult to repair. These problems shall weaken the physical and psychological resistance and shall cause the individual to get sick more quickly, to lose energy, to experience lack of

concentration and decrease in the quality of life. Decrease in sleep effectiveness, prolongation at sleep latency, increase in sleep movements and frequent short-term awakenings are considered to be the indicators of increased stimulation during sleep, which is one of the main symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Akçay, et al., 2013, p.445). As a result of hatred discourse, an individual may experience an increased state of alertness. For a stressed person, the general state of alertness is highly elevated and the sympathetic nervous system is activated. In other words, it is difficult for a person to sleep who is under stress and sleeping disorders can be observed.

Table 7: The Effect of Hatred Discourse on Sleep Disorders of Individuals

I Experience Sleeping Problems As a Result of Hatred Discourse	N	%
Completely Agree	21	35
Partially Agree	11	18,3
No Comment	-	-
Partially Disagree	12	20
Completely Disagree	16	26,6
Total	60	100

According to Table 7, 53,3 % of the individuals stated that they had a sleeping problem due to trauma. In the focus group interview, the individuals who have experienced hatred discourse have expressed that "their sleeping patterns were broken, that they experienced nightmares, that they slept with fear and woke up with fear, while they were falling into sleep easily previously, now they experienced sleeping and awakening difficulties, they disliked the darkness and that they were irritated when they heard a clicking or a noise." The negative situations that come into sight of individuals who can't have a rest due to sleeping disorders damage not only their physiological and spiritual health, but also their social relations.

4. Result and Recommendations

There are various trauma reactions in individuals who directly face hatred discourse. These are called post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms. Post-traumatic stress can arise due to situations such as illnesses experienced at early ages, accidents, deaths, natural disasters, terror, war or hatred discourse. After these difficult situations, depression, panic attacks, anxiety, mood disorders, self-blame, attention and anger problems, loss of self-esteem and sleeping problems can be observed in individuals. Nightmares and hallucinations can be present; as well they may experience lack of concentration. As a result of deterioritation of quality of life and excessive excitement, problems such as alienation and hatred may arise. In this research, we have tried to reveal possible post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms conjoint to trauma that has arisen due to the hatred discourse and discrimination of Turkish people living in Banska Bystrica region of Slovakia. We can conclude that always more than a half of the respondents (more than 50% out of 60 Turks living in Slovakia) experience all of the symptoms (either physical or psychical) due to the hatred discourse. On the other side, the individuals who have participated in focus group interviews expressed that the Slovaks who have heard the verbal assaults against "the others" have reacted instantly to those who have preceded hatred discourses and that the steps taken by social institutions and the state gave hope for them on behalf of their future.

The results of the research also reveal that, the immigrant problem that Europe encountered after 2015 and the way that the media interpose it to the public have led to the increase in discriminatory discourses also within this continent. This situation has also affected Slovakia. The findings of this research together with the conclusions point at some problems in this country. If individuals exposed to trauma are not supported by social programs, the emerging

situation may lead to permanent psychological problems also in our school system. This situation may be very damaging to the educational experiences, social and emotional relations of children who are more sensitive in respect of emotional guidance. It may constitute an impediment to the point of view of children about their future, and their ability to fulfill their responsibilities. Providing the individual therapy to individuals who have difficulty in coping with post-traumatic stress and whose mental health is disturbed as a result of hatred discourse, is a need to help them to be able to live a proper life again. On the other side, it is necessary for children who have experienced hatred discourse to show interest, compassion and love by helping them to create realistic goals for the future, keeping them away from bad and harmful difficulties, threats and thoughts and helping them to change their self-esteem as well as instilling confidence. In order for them to survive the trauma experience, they must be given the support they need to restore their minds and hearts. The other point is to explain and teach them about the hate crime and its disruptive effects on all the involved. Therefore, it is important for individuals to be educated about multicultural tolerance and human respect.

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HIDDEN AGGRESSIVE ACTIONS IN SLOVAK KINDERGARTENS

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Abstract

The paper presents knowledge about a less described form of aggressive behaviour, more precisely about symptoms of hidden aggressive acts that were recorded by researchers in Slovak kindergartens within long-term test -research which was covered by VEGA project Nr.1/0452/18. There are Identifications, analyses, inhibitions of latently aggressive children´s actions in pre-school period. Consequently it points to concrete situations in terms of participants who are in the roles of victims and aggressors in the process of their activities.

Key words: *hidden aggressive, kindergarten, pre-school age*

1 INTRODUCTION

Although there are relatively extensive research about bullying in the school environment and a lot of theoretically oriented scientific, professional and popular articles, the basis of this text is about a specific and low-elaborated form of bullying. There are hidden aggressive actions that occur within the group against the individual or several individuals at the same time. From the experts´ point of view, the mentioned form of bullying has different terminology. The experts agree that despite the different terminology, that mentioned form of aggressive action harms the group's social relationships related to one or more individuals, and is an object of mediation processes.

Based on pre-school victims´ testimonies, latent aggressive behaviour is typical by the specific statements in described situations (Table 1), in which an important role is played by so-called message (important warning for the victim). The basis of the described metacomunication is to inform the (potential) victim about prohibition to participate in a particular situation and to inform the victim that his/her presence is unwanted. The prohibition itself, as it is mentioned above, is given by another person (sympathetic to the aggressor), and the way the "ban" message is carried out in a variety of forms - from verbal information to threatening (those ways of communication can also be observed in groups of pre-school children).

Table 1: Specific situations of latent aggression

Description of the situation	**The message for the victim**	**Generated significant statement** (the children's testimony was shortened but it expresses its meaning)
Common collective game	*No one will play with you!*	So I stood there looking at them. And they played and played. They smiled and whooped, and I just stood there.
Choosing a friend	*Nobody is interested in you.*	When was a choice, they always ignored me, and the worst thing was that my friends started to do it, too.
Birthday party	*If you come in, anyway you will be alone.*	I stood behind the door, I heard them to laugh, but they did not open me the door
Excursion	*You will sit alone in the bus.*	And I sat as they told me. Everyone looked at me when they thought I could not see them

At the swimming pool	*You obstruct, you have to be careful.*	Everyone poked me, “Sorry, you obstruct!“

Source: Own survey results

Acceptance or non-acceptance of the pupil by the group is within the competence of the aggressor whose communication with the group has specific features (Table 2). They describe latently aggressive action and some internal group rules are required and they should be accepted automatically, without rational justification.

Table 2: The most common aggressor´s statements against the peer-group

Significant statement	**Comment**
▪ *He will not play with us, we all know why ...*	The aggressor does not expect that somebody gives reason why. It is a fact that must be accepted without any critical analyses.
▪ *If he's a friend, he'll do what I say, because otherwise we cannot rely on him.*	The aggressor creates own rules for choosing a friend in a group - either he/she will accept those rules or he/she will be excluded from the group.
▪ *If you play with him / her, you are not my friends*	The aggressor gives conditions and prioritises social relationships in the group with verbal manipulation, he repeats his/her conditions before each activity, to consolidate his/her position.
▪ *He/she shall be not invited to celebrate my (or your) birthday…*	The aggressor decides about the presence of specific members of the group. If a child, who has birthday, refuses to obey the aggressor´s rules he /she will become a victim of hidden bullying.
▪ *Well, and now you have to say about him / her that ...*	The aggressor manipulates the group members to spread false information about the victim.
▪ *Sh! Silent, come closer to me, I will tell you something about him/her!*	The aggressor uses silent speech (whispering), "gossiping behind his/her back" to attract and persuade the group about his/her“truth“. Often, this ritual took place“ by chance“ near the victim – he/she can see it.

Source: Own survey results

Observed situation at kindergarten 1
Milica says (she is next to Vanda):“Look! Susie is going. Listen, (Milica grabs Vanda´s hand), but she does not belong to us. We two, we are great friends. She is redundant.“

1.1 Analysis of the situation

Considering pre-school age hidden (latent) aggression, it is appropriate to give its characteristics. The description of the characteristic is significant in terms of the analysis of the situation within the text above.

The first study of latent aggression (Crick at al., 2002a) considers the fact relating to the age (in the early sense – toddler and preschooler age) if it is correct to write about hidden-concealed aggression. According to their research findings, the existence of definite hidden aggression in a child age younger than 2.5 years has not been clearly confirmed. Crick et al. (2002b) argued that the emergence of hidden aggression in early childhood is associated with a reduced level of mutual acceptance (negative preferences) and an increased tendency on the part of the peer group to reject a friends, or just one of them. Lovaš (2010) described scenario theory as an information processing model that explains the development of habitual aggression among children. He claimed that the child creates aggressive scenarios at

an early age that is based on personal experience and observation of ambience. The result is "*a network of cognitive scenarios of aggressive behaviours in specific situations. Activation of the scenario, is conditioned by creating the conditions that consequently can cause the situation"* (Lovaš, pp. 37-38). It is enough to provide the children basic information, for example: we will not play with him/her/them, we will not invite him/her/them for somebody celebration, or somebody will not sit with us at the table, etc.

The aggressor does not need to be hidden. According to Rigby (2001), a "lower" degree of concealment is typical for this age. At the ages 3-5, hidden aggression begins with prototype examples: "You cannot come to my birthday party ...", "You can not play with us ...". This type of behaviour is obvious at beginning, the victim is not only informed, but the victim is even present during the conversation. Aggressor's does not mind victim´s participation, usually it's a matter of personal development of the child. Later, the aggressor formulates his strategies through an mediator. In young school age, latent aggressive behaviour becomes more discrete in terms of the form of aggression and used aggressor behaviours. The aggressor's behaviour is more elaborate and concealed. Ostrov et al. (2004) claimed that the identity of the doer is always known, because the child in pre-school age is immediately dealing with the situation "*here and now*". Children are struggling to reach their goal of *"Being in the spotlight, being favourite".* They make their intention by gossiping, joking against a member of the group (this is not behaviour based on conscious calculation). Rigby (2001) argues this fact by saying that the younger aggressor (in terms of early and pre-school age) does not have the experience of acting anonymously, but gradually acquires competence in this procedure - to act aggressively. Typical are the direct and indirect aggressor´s attacks against the victim (Coyne et al., 2006). When comparing the latency rate at younger school age, we can say that the aggressor has a reasonable ability to act hidden, and his strategies are usually well thought out. It can influence peer - group members while managing the entire process of hidden aggression. If conditions are created, usually a child who started with aggression in pre-school age develops into concealed aggression person (see Ostrov et al., 2004). The hidden aggressive behaviours of early and pre-school age children are connected with problems in childhood. Kováčová (2014) argues that peer-group rejection of the child is linked to a variable range of social and psychological issues.

Table 3: Analysis of the situation 1

A comment whose starting points are researched in connection with the mediation of aggressive conduct preschoolers	This situation can be observed during games from the third age of the child, usually in children's groups (in the family between siblings, it is a more or less rare phenomenon). Hidden aggression is nothing special within collectives. It develops slowly, and it is often undervalued especially by adults because it is difficult to prove its occurrence. Revealing the hidden aggression demands several observations of specific situations. In preschool collectives it is considered as a bizarre behaviour.

Recommendations for pedagogues and parents	Adults need to pay more attention to the situations when a child chooses for a second child and when one child suggests to another child (or children) do not play, do not sleep, do not play with a doll, do not be familiar with him/her... Simply he/she does not be a friend with her/him/them. The situation is quite appropriate for the teacher´s role play demonstration in front of the collective to prevent such situations in future. In the described situation, the child is often surprised and confused by the decisive attitude of his / her friend. The fact that the child does not know how to respond correctly (e.g. what is right or what is still acceptable) and he/she has never met with such behaviours, can be for the child a starting point to use latent aggression in his or her own way. If this type of behaviour is identified by a pedagogue in a pre-school children group, experts recommend to explain the basic premise of friendship that choosing of a friend – it is everyone own business and nobody from the school mates is in position to give advices, commands or prohibitions. Role plays about those specific situations are recommended to perform for the children after the age of 5.
Evaluation of situation	Although it is too early to claim that it is the beginning of indirect (latent) aggression, but it is important to register this type of communication, especially when it becomes a regular part of the certain group. In the case of regularity, the repeated aggression process was confirmed. Milica gradually formed a group of friends who, among themselves, did not accept any other girl without the consent of little Milica. The situation was solved by an interview with parents where parents admitted that they recommended to their daughter "to verify potential friends and then trusting them." Milica is currently attending another kindergarten school where this type of communication is not observed.

Source: Own survey results

Considering pre-school age hidden (latent) aggression, it is appropriate to give its Situation from observation in kindergarten 2

And we will not play with him! (he points to Radko, who are coming on his no pedal balance bike to the playground). *All right? But do not tell him it, because* ... 5 year old Kamil gives instructions to his friends. Kamil´s teacher says that Kamil is considered a class leader who is very intelligent.

Table 4: Situation analyses 1

The comment whose starting points are researched in connection with mediator assisted aggression in pre-school age	Verlaan & Turmel (2010) confirmed that at this age, mentioned form of aggressive behaviour is nothing special. Practically, it appears in each group college and it is initially considered as common behaviour. The degree of acceptance of this form behaviour depends on the limits of the tolerability of injuries and aggression. The exclusion of the child from a particular game, a situation based on a secret ("do not tell it to him...") indicates a higher

	form of aggression with mediator´s assistance of a latent action. At this stage, pre-school age aggressors are aware of their manipulative tendencies. The aggressor does not expect that his/her mates will ask him to provide justification (with true content). To form such atmosphere and join children, it is for the children enough to form mystery and extra ordinal atmosphere
Recommendations for pedagogues and parents	*Considering all cases, it is evident, that role play is adequate and favourable way for explaining the particular processes of the situation.*
Evaluation of situation	He and the aggressor? Out of questions! There are no serious problems with him. He is decent, he does not abuse, he has friends, children love him, and there are really no problems with him. It is true that he choose friends by a special way, but children do not complain. Nobody played with Radek. He was on the playground himself, as no one came to him, he put his bike down and went to the sandpit where the children like pirates were fighting. Can I be a pirate? All children turned to Kamil. Kamil made face that Radko´s question does not concern him. Samko stepped out of the pirates and turned to Radko, saying: *We do not take on more pirates...Come later...* In this case, repeated aggression was confirmed. As it was a group of children aged 5 to 6, they were confronted with the observed situation and the educator asked them to explain her why Radko is not the right friend for them? Now, this type of communication is not observed in the children's group. Since September, they will be the first year elementary school pupils. Kamila's parents have enrolled their child in other elementary school, as the children of the class go. It is probable that Kamil will use his experience and build the status of aggressor in another group. Of course, it is not certain. It may even happen that Kamil will meet a new aggressive leader in his new class who will be more skilled in manipulation strategies, he will know his classmates from kindergarten and Kamil may become a victim.

Source: Own survey results

Since the age of three, it is important for a child to have a friend, just someone who can play the child with and has "something in common". According to Spitzberg et al. (2014), it is establishing of social relations, activating communication paths in the processes of mutual recognition and comprehension. The mutual distance of friends is substituted by respect and destigmatization of all participants. Comstock et al. (2008) claims that everyone needs friendship, although a lot of people do not want to admit it.

Kindergarten is one of the first opportunities "to develop friendships and relationships that can continue outside of the school environment." Social interactions as part of friendships, acquaintances, or brief meetings are perceived (Kováčová, 2014) not only as one indicator of the success of the integration process, but also as a mean. In particular, it relates to the pre-school age in which the ability to social interaction with peers is an important developmental stage, while interaction represents an interpersonal context of social, speech and cognitive

development. Friendship is typical in that case when no friend betrays another by joking and defamation within a peer group. This loyalty to a friend is enhanced by intimacy and close relations.

1.2 Participants in hidden aggression

Kindergarten and its premises, it is an area where takes place hidden bullying and also the hidden (latent) elements which come from aggressor´s behaviours, but also from the individual participants of the group, even from the entire group against the victim.

The aggressor is an important element in hidden bullying (Kováčová, 2014). He/she acts with the latent aggression indirectly, with the help of individuals, and groups. The aggressor directly manipulates the members of the group, encourages them to verbally disseminate negative backbiting that are presented by the aggressor as true, and indicative ones. Aggressor´s goal is to obtain group consent, and support in hidden bullying against a particular, predetermined person and to coordinate and direct the group, not to have only "assistants" but also "silent" approval of the whole group, class. Namely, aggressor's strong communication power (which is gradually enhanced by success) is considered as a pillar in the development of manipulative latently oriented strategies. The aggressor tries to differentiate himself from the other members of the social group with his dominant manners. Aggressor´s actions are manipulative and his needs are closely linked to the social processes of approval and recognition within the group, Crick, Grotpeter (1995) claimed, that aggressors with hidden aggression are in social and emotional disorder and feel a higher degree of social loneliness, they have depressive states and negative perception of their personalities. They are usually individuals with inappropriate family education or different negative communicative patterns.

Table 4: Identified child as an aggressor in latent aggressive behaviour

Reactions of pedagogues / parents during the successful identification of the aggressor	Reasons why ...
The aggressor? He? It is a nonsense! He is obedient, cleaned and has a doctor's parents. Teacher's response to the information that a child in her class (The class teacher of 5 year old Jožko who has been identified as an aggressor who used hidden aggression during games outside).	The aggressor may not be evil, dirty, or disobedient. An aggressor can also become a child from a good family who does not seem to be aggressive one. The aggressor is hidden in the latent process, and that secrecy more or less suits to him. The position of the aggressor is closely related to the personality and its characteristics.
Janka is a very quiet little girl. He does not have a friend in the yard. I do not see why she would persuade other girls, not play with others. You know, she helps at home, she does not oppose to anything, and the aggressors are bad, and unmanageable, and our Janka is not like this. (From the testimony of the mother of 6 year old Janka, who was identified as an aggressor using hidden aggression in a peer group).	Even a quiet child may be a very strategic manipulator in a particular group. Typically, these individuals are aware their secret and they are persuaded that it will be difficult to reveal them. Often they seem to be willing in cooperation to reveal aggression.

Source: Own survey results

The victim in the process of hidden aggression observes in his/her space gradual changes in social relations (lack of opportunities to participate in games, school trips, parties, stays in nature, etc.). At the beginning, situations are observable as sporadic, later they are infiltrated into all social contacts. A stigmatized pupil / child involuntarily loses friends, as well as social relationships with the group. Victim´s perception of the problems arises and gradually become more and more serious. It includes: internalization (anxiety, depressed states), externalization (aggressive to destructive behaviour), and adaptation problems with a higher degree of persistence, also in later and different social communities (Putallaz et al., 2007). The victim feels lonely and, in extreme cases, his / her action is self-defeating. Friends of the victims, who are not the direct "members" of hidden bullying feel desperation, helplessness, and partly as a victim, are worried that after a time (which they can not identify) they may also become "target“ of aggressions. There can be any stimulus, for example if they refuse to act aggressively, or they avoid being active within a group of aggressors). They usually do not talk about group behaviour, rather are in position of silent witnesses with a minimal verbal activity.

Table 5: Identified child as victim in latent aggressive behaviour

Teachers / parents responses during victim identification	Reasons, why...
We thought Malvinka had a problem with her friends because she was silent. She always cried in the dressing room when she came to the kindergarten. And the teacher always told me it would pass. You know, I thought about going with her somewhere, to an expert, because she had been crying for over a year and it was very strange for me. You know, I was a victim, but in high school, maybe we have it in our family.	Being a victim is not a matter of heredity! Any child can become a victim, depending on the situation and the group he / she is going to get. When children are overly crying and crying during the same situation (in the dressing room, on arrival at the nursery, at a meeting with a child) − it is necessary to consider whether tearfulness is an adaptive problem, or it can be assumed that a child is part of something atypical that disturbs him/her in personal wellbeing.

Source: Own survey results

For primary support for the peer group, it is necessary to increase the social competencies of pupils in the nursery environment, promote pro-social behaviour, and strengthen contacts at the level of a friend, a close person (Reid, Webster - Stratton, 2001). To find out the ways to inform and support critical reflection and lead a discussion is, according to Kováčová (2014, p. 36), „a difficult task, mainly due to the age of the recipients´ information. On the other hand, age is a positive value, because in those situations it is possible to show role-play with minimal speech production (e.g., pantomime, movement or sound-verbal methods). This is a strategy that a pedagogue will use to explain real situations so that children can understand it. For example it is possible to organize activities related to early community, bedtime stories, or to use interrogative ritual: And do you know this?”

2 CONCLUSION

Research findings have shown that mediated aggression is specific in kindergartens because only one victim (a child regardless of gender, belief, race, or health) appears in the group, which is gradually isolated from normal daily activities. Isolation of the child is gradually increased, even from several sides (more children are involved, not only on the aggressor's initiative).

The aggressor in pre-school age is very specific in terms of actions and age. He or she manages commands and prohibitions through mediators and remains hidden before the

victim. In the children's group where a victim is absent, the aggressor performs directly, especially with regard to the type of instructions: *And we will not play with him! Don´t ask him to join us!* He is not my or your friend! Aggressor´s directness to communicate with the group and secrecy in communicating with the victim is also due to the fact that at the beginning of aggressor´s activities, he/she is not socially mature to handle indirect manipulation with the group. If an aggressor in the early stages of his / her activity finds favourable conditions, he/she is able to learn indirect manipulation with the group and isolate the chosen child through false arguments, it means without reason.

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IDENTIFIKÁCIA ROZDIELOV VO VÝSKYTE AKADEMICKEJ PROSKRASTINÁCIE A VYUŽÍVANÍ TIME MANAGEMENTE V CROSS CULTURE KONTEXTE

IDENTIFICATION OF THE DIFFERENCES IN THE OCCURRENCE OF ACADEMIC PROCRASTINATION AND USING OF TIME MANAGEMENT IN THE CROSS-CULTURAL CONTEXT

Martina Košíková, Jana Kovaľová, Veronika Timková

Abstrakt

Využívanie time managementu zohráva dôležitú úlohu nie len v profesijnom, ale aj osobnom živote. Predkladaný príspevok skúma výskyt akademickej prokrastinácie a využívanie time managementu u študentov vysokých škôl. Jeho hlavným cieľom je identifikovať rozdiely vo výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie a využívaní efektívneho time managementu v cross culture kontexte u slovenských a ukrajinských študentov. Výskum bol realizovaný dotazníkovou metódou a dáta boli spracované použitím matematicko-štatistických metód v programe Statistica. Výskumnú vzorku tvorilo 292 študentov zo Štátnej užhorodskej univerzity a z Prešovskej univerzity. Na základe nami realizovaného výskumu, môžeme konštatovať, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely medzi ukrajinskými a slovenskými študentmi vzhľadom na výskyt akademickej prokrastinácie.

Kľúčové slová: *prokrastinácia, akademická prokrastinácia, time management, študenti*

Abstract

Using of time management plays an important role in both professional and personal life as well. The submitted contribution examines the occurrence of academic procrastination and the using of time management among high school students. Its aim is to identify differences in the occurrence of academic procrastination and effective time management using in the cross-cultural context of Slovak and Ukrainian students. The survey was conducted by using the questionnaire method and the data were processed by mathematical-statistical methods in Statistica program. The research sample consisted of 292 students from the Uzhorod National University and the University of Prešov. Based on our research, we can state that there are statistically significant differences between Ukrainian and Slovak students, due to the occurrence of academic procrastination.

Key words: *procrastination, academic procrastination, time management, students*

1. PROKRASTINÁCIA A TIME MANAGEMENT

Súčasnú dobu možno charakterizovať ako dobu uponáhľanú a rýchlu, v ktorej neustále dochádza k rýchlym zmenám. Ak chce byť človek schopný zvládnuť tento „časový stres“ je potrebné, aby vedel efektívne narábať so svojím časom (Košíková a kol. 2017). Každý človek riadi a organizuje svoj čas podľa vlastného uváženia (Sojka a kol. 2010). Ak máme tendenciu strácať svoj vzácny čas nepodstatnými vecami, alebo odkladáme dôležité úlohy na neskôr, môžeme hovoriť o prokrastinácii. Podľa Steela (2007) môžeme prokrastináciu špecifikovať ako odkladanie povinností, alebo činností na neskôr, aj keď je u jedinca snaha podať rovnako hodnotný výkon a činnosť úspešne dokončiť až do úplného konca.

Existujú rôzne druhy prokrastinácie a nami predkladaný príspevok sa venuje práve akademickej prokrastinácií, ktorá sa týka študentov.

1.1 Akademická prokrastinácia

Výskumy potvrdzujú, že prokrastinovanie na akademickej pôde nie je ničím výnimočným. Ako uvádza Schraw a kol. (2007) viac ako 50% vysokoškolských študentov prokrastinuje pravidelne a približne 20-40% prokrastinuje len príležitostne. Podľa Schouwnburga (2004) len 20% študentov odkladá svoje povinnosti príležitostne a viac ako 70% študentov prokrastinuje často. V roku 2009 Özer, Demir a Ferrari skúmali dôvody a prevalenciu práve pre akademickú prokrastináciu, kde sa zamerali na rodové rozdiely v príčinách prokrastinovania u študentov. Prvá štúdia bola aplikovaná na 203 tureckých vysokoškolských študentoch, kde prostredníctvom faktorovej analýzy testovali validitu a reliabilitu škály, ktorá bola následne revidovaná. Druhej štúdie sa zúčastnilo 784 študentov, z toho 363 žien a 421 mužov, pričom priemerný vek bol 20.6 roka, vek SD = 1.74 roka. Výsledky potvrdili, že 52% študentov uviedlo časté odkladanie akademických povinností, pričom u mužov sa prokrastinácia vyskytovala častejšie ako u žien. Výrazne viac žien ako mužov uviedlo svoje odkladanie povinností na neskôr kvôli strachu z neúspechu a lenivosti. U mužov, na rozdiel od žien, sa jedná skôr o riskovanie a vzbury proti kontrole a rebélií.

Prokrastinácia sa často spája s pocitom diskomfortu. Výskum, ktorý realizovali Hen a Goroshit (2018) skúmal dôsledky prokrastinácie u študentov, ich pocit diskomfortu v súvislosti s prokrastináciou a túžbou zmeniť tento návyk. Predpokladali, že existuje vzťah medzi rozhodovacou prokrastináciou, akademickou prokrastináciou a pocitmi študentov (pocit diskomfortu, túžba zmeniť tieto návyky). Štúdie sa zúčastnilo celkovo 373 vysokoškolských študentov sociálnych vied zo severného Izraela, z toho 85% žien, vo veku 19-58 rokov (M= 25.44, SD=4.19). Výsledky tohto výskumu spochybňujú tradičné vnímanie toho, že prokrastinácia je väčšinou spojená s pocitmi nepohodlia. Táto štúdia naznačuje, že zatiaľ čo rozhodovací procrastinátori zažívajú nepohodlie spojené s odkladaním rozhodnutia, akademickí prokrastinátori chcú zmeniť tieto návyky, ale nehlásia pocity nepohodlia. Zistenia tiež naznačujú rozdiel medzi týmito dvomi druhmi prokrastinácie a pre niektorých študentov môže odkladanie povinností slúžiť ako okamžitá emocionálna úľava, po ktorej nasledujú negatívne akademické výsledky, ktoré zvyšujú túžbu zmeniť tento zvyk.

Výskum zameraný na prokrastináciu bol realizovaný na Slovensku autorkami Nábělková a Ledajová (2012), ktoré zisťovali prítomnosť možného negatívneho vzťahu medzi: a) prokrastináciou a sebaúctou, b) internalistickou orientáciou osobnosti a vôľovou reguláciou, čím chceli podporiť predpoklad, že tieto faktory možno vo vzťahu k prokrastinácii pokladať za ochranné. Výskum bol realizovaný prostredníctvom zostavy 5 dotazníkov na 216 študentoch vysokých škôl, s priemerným vekom 22.3 roka. Rodové rozloženie bolo v pomere 57% žien a 43% mužov. Zistenia poukázali na negatívny vzťah vôľovej regulácie so všeobecnou prokrastináciou a stredne tesný negatívny vzťah s akademickou prokrastináciou. Všeobecná prokrastinácia negatívne koreluje so sebaúctou. Výskumne sa nepodarilo podporiť predpokladaný vzťah medzi prokrastináciou a internalistickou orientáciou osobnosti.

Problematike prokrastinácie v manažmente sa vo svojom výskume venovali Birknerová, Birkner a Šebeš (2015). Cieľom ich výskumu bolo zisťovanie súvislostí medzi aspektmi motivácie k výkonu, plánovaním času a prokrastinácie. Výskumná vzorka pozostávala zo 111 respondentov, z toho bolo 51 mužov a 60 žien, vo veku od 24 do 68 rokov, s priemerným vekom 32,80 roka z pracovnej oblasti administratíva, finančníctvo, obchod a školstvo. Tento výskum bol postavený na hypotéze, ktorá zisťovala štatisticky významné súvislosti medzi aspektmi motivácie k výkonu a aspektmi prokrastinácie, ako aj medzi aspektmi motivácie k výkonu a plánovaním času. Pre výskum boli použité 3 rôzne dotazníky od autorov Pardel, Maršálová, Hrabovská (1992 in Birknerová, Birkner a Šebeš 2015) - DMV (Dotazník

motivácie k výkonu) obsahujúci 24 výrokov, kde respondenti hodnotia na škále od 1 „vôbec pre mňa neplatí“ až po 6 „úplne pre mňa platí“. Druhým dotazníkom bol PRC (Dotazník prokrastinácie), ktorý pozostáva z 15 položiek, pri ktorých sa respondenti rozhodujú na škále od 1 „vôbec nie“ až po 5 „úplne áno“. A tretí dotazník PČ (Dotazník plánovania času) tvorený z 10 položiek, pri ktorých sa respondenti rozhodujú, do akej mieri súhlasia s daným výrokom prostredníctvom škály od 1 „vôbec neplatí“ až po 4 „úplne platí“. Výsledky preukázali úzke naviazanie plánovania času a s ním súvisiacej prokrastinácie na výkonnosť zamestnancov. Ukázalo sa, že respondenti, ktorí považujú za najvhodnejšie organizovať svoje úlohy v predstihu a neodkladať povinnosti na neskôr, kladú zároveň vysoké požiadavky na svoju prácu. Naopak pri nekvalitnej a nevčasnej príprave pociťujú úzkosť z nedostatku času, ktorá má negatívny dopad na výkon v práci.
V súvislosti z uvedeným je dôležité ale poznamenať, že občasná prokrastinácia môže mať aj pozitívny dopad na osobnosť človeka, vie byť prínosná pokiaľ s ňou vie vynakladať rozumne. Na druhej strane sa stretávame s jej extrémnejšou formou – chronickou, ktorá sa prejavuje nepohodlím, nervozitou, zvýšenou úzkosťou, podráždenosťou, zmenami nálady, zúfalstvom a demotiváciou. Takéto pocity majú vplyv nie len na celkový výkon a štúdium, ale aj zhoršenie zdravotného stavu, či napäté sociálne vzťahy (Pychyl 2009). Pre riešenie tohto problému je v prvom rade dôležité si ho uvedomiť a identifikovať. Presným určením príčin prokrastinácie je možné eliminovať jej výskyt. Jedným z možných riešením prokrastinácie je aj dôsledne plánovanie svojho času a využívanie tzv. time managementu.

1.2 Time management

Časové riadenie je procesom plánovania a vykonávaním vedomej kontroly nad časom stráveným na konkrétnych činnostiach, najmä s cieľom zvýšiť efektivitu a produktivitu (Singh a Jain 2013). Time management znamená v prvom rade čo najlepšie využívanie času pri práci, kedy ide o efektívne rozdelenie a naplánovanie jednotlivých aktivít (Stanková 2016). Ako uvádza Sojka a kol. (2010) zmyslom časového manažmentu je ovládnutie vlastného času a práce. Časový manažment je jednou z najdôležitejších otázok v modernom podnikaní, čas je jedným z hlavných zdrojov pre úspech v akejkoľvek oblasti (Singh, Jain 2013).
Oblasť time managementu je centrom pozornosti mnohých výskumov, ktoré sa zväčša orientujú na využívanie časového manažmentu najmä v pracovnom živote (napr. Azar 2017; Burt, Weststrate, Brown, Champion 2010; Singh, Jain 2013). Akademickému time managementu sa venovali aj Tsai, Liu (2015), ktorí skúmali vzťah medzi zručnosťami v time managemente a Facebookovými interpersonálnymi zručnosťami vzhľadom k akademickému úspechu u vysokoškolských študentov. Výsledky štúdie poukazujú práve na negatíva s využívania Facebooku v súvislosti s akademickým úspechom. Výsledky poukazujú nato, že študenti, ktorí na Facebooku hovoria menej s priateľmi, majú lepšie výsledky v ich akademickej výkonnosti práve kvôli ich efektívnym zručnostiam v oblasti riadenia času. Predkladaný príspevok sa okrem iného zameriava na identifikáciu výskytu time mamangementu u študentov.

2. METODOLÓGIA

Hlavným cieľom predkladaného príspevku je identifikovať rozdiely vo výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie a využívaní efektívneho time managementu v cross-culture kontexte slovenských a ukrajinských študentov. Následne sme pre tento príspevok stanovili výskumné hypotézy:
H1: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely pri výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie vzhľadom na štátnu príslušnosť respondenta.“
H2: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely v efektívnom využívaní time managementu medzi ukrajinskými a slovenskými študentmi.“

Výskumná vzorka a metodika výskumu

Táto štúdia bola uskutočnená na vzorke 292 respondentov (N=292). Portfólio výskumnej vzorky tvoria študenti Štátnej Užhorodskej univerzity (32.5%) a študenti Prešovskej univerzity v Prešove z Fakulty manažmentu (67.5%). V tabuľke 1 môžeme vidieť rozloženie výskumnej vzorky podľa rodu a štátnej príslušnosti.

Tabuľka 1: Štruktúra respondentov

Študenti	Muži	Ženy	Spolu
SK	63	134	197 (67.5%)
UA	27	68	95 (32.5%)
Spolu	90 (30.8%)	202 (69.2%)	292

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie

Zber dát sa uskutočnil dotazníkovou metódou v priebehu prvého semestrálneho mesiaca akademického roku 2017/2018 na oboch univerzitách. Autorský dotazník pozostával z dvoch typov otázok. Prvá časť obsahovala kategorizačné otázky, potrebné k zatriedeniu respondentov podľa veku, rodu, bydliska a štátnej príslušnosti. Druhá časť bola zameraná na zisťovanie výskytu prokrastinácie a efektívneho využívania time managementu. Otázky boli uzavreté s odpoveďami vo forme Likertovej škály, prípadne otvorené otázky zisťujúce dôvody a príčiny prokrastinácie, ako aj časový harmonogram študentov.

K spracovaniu výsledkov výskumu bol použitý štatistický program Statistica. Jednotlivé premenné boli podrobené testom na normalitu údajov (Doornik-Hansenov test, Shapiro-Wilkov test, Lillieforsov test a Jarque-Berov test), ktoré ukázali, že žiadna z premenných nemá normálne rozdelenie. Na posúdenie významnosti rozdielov pri výskyte prokrastinácie a efektívneho využívania time managementu sme použili Mann-Whitneyho U test, ktorý je vhodný na analýzu nami dostupných dát a nevyžaduje normálne rozdelenie.

Mann-Whitneyho U test je neparametrický test založený na porovnávaní mediánov dvoch nezávislých vzoriek. Test predpokladá rovnaké odchýlky v dvoch populáciách, z ktorých sa porovnávajú dve vzorky, t.j. testuje či je rozdiel priemerov poradí dvoch skupín štatistický významný alebo iba náhodný (Martíne-Murcia a kol. 2012, Rimarčík 2007). Výpočet testovacej štatistiky U sa uskutočňuje nasledujúcim výrazom (Martíne-Murcia a kol. 2012), pričom z rovnice získame dve rôzne hodnoty (U_1 a U_2)

$$U_{1(2)} = R_{1(2)} - \frac{n_{1(2)}(n_{1(2)} + 1)}{2}$$

kde

$n_{1(2)}$ je veľkosť vzorky prvého (druhého) súboru

$R_{1(2)}$ je súčet poradia vo vzorke 1(2).

3. VÝSLEDKY A DISKUSIA

Výsledky testovania prvej hypotézy skúmajúcu existenciu rozdielov výskytu akademickej prokrastinácie medzi slovenskými a ukrajinskými študentmi je zobrazená v tabuľke 2.

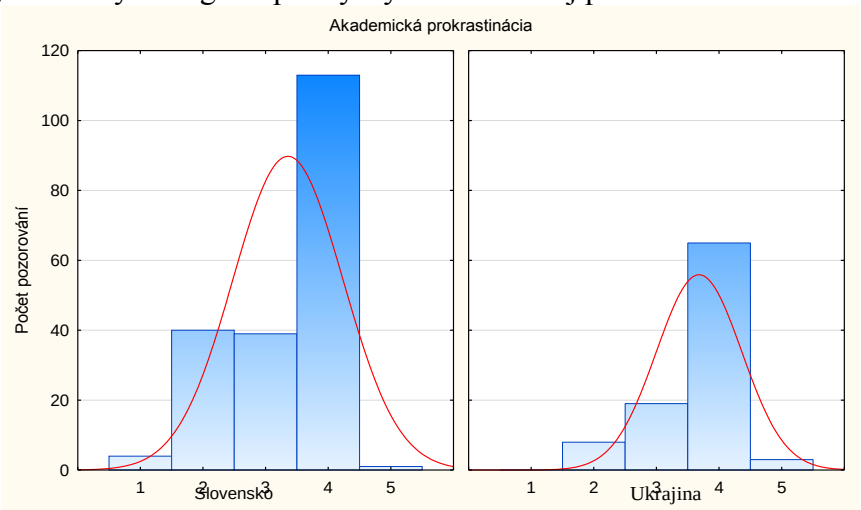
Tabuľka 2: Mann-Whitneyho U test pre výskyt akademickej prokrastinácie

Závislá premenná: ***Akademická prokrastinácia***	**Mann-Whitney U Test** **Nezávislá premenná:** ***Krajina pôvodu*** **Označené testy sú významné na hladine p <0.050**						
	Platné N	**Súčet poradia skupiny**	**U**	**Z**	**p-hodn.**	**Z upravené**	**p-hodn.**
Slovensko	197	27162.50	7659.50	***-2.51114***	***0.012035***	***-2.87820***	***0.0040***
Ukrajina	95	15615.50					

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

Na základe Mann-Whitneyho U-testu sme zistili, že existujú štatisticky signifikantné rozdiely vo výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie medzi slovenskými a ukrajinskými študentmi. Môžeme konštatovať, že hypotéza H1: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely pri výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie vzhľadom na štátnu príslušnosť respondenta.“ sa potvrdila. Podľa výsledkov výskumu sa prokrastinácia u slovenských študentov vyskytuje častejšie než u ukrajinských a medzi jej najčastejšie dôvody patrí nedostatok času, ktorý si študenti vyhradili na danú úlohu, čo podľa nás môže súvisieť s neefektívnym time managementom, lenivosť a nechuť študentov sa s danou úlohou zaoberať, či náročnosť danej úlohy.
Výsledky Mann-Whitneyho U testu vizuálne dopĺňa graf č. 1, ktorý zobrazuje kategorizovaný histogram rozloženia výskytu prokrastinácie u slovenských a ukrajinských študentov. Na osi y-ovej je označenie počtu pozorovaní v danej skupine, x-ová os prezentuje krajinu, odkiaľ pochádza študent a frekvenciu výskytu prokrastinácie u študentov z tejto krajiny, pričom hodnota 1 znamená, že študenti odkladajú svoje povinnosti vždy a 5 - nikdy a pri ich plnení sú maximálne dôsledný.

Graf 1: Kategorizovaný histogram pre výskyt akademickej prokrastinácie



Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

Druhá výskumná hypotéza H2 sa zameriava na rozdiely v efektívnom time managemente. U respondentov bolo zisťované, či majú zavedený time management, nakoľko efektívne je ich riadenie času, či stíhajú plniť svoje úlohy a či im time management umožňuje "ušetriť" ich voľný čas. Dotazovaní boli aj na delegovanie úloh, triedenie úloh podľa náročnosti, sústredenie sa na povinnosti a elimináciu zlodejov času. Testovaním využitím Mann-Whitneyho U-testu sa zistilo, že medzi slovenskými a ukrajinskými študentmi neexistujú

štatisticky významné rozdiely v efektívnom využívaní time managementu. Konkrétne výsledky testovania druhej hypotézy sú zobrazené v tabuľke 3. Hypotézu H2: „Predpokladáme, že existujú štatisticky významné rozdiely v efektívnom využívaní time managementu medzi ukrajinskými a slovenskými študentmi.“ sme teda nepotvrdili.

Tabuľka 3: Mann-Whitneyho U test využívanie time managementu

Závislá premenná: *Time management*	**Mann-Whitney U Test Nezávislá premenná: *Krajina pôvodu* Označené testy sú významné na hladine p <0.050**						
	Platné N	**S. por. skupiny**	**U**	**Z**	**p-hodn.**	**Z upravené**	**p-hodn.**
Slovensko	197	28595.00	9092.0	-0.39202	0.695044	-0.394253	0.69339
Ukrajina	95	14183.00					

Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

Testovali sme, či existujú významné štatistické rozdiely aspoň v jednotlivých zložkách time managementu medzi slovenskými a ukrajinskými študentmi. Položky z dotazníka, v ktorých boli štatisticky signifikantné rozdiely zaznamenané, uvádzame v tabuľke 4.

Tabuľka 4: Rozdiely v položkách Time managementu

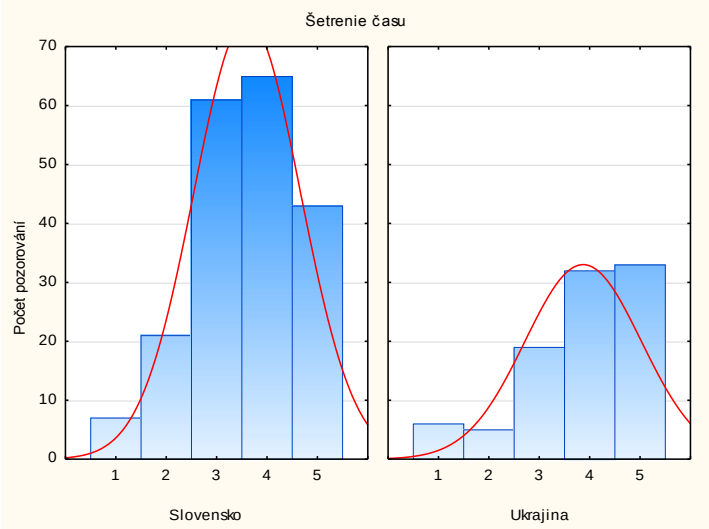
Položky dotazníka	**Krajina**	**Priemer**	**Smerodajná odchýlka**	**U test**	**Z**	**p-hodnota**
Položka č. 15	Slovensko	3.59	1.051	7815.5	-2.280	0.023
	Ukrajina	***3.85***	1.142			
Položka č. 17	***Slovensko***	***2.05***	0.808	7441.0	2.834	0.005
	Ukrajina	1.80	0.936			
Položka č. 18	Slovensko	4.21	0.814	7854.0	-2.223	0.026
	Ukrajina	***4.44***	0.707			

Zdroj: vlastné spracovanie

Položka 15. Šetrí Vám plánovanie času plnenie úlohy?
Položka 17. Delegujete úlohy na niekoho iného?
Položka 18. Viete sa sústrediť na plnenie úlohy?

Štatisticky významné rozdiely v jednotlivých zložkách time managementu boli zaznamenané v položkách 15, 17 a 18 (šetrenie času plánovaním, delegovanie úloh a sústredenie sa na úlohy). V položke 15 „Šetrí Vám plánovanie času plnenie úloh?“, vyššie skórovali ukrajinskí študenti, ktorých priemerné hodnoty odpovedí boli 3.85, takže sa skôr približovali k hodnotne skôr áno na rozdiel od slovenských 3,59. Graf 2 zobrazuje, ako boli jednotlivé odpovede študentov zastúpené. Kým v prípade slovenských študentov prevládali odpovede „skôr áno“ a „neviem“, v prípade ukrajinských študentov to bolo prevažne „áno“ a „skôr áno“.

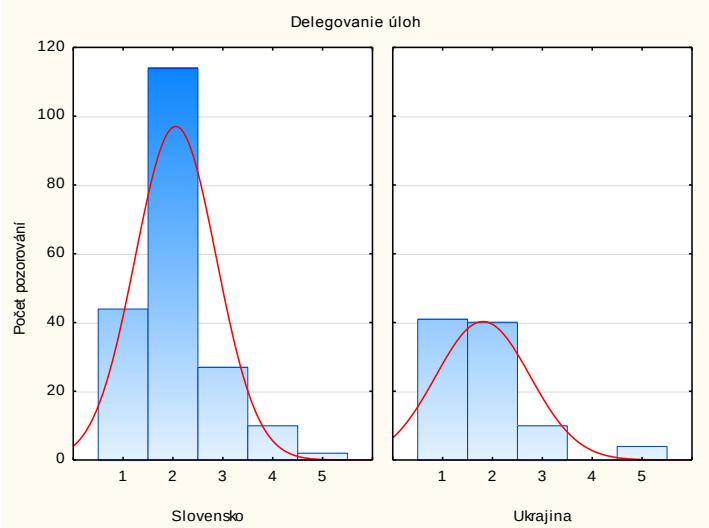
Graf 2: Kategorizovaný histogram rozloženia šetrenia času plánovaním



Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

Významné rozdiely boli zaznamenané aj v položke 17: „Delegujete úlohy na niekoho iného?“ V tomto prípade vyššie skórovali slovenskí študenti (2,05), ktorí delegujú svoje úlohy predsa len o niečo viac ako ukrajinskí študenti (1,80), ale v oboch prípadoch nevyužívajú delegovanie úloh často. V tejto otázke bolo ale predovšetkým zaujímavé, že ako slovenskí, tak aj ukrajinskí študenti delegujú svoje povinnosti na druhých len veľmi málo, prípadne vôbec nakoľko prevládajúce odpovede boli „nie“ a „skôr nie“. Presné zastúpenie odpovedí je zobrazené v grafe 3. Táto skutočnosť ale môže byť daná aj charakterom ich školských povinností, ktoré sú primárne určené vykonať práve danému jedincovi.

Graf 3: Kategorizovaný histogram rozloženia delegovania úloh

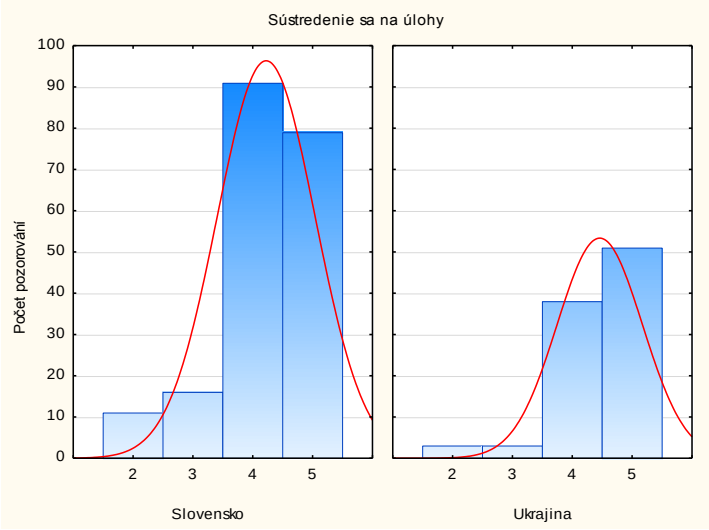


Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

Poslednou zložkou time managementu, v ktorej sa prejavili rozdiely medzi slovenskými a ukrajinskými študentmi bola položka 18: „Viete sa sústrediť na plnenie úlohy?“, ktorá zisťovala schopnosť sústrediť sa na zadané úlohy. Opäť predovšetkým ukrajinskí študenti skórovali vyššie (4,44) a podľa dotazníkového prieskumu nemajú problém sa sústrediť na dané úlohy. Na rozdiel od slovenských študentov s priemernými odpoveďami na úrovni 4,21. Toto zistenie podporujú aj výsledky v predchádzajúcej časti. Je možné predpokladať, že

menej časté odkladanie úloh u ukrajinských študentov („len niekedy“) vedie k lepšej možnosti sústrediť sa na úlohy, kde odpovedali na rozhraní „skôr áno“ a „áno“ a lepšiemu ušetreniu času zavedením time managementu, kde sa prikláňali predovšetkým k odpovedi „skôr áno“. Rozdelenie odpovedí študentov na otázku sústredenia sa na zadané úlohy je v grafe 4.

Graf 4: Kategorizovaný histogram rozloženia sústredenia sa na úlohu



Zdroj: Vlastné spracovanie pomocou programu Statistica

4. ZÁVER

V dobe, kedy sa prioritne kladie dôraz na výkon jednotlivca a jeho včasné a dôkladne plnenie úloh, predstavuje efektívne využívanie time managementu konkurenčnú výhodu. Častý výskyt prokrastinácie môže preto predstavovať závažný problém. Zámerom predkladaného príspevku preto bolo zamerať sa na výskyt akademickej prokrastinácie a využívanie time managementu u študentov vysokých škôl. Štúdia mala za cieľ identifikovať rozdiely vo výskyte akademickej prokrastinácie a využívaní time managementu v cross culture kontexte slovenských a ukrajinských študentov. Výskum bol realizovaný dotazníkovou metódou s použitím matematicko-štatistických metód v programe Statistica. Výskumný súbor tvorilo celkovo 292 študentov zo Štátnej užhorodskej univerzity a z Prešovskej univerzity. Štatisticky významné rozdiely medzi ukrajinskými a slovenskými študentmi sa potvrdili pri výskyte prokrastinácie a pri niektorých zložkách efektívneho time managementu, konkrétne pri ušetrení svojho času, delegovaní úloh a sústredení sa na pracovné úlohy. Celkovo sa ale rozdiel v zavedení time managementu v cross culture kontexte nepotvrdil.

Na základe vykonaného výskumu sa zistilo, že výskyt prokrastinácie a nedostatočné využívanie time managementu je problémom ako v prípade slovenských, tak aj ukrajinských študentov (častý výskyt prokrastinácie, nedostatočné delegovanie úloh, nedostatočne efektívne riadenie času). Ukázalo sa ale, že ukrajinskí študenti, ktorí delegujú svoje úlohy menej ako slovenskí, majú lepšiu schopnosť sústredenia sa na úlohy a následného šetrenia času pri plnení týchto úloh ak si ho vopred naplánujú. Výskyt prokrastinácie pri ukrajinských študentoch je taktiež nižší ako pri slovenských. Predpokladáme, že rozdiely v týchto oblastiach môžu byť spôsobené aj odlišným fungovaním vysokoškolského systému na Slovensku a Ukrajine. Toto zistenie môže byť spôsobené aj rôznou mentalitou študentov, ale aj nižšími požiadavkami na študentov zo strany vyučujúcich.

Staršie výskumy preukázali, že efektívne zavedenie časového riadenia úloh a zníženie výskytu prokrastinácie prispieva k lepšiemu pocitu z vykonanej práce, zvýšeniu výkonnosti jedinca, zlepšeniu nálady a zníženiu nepriaznivých stresových situácii. Zároveň je vhodné, aby sa k odstráneniu prokrastinácie a zavedeniu time managementu pristupovalo už počas

štúdia na školách, čím sa predíde výskytu tohto nepriaznivého správania v práci a správnym riadením svojho času bude budúci zamestnanec schopný podávať lepší výkon.

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STARNUTIE EURÓPSKEHO OBYVATEĽSTVA A EKVIVALENTÁCIA SÚVISIACEJ TERMINOLÓGIE V ANGLICKO-FRANCÚZSKO-SLOVENSKOM JAZYKOVOM PLÁNE

POPULATION AGEING IN EUROPE AND EQUIVALENTATION OF THE RELATED TERMINOLOGY IN THE ENGLISH, FRENCH AND SLOVAK LANGUAGES

Jana Ukušová

Abstrakt

Nik nepopiera skutočnosť, že už niekoľko desaťročí je starnutie populácie jednou z výrazných demografických zmien, ktoré pretvárajú podobu zloženia (nielen) európskeho obyvateľstva. V tejto súvislosti sa v európskom kontexte vynárajú otázky, ako sa spoločnosť má týmto zmenám prispôsobiť v sociálnej, ekonomickej či zdravotníckej sfére. Prijímanie rôznych opatrení a verejných politík, ktoré sa na tieto zmeny snažia reagovať, nevyhnutne vedie aj k vzniku nových pojmov a novej terminológie. Cieľom nášho príspevku je poukázať na vytváranie nových termínov v uvedených oblastiach a na základe rešerše a konzultácie odbornej literatúry pristúpiť k ich ekvivalentácii v anglicko–francúzsko-slovenskej relácii. Praktickej časti predchádza teoretické uvedenie do problematiky starnutia populácie s dôrazom na jej aktuálnosť a vymedzenie terminologických východísk.

Kľúčové slová: *starnutie populácie, terminológia, ekvivalentácia*

Abstract

Nobody can deny the fact that population ageing has been one of the major demographic changes for the past few decades, transforming the very nature of (not only) European population composition. Within the European context, new challenges have emerged and are related to the question of how the society should adapt to these changes in several areas: social and economic fields and health care provision. Adopting various measures and public policies as a response to these changes necessarily leads to the creation of new concepts and new terminology to define them. In this paper, we try to point out the creation of these new terms and equate them in the following languages – English-French-Slovak – based on the search of professional literature on the given topic. The practical part of this paper is preceded by a theoretical introduction to the issue of European population ageing while putting the stress in its up-to-dateness and a definition of terminological grounds.

Keywords: *population ageing, terminology, equivalentation*

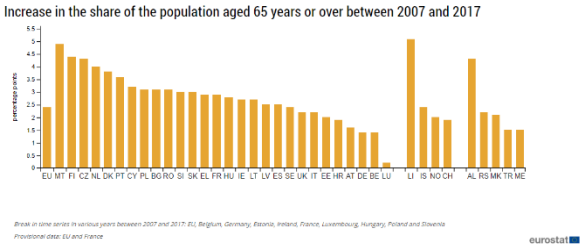
1 ÚVOD DO PROBLEMATIKY

1.1 Starnutie európskej populácie ako aktuálny sociálny jav

Z hľadiska historicko-geografických súvislostí bola Európa už oddávna prezývaná „starý kontinent“. V poslednom období sa ale pojem starnutie Európy skloňuje výhradne v kontexte narastajúcej dlhovekosti jej občanov. Hoci proces starnutia v živote jednotlivca evokuje vo všeobecnosti negatívne asociácie, populačné starnutie ako demografický proces je komplexnou problematikou a môže byť chápaný aj ako *„triumf z hľadiska sociálneho, zdravotného a hospodárskeho pokroku“* (Hetteš, 2012, s. 26). Aj v našom príspevku sa

venujeme terminológii, ktorá súvisí skôr s pozitívnym prístupom k starnutiu v podobe opatrení, ktoré majú život súčasných i budúcich generácií seniorov zlepšiť a skvalitniť.

V máji tohto roka Štatistický úrad Európskej únie zverejnil informácie, ktoré poukazujú na aktuálne trendy v starnutí európskeho obyvateľstva.



Obr. 1 Percentuálny nárast v podiele obyvateľov EÚ starších ako 65 rokov medzi rokmi 2007 – 2017[1]

Z uvedeného grafu vyplýva, že nárast európskej populácie staršej ako 65 rokov nastal vo všetkých členských krajinách EÚ. Spomedzi krajín, ktorých jazyky pri ekvivalentácii skúmame, zostarla populácia najviac na Slovensku (3 % nárast). Vo Francúzku to bolo o 0,1 % menej (2,9 %) a v Spojenom kráľovstve nastal len 2,2 % nárast. Celkovo dosiahol počet obyvateľov EÚ starších ako 65 rokov v roku 2017 takmer pätinu (19%). Nestarne však len európska populácia ako taká, ale aj samotná staršia generácia. Prognózy do roku 2080 ukazujú, že podiel obyvateľov nad 80 rokov by sa do roku 2080 mal takmer zdvojnásobiť a dosiahnuť 13 % celkového počtu obyvateľov Európskej únie.[2]

1.2 Aké sú hlavné dôvody a dôsledky demografického starnutia obyvateľstva?

Demografické výskumy v danej oblasti sa orientujú dvomi smermi: identifikovať príčiny starnutia populácie a poukázať na jeho nevyhnutné dôsledky. Ako tradične udávané príčiny starnutia obyvateľstva možno uviesť klesajúcu mieru úmrtnosti a narastajúcu dlhovekosť. Hoci ide o dôležité prvky participujúce na tomto procese, majoritná väčšina odborníkov uznáva, že najvýznamnejším faktorom je klesajúca pôrodnosť, ktorá zásadným spôsobom vplýva na vekovú štruktúru obyvateľstva a následne vedie k zvyšovaniu priemerného veku a demografickému starnutiu (Harper, 2014, s. 587).

Pokiaľ ide o dôsledky, ktoré proces starnutia obyvateľstva so sebou prináša, prejavujú sa najmä vplyvom na samotnú spoločnosť a ekonomiky jednotlivých krajín. Konkrétne ide o nové výzvy, ktoré sa dotýkajú trhu práce, rodín a domácností, sociálnej interakcie, služieb zdravotnej a inej starostlivosti, voľnočasových aktivít a celkového správanie komunity (tamtiež, s. 588).

Medzinárodné organizácie a neskôr aj orgány Európskej únie si boli týchto dôsledkov vedomé a reagovali prijímaním nevyhnutných krokov a opatrení. Prehľad tých najdôležitejších, ktoré sa stali základným kameňom pre súčasné programy zamerané na pomoc spoločnosti i samotným seniorom úspešne sa vyrovnať s týmto demografickým procesom, uvádzame v nasledujúcej časti.

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[1] Population Ageing and Structure. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Population_structure_and_ageing#The_share_of_elderly_people_continues_to_increase.

[2] Population Ageing and Structure. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/ index.php/Population_structure_and_ageing#Past_and_future_population_ageing_trends_in_the_EU.

1.3 Z histórie iniciatív a programov zameraných na starších ľudí

Ak by sme sa pozreli o niekoľko desaťročí späť do minulosti, prvé iniciatívy zacielené na starších ľudí a zvyšovanie povedomia o starnutí populácie sa na svetovej úrovni začínajú objavovať približne začiatkom 80. rokov minulého storočia.[3] Stáli za nimi viaceré medzinárodné organizácie (Organizácia Spojených národov, Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia, Rada Európy, Medzinárodná organizácia práce) a takisto medzinárodné aj národné výskumné centrá (Krivoruchko, 2017).

Prvým konkrétnym medzinárodným nástrojom, ktorý sa týkal starnutia, bol *Viedenský medzinárodný akčný plán OSN o starnutí*, prijatý v roku 1982. V ňom sa sformulovali prvé programy a politiky súvisiace s narastajúcim vekom obyvateľov. O necelé desaťročie neskôr sa uznesením Valného zhromaždenia OSN č. 45/106[4] ustanovil 1. október za *Medzinárodný deň starších ľudí* a vytvoril konceptuálny rámec pre *Medzinárodný rok starších ľudí* ako súčasť Vyhlásenia o starnutí (za Medzinárodný rok starších ľudí bol neskôr ustanovený rok 1999) (Donor, Spanier, 2012, s. 9).

V tomto období sa tiež uznesením č. 46/91 sformulovali a prijali *princípy OSN vo vzťahu k starším ľuďom*, ktoré majú signatárske štáty zavádzať vo svojich národných politikách. Celkovo išlo o 18 zásad začlenených do piatich okruhov: nezávislosť, zúčastnenosť, starostlivosť, sebarealizácia a dôstojnosť[5]. Najnovším nástrojom v tejto oblasti je *Madridský medzinárodný akčný plán OSN o starnutí* z roku 2002, ktorý v porovnaní s Viedenským akčným plánom už explicitne nastoľuje požiadavku ochrany práv starších. Členské štáty boli následne vyzvané k rozvíjaniu svojich kapacít na monitorovanie a presadzovanie práv starších osôb vo svojich krajinách (tamtiež, s. 9). Ako však podotýka Hetteš (2012, s. 12), tieto záväzky voči právam starších ľudí nemajú právny charakter a pre vlády signatárskych krajín predstavujú len akúsi morálnu povinnosť práva starších implementovať.

1.4 Situácia na Slovensku

Orgánom, ktorý sa na Slovensku zasadzuje za práva starších ľudí, je *Rada vlády Slovenskej republiky pre práva seniorov a prispôsobovanie verejných politík procesu starnutia populácie*. V roku 2014 Rada uznesením vlády SR č. 17/2014 nahradila *Výbor pre seniorov*. Jej oblasť pôsobnosti je vymedzená v článku 4 jej štatútu. V bode 2 písm. a) tohto článku sa uvádza, že Rada najmä: *„navrhuje, koordinuje a kontroluje opatrenia zamerané na elimináciu negatívnych dôsledkov procesu starnutia populácie na ekonomiku, trh práce, dôchodkový systém a ďalšie oblasti života spoločnosti.“*[6] V rámci svojej činnosti úzko spolupracuje s inými rezortmi, orgánmi samospráv, vedeckými a akademickými inštitúciami či mimovládnymi organizáciami.

Konkrétnym výsledkom iniciatív zameraných na zlepšenie postavenia a kvality života seniorov na národnej úrovni bolo prijatie troch hlavných programov, ktorými sú:

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[3] Už v štyridsiatych rokoch 20. storočia manželka argentínskeho prezidenta, Eva Perónová, predstavila počas Valného zhromaždenia OSN návrh všeobecnej deklarácie práv starších, táto iniciatíva však bola neúspešná a zanikla (Hetteš, 2012, s. 12).

[4] Implementation of the International Plan of Action on Ageing and Related Activities. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/46/91.

[5] Principles for Older Persons. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.un.org/development/desa/ageing/resources/international year-of-older-persons-1999/principles.html.

[6] Štatút Rady vlády Slovenskej republiky pre práva seniorov a prispôsobovanie verejných politík procesu starnutia populácie. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.employment.gov.sk/files/legislativa/dokumenty-zoznamy-pod/statut.pdf.

- *Národný programu ochrany starších ľudí* (1999*)*, ktorého zásady vychádzajú zo zásad OSN a uplatnili v tomto roku v rámci vyhlásenia Medzinárodného roka starších ľudí,
- *Národný projekt Stratégia aktívneho starnutia z roku 2013*
- *Národný program aktívneho starnutia na roky 2014 –2020.*[7]

Na Slovensku pôsobia aj viaceré seniorské organizácie a združenia zamerané na zvyšovanie informovanosti o postavení seniorov v spoločnosti a ich integráciu do aktívneho spoločenského života. Začiatkom 90. rokov vzniklo občianske združenie *Jednota dôchodcov na Slovensku (JDS)*, ktorá je tiež členom medzinárodných organizácií Európska organizácia starších ľudí (EURAG) a Európska seniorská organizácia. Na pravidelnej báze vydáva aj vlastné periodikum Tretí vek. Okrem tohto možno z ďalších významných organizácii spomenúť *Združenie kresťanských seniorov Slovenska* s orientáciou na duchovné, spoločenské a kultúrne vzdelávanie a aktivity, združenie *Fórum seniorov* zabezpečujúce starostlivosť, pomoc a služby pre seniorov či *Fórum pre pomoc starším* prioritne orientované na ochranu práv starších osôb a presadzovanie ich záujmov (Dobiášová, s. 7).

2 TERMINOLOGICKÉ VÝCHODISKÁ

Preklad terminológie je sám o sebe komplexnou a stále otvorenou problematikou. Ako uvádza Hrdlička (2003, s. 65), aj v teoretickej literatúre dominuje názor, že termíny sa nemajú prekladať, ale jednoducho substituovať. Dodáva však, že to je možné realizovať iba pod podmienkou, ak sú vo východiskovom aj cieľovom jazyku vypracované terminologické sústavy tej-ktorej odbornej oblasti. V opačnom prípade, ak sa systém termínov ešte len buduje, termíny je treba prekladať s ohľadom na pravidlá slovotvorby daného jazyka.

Nami analyzované termíny pomenúvajú pojmy, ktoré sú súčasťou iniciatív na nadnárodnej úrovni, a jednotlivé štáty ich majú implementovať na národnej úrovni. Pretože daný pojem na národnej úrovni chýba, aj ekvivalenty termínu východiskového (anglického) jazyka v cieľovom jazyku absentujú. Škrlantová (2003, s. 211) v klasifikácii ekvivalencie termínov pomenúva tento typ ekvivalencie nulová ekvivalencia, kedy termín východiskového jazyka patrí do tzv. bezekvivalečnej lexiky.

Škrlantová následne vyčleňuje aj typológiu kompenzačných prekladateľských postupov v prípade, ak táto nedostatočná ekvivalencia nastane. Termíny, ktoré budeme v praktickej časti uvádzať, vznikli kalkovaním, t.j. doslovným prekladom pomenovania z východiskového do cieľového jazyka alebo doslovným prevzatím transparentných pomenovaní z východiskového jazyka, ktoré majú doslovného ekvivalenty v jazyku cieľovom (tamtiež, s. 215).

V príspevku sa budeme snažiť priblížiť relatívne nové pojmy z oblasti iniciatív reagujúcich na starnutie populácie, ktoré nie sú všeobecne známe širokej verejnosti, preto budeme uvádzať aj ich vymedzenie obsahu. Samotný príspevok môže slúžiť aj ako odrazový základ na doplnenie absentujúcich slovenských termínov do inštitucionálnej terminologickej databázy IATE.

[7] Rada vlády Slovenskej republiky pre práva seniorov a prispôsobovanie verejných politík procesu starnutia populácie. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.employment.gov.sk/sk/ministerstvo/rada-vlady-sr-prava-seniorov/.

3 EKVIVALENTÁCIA TERMÍNOV V ANGLICKO-FRANCÚZSKO-SLOVENSKEJ RELÁCII

Skôr než pristúpime k ekvivalentácii termínov, ktoré pomenúvajú nové pojmy oblasti populačného starnutia, radi by sme poukázali na problematiku pojmového vymedzenia kľúčového termínu *staršia osoba.* Koho dnes môžeme zaradiť do skupiny starších ľudí? Nielenže sa vnímanie staroby z pohľadu jednotlivca mení s jeho pribúdajúcimi rokmi, ale názory na presné vymedzenie dolnej hranice staroby sa líšia aj medzi odbornou verejnosťou. Dovoľujeme si tvrdiť, že to do veľkej miery súvisí so zvyšovaním priemerného veku života či čoraz neskoršieho odchodu do dôchodku, a preto staroba, resp. starý človek nie je súčasnou spoločnosťou vnímaný rovnako ako pred niekoľkými desaťročiami.

Ak by sme sa pokúsili o generalizáciu názorov, možno konštatovať, že väčšina odborníkov na základe návrhu Svetovej zdravotníckej organizácie považuje za dolnú hranicu staroby vek 60 rokov. V anglosaskom kontexte je na druhej strane zaužívanejšie členenie, v ktorom staroba začína až vo veku 65 rokov (Draganová, 2007, s. 122).

Demografka J. Potančoková z výskumného demografického centra Infostat uvádza nasledovnú vekovú štruktúru staroby (doplnenú o anglické a francúzske ekvivalenty):

- skupina 65-74 ročných osôb (*young-old/les jeunes seniors/tretí vek*[8]*)*
- skupina osôb vo veku 75+ *(old-old/les seniors/štvrtý vek)*
- skupina osôb vo veku 85+ *(oldest old/les vieux seniors).*

Je tiež dôležité uviesť, že staroba nemusí byť vymedzená len vekom. Napr. v dokumente Rady Európy s názvom *Odporúčanie na podporu ľudských práv* nie sú staršie osoby vymedzené na základe veku, ale sú definované ako osoby, ktorých vek (samostatne alebo s inými faktormi) môže predstavovať prekážku pre plnohodnotné využívanie ľudských práv a slobôd a plné zapojenie sa do spoločnosti rovnakou mierou ako ostatní (podľa článku I bodu 2).[9]

Na účely tohto príspevku sa však zameriame hlavne na to, ako sa *staršia osoba* chápe v kontexte globálnej problematiky starnutia populácie. Autori He-Goodkind-Kowal (2016, s. 65) uvádzajú, že populačné starnutie najviac vplýva na systémy poskytovania zdravotnej starostlivosti a jeho financovanie, systémy dôchodkového zabezpečenia, trh práce a kapitálový trh. Na tomto mieste sa preto pokúsime načrtnúť základné chápanie tohto termínu v uvedených kontextoch v jednotlivých vnútroštátnych zákonoch.

V slovenčine sa popri termínoch *staršia osoba* a *starší človek* používa a aj neutrálnejší termín *senior*. Ani jeden z troch uvedených termínov však nie je vymedzený vo vnútroštátnych predpisoch SR[10]. V zákone o sociálnych službách sa používa výlučne termín *senior*, pričom v § 35 tohto zákona týkajúcom sa zariadenia pre seniorov je *senior* vymedzený ako „fyzická

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[8] V tejto súvislosti poznáme v oblasti edukácie seniorov aj Univerzity tretieho veku *(*en. *University of the Third Age (U3A),* fr. *Université du troisième âge (UTA)).* Ich vekové podmienky však nekorešpondujú s uvedenými hranicami pre prvú skupinu vekovej štruktúry seniorov. Na Slovensku je dolná veková hranica študentov 45 rokov, vo Francúzsku 55 rokov a v Anglicku nie je stanovená. Zároveň existujú aj markantné rozdiely v koncepciách týchto univerzít v jednotlivých krajinách.

[9] Východiskový materiál za oblasť práv starších osôb k Celoštátnej stratégii ochrany a podpory ľudských práv v Slovenskej republike. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.mzv.sk/documents/10182/184563/140612_strategia_prava_starsich_osob.pdf.

[10] Východiskový materiál za oblasť práv starších osôb k Celoštátnej stratégii ochrany a podpory ľudských práv v Slovenskej republike. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.mzv.sk/documents/10182/184563/140612_strategia_prava_starsich_osob.pdf.

osoba, ktorá dovŕšila dôchodkový vek“. [11] V zákone o službách zamestnanosti je v § 8 ako jeden z typov občanov, ktorí sú znevýhodňovaní pri uchádzaní sa o zamestnanie, uvedený „občan starší ako 50 rokov“.[12]

Vo Francúzsku sa v zákone o prispôsobovaní spoločnosti starnutiu[13] odkazuje na staršie osoby obmieňaním termínov *les personnes âgées, les âgés, les aînés* a *les seniors* a v súvislosti s problematikou starnutia obyvateľstva sa v ňom uvádza veková hranica 60 rokov. V kontexte štátnych dávok pre francúzskych seniorov priznanie konkrétnej dávky závisí od rôznej vekovej podmienky (občania starší ako 60 alebo 65 rokov).[14] V anglickom jazyku sa okrem termínu *senior* používajú tiež *an old person* a *an elderly person.*

Variabilita týchto termínov a ich rôzne vymedzenia poukazujú na skutočnosť, že starnutie populácie je komplexný medzirezortný problém, ktorý sa dotýka viacerých oblastí a vždy ho treba chápať v rámci konkrétneho kontextu. Z terminologického hľadiska preto nemožno hovoriť v prípade termínu *senior* o totálnej ekvivalencii, ale o druhu ekvivalencie, ktorú Škrlantová (2003, s. 211) nazýva prienik, t. j. termíny sú svojím obsahom čiastočne zhodné a čiastočne nezhodné.

3.1 Pojmy *aktívne* a *zdravé starnutie*

Jedným z ústredným termínov opatrení na skvalitnenie života seniorov v spoločnosti je termín *active ageing (*fr. *le vieillissement actif),* ktorému v slovenčine prislúcha kalkový termín *aktívne starnutie.*[15] Zo sémantického hľadiska možno hovoriť o oxymorone, pretože termín pozostáva zo spojenia dvoch významových opozít. Adjektívum *aktívny* chápeme vo význame *prejavujúci zvýšenú aktivitu, úsilie pri dosahovaní istého cieľa* [16], zatiaľ čo *starnutie* v dnešnej spoločnosti vyvoláva skôr negatívne, či depresívne konotácie a v mysli sa nám spája s procesom postupného úbytku fyzických i mentálnych síl, najmä v súvislosti s poslednou etapou ľudského života, ktorá sa nevyhnutne končí smrťou.

Významový rozsah daného termínu je veľmi široký, ako vyplýva zo samotnej definície. Generálne riaditeľstvo Európskej komisie pre zamestnanosť, sociálne záležitosti a začlenenie vymedzuje *active ageing* ako *helping people stay in charge of their own lives for as long as possible as they age and, where possible, to contribute to the economy and society.*[17] Pri vymedzení konkrétnej obsahovej náplne aktívneho starnutia nám pomôže nástroj zriadený na meranie využívania potenciálu seniorov, a tým je *index aktívneho starnutia (*en. *Active Ageing Index,* fr. *Indice du vieillissement actif).* Zisťuje sa ním miera, akou využívajú seniori svoj potenciál v oblasti participácie na trhu práce, angažovaní sa v dobrovoľných spoločenských či kultúrnych aktivitách a schopnosť žiť svoj život nezávisle od pomoci druhých.[18]

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[11] Zákon o sociálnych službách a o zmene a doplnení zákona č. 455/1991 Zb. o živnostenskom podnikaní (živnostenský zákon) v znení neskorších predpisov.
[12] Zákon o službách zamestnanosti a o zmene a doplnení niektorých zákonov.
[13] Loi n° 2015-1776 du 28 décembre 2015 relative à l'adaptation de la société au vieillissement.
[14] Allocations et aides aux personnes âgées. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.servicepublic.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/N392.
[15] Národný program aktívneho starnutia na roky 2014 – 2020. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.employment.gov.sk/files/slovensky/ministerstvo/rada-vlady-sr-prava-seniorov/npas-2014-2020.pdf.
[16] Slovník súčasného slovenského jazyka. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://slovnik.juls.savba.sk.
[17] Active Ageing. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1062&langId=en.
[18] Active Ageing Index to Measure Untapped Potential of Seniors in the EU. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=89&newsId=1837&furtherNews=yes.

Popri aktívnom starnutím sa často stretávame aj s termínom *zdravé starnutie (*en. *healthy ageing,* fr. *le vieillissement en bonne santé).* Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia definuje pojem ako *proces rozvíjania a udržiavania funkčných schopností, ktoré umožňujú blahobyt v staršom veku*[19], pričom funkčná schopnosť odkazuje na celkový zdravotný stav seniorov (fyzickú aj psychickú stránku). Ide o schopnosť zabezpečiť svoje základné potreby, byť mobilný, robiť rozhodnutia, budovať vzťahy a prispievať v rámci spoločnosti. V konečnom dôsledku je cieľom znížiť tlak na systémy poskytovanie zdravotnej starostlivosti, dlhodobej starostlivosti či dôchodkového zabezpečenia.

Okrajovo by sme chceli tiež upozorniť, že termín *starnutie (*en. *ageing,* fr. *le vieillissement)* si navyše nemožno zamieňať s termínom *staroba (*en. *old age,* fr. *la vieillesse). Starobu* môžeme chápať v dvoch významoch: 1. čas, ktorý uplynul od vzniku, resp. zrodu objektu, a nie je v ňom automaticky zahrnuté hodnotenie, 2. záverečnú etapu života, u človeka často vymedzená ako doba od skončenia ekonomickej aktivity až do smrti. Na druhej strane *starnutie* je nezvratný biologický proces, kedy u ľudí nastávajú postupné zmeny na molekulárnej až orgánovej úrovni, čím sa zmenšuje schopnosť realizovať jednotlivé funkcie organizmu (Hrozenská a kol, 2008, s. 9).

3.2 Ekvivalenty anglického termínu *age-friendly*

Najväčšiu nekonzistentnosť slovenskej terminológie sme zaznamenali v súvislosti s ekvivalentmi anglického termínu *age-friendly* v spojení so substantívami *city, community, environment, building* a iné. Francúzske termíny používajú v najväčšej miere výraz *ami(e) des aînés,* napr. *ville amie des aînés (VADA)*[20]*, communauté amie des aînés (CADA), environnement ami des aînés, municipalité amie des aînés (MADA)* a pod. Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia vymedzuje termín *age-friendly city* ako miesto s inkluzívnym a dostupným mestským prostredím, ktoré podporuje aktívne starnutie.[21] Dotýka sa konkrétne ôsmich oblastí: vonkajšie priestranstvá a budovy; doprava; bývanie; sociálna participácia; rešpekt a sociálna inklúzia; občianska participácia a zamestnanosť, komunikácia a informácie, podpora komunity a služby zdravotníctva.

V slovenskom terminologickom aparáte sa vyskytujú ekvivalentné adjektíva *vekovo-priateľský* a *priateľský k veku,* častejšie sú však termíny, ktoré rovnako ako vo francúzskom prípade explicitne vyjadrujú osobnejšie zacielenie na konkrétnu vekovú skupinu obyvateľstva: *priateľský k seniorom/pre seniorov, ústretový k seniorom, priaznivý pre starších ľudí* či *vhodný pre starších ľudí.* Rozkolísanosť spočíva v tom, že k jednému pojmu prislúchajú viaceré slovenské termíny, a preto máme napr. *mesto priateľské k seniorom* aj *mesto priaznivé pre starších ľudí.* Nedá sa jednoznačne určiť, ktorý termín je ten správny. Adjektíva *priateľský* a *ústretový* však nesú určitý príznak metonymizácie (vynára sa otázka, či mesto ako neživý objekt môže byť priateľské). Preto sa nám ako vhodnejšie riešenia ukazujú adjektíva *priaznivý* alebo *vhodný.*

V súvislosti s týmto termínom by sme tiež radi poukázali na v istom zmysle protikladný termín *child-friendly city (*fr. *ville accueillante pour les enfants).* V slovenskom terminologickom systéme opäť pretrváva rozkolísanosť – máme *mesto priateľské k deťom* aj *mesto priaznivé pre deti.* S pomedzi slovenských termínov sa preto ako vhodnejšie javia tie,

[19] What is Healthy Ageing? [online] Dostupné na internete: http://www.who.int/ageing/healthy-ageing/en/.
[20] Pozri *Réseau Francophone des Villes Amies des Aînés*.
[21] Towards an Age-friendly World. [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://www.who.int/ageing/age-friendly world/en/.

ktoré explicitne používajú výraz senior/starší človek, aby bolo zrejmé, že cieľovou skupinou sú práve seniori, a nie všeobecne všetky vekové skupiny obyvateľstva (vrátane detí).

3.3 K pojmu *vekový manažment*

V súvislosti so starnúcou pracovnou silou (en. *ageing workforce*, fr. *la main d'oeuvre vieillissante*) je nutné spomenúť pojem *vekový manažment*. V dokumente Definícia vekového manažmentu a vytvorenie zásad vekového manažmentu pre zamestnávateľov (v súkromnej a verejnej správe), ktorý vydalo Ministerstvo práce, sociálnych vecí a rodiny SR, sa daný pojem vymedzuje ako *„rôzne dimenzie riadenia ľudských zdrojov rámci organizácie s dôrazom na primerané zastúpenie vekových skupín a všeobecnejšie tiež na celkové riadenie starnutia pracovnej sily prostredníctvom verejnej politiky alebo kolektívneho vyjednávania"*.[22] Medzi jeho hlavné zložky patria výber, prenos vedomostí, odborná príprava a celoživotné vzdelávanie, kariérny postup, postupy pružného pracovného času, podpora zdravia na pracovisku, bezpečnosť a ochrana zdravia pri práci, rotácia pracovného zaradenia, odchod zo zamestnania a prechod do dôchodku. Terminologickú nekonzistentnosť možno v tomto prípade pozorovať vo francúzskom jazyku, kde sú zaužívané termíny *la gestion de l'âge, la gestion des âges, la gestion de la question de l'âge* aj *la gestion de la pyramide des âges.*

3.4 O rozlišovaní pojmov *ageizmus* a *diskriminácia na základe veku*

Negatívny postoj spoločnosti a mladej generácie voči seniorom pomenúva internacionálny termín *ageism* (obdoba termínov *racism* a *sexism*) – fr. *l'âgisme,* sk. *ageizmus.* V neodbornej literatúre sa často zamieňa s termínom *age-discrimination (*fr. *la discrimination fondée sur l'âge)*, táto tendencia je však chybná. *Ageizmus* je obsahovo širším pojmom, ktorý sa používa na vykreslenie istých stereotypov a iných negatívnych tendencií zameraných voči starším ľuďom (Koval, 2001, s. 24). Môže mať rôzne podoby: predsudky, diskriminačné praktiky, inštitucionálne politiky a praktiky zachovávajúce stereotypné presvedčenie.[23] Na základe uvedeného vyplýva, že *diskriminácia na základe veku* je len jedným z konkrétnych systematických dôsledkov, resp. prejavov *ageizmu*. Popri slovenskom termíne diskriminácia na základe veku sa paralelne používajú tiež *diskriminácia podľa veku, diskriminácia z dôvodu veku* a *veková diskriminácia*.

3.5. Pojem *populačná politika*

V súvislosti s pomenovaním úsilia jednotlivých vlád ovplyvňovať demografický vývoj, akým je napr. aj starnutie populácie, sa v odbornej literatúre objavujú viaceré termíny. Najčastejšie sa na súhrnné označenie týchto intervencií vlád používa termín *population policy* (Grant, 2004, s. 19), vo francúzštine *la politique démographique.* Ani názory na obsahové vymedzenie tohto termínu nevykazujú jednotnosť. Vaňo (s. 1) uvádza, že definícia tohto termínu nie je jednotná ani medzinárodnej úrovni a najčastejšie sa chápe v užšom význame ako súhrn spoločenských opatrení s istým populačným efektom a v širšom význame ako opatrenia, ktorých účelom je ovplyvňovať reprodukčné procesy v spoločnosti.

4 ZÁVER

V príspevku sme pokúsili podať obraz o niektorých vybraných aktuálnych termínoch odkazujúce na nové pojmy v oblasti populačného starnutia, ktoré sa objavili v poslednom období. Išlo najmä o termíny týkajúce sa politík zlepšovania kvality života seniorov ako

[22] Definícia vekového manažmentu a vytvorenie zásad vekového manažmentu pre zamestnávateľov. [online]. Dostupné na internete: https://www.employment.gov.sk/files/slovensky/ministerstvo/rada-vlady-sr-prava-seniorov/definicia-vekoveho-manazmentu-vytvorenie-zasad.pdf.

[23] What is ageism? [online]. Dostupné na internete: http://www.who.int/ageing/features/faq-ageism/en/.

reagujúce na súčasnú a budúcu dlhovekosť obyvateľstva. Vo viacerých prípadoch sme upozornili na terminologickú rozkolísanosť slovenských termínov a potrebu ich väčšej harmonizácie s cieľom dosiahnuť terminologickú konzistentnosť.

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BARIÉROVÉ OŠETROVATEĽSTVO V KLINICKEJ PRAXI

BARRIER NURSING CARE IN CLINIC PRACTISE

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Abstrakt
Bariérová ošetrovateľská starostlivosť je hlavným opatrením pri prevencii prenosu infekcie zo zdroja na zdravého jedinca. Zahŕňa všetky ošetrovateľské postupy, ktoré sa spájajú s rôznymi špecifickými materiálnymi i priestorovými požiadavkami, ktorých cieľom je zamedzenie vzniku a prenosu nozokomiálnych nákaz v zdravotníckych zariadeniach. Dôležitú úlohu zohráva akceptácia účinných protiepidemiologických opatrení a skorá laboratórna identifikácia. Výsledky prieskumu poukázali na skutočnosť, že sestry majú potrebné vedomosti z bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky a na rezervy v materiálovo-technickom vybavení zdravotnických zariadení, ktoré vyžaduje bariérové ošetrovateľstvo.
Kľíčová slova: *Bariérové ošetrovateľstvo, Multirezistencia, Kolonizácia, Infekcia , Prieskum*

Abstract
Barrier Nursing Care is a major measure in preventing transmission of infection from a source to a healthy individual. It includes all nursing practices that are associated with various specific material and spatial requirements to prevent the onset and transmission of nosocomial infections in healthcare facilities. An important role is played by the acceptance of effective anti-epidemiological measures and early laboratory identification. The results of the survey highlighted the fact that nurses have the necessary knowledge of barrier nursing technology and reserves in the material and technical equipment of health care facilities that require barrier nursing care.
Key words: *Barrier nursing care, Mutiresistant, Colonization, nosocomial infection, Research*

1 BARIÉROVÉ OŠETROVATEĽSTVO

Cieľom bariérovej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti je prevencia šírenia multirezistentných kmeňov v zdravotníckom zariadení a ochrana ohrozených pacientov (Fertaľová, Cibríková, Cuperová, 2017). Bariérové ošetrovateľstvo zahŕňa bariérovú ošetrovateľskú techniku a bariérový izolačný režim. Bariérová ošetrovateľská technika je komplex diagnostických, terapeutických a ošetrovateľských aseptických postupov, ktoré sú vykonávané v procese starostlivosti o pacienta zabraňujú prenosu mikroorganizmov z infikovaného pacienta do jeho okolia. Výkony, ktoré radíme do skupiny bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky sú dodržiavanie aseptických postupov pri preväzoch, zavádzaní a ošetrovaní venóznych kanýl a močových katétrov, pri podávaní infúznej terapie, pri starostlivosti o dekubity pri výkonoch spojenými s osobnou hygienou pacienta (Šrámová, 2013). Základom v uplatňovaní bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky je hygiena a dezinfekcia rúk s používaním ochranných jednorázových rukavíc (Podstatová, Pokorná, 2009). Hygienická dezinfekcia rúk sa vykonáva pred a po invazívnych výkonoch, ako sú napr. aplikácia injekcií, aplikácia infúznej terapie, odber krvi, punkcie a endoskopické výkony a tiež aj po zvlečení ochranných rukavíc. Hygienická dezinfekcia rúk sa vykonáva pri zavádzaní a odstraňovaní intravenóznych kanýl, pri manipulácií s invazívnymi pomôckami, pred a po každom kontakte s pacientom, po manipulácii s použitým prádlom, po styku

s biologickým materiálom a tiež po realizácii rizikových výkonov u chorého (Lenhertová, 2017).

1.1 Bariérový izolačný režim

Bariérový izolačný režim tvorí súbor opatrení a systém materiálno-technického a organizačného zabezpečenia v zdravotníckom zariadení. Cieľom izolačného režimu pacienta je zamedziť šíreniu infekcie medzi ostatných pacientov a personál. V prípade vzniku rizika alebo prenosu infekčného ochorenia pacienta umiestňujeme samostatne na izolačnú izbu alebo zabezpečujeme kohortáciu pacientov (Podstatová, Maďar, Řehořová 2011). Medzi základné body, ktoré sa majú pri izolácii pacienta dodržiavať patrí napr. označenie izby, minimalizácia vstupu na izbu, prísne je zakázaný pohyb pacienta mimo izbu, prednostne používanie jednorazových pomôcok, dezinfekcia použitých pomôcok na izolačnej izbe, dezinfekcia rúk, zber a uloženie použitých jednorázových pomôcok a materiálu priamo na izbe pacienta do určenej nádoby pre infekčný materiál, záverečná ohnisková dekontaminácia po ukončení hospitalizácie a izolácie (Pokorná, 2006).

1.2 Princípy bariérového ošetrovateľstva

Pri ošetrovaní infikovaných pacientov sa musia používať ochranné osobné pracovné pomôcky ako jednorazové rukavice, ochranný jednorazový plášť, v prípade potreby aj rúšku a čiapku, nepremokavú zásteru pri riziku infikovania sa telesnými tekutinami (Štefkovičová, 2016). Osobné ochranné pracovné pomôcky si zdravotnícky personál oblieka ešte pred vchodom do izolačného boxu. Pred odchodom z miestnosti sa osobné ochranné pracovné pomôcky po použití vyzliekajú a likvidujú do určenej vyčlenenej, označenej nádoby na infekčný odpad, ktorý sa nachádza na izolačnom boxe. Po zvlečení plášťa a rukavíc sa okamžite realizuje dezinfekčným alkoholovým prípravkom hygienická dezinfekcia rúk. Tieto dávkovače sa musia nachádzať v izolačnom boxe ako aj pred vchodom do boxu. Do izolačného boxu je potrebné minimalizovať vstup. Pri vizite a pri preväzoch sa izolačný box začleňuje na záver a počet osôb, ktorý do boxu vstupujú je minimálny. Podľa možnosti sa na ošetrovanie odporúča vyčleniť ošetrujúci personál. Ak to umožňuje pacientov zdravotný stav a náročnosť výkonu, tak ošetrovacie, liečebné a diagnostické výkony je možné realizovať v izolačnom boxe. Pri týchto výkonoch používať by sa mal používať vyčlenený materiál, pomôcky a nástroje, ktoré ostávajú v izolačnom boxe a likvidujú sa ako infekčný odpad. Kolonizovanému/infikovanému pacientovi je nutné zaobstarať individualizáciu zdravotníckych pomôcok a pri ošetrovaní preferovať jednorazové zdravotnícke pomôcky. V izolovanom boxe sa má nachádzať uzatvárateľná dekontaminačná nádoba s dezinfekčným prípravkom, do ktorej sa priamo odkladajú použité pomôcky a nástroje. Pomôcky a nástroje, ktoré sú určené na opakované používanie sa dezinfikujú alebo sterilizujú v súlade s plánom pre dezinfekciu a sterilizáciu. Priamo v izolačnom boxe sa použitá bielizeň odkladá do označenej a vyčlenenej zbernej nádoby na infekčný odpad. Na oddelení je nevyhnutné dôsledne realizovať priebežnú dekontamináciu kontaktných veľkých aj malých plôch so zvýšenou koncentráciou dezinfekčného prostriedku. Dôležité je tiež dbať na pôsobenie dezinfekčného prípravku na daný typ multirezistentných baktérií. Na záver realizovať dekontamináciu izolačného boxu vyčlenenými pomôckami na upratovanie. Po prepustení alebo preklade pacienta sa vyžaduje už spomínaná realizácia záverečnej dekontaminácie a odporúča sa odber sterov z prostredia za účelom mikrobiálneho skríningu prostredia. Pohyb a vyšetrovanie kolonizovaných/infikovaných pacientov mimo oddelenia sa odporúča čo najviac minimalizovať. Ak je však vyšetrenie pacienta na inom oddelení nevyhnutné, je nutné oboznámiť personálu daného oddelenie, že ide o pacienta, ktorý podlieha izolácií. Ak u kolonizovaného/ infikovaného pacienta je potrebný operačný výkon, určí sa osobitný preventívny režim vrátane antibiotickej profylaxie (v prípade jej indikácie) a naplánovaná

operácia sa začlení na záver operačného programu. Pri prekladaní pacienta je potrebné dopredu informovať dané príjmové oddelenie aby prijali kroky, ktoré zabránia prenosu. V prekladovej správe je potrebné vyznačiť informácie o kolonizácií/ infekcií pacienta, v odporúčaní usmerniť ďalšie kroky mikrobiologického skríningu a pri jeho prepustení je nutné do prepúšťacej správy viditeľne označiť informácie o kolonizácií/ infekcií. A následne v odporúčaní uviesť ďalší postup mikrobiologického skríningu. Pacienta, ktorý je kolonizovaný alebo infikovaný multirezistentným kmeňom je nevyhnutné edukovať o dôkladnom umývaní rúk, o potrebe častého sprchovania a umývania vlasov, o zákaze používania spoločných pomôcok pre osobnú hygienu, o prekrývaní obväzovým materiálom, kým sa nezacelia, o zákaze dotýkať sa prstami hnisavých kožných afekcií. Pacient s diagnostikovanou kolonizáciou/infekciou musí byť pri prepustení poučený o dôležitosti neodkladne informovať o svojom nosičstve multirezistentného kmeňa zdravotníckych pracovníkov v prípade návštevy akéhokoľvek iného zdravotníckeho zariadenia. Takéhoto pacienta je potrebné hneď po prijatí preventívne izolovať a uskutočniť úvodný skríning a dodržať zásady bariérovej ošetrovacej techniky. Pacientovi s potvrdenou kolonizáciou/ infekciou nesmie byť odoprená hospitalizácia, liečba či iný výkon (Štefkovičová, 2016). Kolonizácia pacienta multirezistentnými kmeňmi nie je indikáciou pre podávanie antibiotických látok. Už pri podozrení na epidemiologický závažný kmeň je nevyhnutné dodržiavať opatrenia na zabránenie šíreniu multirezistentných kmeňov. Chorého je potrebné izolovať a zároveň infikovanom pacientovi dodržiavať bariérové ošetrovanie. Dôležité je aj upovedomenie epidemiológa, nemocničného hygienika ako aj osoby, ktorá je zodpovedná za dozor infekcií v nemocničnom zariadení. V neposlednom rade je potrebné oboznámiť Regionálny úrad verejného zdravotníctva. Informácie o kolonizácií/infekcií pacienta je potrebné zaznamenať do pacientovej zdravotnej dokumentácie aj do prekladovej či prepúšťacej správy.

2 INDIKÁCIE A VÝZNAMNOSŤ BARIÉROVÉHO OŠETROVATEĽSTVA V KLINICKEJ PRAXI

Základným cieľom uplatňovania princípov bariérového ošetrovateľstva je zabrániť šíreniu rezistentných bakteriálnych kmeňov a zamedziť vzniku a šíreniu nozokomiálnych nákaz v zdravotníckych zariadeniach. V tomto prípade zohráva dôležitú úlohu akceptácia účinných protiepidemiologických opatrení a skorá laboratórna identifikácia.

2.1 Multirezistentné kmene

Bakteriálne kmene v nemocnici s rezistenciou na antimikrobiálne lieky predstavujú vážny medicínsky a ekonomický celosvetový problém a nie je jednoduché predvídať ďalší vývoj situácie (Šoltésová, 2016). Nárast rezistentných bakteriálnych kmeňov súvisí s vysokou spotrebou a nesprávnym indikovaním antibiotík. Hlavnou etiológiou stúpajúceho vývoja rezistencie je zintenzívnený predpis antibiotík a s tým spojené stupňovanie antibiotického tlaku (Oravcová, 2016). Súčasná akcelerácia negatívneho vývoja rezistencie ukazuje, že len účelné a uvážlivé používanie antibiotík je spôsob, ako stúpanie rezistencie spomaliť (Giedraitiene a kol., 2011). Liečba antibiotikami by sa mala podávať pri dôkladnom zhodnotení anamnézy, epidemiologickej situácie, mikrobiologického nálezu a tiež pri prítomnosti elevovaných zápalových markerov (Patráš, Herda,2015). V zdravotníckych zariadeniach k epidemiologickým závažným patogénom radíme hlavne Staphylococus aureus (MRSA), ktorý je rezistentný na β-laktámové antibiotika, oxacilín metycilín, kmene, ktoré tvoria β-laktámazy s dilatovaným spektrom pôsobenia (ESBL, najmä u Escherchia coli a Klebsiella pneumonia), vankomycin rezistentné enterokoky a karbapenemázy, ktoré tvoria enterobaktérie (Serratia spp.,Escherchia coli, Enterocater spp., Klebsiella pneumonia. Za posledné roky sa v našich nemocničných zariadeniach vyskytujú multirezistentné

mikroorganizmy na väčšiu časť štandardne používaných antibiotických látok. Tie sa označujú ako superbaktérie, k ním radíme gramnegatívne a grampozitívne baktérie (Šoltésová, 2016).

2.2 Rezistencia na antimikrobiálne látky

Rezistencia na antibiotiká je podľa WHO definovaná ako schopnosť bakteriálnej populácie prežiť účinok inhibičnej koncentrácie (najnižšej koncentrácie liečiva, ktoré je schopné inhibovať rast baktérie) príslušného antimikróbneho prípravku. Multirezistencia je súčasná rezistencia na 3-6 antibiotík rôzneho druhu. Polyrezistencia je súčasná rezistencia na viac než 6 antibiotík rôzneho druhu (Šoltésová, 2016). Niektoré bakteriálne druhy sú na určité antibiotiká prirodzené rezistentné. Prirodzená rezistencia sa vyskytuje v baktérií bez hľadiska na predošlý styk s tou antibiotickou látkou. Jedná sa o zníženú citlivosť či dedične podmienenú necitlivosť (Votava 2001). Čoraz vážnejší problém a hrozbou je získaná rezistencia na antibiotiká. Tento druh rezistencie vzniká ako dôsledok predchádzajúcej aplikácie antibiotík alebo vzniká v priebehu liečby antibiotikami. Kmene, ktoré boli pôvodne citlivé na antibiotikum sa stávajú v tomto prípade rezistentnými (Giedraitiene a kol,. 2011).
McGowan uvádza faktory, ktoré majú vplyv na pôvod a šírenie antimikrobiálnej rezistencie v zdravotníckych zariadeniach na lôžkovej časti :

1. zlé využívanie izolácie pacientov,
2. výskyt ťažkých ochorení u pacientov,
3. nedostatočné plnenie hygienicko-epidemiologického režimu na oddeleniach,
4. pacienti, ktorý sú závažne imunokompromitovaní,
5. zvýšený počet indikovania antimikrobiálnej profylaxie,
6. pričasté podávanie empirickej antimikrobiálnej liečby,
7. zvýšené používanie antibiotických látok za isté časové obdobie
8. používanie nových typov zdravotníckych materiálov na invazívne výkony
9. pacienti z komunitného prostredia prinášajú so sebou aj zvýšený prílev rezistentnej mikrobiálnej flóry

Nebezpečenstvo multirezistentných mikroorganizmov patriacich do normálnej mikroflóry spočíva v dvoch hľadiskách. V prvom prípade ako zdroj génov rezistencie pre ďalšie baktérie, v druhom prípade ako potencionálny etiologicky agens, ktorých vysoká odolnosť proti antibiotickej liečbe môže zapríčiniť zlyhanie antibiotickej liečby a tým podmieniť vyššiu mortalitu a morbiditu (Sedláková a kol., 2013). Potencionálne nebezpečenstvo predstavuje znižovanie účinnosti antibiotík, dokonca ich stratu ako liečebných prípravkov (Kolář, 2013).

2.3 Kolonizácia a infekcia pacientov multirezistentnými kmeňmi

V klinickej praxi je diferenciálna diagnostika kolonizácie alebo infekcie pacientov multirezistentnými kmeňmi veľmi významná. Medzi kolonizáciou a infekciou je veľmi tenká hranica, keďže infekcia môže vyvrcholiť do asymptomatickej kolonizácie a kolonizácia sa môže rýchlo premeniť na infekciu (Votava, 2001). Ak na jedinca nepriaznivo pôsobí pôvodca nákazy, takýto stav nazývame infekcia. O kolonizácii hovoríme vtedy, ak má chorý dosť vysokú koncentráciu patogénov v mieste, v ktorom môže byť prítomná, ale nevyvoláva žiadne príznaky, ktoré sa pri infekcii vyskytujú. Určenie pacientov, ktorý sú kolonizovaní rezistentnými kmeňmi sa môže vykonávať sledovaním kultivačného vyšetrenia z tráviaceho systému a to napr. výterom z rekta (Paterson, Bonomo 2005). Na Slovensku sa podľa odborného usmernenia MZ SR vykonáva laboratórny skríning z nosohlatana, rany, konečníka na kolonizáciu multirezistentných kmeňov pri prijatí pacientov z rizikových oddelení ako JIS, oddelenie anestézie a intenzívnej medicíny, oddelenie popálenín, alebo onkologické, transplantačné, neonatologické, chirurgické a urologické oddelenia nemocníc, alebo pacientov prichádzajúcich z krajín, kde je výskyt multirezistentných kmeňov endemicky, napr. Grécko, Taliansko (Odborné usmernenie 18, MZ SR Vestník MZ SR 2014, čiastka 27-32). Väčšia

časť infekcií, ktorých pôvodcovia sú gramnegatívne baktérie je zapríčinená baktériami, ktoré sú zložkou prirodzenej mikroflóry pacienta. Základný rezervoár mikróbov s potencionálnou patogenitou je tráviaci systém a ústna časť hltana. V priebehu hospitalizácie chorý veľakrát získal možné patogénne gramnegatívne baktérie, čo môže dospieť ku kolonizácií patogénmi. Spolu s dĺžkou pobytu pacienta v nemocnici priamo rastie miera kolonizácie. Takýto kolonizovaní pacienti sú ohrození inváziou a taktiež môžu byť zdrojom multirezistentných baktérií skrz iných pacientov (Kocmanová, 2011). Vyšší stupeň kolonizácie súvisí hlavne s užívaním antibiotík. Pri ich aplikácií hocijakej populácii medzi pacientmi vzniká príležitosť šírenia a vývoja rezistentných patogénov čo následne môže viesť k zrodu rizika následnej infekcie rezistentným organizmom (Kolář ,2008).

3 VÝSLEDKY PRIESKUMU

Hlavným cieľom nášho prieskumu bolo zistiť v štátnom a neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení úroveň vedomostí a praktických zručností sestier týkajúcej sa bariérového ošetrovateľstva v praxi, ďalej úroveň materiálno-technického vybavenia nemocníc týkajúceho sa zabezpečenia bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky a najčastejšie chyby pri poskytovaní bariérovej ošetrovacej starostlivosti .

Čiastkové ciele :

1. Zistiť či zdravotnícke zariadenia postupujú pri ošetrovaní pacientov kolonizovaných a infikovaných multirezistentnými kmeňmi v zmysle odborného usmernenia MZ SR.
2. Identifikovať nedostatky v procese zabezpečovania bariérového ošetrovania.
3. Analyzovať materiálno-technické vybavenie oddelení na zabezpečenie bariérového izolačného režimu a bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky.
4. Zistiť záujem sestier o vzdelávacie aktivity týkajúce sa problematiky bariérového ošetrovateľstva.
5. Na základe výsledkov prieskumu navrhnúť odporúčania pre prax.

Prieskumnú vzorku tvorilo spolu 87 sestier, z toho 47 sestier pracujúcich v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení v Košiciach a 40 sestier pracujúcich v neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení v Prešovskom kraji. Administrovaných bolo 110 dotazníkov a ich návratnosť bola 87 (79 %).

V prvom cieli sme zisťovali či zdravotnícke zariadenia postupujú pri ošetrovaní pacientov kolonizovaných a infikovaných multirezistentnými kmeňmi v zmysle odborného usmernenia MZ SR. Prostredníctvom neštandardizovaného dotazníka sme sa sestier pýtali, či na ich pracovisku majú zabezpečenú hygienu a dezinfekciu rúk v zmysle legislatívnych požiadaviek, či sa na ich pracovisku vykonáva pri príjme pacienta mikrobiologický skríning z nosohltana, konečníka a rany na detekciu kolonizácie multirezistentných kmeňov. V neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 100% respondentov a v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 97,90% sa vyjádřilo, že na pracovisku majú zabezpečenú hygienu a dezinfekciu rúk v zmysle legislatívnych požiadaviek. V obidvoch zdravotnických zariadeniach 70,11% respondentov uviedlo, že realizujú mikrobiologický skríning na detekciu kolonizácie multirezistentných kmeňov u pacientov prekladaných z iného zdravotnického zariadenia. Ďalej sme sa pýtali, že či pri výskyte kolonizácie alebo infekcie pacienta s multirezistentným kmeňom navštevujú ich pracovisko pracovníci Regionálneho úradu verejného zdravotníctva, ktorí prešetrujú daný prípad. Respondenti štátneho a neštátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia najčastejšie uviedli kladnú odpoveď, iba 14,90% respondentov v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení uviedlo, že si nepamätajú, aby za posledný rok navštívili pracovníci Regionálneho úradu verejného zdravotníctva ich pracovisko.

Druhým prieskumným cieľom sme sa zamerali na identifikáciu nedostatkov v procese zabezpečenia bariérového ošetrovateľstva. Zisťovali sme, čo sestrám najviac chýba z materiálno-technických požiadaviek na bariérovú ošetrovateľskú starostlivosť. V neštátnom

zdravotníckom zariadení 27,50 % respondentov uviedlo, že im chýba priestor pre izoláciu pacienta, 32,50% respondentov uviedlo, že je nedostatok ošetrovateľského personálu. V štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení respondenti hodnotili materiálno-technické požiadavky na bariérovú ošetrovateľskú starostlivosť kladne avšak aj v štátnom zdravotníckom zariadení 38,30% respondentov sa vyjadrilo, že je nedostatok ošetrovateľského personálu.
V treťom prieskumnom cieli sme sa zamerali na zisťovanie materiálno-technického vybavenia oddelenia na zabezpečenie beriérového izolačného režimu a bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky. Sestier sme sa pýtali na materiálno-technické vybavenie oddelenia. Veľká časť sestier je spokojná s materiálno-technickým vybavením oddelenia, 22,50% sestier z neštátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia si myslí, že na pracovisku nemajú dostatočne zabezpečené podmienky pre bariérové ošetrovateľstvo. 12,80% respondentov štátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia sa nevedelo vyjadriť. 27,50% respondentov pracujúcich v neštátnom zdravotníckom zariadení, podľa prieskumu poukázali, že najviac chýba z materiálovo-technických požiadaviek na bariérovú ošetrovateľskú starostlivosť je priestor pre izoláciu pacienta, 32,50% respondentov uvádza nedostatok ošetrovateľského personálu. Sestry štátneho zdravotníckeho zariadenia sú spokojne s materiálno-technickými požiadavkami ich pracoviska avšak 38,30% sestier v prieskume udáva, že je nedostatok ošetrovateľského personálu.
Štvrtým prieskumným cieľom sme zisťovali záujem sestier o vzdelávacie aktivity týkajúce sa problematiky bariérového ošetrovateľstva. Pýtali sme sa, či sa sestry zúčastnili preškolenia alebo vzdelávacej aktivity, ktorá bola zameraná na problematiku bariérového ošetrovateľstva. Z celkového počtu 14,94% respondentov uviedlo, že za posledné dva roky sa nezúčastnili preškolenia v uvedenej problematike. Prieskumom sme zistili, že na uvedených pracoviskách v určitých časových intervaloch vo vysokej miere realizujú semináre na problematiku bariérového ošetrovateľstva. Aj napriek tomu, že sa realizujú semináre, sestry v prieskume poukázali nato, že my mali záujem v rámci sústavného vzdelávania dozvedieť sa viac o problematike bariérového ošetrovateľstva.

Odporúčania pre prax

Na základe výsledkov prieskumu, ktorý bol zameraný na problematiku bariérového ošetrovateľstva, s cieľom zistiť úroveň vedomostí a praktických zručností sestier týkajúcej sa bariérového ošetrovateľstva v praxi, úroveň materiálno-technického vybavenia nemocníc týkajúceho sa zabezpečovania bariérovej ošetrovateľskej techniky a najčastejšie chyby pri poskytovaní bariérovej ošetrovacej starostlivosti navrhujeme odporúčania pre prax, s cieľom podporiť bariérové ošetrovateľstvo v klinickej praxi, zabezpečiť bezpečnosť pacienta a zvýšiť odbornú erudíciu sestier, konkrétne:

- Realizovať pravidelné ošetrovateľské audity, ktoré sú zamerané na výkony vyžadujúce aseptický prístup.
- Zabezpečiť na oddeleniach zdravotníckych zariadení materiálno- technické a priestorové požiadavky pre bariérovú ošetrovateľskú starostlivosť, aby sa zamedzilo šíreniu multirezistentných kmeňov.
- Pravidelne hlásiť a evidovať kolonizáciu a infekciu multirezistentnými kmeňmi Regionálnym úradom verejného zdravotníctva.
- Pravidelne kontrolovať dodržiavanie princípov bariérového ošetrovateľstva.
- V rámci sústavného vzdelávania sestier realizovať edukačné stretnutia zamerané na problematiku bariérového ošetrovateľstva v klinickej praxi.

4 ZÁVER

Súčasťou kvality poskytovanej ošetrovateľskej starostlivosti je štandardizácia ošetrovateľských postupov a dodržiavanie legislatívnych požiadaviek vzťahujúcich sa na

ošetrovateľskú prax. Zložkou uvedených aspektov je aj bariérové ošetrovateľstvo, ktoré významne ovplyvňuje bezpečnosť pacienta. Bariérová ošetrovateľská starostlivosť je hlavným opatrením pri prevencii prenosu infekcie zo zdroja na zdravého jedinca. Zahŕňa všetky ošetrovateľské postupy, ktoré sa spájajú s rôznymi špecifickými materiálnymi i priestorovými požiadavkami, ktorých cieľom je zamedzenie vzniku a prenosu nozokomiálnych nákaz v zdravotníckych zariadeniach. Hlavný pilier v prevencii vzniku a šírenia nemocničných nákaz je hygiena a dezinfekcia rúk zdravotníckeho personálu, profesionálny prístup a zodpovednosť zdravotníckych pracovníkov voči pacientom, materiálno-technické zabezpečenie a odborná erudícia zdravotníckych pracovníkov.

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NEDOBROVOĽNÁ HOSPITALIZÁCIA DUŠEVNE CHORÝCH Z POHĽADU ETIKY NA SLOVENSKU

INCREASING HOSPITALIZATION MENTAL ILL OF ETHICAL INSIGHT IN SLOVAKIA

Terézia Fertaľová

Abstrakt

Duševné zdravie je neoddeliteľnou súčasťou celkového zdravia. Umožňuje človeku naplniť a zužitkovať svoje potenciály. Je základným stavebným kameňom rozvoja ľudstva. Žiadny človek nie je imúnny voči duševným chorobám a ich dopad je vo všetkých oblastiach života jednotlivca enormný. Liečba psychiatrického pacienta naráža na úskalia a okolnosti vo vzťahu k potrebe liečiť sa. Jednou z problémových oblastí, ktorá sa zároveň stáva etickou dilemou je nedobrovoľná hospitalizácia. Kritéria k nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácii vymedzuje zákon. Napriek tomu ide o nepríjemnú situáciu, ktorá môže vážne narušiť terapeutických vzťah a ohroziť následnú spoluprácu s pacientom, preto postup nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácie musí podliehať zákonným a etickým normám.

Kľúčové slová: *duševné zdravie, duševné ochorenie, etika, nedobrovoľná hospitalizácia*

Abstract

Mental health is an integral part of health. It allows people to fill and reap the potential. It is the cornerstone of human development. No man is immune to mental illness and their impact is enormous in all areas of the individual's life. The treatment of a psychiatric patient hampers the difficulties and circumstances in relation to the need to treat. One of the problem areas, which is also an ethical dilemma, is involuntary hospitalization. Criteria for involuntary hospitalization are defined by law. Nonetheless, it is an unpleasant situation that can seriously disrupt the therapeutic relationship and jeopardize subsequent collaboration with the patient, therefore the procedure of involuntary hospitalization must be subject to legal and ethical standards.

Key words*: mental health, mental illnesses, ethics, increasing hospitalization*

1. DUŠEVNÉ ZDRAVIE A DUŠEVNÉ OCHORENIE

Duševné zdravie je vedomie vlastnej hodnoty, uvedomovanie si vlastných možností a schopností, schopnosť vytvárať a udržiavať vzťahy a psychickú pohodu. Duševné zdravie je cieľom, nie normou. Duševne zdraví ľudia majú sami k sebe dobrý postoj, nenechajú sa premôcť vlastnými emóciami, ako je strach, hnev, žiarlivosť, pocit viny, nepodceňujú, ale ani nepreceňujú svoje schopnosti. Dokážu sa povzniesť nad životnými neúspechmi, majú tolerantný postoj tak k sebe, ako aj k iným. Dokážu sa na sebe zasmiať, dokážu prijať svoje nedostatky, majú primeranú sebaúctu, dokážu sa tešiť z každodenných vecí. Cítia sa dobre medzi inými ľuďmi, dokážu prejavovať lásku, majú trvalé a uspokojivé osobné vzťahy, rešpektujú rozdiely medzi ľuďmi, nevyužívajú druhých ľudí, ale zároveň nedovolia, aby druhí zneužívali ich. Sú schopní zvládať požiadavky života, teda dokážu zvládať problémy, akceptujú myšlienky. Duševne zdravý človek sa dokáže adaptovať na primeranú záťaž, ale aj na záťaž, ktorá je istým spôsobom nie celkom normálna, ale prináša ju bežný život, ako je napr. smrť blízkej osoby, neúspechy v zamestnaní a pod. (Marková, Venglářová, Babiaková

a kol., 2006). Mentálna hygiena je odbor, ktorý skúma biologické, a sociálne podmienky pôsobiace na psychiku, zaoberá sa vývojom a upevňovaním duševného zdravia a jeho prevenciou (Petr, Marková, a kol., 2014).
Duševné ochorenia rôzneho druhu postihujú milióny ľudí na celom svete nezávisle na veku, pohlaví, spoločenskom postavení či národnosti. V laickej verejnosti je mnoho skreslených názorov na duševné choroby. Napriek dostupným informáciám sa nezriedka môžeme stretnúť s vierou v rôzne mýty a nepravdy, týkajúce sa duševných chorôb. V pozadí týchto predsudkov stojí často neznalosť a strach z duševného ochorenia, ale i duševne chorého človeka. Pod pojmom duševná porucha rozumieme poruchu psychických funkcií, ktorá bráni plnohodnotnej vonkajšej i vnútornej realizácii osobnosti. Základnými psychickými funkciami sú: vnímanie, pozornosť, vedomie, pudový život, intelekt, myslenie, vôľové konanie, osobnosť (Fertaľová, 2017).

1.1 Etika a duševné ochorenia

Etika je vednou disciplínou, ktorá po celé stáročia modifikuje správanie a konanie ľudí. Zároveň ich učí morálnemu dobru a odmieta morálne zlo. Moderná doba súčasného civilizovaného sveta by nemala popri vedecko-technickom rozmachu zabúdať aj na etické hľadisko, ktoré je potrebné uplatňovať ku každému ľudskému jedincovi (Ondriová a kol., 2014).
Etika pomáha hľadať a rozlišovať za každých okolností čo je mravné, čo je nemravné. Následne podľa toho konať. Základným východiskom etiky je jedinečnosť a dôstojnosť ľudského života. Chrániť a rešpektovať základné ľudské práva, zvlášť ľudskú dôstojnosť patrí k etickým povinnostiam všetkých zdravotníckych pracovníkov. Každý človek si zaslúži, aby sa k nemu pristupovalo s rešpektom, aby boli chránené jeho práva a záujmy (Ondriová a kol. 2015).
Psychiatrická etika je oblasťou zdravotníckej etiky, ktorá sa zaoberá otázkami súvisiacimi s poskytovaním psychiatrickej starostlivosti. Psychiatria do etickej problematiky vnáša množstvo zvláštností a prax si vynucuje modifikáciu etických zásad. Žiadny iný medicínsky odbor sa neangažuje v snahe o zmenu správania chorého, naviac pomocou tak účinných metód ako je farmakoterapia, psychoterapia.
Každodenná starostlivosť o psychiatrického pacienta je spojená s etickými požiadavkami, pretože vzťah medzi psychiatrom, psychológom, sestrou a pacientom má špeciálnu povahu, keďže duševné poruchy ovplyvňujú myslenie, vnímanie, plánovanie, správanie a vzťahy chorého. V súvislosti s poskytovaním psychiatrickej starostlivosti je dôležité rešpektovať pravidlá a osobitné zručnosti, konkrétne:

1. byť schopný rozpoznať etický problém a jeho dôležitosť v konkrétnej situácii,
2. v rozpoznaní etických problémov reflektovať svoju vlastnú rolu, vlastné motívy a byť schopný a ochotný rozpoznať konflikt záujmov,
3. uplatniť etické profesné rozhodnutia a byť schopný uvedomiť si a niesť dôsledky,
4. adekvátne zabezpečiť rešpektovanie etických princípov aj v komplexných situáciách (Ptáček, Bartůněk a kol., 2011).

V zásade existujú v oblasti psychiatrie tri eticky problémové oblasti a úlohy:

1. ochrana pacientov pred nevhodným zaobchádzaním, neoprávneným zásahom do ich slobôd vrátane súdneho posudzovania a pred nátlakom,
2. zdôraznenie práv pacientov, snaha o to, aby i psychiatrickí pacienti mohli v čo najväčšej možnej miere rozhodovať sami o sebe a spôsobe života,
3. snaha o zmenu prístupu spoločnosti k psychiatrickým pacientom, kultivované správanie poskytovateľov psychiatrickej starostlivosti, spolupráca zdravotníctva a verejnej správy v prospech chorých (Petr, Marková a kol., 2014).

Podľa súčasných trendov správna starostlivosť o psychiatrických pacientov je založená na troch pilieroch:

1. znalosť odbornej problematiky a schopnosť uplatniť tieto pozitívne vedomosti v praxi,
2. orientácia v základných právnych predpisoch a nariadeniach,
3. rešpekt k eticky oprávneným nárokom pacienta a vnímavosť k etickým problémom psychiatrickej starostlivosti.

Duševná choroba môže spôsobiť poruchu kritického úsudku, vôle či jednania psychicky chorého, ktorý sa nevie sám o seba postarať a nie je schopný právnych úkonov a rovnako vyjadriť sa k vlastnej liečbe. Preto sú potrebné zvláštne právne normy k ochrane záujmov duševne chorých. O zmene spôsobilosti chorého k právnym úkonom rozhoduje súd. Podnet dáva psychiater alebo iný lekár. Súd rozhoduje na základe odborného posudku znalca v odbore psychiatria, ktorý je tak mnohokrát konfrontovaný etickými otázkami pri svojom rozhodovaní. Pri každom podozrení z duševnej poruchy u páchateľov trestného činu musí byť dokazovaná trestná činnosť doložená znaleckým súdne psychiatrickým vyšetrením. Psychiater vedľa odbornej problematiky rieši aj etickú dilemu v súvislosti s nedobrovoľnou hospitalizáciou. Popri právnej zodpovednosti za osud chorého má psychiater tiež morálnu zodpovednosť.

Správna klinická prax sa bez reflexie etických problémov nezaobíde. Je preto nevyhnutné zdôrazniť tri piliere, na ktorých stojí súčasná medicína:

1. odborné znalosti,
2. právne zaistenie,
3. vnímavosť k etickým problémom.

Etický prístup k pacientovi je základom terapeutického vzťahu. Nemôže byť nahradený psychoterapiou a nemôže byť vynútený legislatívnymi usmerneniami (Fertaľová, 2017).

Jedným z dokladov ochrany práv duševne chorých je Deklarácia práv duševne chorých – rezolúcia schválená valným zhromaždením OSN dňa 20. decembra 1971 (Petr, Marková a kol., 2014).

- Duševne chorý občan má rovnaké práva ako ostatní občania, pokiaľ je to možné.
- Má nárok na primerané lekárske ošetrenie a liečbu zodpovedajúcu jeho potrebám.
- Má právo na materiálne zabezpečenie a primeraný životný štandard.
- Vždy keď je to možné, má právo žiť so svojou rodinou, opatrovníkmi a podieľať sa na dianí v rodine.
- Má právo, ak je to potrebné, na kvalifikovaného opatrovníka.
- Má právo na ochranu pred zneužívaním, pohŕdaním a ponižovaním.
- Ak duševne chorý v dôsledku svojho postihnutia nie je spôsobilý v plnom rozsahu uplatňovať svoje práva a ukazuje sa potreba zastupovania, je potrebné mu niektoré práva obmedziť či odobrať – vtedy je potrebné zabezpečiť právnu istotu proti akejkoľvek forme zneužitia v čase odoberania a odobratia (Kořenek, 2002).

V súčasnosti je najvýznamnejším dokumentom Deklarácia ľudských práv duševne chorých, vydaná v roku 1989 Svetovou federáciou duševného zdravia a deklarácia ľudských práv a duševného zdravia.

1.2 Nedobrovoľná hospitalizácia

Pokiaľ si zdravotný stav pacienta vyžaduje hospitalizáciu na psychiatrickom oddelení, pacient prichádza do príjmovej psychiatrickej ambulancie. Pri prvom kontakte s pacientom je podstatné motivovať pacienta a získať jeho dôveru pre terapeutickú spoluprácu. Môže ísť o hospitalizáciu so súhlasom pacienta alebo sa môže jednať o hospitalizáciu bez súhlasu. V takomto prípade pacient prichádza v sprievode rodinných príslušníkov, priateľov, pracovníkov záchrannej zdravotnej služby alebo v sprievode polície. V niektorých situáciách pacient nie je schopný rozhodnúť sa a vnímať potrebu hospitalizácie. V prípade

nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácie môže byť vážne narušený terapeutický vzťah. V prípade, že pacient nie je spôsobilý pre právne úkony, súhlas k hospitalizácii podpisuje zákonný zástupca, prípadne poručník. Veľmi často pacient súhlasí s hospitalizáciou na základe intervencií rodinných príslušníkov, aj keď vnútorne nemusí byť stotožnený s hospitalizáciou na psychiatrickom oddelení, aj v takomto prípade je sťažená terapeutická spolupráca (Fertaľová, 2017).

Choroby a poruchy spĺňajúce kritéria k nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácie podľa §6 ods. 8 písm. c a § 9 ods. 4 zákona 576/2004 Z. z. o zdravotnej starostlivosti.

- organické poškodenie mozgu so zmätenosťou,
- delirantný syndróm rôznej genézy,
- delírium tremens,
- psychotická porucha vyvolaná užitím psychoaktívnych látok,
- amnestický syndróm,
- porucha správania s agresivitou pri užití psychotropnej látky,
- psychotická dekompenzácia ochorenia z okruhu schizofrénie,
- ťažká depresívna porucha, psychotická depresívna porucha so suicidálnou aktivitou,
- manický syndróm s poruchami správania,
- stav po samovražednom pokuse, adaptačná porucha,
- poruchy príjmu potravy – mentálna anorexia a mentálna bulímia,
- porucha osobnosti so závažnou poruchou správania v zmysle sebaohrozovania a ohrozovania okolia,
- dekompenzácia eretickej formy mentálnej retardácie,
- poruchy správania v adolescencii, ktoré ohrozujú život pacienta,
- ústavné pozorovanie psychického stavu pri závažných kriminálnych činoch z doposiaľ nezistenej motivácie.

Informovaný súhlas je kladné prejavenie vôle s určitým zákrokom za úplnej znalosti rizík, ako aj ďalších alternatív zákroku. Osoba s prejavmi závažnej psychickej choroby si často nie je vedomá svojej duševnej poruchy, nedokáže porozumieť poučeniu o zdravotnom stave a ani nedokáže kvalifikovane rozhodnúť či bude alebo nebude liečená (Uhrin, Kitková, Lipták, 2012).

Pri nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácii alebo ochrannej ambulantnej liečbe je dôležité citlivo vyhodnotiť záujem pacienta a jeho okolia. Pri nedobrovoľnej hospitalizácii postupujeme individuálne po konzultácii právnika a rodiny pacienta. Ďalšou dôležitou legálnou otázkou je situácia, kedy pacientov stav vyžaduje medikáciu, ktorú odmieta.

Štát má povinnosť zabezpečiť všetkým občanom, vrátane psychicky chorých základné ľudské práva a slobody. Duševne chorý musí mať zaistený rovnaký prístup k právu a k spravodlivosti ako ostatní občania. V situáciách, kedy duševne chorý nie je schopný svoje práva hájiť, by mal získať zodpovedajúcu právnu ochranu, podporu a právnu asistenciu. Špecifikom poskytovania nútenej zdravotnej starostlivosti osobám s duševnou poruchou je zásah primárne do dvoch ľudských práv a to do práva na slobodu (sloboda pohybu, osobná bezpečnosť) a do práva na súkromie, ktorého jednou zložkou je aj právo rozhodovať o prijatí/neprijatí zdravotnej starostlivosti. Zákon č. 576/2004 Z. z. o zdravotnej starostlivosti v §6 ods. 9 uvádza taxatívny výpočet prípadov, v ktorých je možné poskytnúť zdravotnú starostlivosť aj bez informovaného súhlasu, pričom v písm. d) je uvedené, že informovaný súhlas sa nevyžaduje v prípade *„ambulantnej starostlivosti alebo ústavnej starostlivosti, ak ide o osobu, ktorá v dôsledku duševnej choroby alebo s príznakmi duševnej poruchy ohrozuje seba alebo svoje okolie, alebo ak hrozí vážne zhoršenie jej zdravotného stavu.“* Zákon o zdravotnej starostlivosti v § 9 ods. 4 pokračuje: *„Ak ide o ústavnú starostlivosť, na ktorú sa nevyžaduje informovaný súhlas podľa § 6 ods. 9 písm. d), poskytovateľ je povinný prevzatie osoby do ústavnej starostlivosti oznámiť do 24 hodín súdu, v ktorého obvode sa zdravotnícke*

zariadenie ústavnej starostlivosti nachádza. O zákonnosti dôvodov prevzatia do ústavnej starostlivosti rozhodne súd. Do rozhodnutia súdu možno vykonávať len také zdravotné výkony, ktoré sú nevyhnutné na záchranu života a zdravia osoby alebo na zabezpečenie jej okolia." Procesná stránka kontroly zákonnosti zadržania je upravená v § 191 až 191g Občianskeho súdneho poriadku. Súd rozhoduje na základe oznámenia „zdravotníckeho zariadenia" v dvoch fázach. Do piatich dní od momentu obmedzenia osobnej slobody pacienta rozhoduje uznesením o *zákonnosti prevzatia pacienta*. Ak skonštatuje, že prevzatie bolo zákonné, tak rozsudkom rozhodne o *prípustnosti ďalšieho držania pacienta*, ktoré musí vydať do troch mesiacov od prijatia uznesenia zákonnosti prevzatia. Zákonnými podmienkami (resp. znakmi) detencie, tak ako ich definuje zákon sú:

a) zadržaná osoba trpí duševnou chorobou, alebo sa u nej prejavujú príznaky duševnej poruchy,
b) zadržaná osoba so zdravotným stavom opísaným v bode a) ohrozuje samu seba alebo ohrozuje svoje okolie, pričom toto konanie je vyvolané duševnou chorobou alebo u zadržanej osoby hrozí vážne zhoršenie jej zdravotného stavu,
c) zadržanie oznamuje poskytovateľ zdravotnej starostlivosti do 24 hodín od obmedzenia osobnej slobody, s týmto je spojená otázka špecializácie poskytovateľa a miesto zadržania,
d) do rozhodnutia súdu o zákonnosti prevzatia sa poskytuje „nevyhnutná" liečba,
e) o zákonnosti zadržania rozhoduje súd v zákonom stavených lehotách,
f) zadržaná osoba má byť v konaní zastúpená - s týmto sú spojené ďalšie otázky zabezpečenia procesných práv v konaní (Humeník, Husovský, 2013).

2. ZÁVER

Nedobrovoľné zadržanie psychicky chorej osoby je súčasťou psychiatrickej starostlivosti v určitých modalitách približne 200 rokov, teda v podstate od jej vzniku ako medicínskej disciplíny. V súčasnosti sa detencia zo zdravotných dôvodov praktizuje globálne, i keď jej konkrétne formy varírujú od štátu k štátu. Aj dnes zadržanie psychiatrického pacienta vzbudzuje etické dilemy a jeho prínosy sú podrobované ako právnemu, tak aj medicínskemu skúmaniu. Aj keď by sa niekto mohol domnievať, že zákon poskytol riešenia väčšine prípadov týkajúcich sa núteného zadržania osôb, v skutočnosti ešte stále existujú medzery, ktoré môžu spôsobovať viacero právnych, morálnych, sociálnych a etických problémov.

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SLOVNÉ ASOCIÁCIE VO VÝSKUME JAZYKOVÉHO VEDOMIA

WORD ASSOCIATIONS IN LANGUAGE AWARENESS RESEARCH

Žaneta Zsarnóczaiová

Abstrakt

Jazykové vedomie je problémom so širokým interdisciplinárnym charakterom. Už dlhé roky ho skúmajú odborníci z mnohých vedeckých sfér – kognitívnej lingvistiky, psycholingvistiky, psychológie, (lingvo)kulturológie, filozofie atď. Napriek tomu, že pre svoju veľkú abstraktnosť je samotný jav prakticky nemožné skúmať, dnes už poznáme účinné techniky jeho premietania. Doteraz najúspešnejšou metódou, vyvinutou psychológmi a psycholingvistami, je tzv. asociačný experiment, ktorý skúma obraz jazykového vedomia jednotlivca prostredníctvom tzv. slovných asociácií. Nakoľko experiment môže mať aj masový charakter, dovoľuje nám dokonca premietať jazykový obraz sveta celého národa či porovnávať usporiadanie faktov v jazykovom vedomí príslušníkov rôznych pohlaví, vekových kategórií, národov a kultúr, a dospieť tak k zaujímavým zisteniam.

Kľúčové slová: *asociácia, asociačný experiment, jazykové vedomie, jazykový obraz sveta*

Abstract

Language awareness is a topic of a wide interdisciplinary nature. It is being researched by professionals coming from different scientific fields – cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, psychology, (linguo)cultural studies, philosophy, and so on. Despite of the seeming incapability to research this phenomenon due to it being largely abstract, today we already know effective techniques of its projection. The most successful method up to now, developed by psychologists and psycholinguists, is the so called association experiment which examines the language awareness of an individual through word associations. As the experiment could be conducted en masse, it even enables us to project the language picture of the world of a whole nation, or to compare the arrangement of facts in the language awareness of members of different gender, age groups, nations and cultures, thus leading us to interesting findings.

Key words: *association, association experiment, language awareness, language picture of the world*

Jazyk je bezpochyby jedným z najväčších otáznikov celého ľudstva. Jeho pôvod, fungovanie a podoba sa napriek nezastaviteľnému vedeckému pokroku stále častokrát vymyká ľudskému chápaniu. Obrovská abstraktnosť tohto pojmu je najpravdepodobnejšie zapríčinená neobsiahnuteľnosťou jeho existenčného priestoru – ľudskej mysle.

Bolo preto len otázkou času, kedy veda pochopí, že tieto dva fenomény – jazyk a ľudskú psychiku – nemožno skúmať oddelene. Práve táto myšlienka sa stala impulzom pre vznik hraničnej disciplíny s názvom psycholingvistika. Vzhľadom na špecifické ciele psycholingvistiky bolo nutné vyvinúť i účinné metódy, akými by sa k nim táto nová veda mohla dopracovať. Jednou z najúspešnejších psycholingvistických techník, aké boli doteraz vyvinuté, je tzv. asociačný experiment. Už zo samotného názvu je zjavné, že predmetom jeho skúmania sú slovné asociácie.

Štúdiu slovných asociácií sa vo svojich prácach venuje mnoho svetových vedcov (porov. Gorošková, Martineková, Norman, Leontiev, Zalevskaja, Ufimcevová a i.). S úmyslom

analyzovať asociačný proces z lingvistického aspektu a získať tak určité teoretické závery uskutočnil na prelome 70. – 80. rokov 20. storočia niekoľko prieskumov aj významný slovenský jazykovedec J. Mistrík. Napriek tomu na Slovensku asociácie doteraz skúmala prevažne psychológia (porov. Maršálová, Kondáš), zatiaľ čo lingvistika skôr zbežne (porov. Sipko).

1 ASOCIÁCIA

Slovník slovenského jazyka uvádza, že v psychologickej terminológii asociácia znamená združovanie alebo združenie predstáv, pri ktorom jedna predstava vyvoláva druhú na základe podobnosti, styčnosti alebo protikladnosti (Slovník slovenského jazyka, 1968).
Veľký výkladový slovník ruského jazyka odvodzuje asociáciu od latinského slova „associatio“ a vysvetľuje ju ako spojenie, ktoré pri určitých podmienkach vzniká medzi dvomi a viacerými psychickými formami (pocitmi, pohybovými aktmi, vnemami, myšlienkami a pod.) (Boľšoj tolkovyj slovar russkogo jazyka, 2017).
Nám sa najzrozumiteľnejšou javí definícia S. L. Rubinštejna, ktorý tvrdí, že asociácia je v podstate proces, v ktorom jeden jav nadobúda význam signálu pre druhý jav (Rubinštejn, 1997).

2 ASOCIAČNÝ EXPERIMENT

Ako sme už spomínali vyššie, asociácie sa dodnes najúspešnejšie skúmajú pomocou tzv. asociačného experimentu. Ten prišiel do lingvistiky z oblasti psychológie a súdnej expertízy. Spočiatku sa používal na skúmanie rozumovej činnosti psychicky chorých pacientov. Dnes sa v psychológii a psychiatrii využíva najmä pri skúmaní záujmov a zloženia osobnosti či v predostretí konfliktných zážitkov. To dáva logický predpoklad na využitie asociačného experimentu napr. aj v kriminalistike v procese vyšetrovania trestných činov a pod. (Norman, 2014).
Pri voľnom asociačnom experimente sú respondenti požiadaní odpovedať na zoznam tzv. stimulov prvým slovom, ktoré im príde na um. Pri masovom experimente sú respondenti zhromaždení v jednej miestnosti, dostanú inštrukcie a sú motivovaní odpovedať čestne a objektívne. Následne im je rozdaný materiál vo forme dotazníkov, ktoré obsahujú zoznam stimulov. Potom už prebieha samotný experiment, počas ktorého majú respondenti ku každému stimulu napísať jedno slovo (tzv. reakciu), ktoré im po prečítaní stimulu prišlo na um ako prvé. Nakoniec sa vyplnené dotazníky zozbierajú. Zvyčajne zoznam tvorí 100 slov, na ktoré majú respondenti odpovedať v priebehu 7-10 minút (Lingvističeskij associativnyj eksperiment, 2016). Reakcie sa potom systematizujú podľa frekventovanosti a takto sa zostaví heslo tzv. asociačného slovníka. Obsah a zmysel materiálov asociačných slovníkov sa analyzuje a skúma v spojitosti s najrôznejšími psycholingvistickými (i lingvistickými) výskumami, predovšetkým s problémami jazykového vedomia, obrazu sveta a interkultúrnej komunikácie (Vygovskaja, 2014). Okrem toho asociačné normy, získané z takéhoto experimentu, môžu zohrávať dôležitú úlohu napríklad aj pri samotnom výklade slova, pri štúdiu antoným alebo synoným, a to tak, že nám odhaľujú práve vedľajšie sémantické odtiene slov v jazykovom vedomí nositeľov jazyka, ktoré sa častokrát nedozvedáme ani z výkladových slovníkov.

3 PREMIETANIE JAZYKOVÉHO VEDOMIA POMOCOU ASOCIÁCIÍ

N. V. Ufimcevová je presvedčená, že asociačný experiment je jedným zo spôsobov premietania jazykového vedomia a asociačné polia, ktoré sa formujú z reakcií nositeľov jazyka, umožňujú opis obrazov ich vedomia. Obraz vedomia, ktorý sa asociuje so slovom, je jeden z mnohých pokusov opísať poznatky, ktoré komunikanti používajú pri tvorbe a prijímaní rečových správ. Spolu s J. F. Tarasovom definuje tiež tzv. jadro jazykového

vedomia, pod ktorým obaja chápu súhrn slov s najväčším počtom spojení s inými slovami v asociačno-verbálnej sieti (Ufimceva – Tarasov, 2009).

3.1 Rozdiely v asociovaní nositeľov rôznych jazykov / kultúr

Veľmi zaujímavým sa ukazuje (lingvo)kulturologický aspekt asociovania. *Asociačný experiment odhaľuje systémovosť obsahu obrazu vedomia, ktoré stojí za slovom v rôznych kultúrach, a tiež systémovosť celého jazykového vedomia nositeľov rôznych kultúr, čím odhaľuje unikátnosť a neopakovateľnosť obrazu sveta každej kultúry. Logicky teda jazykové vedomie možno vnímať ako nástroj spoznávania cudzej kultúry v jej predmetnej, činnostnej i mentálnej forme, a tiež ako nástroj spoznávania vlastnej kultúry* (Vygovskaja, 2014, s. 1158).

Pri výskume kultúrnych a mentálnych stereotypov zohráva dôležitú úlohu porovnávanie asociačných noriem rôznych jazykov. V tomto prípade je nevyhnutné, aby boli zoznamy stimulov, z ktorých asociačný experiment vychádza, jednotné. Väčšinou sa pre tieto účely používa zoznam Kentovej-Rosanoffa, preložený do zodpovedajúcich jazykov. V súčasnosti už existuje množstvo komparatívnych asociačných slovníkov, založených na porovnávaní reakcií nositeľov rôznych jazykov na stimuly s tým istým významom. Medzi nimi napr. „Asociačné normy španielskeho a ruského jazyka“ z r. 2000, „Asociačné normy ruského a nemeckého jazyka“ z r. 2004, rusko-bielorusko-bulharsko-ukrajinský „Slovanský asociačný slovník“ z r. 2004 a pod.

Nakoľko sú asociačné normy veľmi stabilné v čase a priestore, je pomocou nich možné posudzovať kultúrne hodnoty daného národa a stereotypy, ktoré sa s ním spájajú. B. Norman zdieľa názor, že stereotypy rečovej komunikácie sú odrazom najvýraznejších behaviorálnych stereotypov, typických pre rôzne socio-kultúrne skupiny ľudí (Norman, 2004).

Práve nezhoda v rámci kultúrnych stereotypov rôznych subjektov (či už jednotlivcov, skupín alebo celých národov) býva často prameňom medzikultúrnych konfliktov. Asociačné normy, získané v asociačnom experimente, nám odkrývajú obraz sveta nositeľov daných jazykov, resp. kultúr tým, že pomáhajú pochopiť rôzne rečové špecifiká, vedľajšie významové odtiene, politické, kultúrne, historické a iné z reálií vyplývajúce konotácie jazykových a rečových jednotiek. Skúmaniu stereotypov, ktoré vznikajú pri asociovaní, je zasvätených mnoho vedeckých prác, no stretávame sa s nimi aj v bežnom živote. Veľkej internetovej popularite sa tešia videá, ktoré vtipne spracovávajú rečové a behaviorálne stereotypy rôznych sociálnych skupín, mnohí poznáme tzv. mapy národných stereotypov atď. Zrejme najlepším príkladom však bude notoricky známa skupina vtipov „Ide Američan, Rus a Slovák...“, ktorej analógy sú rozšírené aj v iných krajinách, vrátane Českej republiky. Pre priblíženie jeden uvádzame:

Na brale nad oceánom stoja Američan, Rus, Čech a Slovák. Zrazu sa pred nimi zjaví démon a hovorí Američanovi:
D: „Skoč!"
A: „Čo ti šibe?"
D: „Dostaneš za to milión dolárov a celý svet bude o tebe rozprávať."
A: „Super!" a šup, už bol dole.
Démon hovorí Rusovi: „Skoč aj ty! Aj tebe dám milión a budeš slávny."
R: „Na to ti kašlem. Za rodinu, za vlasť!" a už bol dole.
Čech nad tým nechápavo krúti hlavou a pozerá sa, ako sa Rus strepal dole.
Démon mu hovorí: „Skoč aj ty! Za rodinu, za vlasť."
Č: „Nie, nechcem sa zabiť."
D: „Ale je to zadarmo..."
Č: „No to si mal skôr povedať!" šup a už bol dole.
Slováčisko len pozerá a démon mu hovorí: „Skoč, dostaneš milión dolárov."
S: „A čo?"

D: „Tak to urob pre slávu svojej krajiny."
S: „???"
D: „Veď je to celé zadarmo..."
S: „No a?"
D: „Takže neskočíš," rezignuje démon.
S: „Čože?!"
D: „Že neskočíš."
S: „Tak ja že neskočím?!" a už bol dole (Národy, 2017).

Pre hlbšie nazretie do problematiky ponúkame v príspevku analýzu vybraného slova z vlastného asociačného experimentu, ktorý mal podobu dotazníka a bol zostavený podľa odporúčaní v práci T. V. Popovovej (porov. Popova, 2011). Inšpirovať sme sa nechali aj asociačným experimentom S. Martinekovej (porov. Martinek, 2007).

Experiment sme uskutočnili na vzorke 84 študentov 1. až 4. ročníka gymnázia. Dotazník sa skladá z 5 strán, pričom prvú stranu tvoria inštrukcie k správnemu vyplneniu dotazníka a tiež miesto pre uvedenie potrebných údajov respondenta - vek, pohlavie, škola, ročník, dátum a čas začiatku vypĺňania testu. Zvyšné 4 strany tvorí 100 overených stimulov, ktoré sme vybrali z už existujúcich asociačných slovníkov, aby spĺňali kritérium porovnateľnosti. Tieto stimuly majú pre vyššiu objektivitu formu rôznych slovných druhov a sú v dotazníku umiestnené tak, aby nevyvolávali očividné asociácie s predchádzajúcimi alebo nasledujúcimi stimulmi. Z hľadiska nášho výskumu je pre nás kľúčových 20. Zvyšné slová boli použité na rozptýlenie pozornosti respondenta, čím sme sledovali zvýšenie objektivity a autenticity odpovedí. Na záver sme naše výsledky porovnali so slovníkovými heslami z Ruského asociačného slovníka J. N. Karaulova (porov. Karaulov, 2002) a Ukrajinského asociačné slovníka S. Martinekovej (porov. Martinek, 2007).

Odlišnosť jazykového obrazu sveta rôznych národov a tiež spomínaných kultúrnych a mentálnych stereotypov dobre odrážajú reakcie na náš stimul „BOLESŤ“, ktorý sme porovnali s jeho ruským ekvivalentom „БОЛЬ“ a ukrajinským „БІЛЬ“. Z hľadiska sémantiky sa vo všetkých troch jazykoch asociácie spájajú s medicínou (hlavy, choroba, rana, ostrá a pod.) a citovou oblasťou (duševná, srdca, smútok, strata atď.). Veľmi zaujímavým javom, ktorý nám približuje mentalitu, sú asociácie skrývajúce v sebe hodnotiaci charakter. Ich špecifika skutočne dané jazyky od seba výrazne odlišovala. Pri nositeľoch ruského jazyka sa stretávame s reakciami, vyjadrujúcimi väčšiu húževnatosť a bojovnosť (prechádza, trpezlivosť, pretrpieť, utícha a pod.), pri nositeľoch ukrajinského jazyka s reakciami vo forme prostej konštatácie (vyčerpáva, unavuje, otravná a pod.) a pri nositeľoch slovenského jazyka dokonca s poriadnou tragikou (krik, plač, plakať, strach atď.).

3.2 Rozdiely v asociovaní dospelých a detí

Samozrejme, veľké rozdiely v jazykovom vedomí sú pozorovateľné nielen medzi nositeľmi rôznych jazykov. Rozdiely v asociáciách psychicky zdravých a psychicky chorých ľudí, ľudí rôznych profesií, či ľudí s rôznou úrovňou alebo orientáciou vzdelania a pod. sú v psychológii už pomerne dobre preskúmanou oblasťou. Osobitne zaujímavými sa nám však zdajú rozdiely v asociovaní dospelých a detí, ktoré nám vo svojej práci predostiera J. Mistrík. Jedným z kľúčových postrehov J. Mistríka je napríklad to, že v predgramatickom období (t.j. približne do veku 4 rokov) si deti celé výpovede uvedomujú ako syntagmy, ktorých je iba obmedzený počet a sú pevnejšie ako u dospelého. Svoje tvrdenie autor demonštruje výsledkami svojho prieskumu, a konkrétne porovnaním najvýraznejších reakcií oboch spomínaných skupín. Pre lepšiu ilustráciu si dovolíme citovať tabuľku z jeho práce:

STIMUL	REAKCIA	Z 1000 DOSPELÝCH	Z 1000 DETÍ
VEĽKÝ	d o m	50	180
	m a l ý	415	48

STROM	v y s o k ý	82	420
	j a b l o ň	98	34
MUŽ	p r a c u j e	22	180
	ž e n a	458	10

(Mistrík, 1980).

3.3 Rozdiely v asociovaní mužov a žien

V práci I. N. Kavinkinovej sa dočítame, že psychofyziologické a sociokultúrne rozdiely medzi mužmi a ženami (tzv. genderová opozícia) sa prejavujú aj vo výbere jazykových prostriedkov, v hodnotení jazykových faktov, v asociačných spojeniach, v naivnom a umeleckom obraze sveta i v konceptualizácii. V jazykovom vedomí žien a mužov sa môžu od seba značne líšiť navyše aj mentálne formy v rámci jedného konceptu. Pre príklad by sme z výskumu Kavinkinovej radi uviedli nasledovné porovnanie 4 najčastejších reakcií mužov (*m*) a žien (*f*) na stimul „ŠŤASTIE“:

СЧАСТЬЕ (slov. ŠŤASTIE)

m **здоровье** (slov. zdravie), **радость** (slov. radosť), **деньги** (slov. peniaze), **большое** (slov. veľké) и т.п.	*f* **любовь** (slov. láska), **семья** (slov. rodina), **дети** (slov. deti), **радость** (slov. radosť) и т.п.

(Kavinkina, 2006).

Keďže podobná štúdia podľa nám dostupných informácii v slovenskom jazyku absentuje, na tomto mieste opäť uvádzame príklad zo svojho vlastného prieskumu. Naším zámerom je overiť alebo vyvrátiť Kavinkinovej teóriu a určiť niektoré zákonitosti asociovania mužov a žien v slovenskom jazyku. Vzhľadom na štylistickú a emocionálnu neutralitu slova „POCHOPIŤ“, sa nám zdá veľmi vhodné aplikovať práve tento stimul, rozlišujúc odpovede podľa pohlavia respondenta. Reakcie sú nasledovné:

POCHOPIŤ 84	
m **druhého**, **matematika**, **nepochopiť**, **slovenčina** 2; bystrý, (hádku), **chápať**, **knihu**, **matika**, **nechápem**, **nerozumieť**, nikdy, odmietnuť, odpustiť, **ostatných**, **otázku**, **porozumieť**, **rozumieť**, **vedieť**, (**učivo**), **uvedomiť si**, **vidieť**, **vtip**, **výborne**, **zdravý rozum**, **školiteľ**, **zistiť** 1. Celkový počet reakcií: 31.	*f* **porozumieť** 5; **rozumieť**, (**učivo**) 4; **matematika**, **vedieť** 3; **rozum**, súcitiť, (**zmysel života**) 2; **aj tak nechápať**, **človeka**, (**fyziku**), **chápať**, **koncert**, **konečne**, **ľudí**, (mňa), (nešťastného), **niečo**, **niekoho**, (**osud**), **otázku**, (pocity), pochopenie – dôvera, (priateľa), (**priateľstvo**), (**problém**), **sa rýchlo**, **škola**, (**test**), **učiť sa**, (**úlohu**), **uvedomiť si**, (**význam**), **zistiť**, (zmätok), (**život**) 1. Celkový počet reakcií:53.

Môžeme si všimnúť, že na prvý pohľad absolútne bezpríznakové slovo vyprovokovalo u mužských a ženských respondentov okrem spoločných reakcií aj nesmierne odlišné odpovede. Pri ich porovnaní sme dospeli k nasledujúcim zisteniam:

1) Ako sa aj dalo očakávať, ženy v neporovnateľne väčšej miere, než muži reagujú aj na nocionálne slovo odpoveďami, nesúcimi emocionálny význam. Dôvodom je prirodzená citlivá povaha ženského charakteru. Pre lepšiu orientáciu sme tieto reakcie zvýraznili podčiarknutím.
2) Muži aj ženy dali na podnet približne rovnaký počet (ženy o jednu viac) odpovedí s nádychom empirickosti a praktickosti, hoci predpoklad bol, že v reakciách mužov sa

s nimi stretneme omnoho častejšie. Tieto slová sme vyznačili zelenou farbou. Je však možné, že tento výsledok spôsobuje iba fakt, že mužských respondentov bolo menej, než ženských.

3) Tematický okruh, s ktorým sa podnet najčastejšie asociuje, sa napriek dosť veľkej obsahovej všeobecnosti slova v oboch prípadoch zhoduje - štúdium. Tieto odpovede sú zvýraznené modrou farbou. Berúc do úvahy rozdiel v počte mužských a ženských opýtaných môžeme konštatovať, že ich frekvencia je približne rovnaká.
4) Muži reagujú na podnety konkrétnymi slovami, s abstraktnou reakciou sme sa v ich odpovediach nestretli ani jediný raz. Ženy, naopak, často odpovedali reakciami s veľmi abstraktným významom. Tieto odpovede sú zvýraznené ružovou farbou.
5) Muži aj ženy približne v rovnakom pomere odpovedajú na podnet synonymickými reakciami, ktoré sme vyznačili hrubým čiernym písmom. Zaujímavé však je, že s antonymami sme sa v prípade žien s výnimkou jedinej reakcie nestretli, zatiaľ čo pri mužoch (napriek tomu, že ich bolo značne menej), neboli výnimočným javom. Zvýraznili sme ich pre porovnanie žltou farbou.
6) Ženy neporovnateľne častejšie odpovedajú na podnet vo forme slovesa predmetom. Tieto odpovede sme zvýraznili červenou farbou, resp. ak tieto slová spadajú aj pod iné body, sú uvedené v červenej zátvorke.
7) Medzi mužskými odpoveďami sme sa v jednom prípade stretli aj so študentským slangom, a to so slovom „m a t i k a“. Medzi dievčenskými reakciami podobný jav absentuje.

ZÁVER

Všetky uvedené zistenia potvrdzujú prítomnosť veľkých a častokrát prekvapujúcich rozdielov v usporiadaní faktov v mysliach nielen psychicky zdravých a chorých ľudí, ale dokonca i v mysliach nositeľov rôznych jazykov, príslušníkov rôznych vekových skupín či pohlaví. Asociačný experiment sa teda bezpochyby opakovane ukázal ako veľmi účinná metóda premietania takého ťažkozachytiteľného javu, akým je jazykové vedomie. Zastávame preto názor, že práve slovné asociácie sa vo výskume jazykového vedomia môžu ukázať ako absolútne kľúčové.

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OPINIE STUDENTEK PEDAGOGIKI WCZESNEJ EDUKACJI NA TEMAT WIKIPEDII

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION FEMALE STUDENTS' OPINIONS ON WIKIPEDIA

Bartosz Atroszko

Abstrakt

Artykuł przedstawienia wyniki badania ankietowego dotyczącego opinii studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji na temat Wikipedii. Autorski kwestionariusz ankiety wypełniło 176 respondentek. Badanie przeprowadzono na przełomie maja i czerwca 2018 r. Na podstawie wyników badania można wnioskować, że studentki mają umiarkowane zaufanie do informacji pochodzących z Wikipedii, chociaż dostrzegają jej pozytywne aspekty.

Słowa kluczowe: *Wikipedia, opinie na temat Wikipedii, studenci pedagogiki.*

Abstract

The article presents the results of a questionnaire survey concerning the early childhood education female students' opinions on Wikipedia. The original questionnaire was completed by 176 respondents. The survey was conducted at the turn of May and June 2018. Based on the results of the study, it can be concluded that students have moderate trust in information from Wikipedia, although they perceive positive aspects of Wikipedia.

Keywords: *Wikipedia, opinions on Wikipedia, pedagogy students.*

1 WPROWADZENIE

Opinie na temat Wikipedii warto badać z co najmniej dwóch powodów. Po pierwsze, Wikipedia jest jednym z podstawowych źródeł wiedzy i informacji. W związku z tym wywiera ona duży wpływ na funkcjonowanie całego społeczeństwa. Dlatego warto wiedzieć na ile krytycznie i refleksyjnie jej użytkownicy traktują informacje z niej pochodzące, tym bardziej, że nie jest ona tworzona przez ekspertów, lecz przez anonimowych internautów. Po drugie, Wikipedia jest powszechnie wykorzystywana przez uczniów i studentów jako pomoc w nauce w szkole i na studiach. Z badań własnych przeprowadzonych w 2015 r. wynika, że 99,5% badanych studentów korzystało z Wikipedii przynajmniej sporadycznie (Atroszko, 2015). Podobny jest również odsetek uczniów szkół ponadgimanzjalnych korzystających z tej internetowej encyklopedii (Kwiatkowska, Dąbrowski, 2012). Wikipedia jest więc jednym z najważniejszych, najpowszechniej wykorzystywanych zasobów edukacyjnych. W oparciu o Wikipedię młodzi ludzie budują – w mniejszym lub większym stopniu - swój obraz świata. Biorąc pod uwagę jak popularna jest Wikipedia w Polsce i jaki wywiera ona wpływ na edukację, dziwić może niemal całkowity brak zainteresowania środowiska pedagogów akademickich i innych badaczy edukacji tematem Wikipedii.

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie wyników badania ankietowego dotyczącego opinii na temat Wikipedii przeprowadzonego na próbie 176 studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji. Niniejsze badanie jest kontynuacją i rozwinięciem badania przeprowadzonego w 2015 r., którego wyniki zostały przedstawione w dwóch publikacjach (Atroszko, 2015; Atroszko, Bereznowski, Wróbel i Atroszko, 2016). W poprzednim badaniu udział wzięli

studenci różnych kierunków uczący się na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Natomiast w badaniu przeprowadzonym na przełomie maja i czerwca 2018 r. udział wzięły wyłącznie studentki pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji tego samego wydziału. Ten specyficzny dobór próby wynikał z chęci poznania opinii na temat Wikipedii osób, które przygotowują się do pełnienia roli zawodowej nauczyciela i wychowawcy młodszych dzieci. Osoby te w niedalekiej przyszłości będą stanowiły kadry szkół podstawowych. Stosunek tych osób do korzystania z nowych mediów i czerpania wiedzy z Internetu będzie miał wpływ na praktyki szkolne w tym zakresie. Współcześni nauczyciele bardzo sceptycznie odnoszą się do Wikipedii i wiedzy z niej pochodzącej, jednakże warto podkreślić, że Wikipedia jest dynamicznie rozwijającym się projektem. W szybkim tempie zwiększa się zarówno ilość artykułów polskojęzycznej wersji Wikipedii, jak i jakość tych artykułów. Szczegółowe badanie na temat rozwoju treści Wikipedii prowadzili Żurek i Skolik (2009). W związku z tym można się spodziewać, że opinie na temat Wikipedii będą się zmieniać i że z czasem zmienią się też praktyki szkolne związane z korzystaniem z Wikipedii.

2 METODY

2.1 Uczestniczki badania

Płeć. W badaniu wzięło udział (poprzez wypełnienie kwestionariusza ankiety) 176 kobiet, studentek kierunku pedagogika wczesnej edukacji. Wszystkie respondentki studiowały na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Brak mężczyzn w badaniu wynika z niemal całkowitego sfeminizowania kierunku pedagogika wczesnej edukacji. Mężczyźni na tym kierunku stanowią mniej niż 1% ogółu studentów. *Wiek*. Średnia arytmetyczna wieku respondentek wyniosła 21,6 lat (*SD* = 2,85), zaś mediana 21 lat. Najmłodsza osoba miała 19 lat, zaś najstarsza osoba miała 43 lata. *Tryb studiów*. 119 respondentek (67,6% ogółu) studiowało w trybie stacjonarnym, zaś 57 (32,4%) studiowało w trybie niestacjonarnym. *Rok studiów*. Wszystkie uczestniczki badania były studentkami studiów licencjackich, z czego 148 studentek (84,1%) studiowało na drugim roku, natomiast pozostałe 28 studentek (15,9%) studiowało na trzecim roku. *Specjalność*. Uczestniczki badania studiowały na następujących specjalnościach w ramach kierunku pedagogika wczesnej edukacji: 115 osób (65,3%) na specjalności wczesna edukacja z terapią pedagogiczną, 38 osób (21,6%) na specjalności wczesna edukacja z logopedią, zaś 23 osoby (13,1%) na specjalności wczesna edukacja z językiem angielskim. *Status zawodowy*. Blisko dwie trzecie ankietowanych kobiet pracowało zawodowo, z czego 63 respondentki (36,6%) pracowały, ale w zawodzie niezgodnym z kierunkiem studiów, natomiast 48 respondentek (27,9%) pracowało w zawodzie zgodnym z kierunkiem studiów. Pozostałe 61 respondentek (35,5%) nie pracowało zawodowo. Cztery osoby nie zaznaczyły w ankiecie statusu zawodowego.

2.2 Narzędzie badawcze

W ramach autorskiego kwestionariusza opinii o Wikipedii respondentki zostały poproszone o ustosunkowanie się do 12 stwierdzeń na temat Wikipedii, spośród których pięć reprezentowało negatywne opinie, zaś pozostałe siedem pozytywne opinie (**tabela 1**). Odnosząc się do tych stwierdzeń, respondentki miały do dyspozycji następujący format odpowiedzi: 1 - *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*, 2 - *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, 3 - *Trudno powiedzieć*, 4 - *Raczej zgadzam się*, 5 - *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*.

2.3 Procedura

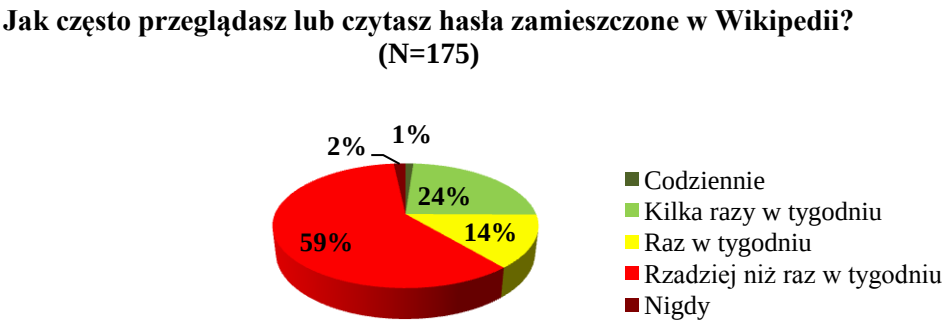
Zastosowano dobór celowy respondentek do badania. Badanie przeprowadzono w dniach od 22 maja do 2 czerwca 2018 r. na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Respondentki wypełniły kwestionariusze ankiet w trakcie zajęć. Udział w badaniu był

dobrowolny. Ankieta była anonimowa. Respondentki nie otrzymały żadnych nagród finansowych ani pozafinansowych za udział w badaniu.

3 WYNIKI

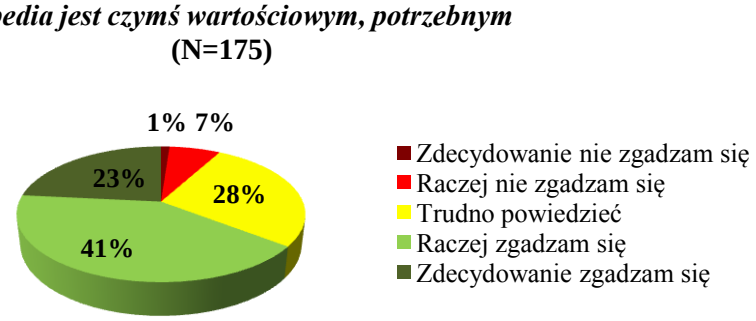
Niemal wszystkie uczestniczki badania (98,3% respondentek) korzystają z Wikipedii. Dwie osoby korzystają z Wikipedii codziennie (1,1%), 42 osoby kilka razy w tygodniu (24,0%), 24 osoby (13,7%) raz w tygodniu, 104 osoby (59,4% badanych) rzadziej niż raz w tygodniu, zaś trzy osoby (1,7%) nigdy nie korzystają z Wikipedii. Jedna osoba nie udzieliła odpowiedzi na to pytanie (wykres 1).

Wykres 1: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek na pytanie „Jak często przeglądasz lub czytasz hasła zamieszczone w Wikipedii?”*



Ze stwierdzeniem *Wikipedia jest czymś wartościowym, potrzebnym* zgodziło się 113 osób (72 osoby odpowiedziały *Raczej zgadzam się*, a 41 osób *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*). 14 osób nie zgodziło się z powyższym stwierdzeniem (12 osób zaznaczyło *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś dwie osoby *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*). 48 osób nie miało jednoznacznego zdania w tej kwestii (zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć*). Jedna osoba nie zaznaczyła żadnej odpowiedzi (wykres 2).

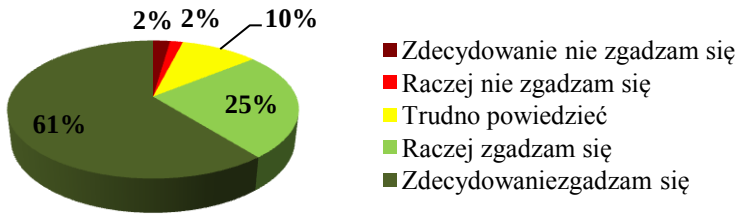
Wykres 2: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Wikipedia jest czymś wartościowym, potrzebnym”*



Ponad 8 na 10 badanych kobiet (151 osób) zgodziło się ze stwierdzeniem *Encyklopedie powinny być tworzone wyłącznie przez ekspertów*. 44 osoby zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś 107 osób *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Mniej niż 1 na 10 respondentek (siedem osób) nie zgodziła się z tą opinią. Trzy osoby zaznaczyły *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś cztery osoby *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć* zaznaczyło 18 osób (wykres 3).

Wykres 3: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Encyklopedie powinny być tworzone wyłącznie przez ekspertów”*

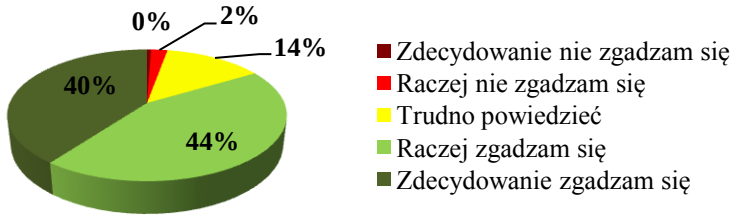
Encyklopedie powinny być tworzone wyłącznie przez ekspertów
(N=176)



Ponad 8 na 10 badanych osób (147 osób) zgodziło się ze stwierdzeniem *Wikipedia zwiększa dostęp ludzi do wiedzy i informacji*, z czego 77 osób zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś 70 osób *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z powyższą opinią nie zgodziło się pięć osób, z czego cztery osoby zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś jedna osoba zaznaczyła *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*). 24 osoby zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć* (wykres 4).

Wykres 4: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Wikipedia zwiększa dostęp ludzi do wiedzy i informacji”*

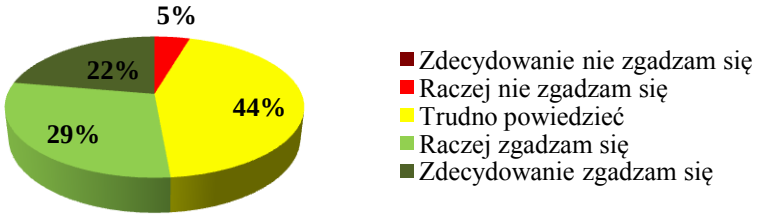
Wikipedia zwiększa dostęp ludzi do wiedzy i informacji
(N=176)



Ze stwierdzeniem *W Wikipedii znajduje się wiele błędnych informacji* zgodziła się ponad połowa respondentek (90 osób). 51 studentek zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, a 39 kobiet *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z opinią tą nie zgodziło się osiem osób, które zaznaczyły w ankiecie opcję *Raczej nie zgadzam się*. 77 osób zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć*. Jedna osoba nie udzieliła odpowiedzi (wykres 5).

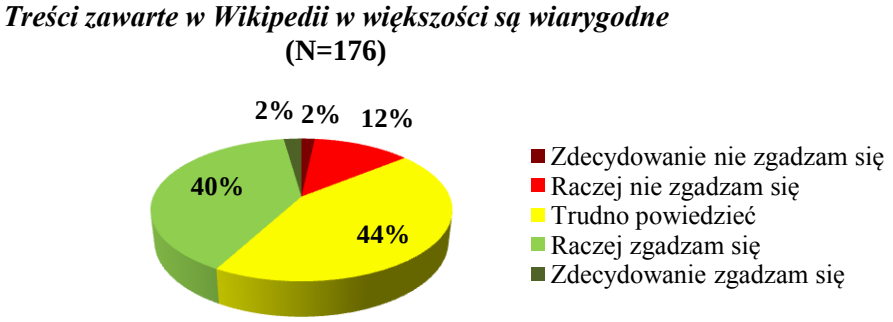
Wykres 5: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „W Wikipedii znajduje się wiele błędnych informacji”*

W Wikipedii znajduje się wiele błędnych informacji
(N=175)



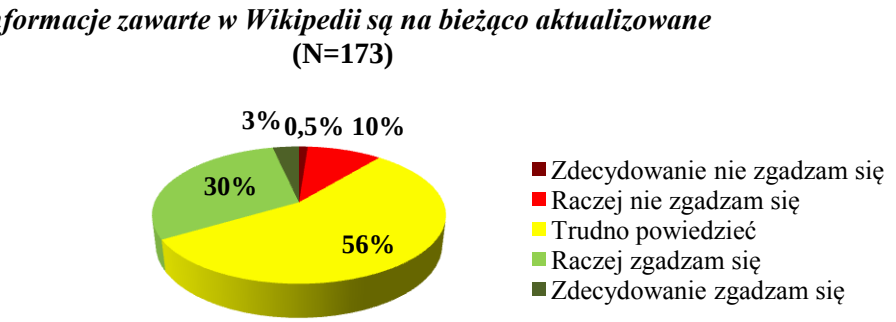
Mniej niż połowa respondentek (74 osoby) uznała, że *Treści zawarte w Wikipedii w większości są wiarygodne*. 70 badanych kobiet zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, natomiast cztery osoby zaznaczyły opcję *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Ze stwierdzeniem tym nie zgodziło się 25 osób, z czego 22 osoby zaznaczyło *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś trzy osoby *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. 77 osób nie miało jednoznacznej opinii (odpowiedzi *Trudno powiedzieć*) (wykres 6).

Wykres 6: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Treści zawarte w Wikipedii w większości są wiarygodne"*



Co trzecia respondentka zgodziła się ze stwierdzeniem *Informacje zawarte w Wikipedii są na bieżąco aktualizowane*. 52 osoby zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś sześć osób *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z wyżej wymienionym stwierdzeniem nie zgodziło się 19 osób, spośród których 17 zaznaczyło *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś dwie osoby *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Ponad połowa badanych osób (96 osób) zaznaczyła odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć*. Trzy osoby nie udzieliły odpowiedzi (wykres 7).

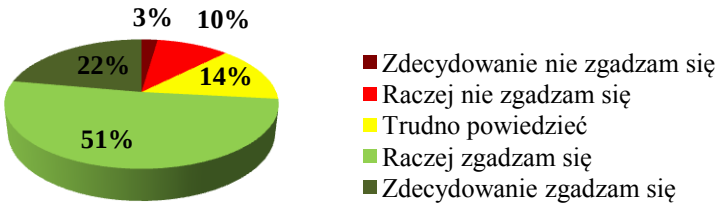
Wykres 7: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Informacje zawarte w Wikipedii są na bieżąco aktualizowane"*



Blisko trzy czwarte badanych osób (129 osób) zgodziło się ze stwierdzeniem *Wikipedia jest użyteczną pomocą dydaktyczną dla uczniów i studentów*. 90 osób zaznaczyło *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś 39 osób zaznaczyło *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Przeciwnego zdania były 22 osoby, spośród których 18 osób zaznaczyło *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś cztery osoby *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam* się. Odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć* zaznaczyło 25 osób (wykres 8).

Wykres 8: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Wikipedia jest użyteczną pomocą dydaktyczną dla uczniów i studentów”*

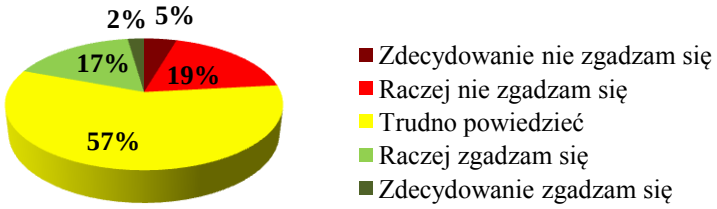
Wikipedia jest użyteczną pomocą dydaktyczną dla uczniów i studentów
(N=176)



Ze stwierdzeniem *Informacje przedstawiane są w Wikipedii w sposób stronniczy, hasła wyrażają opinie określonych redaktorów* zgodziły się 34 osoby, z czego 30 osób zaznaczyło *Raczej zgadzam się*, a cztery osoby *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z opinią tą nie zgodziło się 41 osób, spośród których 33 osoby zaznaczyły *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, a osiem osób *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Ponad połowa badanych osób (101 osób) nie miała jednoznacznej opinii w tym temacie (odpowiedzi *Trudno powiedzieć*) (wykres 9).

Wykres 1: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Informacje przedstawiane są w Wikipedii w sposób stronniczy, hasła wyrażają opinie określonych redaktorów”*

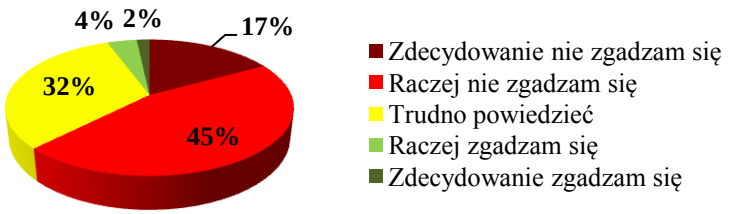
Informacje przedstawiane są w Wikipedii w sposób stronniczy, hasła wyrażają opinie określonych redaktorów
(N=176)



Blisko co dwudziesta badana kobieta (dziesięć osób) zgodziła się ze stwierdzeniem *Korzystanie z Wikipedii wywiera szkodliwy wpływ na uczniów i studentów*. Siedem respondentek zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś trzy osoby *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Ponad połowa badanych osób (110 osób) nie zgodziła się z tą opinią. 80 osób zaznaczyło *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, a 30 osób *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Blisko co trzecia respondentka (56 osób) zaznaczyła odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć* (wykres 10).

Wykres 2: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Korzystanie z Wikipedii wywiera szkodliwy wpływ na uczniów i studentów”*

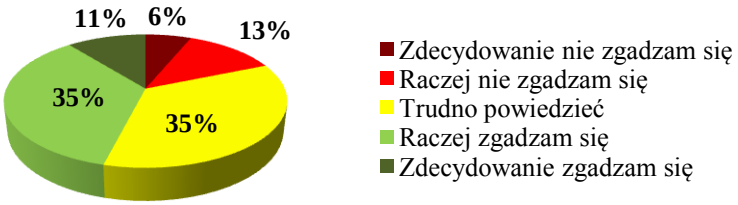
Korzystanie z Wikipedii wywiera szkodliwy wpływ na uczniów i studentów
(N=176)



Ze stwierdzeniem *Przez Wikipedię jest więcej plagiatów w szkole i na uczelni* zgodziło się mniej niż połowa badanych osób (81 osób), z czego 62 osoby zaznaczyły *Raczej zgadzam się*, a 19 osób zaznaczyło *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z opinią tą nie zgodziły się 33 osoby, spośród których 22 zaznaczyły *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, a 11 osób *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. 62 osoby nie miały jednoznacznej opinii (odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć*) (wykres 11).

Wykres 11: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Przez Wikipedię jest więcej plagiatów w szkole i na uczelni”*

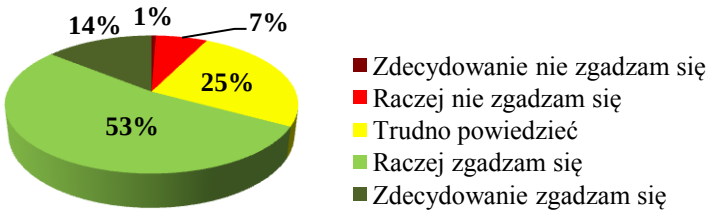
Przez Wikipedię jest więcej plagiatów w szkole i na uczelni
(N=176)



Niemal 7 na 10 badanych osób (118 osób) zgodziło się ze stwierdzeniem *Dzięki Wikipedii młodzież może poszerzyć swoje horyzonty i zdobyć nową wiedzę*. 93 odpowiedziały *Raczej zgadzam się*, zaś 25 osób zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z opinią tą nie zgodziło się mniej niż co dziesiąta badana osoba (13 osób). 12 osób odpowiedziało *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, jedna osoba zaznaczyła *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Co czwarta badana osoba (45 osób) nie miała jednoznacznej opinii w tej kwestii (odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć*) (wykres 12).

Wykres 3: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „Dzięki Wikipedii młodzież może poszerzyć swoje horyzonty i zdobyć nową wiedzę”*

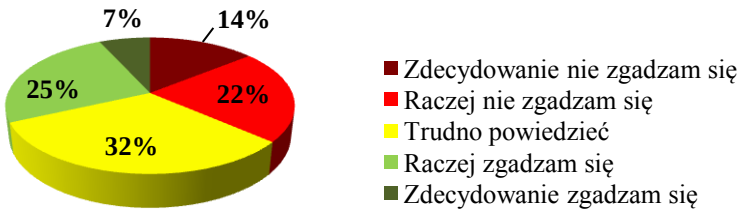
Dzięki Wikipedii młodzież może poszerzyć swoje horyzonty i zdobyć nową wiedzę
(N=176)



Ze stwierdzeniem *W Wikipedii można znaleźć informacje niedostępne w innych źródłach* zgodziło się 56 osób. 44 osoby odpowiedziały *Raczej zgadzam się*, a 12 osób zaznaczyło w ankiecie odpowiedź *Zdecydowanie zgadzam się*. Z opinią tą nie zgodziły się 64 osoby, spośród których 39 zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Raczej nie zgadzam się*, zaś 25 odpowiedziało *Zdecydowanie nie zgadzam się*. Blisko co trzecia ankietowana osoba (56 osób) zaznaczyła odpowiedź *Trudno powiedzieć* (wykres 13).

Wykres 4: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek świadczących o tym, na ile zgadzają się one bądź nie zgadzają ze stwierdzeniem „W Wikipedii można znaleźć informacji niedostępne w innych źródłach”*

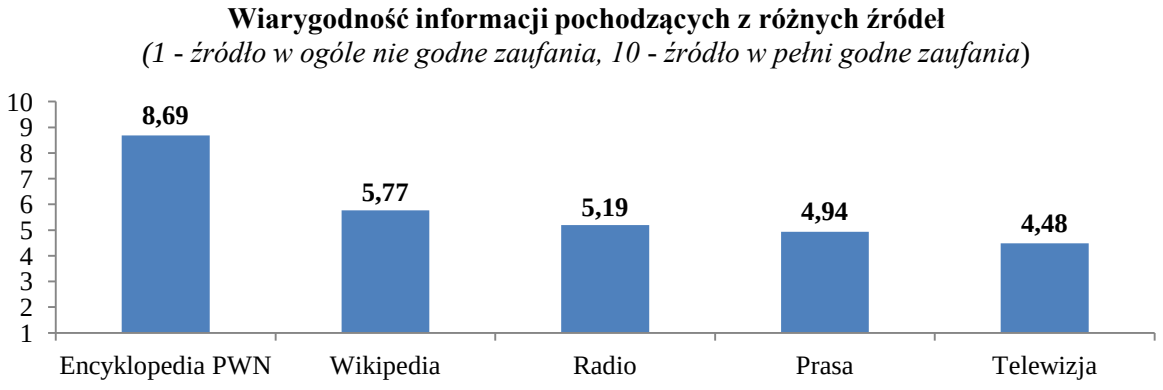
W Wikipedii można znaleźć informacje niedostępne w innych źródłach
(N=176)



Aby przekonać się o tym, na ile respondentki mają zaufanie do informacji pochodzących z Wikipedii, zadano im w ankiecie następujące pytanie: *W jakim stopniu godne zaufania są - Twoim zdaniem – informacje pochodzące z poniższych źródeł?* Badane osoby miały ocenić wiarygodność informacji pochodzących z telewizji, radia, prasy, encyklopedii PWN oraz Wikipedii. Badane osoby zostały poproszone o to, by zaznaczyły swoją odpowiedź na skali od 1 do 10, gdzie: 1 – *w ogóle nie są godne zaufania*, 10 – *są w pełni godne zaufania*.

Respondentki uznały encyklopedię PWN najbardziej wiarygodnym źródłem informacji (średnia arytmetyczna wyniosła 8,69 w skali od 1 do 10). Na drugim miejscu znalazła się Wikipedia (średnia arytmetyczna 5,77), na trzecim miejscu radio (5,19), prasa (4,94), zaś na ostatnim miejscu znalazła się telewizja (średnia arytmetyczna 4,48). Brak danych zanotowano tylko w przypadku pytania o zaufanie do prasy (jedna osoba nie udzieliła odpowiedzi) (wykres 14).

Wykres 14: *Średnie arytmetyczne odpowiedzi respondentek na pytanie „W jakim stopniu godne zaufania są - Twoim zdaniem – informacje pochodzące z poniższych źródeł?”*



Najmniej zróżnicowane odpowiedzi wystąpiły w przypadku pytania o zaufanie do encyklopedii PWN (*SD* = 1,56), natomiast najbardziej zróżnicowane odpowiedzi dotyczyły zaufania do telewizji (*SD* = 1,97). Wyniki te można interpretować w ten sposób, że studentki są najbliższe konsensusowi w kwestii oceny wiarygodności encyklopedii PWN (którą niemal wszyscy uznają za wiarygodne źródło informacji), natomiast największe kontrowersje budzi ocena wiarygodności telewizji.

4 PODSUMOWANIE

Wyniki badania potwierdziły, że Wikipedia jest powszechnie używana przez studentów. Do korzystania z Wikipedii przyznało się 98,3% respondentek, w tym 38,9% badanych studentek korzysta z Wikipedii co najmniej raz w tygodniu. Na podstawie wyników badania można wnioskować, że studentki mają umiarkowane zaufanie do informacji pochodzących z Wikipedii, niemniej dostrzegają one pozytywne aspekty korzystania z tej internetowej encyklopedii.

W opiniach studentek na temat Wikipedii można dostrzec niekonsekwencję czy wręcz pewne sprzeczności. Przykładowo, studentki w większości (64,6%) są przekonane o tym, że Wikipedia jest czymś wartościowym i potrzebnym. Z drugiej strony aż 85,8% studentek uważa, że encyklopedie powinny być tworzone wyłącznie przez ekspertów, a więc de facto negują one sens samej idei wolnej encyklopedii. 83,5% studentek uważa, że Wikipedia zwiększa dostęp ludzi do wiedzy i informacji, ale mniej niż połowa badanych (42%) uważa, że treści zawarte w Wikipedii w większości są wiarygodne. Z Wikipedii korzysta ponad 98% badanych osób, ale 8% nie uważa wcale Wikipedii za coś wartościowego czy potrzebnego, a więc osoby, które uważają Wikipedię za bezwartościową również z niej korzystają.

Wyniki ankiety skłaniają do postawienia kolejnych pytań. Dlaczego osoby, które mają negatywną opinię o Wikipedii, mimo wszystko korzystają z niej? Dlaczego osoby, które uważają, że encyklopedie powinny być tworzone wyłącznie przez ekspertów, mimo wszystko korzystają z encyklopedii tworzonej przez anonimowych internautów? Być może te sprzeczności wynikają z tego, że respondenci nie postrzegają Wikipedii faktycznie jako encyklopedii (jak chcieliby sami wikipedyści), ale raczej jako łatwo dostępne źródło wiedzy, wiedzy może nie do końca wiarygodnej i pewnej, jednak – pomimo tego – wiedzy potencjalnie użytecznej. O tym, że kategoryzowanie Wikipedii jako encyklopedii jest bezcelowe pisała Kopeć (2016, s. 65). Autorka ta zwróciła uwagę na to, że Wikpedia różni się tradycyjnej encyklopedii drukowanej w sposób zasadniczy, że pełni ona odmienne funkcje, nie tylko – jak w przypadku tradycyjnej encyklopedii - funkcję informacyjną.

Warto zauważyć, że znaczny odsetek odpowiedzi na poszczególne pozycje w kwestionariuszu ankiety stanowiły odpowiedzi *Trudno powiedzieć*. Świadczyć to może o tym, że studentki pedagogiki być może nigdy nie zastanawiały się nad kwestiami o które były pytane w ankiecie. O tym, że studenci pedagogiki mają powierzchowną wiedzę na temat działania Wikipedii oraz że mają trudności z wyrażeniem własnej opinii na jej temat pisała już Bednarska (2015, s. 151).

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W JAKIM CELU STUDENTKI PEDAGOGIKI WCZESNEJ EDUKACJI KORZYSTAJĄ Z WIKIPEDII?

FOR WHAT PURPOSE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION FEMALE STUDENTS USE WIKIPEDIA?

Bartosz Atroszko

Abstrakt

W artykule zaprezentowano wyniki badania ankietowego na temat korzystania z zasobów Wikipedii przez osoby studiujące. Badanie zostało przeprowadzone pod koniec maja i na początku czerwca 2018 r. na próbie 176 studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji. Z badania wynika, że największy odsetek respondentek korzysta z Wikipedii po to, aby poznać definicje nieznanych pojęć (97,7% badanych), znaleźć informacje przydatne w nauce na studiach (96%), przeczytać o znanych osobach (95,4%), znaleźć informacje na temat miejsc do których zamierzają pojechać (95,4%), a także aby znaleźć informacje pomocne w przygotowaniu prezentacji, referatu lub pracy zaliczeniowej na studiach (94,8%).

Słowa kluczowe: *Wikipedia, studenci pedagogiki, pedagogika wczesnej edukacji*.

Abstract

The article presents the results of a questionnaire survey on University students' use of Wikipedia. The study was conducted at the end of May and at the beginning of June 2018. 176 early childhood education female students' completed the questionnaires. The respondents mainly reported using Wikipedia to check the definitions of unknown concepts (97.7% of respondents), for academic purposes (96%), to read about famous persons (95.4%), to find information about the place they intends to travel (95.4%), and to find information helpful in preparing a presentation, paper or final work during studying at university (94.8%).

Keywords: *Wikipedia, pedagogy students, early childhood education.*

1 WPROWADZENIE

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie wyników badania ankietowego przeprowadzonego na przełomie maja i czerwca 2018 r. na próbie 176 studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji. Badanie dotyczyło korzystania z Wikipedii przez osoby studiujące. Celem badania ankietowego było znalezienie odpowiedzi na pytanie *W jakim celu studentki pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji korzystają z Wikipedii?*

Na podstawie badań własnych przeprowadzonych w 2015 r. (Atroszko 2015; Atroszko, Bereznowski, Wróbel i Atroszko, 2016) oraz systematycznego przeglądu literatury ustalono hipotetyczne przyczyny korzystania z Wikipedii przez studentów. Przyjęto, że studenci korzystają z Wikipedii: 1) w celach edukacyjnych, 2) aby rozwijać swoje zainteresowania i zapoznać się z ofertą kulturalną (np. czytać na temat filmów, książek, wydarzeń kulturalnych etc.), 3) aby zdobyć informacje praktyczne, ułatwiające codzienne życie, 4) aby zdobyć informacje ogólne, 5) aby zdobyć informacje specjalistyczne, 6) aby dotrzeć do źródeł informacji (odpowiedniej literatury i stron internetowych). Na podstawie tych ogólnych kategorii stworzono autorski kwestionariusz ankiety.

Dotychczas w Polsce na temat uwarunkowań korzystania z Wikipedii pisała M. Bartosik-Purgat (2016). Atroszko, Bereznowski, Wróbel i Atroszko (2016) pisali z kolei na temat związku pomiędzy wybranymi cechami osobowości i postawami wobec Wikipedii. Nie było jednak jak dotąd badań dotyczących kwestii tego, w jakim celu młodzi ludzie korzystają z Wikipedii.

Wikipedia niezmiernie rzadko pojawia się jako temat artykułów czy rozpraw z dziedziny pedagogiki w Polsce. Temat ten jest jednak ważny i nie powinien być bagatelizowany, ponieważ Wikipedia jest obecnie jednym z najważniejszych źródeł informacji dla młodych ludzi. Z badań własnych z 2015 r. wynika, że niemal wszyscy badani studenci korzystają z Wikipedii przynajmniej sporadycznie (Atroszko, 2015). Badanie prezentowane w niniejszym artykule zostało przeprowadzone na próbie studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji, ponieważ właśnie absolwentki tego kierunku będą stanowić przyszłe kadry szkół podstawowych. Opinie i postawy tych młodych kobiet w przyszłości będą miały wpływ na praktyki szkolne dotyczące korzystania z zasobów internetowych przez uczniów w ramach edukacji szkolnej.

2 METODY

2.1 Uczestniczki badania

Płeć. W badaniu ankietowym uczestniczyło 176 studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji. Wszystkie badane osoby studiowały na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Brak mężczyzn w próbie badawczej wynika z bardzo silnego sfeminizowania tego kierunku. Mężczyźni stanowią mniej niż 1% ogółu studentów kierunku pedagogika wczesnej edukacji prowadzonego na Uniwersytecie Gdańskim.
Wiek. Średnia arytmetyczna wieku ankietowanych kobiet wyniosła 21,6 lat (*SD* = 2,85), natomiast mediana wyniosła 21 lat. Najmłodsza z badanych osób miała 19 lat, zaś najstarsza respondentka miała 43 lata.
Tryb studiów. Blisko dwie trzecie badanych osób (119 respondentek, 67,6%) studiowało w trybie stacjonarnym, zaś jedna trzecia respondentek (57 osób, 32,4%) studiowała w trybie niestacjonarnym.
Rok studiów. Ponad 8 na 10 badanych kobiet (148 osób, 84,1%) studiowało na drugim roku studiów licencjackich, zaś pozostałe 28 kobiet (15,9%) na trzecim roku studiów licencjackich.
Specjalność. Respondentki miały następujące specjalności w ramach kierunku pedagogika wczesnej edukacji: 115 kobiet (65,3%) studiowało na specjalności wczesna edukacją z terapią pedagogiczną, 38 studentek (21,6%) na specjalności wczesna edukacja z logopedią, zaś pozostałe 23 osoby (13,1%) na specjalności wczesna edukacja z językiem angielskim.
Status zawodowy. Blisko jedna trzecia respondentek (61 osób, 35,5%) nie pracowała zawodowo. Pozostałe dwie trzecie badanych osób było aktywnych na rynku pracy, z czego 63 respondentki (36,6%) w zawodzie niezgodnym z kierunkiem studiów, natomiast 48 respondentek (27,9%) pracowało w zawodzie zgodnym z kierunkiem studiów. Cztery osoby nie odpowiedziały na pytanie o pracę zawodową.

2.2 Narzędzie badawcze

W ramach autorskiego kwestionariusza ankiety studentki zapytano *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby…* i podano przykładowe sposoby korzystania z Wikipedii. Respondentki zostały poproszone o zaznaczenie swojej odpowiedzi w ramach następującego formatu odpowiedzi: 0 - *Nigdy*, 1 - *Rzadko*, 2 - *Czasami*, 3 - *Często*.

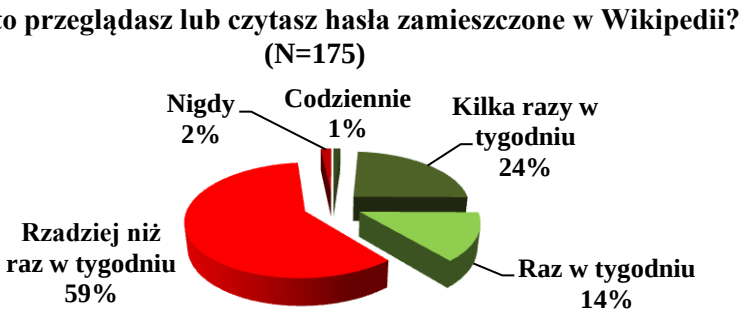
2.3 Procedura

Dobór respondentek do badania miał charakter doboru celowego. Badanie przeprowadzono w dniach od 22 maja do 2 czerwca 2018 r. w trakcie zajęć odbywających się na Wydziale Nauk Społecznych Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego. Uczestnictwo w badaniu było dobrowolne. Osoby wypełniające kwestionariusz ankiety zachowały anonimowość. Studentki nie otrzymały żadnych nagród za uczestnictwo w badaniu.

3 WYNIKI

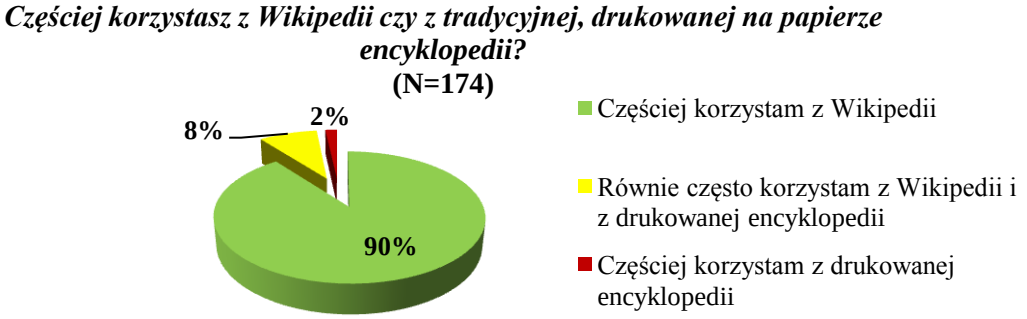
Uczestniczki badania odpowiedziały na pytanie ankietowe *Jak często przeglądasz lub czytasz hasła zamieszczone w Wikipedii?* Niemal wszystkie respondentki (98,3%) zaznaczyły, że korzystają z Wikipedii. Dwie kobiety z tej tej grupy zaznaczyły, że korzystają z Wikipedii codziennie (1,1% badanych), 42 respondentki zadeklarowały korzystanie z Wikipedii kilka razy w tygodniu (24% badanych), 24 osoby (13,7% badanych) raz w tygodniu, zaś 104 osoby (59,4% badanych) zadeklarowały, że korzystają z Wikipedii rzadziej niż raz w tygodniu. Trzy osoby (1,7%) zaznaczyły, że nigdy nie korzystają z Wikipedii. Jedna osoba nie zaznaczyła żadnej odpowiedzi (Wykres 1).

Wykres 1: *Rozkład odpowiedzi badanych studentek na pytanie „Jak często przeglądasz lub czytasz hasła zamieszczone w Wikipedii?”*



Uczestniczki badania udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie: *Częściej korzystasz z Wikipedii czy z tradycyjnej, drukowanej na papierze encyklopedii?* Niemal 9 na 10 badanych kobiet (156 osób, 89,7% badanych studentek) zaznaczyło w ankiecie, że częściej korzysta z Wikipedii niż z tradycyjnej, drukowanej encyklopedii. 15 osób (8,6% studentek) równie często korzysta z Wikipedii i z tradycyjnej encyklopedii. Tylko trzy osoby (1,7%) stwierdziły, że częściej korzystają z tradycyjnej, drukowanej encyklopedii. Dwie osoby nie udzieliły odpowiedzi na to pytanie (wykres 2).

Wykres 2: *Rozkład odpowiedzi na pytanie „Częściej korzystasz z Wikipedii czy z tradycyjnej, drukowanej na papierze encyklopedii?”*



W tabeli 1 przedstawiono rozkład procentowy odpowiedzi respondentek na serię pytań, które rozpoczynały się od słów Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby... i w których badane osoby odniosły się do poszczególnych przyczyn korzystania z Wikipedii. Warto zauważyć, że w celu uproszczenia dużej liczby informacji odpowiedzi Rzadko, Czasami i Często zostały w tabeli 1 zsumowane i przedstawione łącznie jako reprezentujące pozytywną odpowiedź na pytanie. W dalszej części artykułu odpowiedzi na poszczególne pytania są szczegółowo omówione i zaprezentowane na wykresach.

Tabela 1: *Rozkład odpowiedzi respondentek na pytanie o to, jak często korzystają z Wikipedii w konkretnych celach*

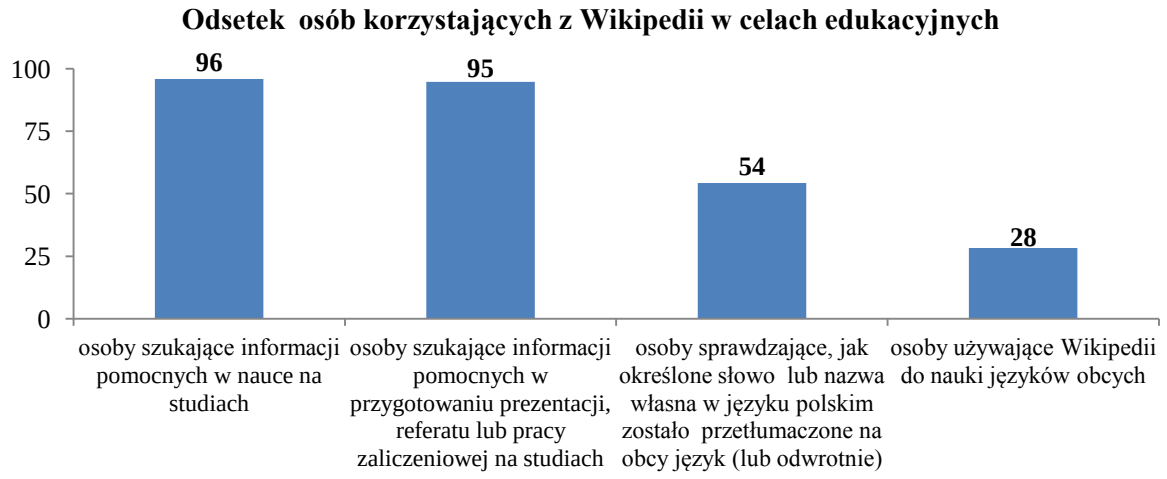
Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby…	**Suma odpowiedzi Rzadko, Czasami i Często**
poznać definicje pojęć, których nie znasz	97,7%
znaleźć informacje pomocne w nauce na studiach	96%
znaleźć informacje o znanych osobach (np. politykach, aktorach, muzykach itd.)	95,4%
znaleźć informacje na temat miejscowości, regionu lub kraju do których zamierzasz pojechać	95,4%
znaleźć informacji pomocne w przygotowaniu prezentacji, referatu lub pracy zaliczeniowej na studiach	94,8%
znaleźć informacje o filmach, książkach, płytach muzycznych, koncertach lub innych wydarzeniach kulturalnych	83,8%
znaleźć informacje dotyczące kwestii medycznych (np. na temat chorób, objawów chorób, ich leczenia itd.)	82,7%
znaleźć informacje z zakresu prawa (np. sprawdzić co znaczą określone terminy prawnicze, jakie są przepisy prawa, prawa konsumentów itd.)	75,7%
znaleźć informacje przydatne w pracy zawodowej	73,3%
rozwijać swoje zainteresowania, hobby	73,3%
znaleźć informacje pomocne przy zakupie towarów lub usług (np. sprawdzić co znaczą parametry techniczne urządzania, przeczytać o firmie z której usług zamierzasz skorzystać itp.)	65,9%
znaleźć informacje o aktualnych wydarzeniach mających miejsce w Polsce i na świecie	63%
znaleźć w bibliografii lub przypisach do artykułu Wikipedii interesującą Ciebie literaturę	56,1%
sprawdzić, jak określone słowo lub nazwa własna w języku polskim zostało przetłumaczone na obcy język (lub odwrotnie) w innych wersjach językowych Wikipedii	54,3%
znaleźć informacje na temat diety, urody lub zdrowego stylu życia	52,6%
znaleźć w bibliografii lub przypisach do artykułu Wikipedii linki do interesujących Ciebie stron internetowych	50,9%
znaleźć informacje z zakresu ekonomii i finansów	49,7%
znaleźć informacje przydatne przy rozwiązywaniu problemów życia codziennego	45,1%
znaleźć informacje na temat mody lub ubioru	29,7%
uczyć się języka obcego (np. czytając hasła Wikipedii w innym języku, tłumacząc hasła Wikipedii itd.)	28,3%
tworzyć nowe hasła Wikipedii lub edytować te już istniejące	4%

3.1 Cele edukacyjne

173 respondentki udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje pomocne w nauce na studiach?* Niemal wszystkie badane studentki (166 osób, 96% respondentek) zaznaczyły w ankiecie, że szukają w Wikipedii informacji pomocnych w nauce na studiach, z czego 56 osób (32,4%) zaznaczyło, że robi to *Często*, 69 osób (39,9%) zaznaczyło *Czasami*, a 41 osób (23,7%) zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Rzadko* (wykres 3).

172 osoby odpowiedziały na pytanie ankietowe *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacji pomocne w przygotowaniu prezentacji, referatu lub pracy zaliczeniowej na studiach?* Prawie wszystkie ankietowane studentki (163 osoby, 94,8% respondentek) zadeklarowały, że szukają w Wikipedii tego typu informacji. 56 respondentek (32,6%) robi to często, 79 osób (45,9%) czasami, zaś 28 osób (16,3%) robi to rzadko (wykres 3).
173 ankietowane kobiety udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby sprawdzić, jak określone słowo lub nazwa własna w języku polskim zostało przetłumaczone na obcy język (lub odwrotnie) w innych wersjach językowych Wikipedii?* Ponad połowa badanych osób (94 osoby, 54,3%) korzysta z Wikipedii w tym celu, z czego 14 osób (8,1%) zaznaczyło, że robi to często, 32 osoby (18,5%) czasami, zaś 48 osób (27,7%) zaznaczyło, że rzadko (wykres 3).
173 uczestniczki badania odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby uczyć się języka obcego (np. czytając hasła Wikipedii w innym języku, tłumacząc hasła Wikipedii itd.)?* Ponad jedna czwarta badanych studentek (49 osób, 28,3%) zaznaczyła, że korzysta z Wikipedii, aby uczyć się języków obcych, z czego 2 osoby (1,2%) robią to często, 10 osób (5,8%) czasami, a 37 osób (21,4%) robi to rzadko (wykres 3).

Wykres 3: *Odsetek respondentów, którzy korzystają z Wikipedii (zsumowane odpowiedzi „Rzadko", „Czasami" i „Często") w celach edukacyjnych*

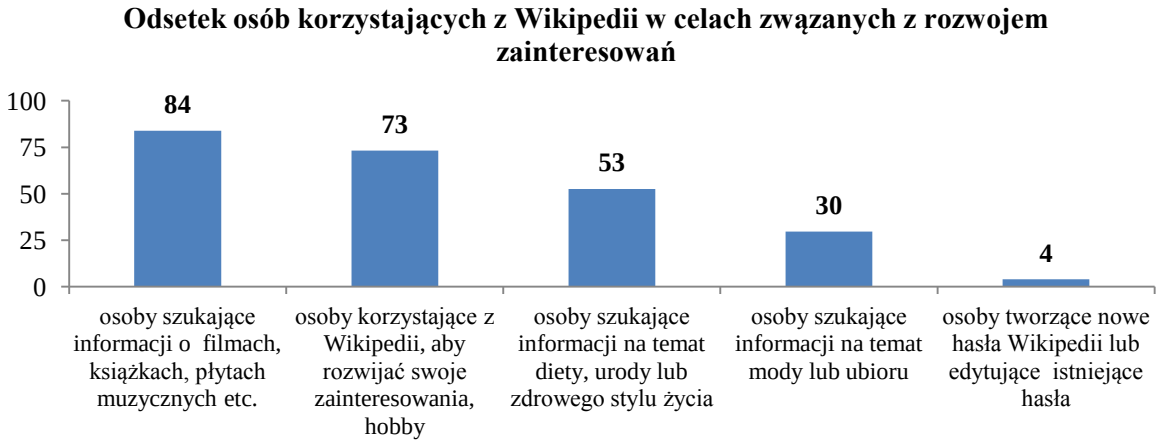


3.2 Cele związane z rozwojem zainteresowań

173 ankietowane osoby udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje o filmach, książkach, płytach muzycznych, koncertach lub innych wydarzeniach kulturalnych?* Ponad 8 na 10 ankietowanych studentek (145 osób, 83,8%) zaznaczyło, że korzysta z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć tego typu informacje. 31 osób (17,9%) zaznaczyło, że robi to często, 63 osoby (36,4%) robią to czasami, a 51 osób (29,5%) zaznaczyło, że rzadko korzysta z Wikipedii w tym celu (wykres 4).
172 osoby odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby rozwijać swoje zainteresowania, hobby?* Niemal trzy czwarte badanych osób (126 osób, 73,3% respondentek) zaznaczyło, że korzysta z Wikipedii, aby rozwijać swoje zainteresowania, z czego 22 osoby (12,8%) robią to często, 40 osób (23,3%) robi to czasami, zaś 64 osoby (37,2%) robią to rzadko (wykres 4).
Na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje na temat diety, urody lub zdrowego stylu życia?* odpowiedziały 173 osoby. Ponad połowa ankietowanych (91 osób, 52,6%) szuka w Wikipedii informacji na tego typu tematy. Dziewięć osób (5,2%) robi to często, 26 osób (15%) czasami, 56 osób (32,4%) robi to rzadko (wykres 4).

172 osoby udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje na temat mody lub ubioru?* Blisko jedna trzecia respondentek (51 osób, 29,7%) potwierdziła, że szuka w Wikipedii informacji na temat mody lub ubioru. Trzy osoby (1,7%) robią to często, sześć osób (3,5%) czasami, zaś 42 osoby (24,4%) robią to rzadko (**wykres 4**).
173 osoby odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby tworzyć nowe hasła Wikipedii lub edytować te już istniejące?* Zdecydowanie najmniejszy odsetek respondentek (siedem osób, 4%) korzysta z Wikipedii, aby tworzyć nowe hasła Wikipedii lub edytować te już istniejące. Dwie osoby (1,2%) robią to często, zaś pięć osób (2,9%) robi to rzadko (wykres 4).

Wykres 4: *Odsetek respondentów (odpowiedzi „Rzadko", „Czasami" i „Często"), którzy korzystają z Wikipedii, aby rozwijać swoje zainteresowania*



3.3 Dostęp do informacji praktycznych, ułatwiających codzienne życie

173 osoby udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje na temat miejscowości, regionu lub kraju do których zamierzasz pojechać?* Niemal wszystkie ankietowane kobiety (165 osób, 95,4%) korzystają z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć tego typu praktyczne informacje. 48 osób (27,7%) robi to często, 79 osób (45,7%) czasami, a 38 osób (22%) robi to rzadko (wykres 5).
172 respondentki odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje przydatne w pracy zawodowej?* Blisko trzy czwarte badanych studentek (126 osób, 73,3%) zadeklarowało, że korzysta z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje przydatne w pracy zawodowej. 14 osób robi to często (8,1%), 56 osób (32,6%) robi to czasami, zaś 56 osób (32,6%) robi to rzadko (wykres 5).
Na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje pomocne przy zakupie towarów lub usług (np. sprawdzić co znaczą parametry techniczne urządzania, przeczytać o firmie z której usług zamierzasz skorzystać itp.)?* odpowiedziały 173 badane kobiety. Ponad połowa ankietowanych (114 osób, 65,90%) potwierdziło, że szuka w Wikipedii informacji pomocnych przy zakupie towarów lub usług, z czego 11 osób (6,4%) robi to często, 35 osób (20,2%) robi to czasami, 68 osób (39,3%) robi to rzadko (wykres 5).
173 respondentki odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje przydatne przy rozwiązywaniu problemów życia codziennego?* Nieco mniej niż połowa badanych (78 osób, 45,1%) zaznaczyła w ankiecie, że szuka w Wikipedii tego typu praktycznych informacji. Sześć osób (3,5%) robi to często, 23 osoby (13,3%) czasami, zaś 49 osób (28,3%) robi to rzadko (wykres 5).

Wykres 5: *Odsetek respondentów korzystających z Wikipedii (odpowiedzi „Rzadko", „Czasami" i „Często"), aby mieć dostęp do praktycznych informacji, ułatwiających codzienne życie*

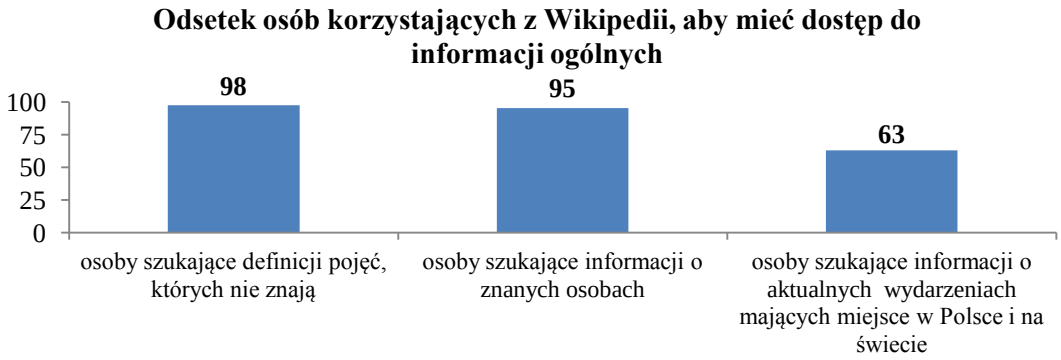
3.4 Dostęp do informacji ogólnych

171 osób odpowiedziało na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby poznać definicje pojęć, których nie znasz?* Niemal wszystkie badane osoby (167 osób, 97,7%) korzystają z Wikipedii w tym celu, z czego 93 osoby (54,4%) robią to często, 50 osób (29,2%) robi to czasami, zaś 24 osoby (14%) robią to rzadko (wykres 6).

Na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje o znanych osobach (np. politykach, aktorach, muzykach itd.)?* odpowiedzi udzieliły 173 osoby. Prawie wszystkie ankietowane studentki (165 osób, 95,4%) korzystają z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje o znanych osobach. 67 osób (38,7%) zaznaczyło odpowiedź *Często*, 74 osoby (42,8%) zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Czasami*, zaś 24 osoby (13,9%) zaznaczyły odpowiedź *Rzadko* (wykres 6).

173 respondentki odpowiedziały na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje o aktualnych wydarzeniach mających miejsce w Polsce i na świecie?* Ponad połowa respondentek (109 osób, 63%) potwierdziła, że szuka w Wikipedii informacji o aktualnych wydarzeniach mających miejsce w kraju i na świecie, z czego osiem osób (4,6%) robi to często, 37 osób (21,4%) robi to czasami, zaś 64 osoby (37%) rzadko (wykres 6).

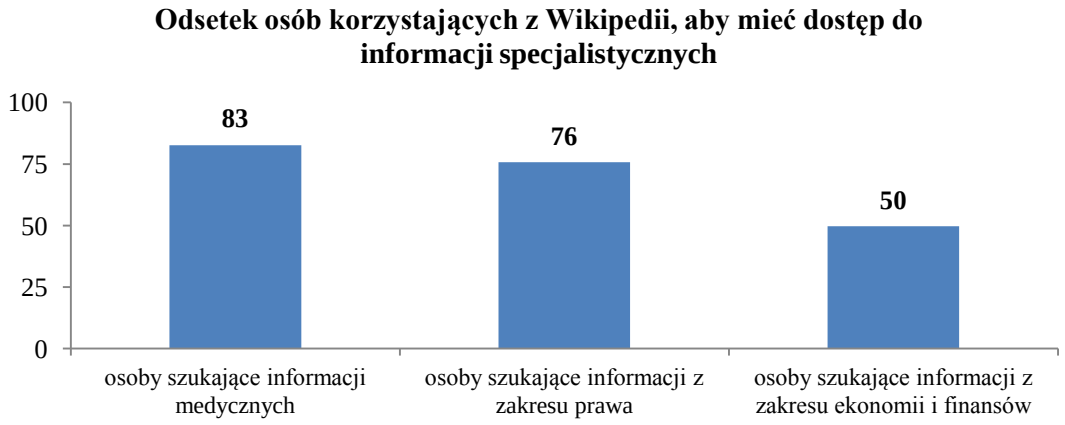
Wykres 6: *Odsetek respondentów (odpowiedzi „Rzadko", „Czasami" i „Często") korzystających z Wikipedii, aby uzyskać dostęp do ogólnych informacji*



3.5 Dostęp do informacji specjalistycznych

173 ankietowane kobiety udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje dotyczące kwestii medycznych (np. na temat chorób, objawów chorób, ich leczenia itd.)?* Ponad 8 na 10 badanych kobiet (143 osoby, 82,7%) zaznaczyło, że korzysta z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje dotyczące kwestii medycznych. 24 osoby (13,9%) robią to często, 60 osób (34,7%) robi to czasami, a 59 osób (34,1%) robi to rzadko (**wykres 7**).
Na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje z zakresu prawa (np. sprawdzić co znaczą określone terminy prawnicze, jakie są przepisy prawa, prawa konsumentów itd.)?* odpowiedziały 173 osoby. Trzy czwarte z tych osób (131 osób, 75,7%) potwierdziło, że szuka w Wikipedii informacji z zakresu prawa, z czego sześć osób (3,5%) robi to często, 49 osób (28,3%) robi to czasami, zaś 76 osób (43,9%) robi to rzadko (**wykres 7**).
171 osób udzieliło odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje z zakresu ekonomii i finansów?* Blisko połowa badanych studentek (85 osób, 49,7%) zaznaczyła, że szuka w Wikipedii informacji z zakresu ekonomii i finansów, z czego jedna osoba (0,6%) robi to często, 15 osób (8,8%) robi to czasami, zaś 69 osób (40,4%) robi to rzadko (wykres 7).

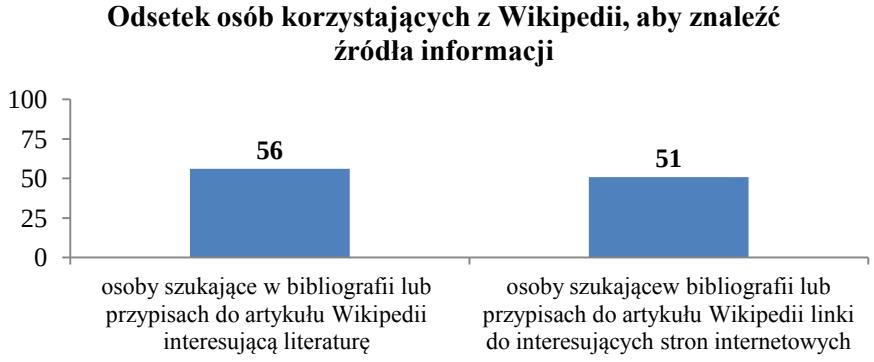
Wykres 7: *Odsetek respondentów (odpowiedzi „Rzadko", „Czasami" i „Często") korzystających z Wikipedii, aby mieć dostęp do informacji specjalistycznych*



3.6 Dostęp do źródeł informacji

Na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć w bibliografii lub przypisach do artykułu Wikipedii interesującą Ciebie literaturę?* odpowiedziały 173 badane studentki. Ponad połowa ankietowanych (97 osób, 56,1%) korzysta z Wikipedii w tym celu. Cztery osoby (2,3%) robią to często, 22 osoby (12,7%) robią to czasami, zaś 71 osób (41%) robi to rzadko (wykres 8).
173 osoby udzieliły odpowiedzi na pytanie *Jak często korzystasz z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć w bibliografii lub przypisach do artykułu Wikipedii linki do interesujących Ciebie stron internetowych?* Połowa respondentek (88 osób, 50,87%) korzysta z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć linki do interesujących ich stron internetowych, z czego cztery osoby (2,3%) robią to często, 25 osób (14,5%) robi to czasami, 59 osób (34,1%) robi to rzadko (wykres 8).

Wykres 8: *Odsetek respondentów (odpowiedzi „Rzadko”, „Czasami” i „Często”) korzystających z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć źródła informacji w postaci literatury lub stron internetowych*



4 WNIOSKI

Największy odsetek studentek pedagogiki wczesnej edukacji (ponad 90% badanych) korzysta z Wikipedii po to, aby poznać definicje nieznanych pojęć (97,7%), znaleźć informacje przydatne w nauce na studiach (96%), przeczytać o znanych osobach (95,4%), znaleźć informacje na temat miejscowości do których zamierzają pojechać (95,4%), a takż znaleźć informacje pomocne w przygotowaniu prezentacji, referatu lub pracy zaliczeniowej na studiach (94,8%).

Znaczny odsetek studentek (ponad 70% badanych) szuka w Wikipedii informacji na temat oferty kulturalnej, a więc książek, filmów, koncertów itd. (83,8%), informacji dotyczących kwestii medycznych (82,7%) i prawnych (75,7%), rozwija swoje zainteresowania (hobby) (73,3%), bądź też szuka informacji pomocnych w pracy zawodowej (73,3%). Ponad połowa badanych studentek korzysta z Wikipedii po to, aby znaleźć informacje przydatne przy podejmowaniu decyzji konsumenckich (65,9%), znaleźć informacje o aktualnych wydarzeniach mających miejsce w Polsce i na świecie (63%), znaleźć źródła informacji w postaci literatury (56,1%), sprawdzić tłumaczenie obcych słów w innych wersjach językowych Wikipedii (54,3%), znaleźć informacje na temat diety i zdrowego stylu życia (52,6%), a także znaleźć źródła informacji w postaci linków do interesujących stron internetowych (50,9%).

Blisko połowa badanych studentek (49,7%) korzysta z Wikipedii, aby znaleźć informacje specjalistyczne z dziedziny ekonomii i finansów. Mniej niż połowa respondentek szuka w Wikipedii informacji przydatnych przy rozwiązywaniu problemów życia codziennego (45,1%), informacji na temat mody lub ubioru (29,7%), a także wykorzystuje Wikipedię do nauki języków obcych (28,3%). Studentki najrzadziej korzystają z Wikipedii, aby tworzyć nowe hasła lub edytować te już istniejące (4%).

Wikipedia służy - tak jak tradycyjna encyklopedia - przede wszystkim celom informacyjnym i edukacyjnym, ale też pełni ona wiele innych funkcji. Warto zwrócić uwagę, że Wikipedia stanowi nie tylko konkurencję dla tradycyjnej, tworzonej przez ekspertów encyklopedii drukowanej, ale też dla wielu innych źródeł wiedzy i informacji. Na przykład Wikipedia jest wykorzystywana jako źródło informacji pomocnych w czasie podróży do nowych miejsc, a więc w jakimś stopniu pełni ona funkcję podobną do przewodnika turystycznego. Jest ona źródłem informacji specjalistycznych z dziedziny medycyny, prawa, ekonomii i finansów, zastępuje więc laikom encyklopedie specjalistyczne. Wikipedia jest też wykorzystywana jako źródło aktualnych informacji o wydarzeniach w Polsce i na świecie, w związku z tym pełni

ona funkcję podobną do tradycyjnych mediów (radia, prasy i telewizji). Bywa ona też wykorzystywana do sprawdzania tłumaczeń słów na inne języki, a więc pełni ona funkcję podobną do tradycyjnych słowników językowych. O tym, że Wikipedia pełni więcej funkcji od tradycyjnej, drukowanej encyklopedii pisała już Kopeć (2016, s. 65), natomiast w ramach niniejszego artykułu przedstawione zostały potwierdzające to dane empiryczne.

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KONSTRUKTYWIZM JAKO ŹRÓDŁO INSPIRACJI DLA ROZWOJU WSPÓŁCZESNEJ EDUKACJI NAUCZYCIELI

CONSTRUCTIVISM AS A SOURCE OF INSPIRATION FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN TEACHER EDUCATION

Bartosz Atroszko

Abstrakt

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest wyjaśnienie dlaczego konstruktywizm może być i faktycznie jest źródłem inspiracji dla rozwoju współczesnej edukacji nauczycieli. Z konstruktywizmem wiążą się określone implikacje o charakterze etycznym, społecznym i praktycznym, które są postrzegane jako potencjalnie wzbogacające edukację. Przyjmuje się, że konstruktywizm w znacznie większym stopniu niż dominujący dotychczas w polskiej edukacji paradygmat obiektywistyczny akcentuje aktywność osób uczących się w trakcie nauki, sprzyja twórczości, akcentuje związek pomiędzy językiem i myśleniem, sprzyja większej tolerancji w interakcjach międzyludzkich, sprzyja bardziej swobodnej komunikacji na lekcji oraz pozwala dostrzec znaczenie wiedzy potocznej uczniów i nauczycieli w kontekście edukacyjnym.

Słowa kluczowe: *konstruktywizm, edukacja nauczycieli, obiektywizm.*

Abstract

The purpose of the present article is to explain why constructivism is a source of inspiration for the development of modern teacher education. There are specific ethical, social and practical implications associated with constructivism. These implications are perceived as potentially enriching education. It is assumed that constructivism emphasizes the importance of the activity of learners, promotes creativity, emphasizes the relationship between language and thinking, promotes greater tolerance in interpersonal interactions, promotes open communication during the lesson and emphasizes the importance of students' and teachers' personal knowledge.

Keywords: *constructivism, teacher education, objectivism.*

1 WPROWADZENIE

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest wyjaśnienie dlaczego konstruktywizm może być i faktycznie jest źródłem inspiracji dla rozwoju współczesnej edukacji nauczycieli. Zdaniem wielu pedagogów i badaczy w polskim szkolnictwie dominuje paradygmat obiektywistyczny, który jest jednak coraz powszechniej krytykowany i którego wady stają się coraz bardziej oczywiste (Nowak-Łojewska, 2009, s. 153; Krause, 2009, s. 92; Klus-Stańska, 2012, s. 27). Wielu pedagogów akademickich wiąże spore nadzieje z konstruktywizmem jako nowym paradygmatem edukacji lub nową filozofią edukacji będącą panaceum na nierozwiązywalne dotąd problemy. Należy jednak zaznaczyć, że w polskim systemie oświaty konstruktywizm jest obecnie raczej ideą postulowaną i dyskutowaną, a nie powszechnie realizowaną przez nauczycieli w praktyce.

Jak zauważył S. J. Schmidt (2010, s. 244), *konstruktywizm* jest pojęciem wyjątkowo wieloznacznym i trudnym do jednoznacznego zdefiniowania. Nie jest on jednolitą konstrukcją teoretyczną. Pod tym terminem występuje tak naprawdę kilka różnych

konstruktów, które są w mniejszym lub większym stopniu wzajemnie powiązane. W związku z tym można wyróżnić na przykład społeczny konstruktywizm P. L. Bergera i T. Luckmanna, konstruktywizm kognitywny, konstruktywizm empiryczny, konstruktywizm radykalny, czy wreszcie konstruktywizm teoriopoznawczy (S. J. Schmidt, 2010, s. 244). Wspólnym mianownikiem tych wszystkich podejść jest przesunięcie uwagi w dyskusjach teoriopoznawczych z pytania *co poznajemy?* na pytanie *jak poznajemy?* (S. J. Schmidt, 2010, s. 244).

2 CO TO JEST KONSTRUKTYWISTYCZNY MODEL POZNAWCZY?

Bardzo ważnym dziełem dla recepcji idei konstruktywizmu w Polsce jest książka A. Zybertowicza pt. *Przemoc a poznanie. Studium z nie-klasycznej socjologii wiedzy*. W pracy tej autor wyróżnił dwa podstawowe modele poznawcze: obiektywistyczny i konstruktywistyczny. Aby zrozumieć, czym jest konstruktywistyczny model poznawczy warto najpierw omówić obiektywistyczny model poznawczy. Istotne jest, aby prezentować te dwie koncepcje właśnie w takiej kolejności, a nie odwrotnie, ponieważ konstruktywistyczny model poznawczy powstał jako odpowiedź na pewne niedoskonałości czy braki dominującego przez długi czas modelu obiektywistycznego, który w XX wieku zaczął być coraz bardziej kwestionowany.

Obiektywistyczny model poznawczy, tak jak przedstawia go A. Zybertowicz, wydaje się naturalny i zrozumiały dla większości osób. Po pierwsze, zgodnie z obiektywistycznym modelem poznawczym, rzeczywistość jest czymś niezależnym oraz zewnętrznym względem poznania (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 59). Nie można utożsamiać *istnienia* z *byciem postrzeganym*. Przedmioty istnieją bez względu na to, czy są, czy też nie są postrzegane przez kogoś lub coś. W tym sensie można powiedzieć, że rzeczywistość istnieje w sposób obiektywny, że jest to *obiektywna rzeczywistość*. Po drugie, prawda jest czymś zewnętrznym wobec kultury, wiedzy czy języka (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 59). Słowa jedynie uobecniają prawdę, ale jej nie tworzą. Po trzecie, fakty oraz prawidłowości są odkrywane przez podmiot poznający (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 59). Nie są one konstruowane czy wytwarzane przez ten podmiot. Po czwarte, wiedza jest rezultatem relacji pomiędzy podmiotem poznającym i przedmiotem poznania, zaś jej kształt wyznaczany jest przez świat, do którego tę wiedzę odnosimy (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 60). Po piąte, wpływ okoliczności społecznych na proces zdobywania wiedzy może być jedynie uboczny i przede wszystkim przekształcający (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 61). Nie należy wyolbrzymiać znaczenia tego wpływu. Po szóste, poznanie jest adekwatnym odzwierciedlaniem rzeczywistości przez świadomość poznającego podmiotu (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 63). Po siódme, przedmiotem poznania jest obiektywnie istniejąca rzeczywistość, zarówno pozakulturowa, jak i kulturowa (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 63).

Konstruktywistyczny model poznawczy, tak jak opisuje go A. Zybertowicz, wydaje się być całkowitym przeciwieństwem modelu obiektywistycznego. Po pierwsze, w konstruktywistycznym modelu poznawczym to, co spostrzegane jest jako rzeczywistość, jest konstruowane w ramach uregulowanych kulturowo praktyk społecznych, w tym praktyk poznawczych, zaś prawdziwość przekonań zależy od kontekstu społecznego w którym są wyrażane (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 59). Rzeczywistość nie jest czymś niezależnym i zewnętrznym względem poznania. Po drugie, rzeczywistość zewnętrzna wobec kultury, z natury swej pozostanie nieznana (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 63). Nie ma prawdy obiektywnej, zewnętrznej względem kultury, języka i wiedzy, na podobnej zasadzie jak nie może być mowy o obserwacji bez obserwatora. Słowa nie tylko uobecniają wiedzę, ale ją tworzą. W związku z tym język odgrywa ogromną rolę w poznawaniu świata, a raczej – jak powiedziałby konstruktywista – w jego konstruowaniu. Po trzecie, to, co uznajemy za fakty,

jest społecznie wytwarzane, a nie odkrywane (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 59). Po czwarte, wiedza powstaje w obszarze relacji międzyludzkich, jest efektem następujących po sobie interakcji społecznych, a nie relacji podmiotu poznającego i przedmiotu poznania (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 60). Po piąte, wiedza nigdy nie jest neutralna wobec ludzkiego działania i związku z tym zawsze ma ona charakter ideologiczny (Zybertowicz, 1995, s. 61).

3 PROBLEMY Z RECEPCJĄ KONSTRUKTYWIZMU W POLSCE

Model obiektywistyczny – zdaniem A. Zybertowicza (1995, s. 82) – wydaje się zgodny ze zdrowym rozsądkiem oraz całkowicie przekonujący dla osób z kręgu nowożytnej kultury Zachodu. Jego zaletami jest prostota, a także to, że jest on zgodny z intuicją. Na modelu tym wyrosła nowożytna nauka europejska oraz kultura intelektualna świata zachodniego, w tym także myśl pedagogiczna i powszechne szkolnictwo. Te cechy obiektywistycznego modelu poznawczego mają wpływ na dominującą pozycję tego modelu w edukacji, mimo jego niedoskonałości i wad oraz pomimo tego, że za konstruktywizmem stoją – na co wskazuje M. Fleischer (2010, s. 11) silne argumenty zarówno filozoficzne, jak i wynikające z empirycznych badań naukowych. Autor ten zauważa, że problemy z recepcją konstruktywizmu wynikają z inercji przyzwyczajeń myślowych ludzi. Konstruktywizm jest kontrintuicyjny, co oznacza, że jego podstawowe założenia przeczą powszechnie podzielanym schematom i sposobom postrzegania świata, a także naszej wiedzy potocznej (Fleischer, 2010, s. 9-10).

Poza tym problem z recepcją konstruktywizmu może wynikać z konserwatyzmu wielu pedagogów, ekspertów i badaczy edukacji. Perspektywa konstruktywistyczna – jak zauważa G. Kelly (2003, s. 4) – może wydawać się wywrotowa dla konserwatywnych badaczy z tego względu, że wiedza ludzka nie jest w niej postrzegana jako stabilny i trwały gmach na którym (wraz z postępem wiedzy) dobudowywane są kolejne piętra. Jest ona raczej postrzegana jako elastyczny budulec wielokrotnego (właściwie to nieskończonego) użytku. Każda konstrukcja umysłowa może zostać zastąpioną inną konstrukcją. Każde fakty mogą zostać zreinterpretowane na nowo, tworząc w ten sposób nową wiedzę, alternatywną wobec pierwszej interpretacji. W związku z tym misternie budowana przez badacza konstrukcja może szybko zostać zamieniona w gruzowisko lub zostać przekształcona w zupełnie inną konstrukcję. Niektórzy badacze mogą odbierać tę sytuację jako zagrożenie ich dorobku naukowego, ich stanowiska filozoficznego, a nawet ich poczucia moralnego bezpieczeństwa (Kelly, 2003, s. 4).

W związku z powyższym paradygmat obiektywistyczny jest wciąż bardzo głęboko zakorzeniony w polskim szkolnictwie. D. Klus-Stańska zauważa, że wskazuje na to nawet język w którym zapisany jest program nauczania w polskiej szkole, użyte w nim związki frazeologiczne. Używane sformułowania typu *przekazywanie wiedzy*, *przyswajanie wiedzy*, *zapoznawanie ucznia* czy *wdrażanie ucznia* jednoznacznie wskazują na to, że edukacja jest postrzegana z perspektywy obiektywistycznej. Rolą nauczyciela jest *przekazywanie* wiedzy, zaś rolą uczniów jest *przyswojenie* wiedzy (Klus-Stańska, 2010B, s. 39). W programach nauczania w innych państwach (np. w angielskim *National Curriculum*) typowe konstrukcje językowe opisujące procesy nauczania i uczenia się są zgoła odmienne. Występują określenia takie jak *konstruowanie pojęć* (ang. *constructing notions/ideas*), *nadawanie znaczeń* (ang. *giving meanings to*), *uczeń bada* (ang. *the pupil inquires*) czy *uczeń doświadcza* (ang. *the pupil experiences*) (Klus-Stańska, 2010B, s. 39). Te związki frazeologiczne świadczą o tym, że oświata w tych państwach jest tworzona w oparciu o inny paradygmat edukacyjny. Zgodnie z hipotezą Sapira-Worfa język wpływa na sposób myślenia ludzi. W kontekście edukacji można uznać, że nie tylko treść merytoryczna programu nauczania, ale nawet język

wpływa na sposób myślenia nauczycieli o tym, czym jest edukacja i jak powinna ona wyglądać (Klus-Stańska, 2010B, s. 38-39). Samo pojęcie *program nauczania* sugeruje, że nauczanie jest czymś, co można w pełni zaplanować czy zaprogramować.

4 DLACZEGO KONSTRUKTYWIZM MOŻE BYĆ ŹRÓDŁEM INSPIRACJI DLA OSÓB ZAJMUJĄCYCH SIĘ EDUKACJĄ NAUCZYCIELI?

4.1 Akcentowanie aktywności osób uczących się w procesie nauki

Paradygmat dominujący w polskiej edukacji, nazywany obiektywistycznym lub funkcjonalistycznym, jest często przedstawiany jako pozbawiający uczniów podmiotowości i traktujący osobę uczącą się jako *obiekt poddawany obróbce* nauczycieli. Istnieje przeświadczenie o tym, że uczeń nabywa wiedzę głównie poprzez świadomą aktywność nauczyciela, który kieruje się programem szkolnym (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 63).

Natomiast cechą charakterystyczną konstruktywizmu jest akcentowanie aktywności i zaangażowania osób uczących się w proces nauki. Badacze związani z konstruktywizmem odwołują się do prac klasyków psychologii i pedagogiki L. Wygotskiego oraz J. Piageta. Pomimo różnic w koncepcjach obu uczonych, obaj oni wykluczali bierne przyswajanie wiedzy przez ucznia w formie gotowej. Wręcz przeciwnie, podkreślali oni, że młody człowiek ucząc się działa jak naukowiec, jest aktywny i poprzez swoją działalność konstruuje własną wiedzę o świecie (Rosalska, Zamorska, 2002, s. 83-84).

D. Klus-Stańska zauważa iż, zgodnie z nowszymi koncepcjami wiedzy, *wiedza to nie tyle zbiór wiadomości, ile sposób ich funkcjonowania w umyśle, który zależy od warunków ich poznawania. Pamięć ludzka gromadzi bowiem nie tyle efekty aktywności poznawczej, ile sposoby dojścia do tych efektów* (Klus-Stańska, 2011, s. 47). Autorka ta wyjaśnia, że w klasie szkolnej uczeń uczy się dokładnie tego, co faktycznie robi, a nie tego, co chce mu przekazać nauczyciel: *Jeśli zatem uczeń głównie śledzi rozumowanie nauczyciela, a potem ćwiczy to, co mu pokazano, jego umysł dysponuje głównie takimi strategiami: absolwent umie śledzić cudze wyjaśnienia i je replikować w jednoznacznych sytuacjach, ale nie umie już wytwarzać własnej argumentacji* (Klus-Stańska, 2011, s. 47). Inaczej mówiąc, uczenie się nie prowadzi do wytworzenia gotowego produktu (wiedzy), ale czegoś w rodzaju skrzynki narzędziowej umożliwiającej jej wyprodukowanie. Ten model nazwano Hipotezą Wykorzystywania (Klus-Stańska, 2010A, s. 54). W związku z tym edukacja oparta na konstruktywizmie musi być oparta na aktywności i zaangażowaniu ucznia, a nie nauczyciela. Uczeń, żeby się czegoś nauczyć, musi to faktycznie zrobić, a więc musi eksperymentować, argumentować, rozwiązywać problemy teoretyczne lub praktyczne etc., a nie tylko obserwować jak robi to nauczyciel czy powtarzać jego działania. Wiąże się z tym kolejny aspekt konstruktywizmu, czyli sprzyjanie twórczości.

4.2 Sprzyjanie twórczości

Pedagodzy przychylni koncepcji konstruktywizmu zwracają uwagę na to, że paradygmat obiektywistyczny nie sprzyja zbytnio twórczości i kreatywności, nie pozostawia on miejsca na nowatorstwo oraz wykraczanie poza utarte schematy. Dzieje się tak, ponieważ traktowanie zastanej rzeczywistości społecznej jako obiektywnie istniejącej, a więc *de facto* niezależnej od podmiotu poznającego, prowadzi do wniosku, że niewiele można w niej zmienić, że można jedynie zaadaptować się do tej rzeczywistości i zaakceptować ją taką, jaka ona jest. Z tej perspektywy rolą nauczyciela jest odpowiednie urabianie uczniów w taki sposób, aby działali oni zgodnie z odgórnie narzuconym planem (Nowak-Łojewska, 2009, s. 153). Tego typu działania rozwijają w uczniach konformizm, a nie twórczość.

Jeśli istnieje wiedza obiektywna i pewna, to rolą nauczyciela powinno być przede wszystkim przekazywanie tej wiedzy. Wiedza – jak zauważa S. Dylak (2009, s. 40) – jest traktowana w tym kontekście jako produkt, który należy upowszechnić. Dyskusje czy samodzielne poszukiwania prowadzone przez uczniów stają się w tym kontekście zbędne. Zgodnie z tym założeniem, szybszą drogą do wiedzy będzie przekazanie przez nauczyciela najlepszego sposobu dotarcia do tej wiedzy np. przekazanie schematu najlepszej metody rozwiązywania określonego zadania matematycznego. W ten sposób *oszczędzi się* uczniom wysiłku i czasu, który musieliby poświęcić na własne poszukiwania, przemyślenia, dyskusje czy eksperymenty. *Zaoszczędzony* w ten sposób czas można poświęcić na nauczenie się schematów rozwiązania kolejnych zadań.

Natomiast zgodnie z założeniami konstruktywizmu wiedza nie może być traktowana jako produkt, ponieważ jest ona i musi być samodzielnie wytwarzana przez podmiot poznający (w przypadku klasy szkolnej tym podmiotem jest uczeń). W związku z tym nauczyciel nie może *przekazać wiedzy*, może on co najwyżej pobudzić uczniów do wytworzenia własnej wiedzy, która będzie w jakimś stopniu podobna do wiedzy nauczyciela, ale nie będzie ona identyczna. Ta wiedza wytwarzana jest w trakcie aktywności ucznia, co było już wspomniane w poprzednim paragrafie. Poszukiwania uczniów w związku z tym nie tylko nie są zbędne, ale są one koniecznością i podstawą uczenia się.

D. Klus-Stańska zwraca w tym kontekście uwagę na to, że celem kształcenia powinno być nie tylko zaznajomienie uczniów z dorobkiem kulturowym, ale też aktywne uczestnictwo w kulturze obejmujące również przyczynianie się do zmiany tego dorobku (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 23). Nie chodzi więc tylko o kształcenie odbiorców kultury, ale też jej twórców. Autorka ta stwierdza, że: *Nowe pokolenia muszą nauczyć się twórczo rozumieć świat, w którym oprócz głosu nauki słychać też głosy innych racjonalności, a sama nauka nie zgłasza już zapotrzebowania na skrupulatnych <<obserwatorów-archiwistów>>, ale na zdyscyplinowanych myślicieli, tworzących śmiałe, płodne w pytania teorie* (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 23).

4.3 Akcentowanie związku pomiędzy językiem i myśleniem

Walorem konstruktywizmu jest bardzo silne akcentowanie związku pomiędzy językiem i myśleniem. Konstruktywiści odwołują się do wspomnianej już hipotezy Sapira-Whorfa, zwanej też prawem relatywizmu językowego. Zgodnie z tą koncepcją język jest narzędziem kulturowym nie tyle odzwierciedlającym rzeczywistość, ale ją konstruującym. Język, poprzez określone struktury gramatyczne oraz znaczeniowe, wpływa na sposób myślenia ludzi. Wpływa on na to, jak ludzie rozumieją świat i jakie sensy mu nadają. Zgodnie z tą hipotezą myśl jest kształtowana przez język (Klus-Stańska, 2010B, s. 38-39).

Przyjmuje się, że edukacja nauczycieli oparta na konstruktywistycznych założeniach w większym stopniu kładzie nacisk na kwestie związane z językiem używanym w sytuacjach edukacyjnych. Bardzo ważne jest, aby przyszli nauczyciele mieli określoną wrażliwość w tej dziedzinie, aby zdawali sobie sprawę z tego, że swoimi słowami kształtują rzeczywistość klasy szkolnej i całej szkoły.

4.4 Większa tolerancja w interakcjach międzyludzkich

Z konstruktywizmem wiążą się określone implikacje o charakterze etycznym, społecznym i praktycznym. Wydaje się, że konstruktywistyczny model poznania jest popularyzowany i promowany przez wielu badaczy z dziedziny nauk społecznych (i nie tylko) właśnie ze względu na te implikacje. E. von Glasersfeld, badacz uważany za współtwórcę radykalnego

konstruktywizmu, zauważył, że orientacja konstruktywistyczna prowadzi do większej tolerancji w interakcjach społecznych. Ta tolerancja płynie z uświadomienie sobie, że ludzie nie mają dostępu do ontologicznej rzeczywistości, operują jedynie na stworzonych przez siebie konstruktach rzeczywistości, które dla tych konkretnych osób okazały się wiabilne, a więc wartościowe z perspektywy radzenia sobie w życiu (von Glasersfeld, 2010, s. 43). Wiabilność jest pojęciem używanym przez radykalnych konstruktywistów i oznaczajacym taki charakter konstruktu, który umożliwia przetrwanie jednostce lub społeczeństwu, niezależnie od tego, czy dany konstrukt jest zgodny ze światem zewnętrznym czy nie jest zgodny, gdyż – zgodnie z założeniami konstruktywizmu – takiej zgodności i tak nie jesteśmy w stanie w żaden sposób stwierdzić (Fleischer, 2010, s. 11).

4.5 Bardziej swobodna komunikacja na lekcji i otwarcie na dialog

Dla paradygmatu obiektywistycznego charakterystyczny jest – jak zauważa D. Klus-Stańska - formalizm wiedzy oraz oczekiwanie, by wiedza przyjmowała ściśle określoną postać, zakres i ramę. Chodzi o to, by wiedza nie była w najmniejszym stopniu zmieniana przez uczniów, inaczej interpretowana, by nie nadawano jej znaczeń innych niż chciałby tego nauczyciel. Prowadzi to do sytuacji w której samo posiadanie wiedzy przez ucznia nie wystarczy, aby zyskać aprobatę nauczyciela. Uczeń musi jeszcze wyrazić tę wiedzę w określony sposób, tak jak wyraża ją nauczyciel (Klus-Stańska, 2012, s. 27). Oczywiście, takie przesłanki mocno utrudniają jakikolwiek autentyczny dialog w klasie szkolnej.

Z kolei z konstruktywizmem utożsamiane jest otwarcie na dialog w edukacji i możliwość bardziej swobodnej komunikacji na lekcji. Jak pisze D. Klus-Stańska: *Pęknięcie wiary w niekwestionowalną prawomocność tzw. obiektywnych twierdzeń nauki jako zmonopolizowanego źródła jedynie właściwej wiedzy (prawdy) otworzyło liczne perspektywy dla zaistnienia dialogu w jego wielorakich postaciach. Mówiąc lapidarnie – monolog empirii został przerwany przez dialog znaczeń* (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 25). Jeśli zgodnie z konstruktywizmem świat każdego ucznia jest inny, to z tej perspektywy narzucanie jednej wizji świata przez nauczyciela wszystkim uczniom jest czymś szkodliwym i ograniczającym. Stąd wynika większa potrzeba dialogu rozumiejącego, negocjowania znaczeń, dyskusji i konfrontowania różnych poglądów (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 66).

4.6 Docenienie znaczenia wiedzy potocznej

Zgodnie z paradygmatem obiektywistycznym uczeń w toku nauki szkolnej powinien zostać wyposażony w poprawną reprezentację świata oraz w pożądany społecznie system wartości (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 63). Wiedzy osobistej uczniów przypisuje się generalnie niską wartość. Dodatkowo wiedzę osobistą młodego człowieka odgradza się linią demarkacyjną od wiedzy szkolnej, która jest ceniona nieporównywalnie wyżej (Klus-Stańska, 2002, s. 63). Charakterystyczne jest to, że z badań prowadzonych w trakcie lekcji wynika, że nauczyciele nie akceptują wiedzy osobistej uczniów zdobytej poza szkołą i to nawet wtedy, gdy wiedza ta odpowiada wymaganiom programowym (Klus-Stańka, 2002, s. 175).

Walorem konstruktywizmu jest to, że pozwala on dostrzec i docenić w pełni znaczenie jakie ma wiedza potoczna uczniów, ale też nauczycieli w kontekście edukacyjnym. Z perspektywy konstruktywistycznej, myślenie nauczycieli i uczniów nie stanowi prostego odzwierciedlenia rzeczywistości (tego, jak jest), ale samo to myślenie stanowi rzeczywistość społeczną i w związku z tym wpływa na praktyki społeczne. Jak zauważyli P. L. Berger i T. Luckmann (2010, s. 32), świat życia codziennego ludzi *powstaje w ich myślach i działaniach oraz dzięki tym myślom i działaniom trwa jako świat rzeczywisty*. Wiedza potoczna zawsze wpływa na postawy i zachowania, bez względu na jej faktyczną wartość, gdyż ludzie wychodzą z

założenia, że ich wiedza jest prawdziwa i kierując się tą przesłanką działają w rzeczywistości społecznej (Dylak, 2000, s. 176-190).

5 PODSUMOWANIE

Konstruktywizm jest źródłem inspiracji dla rozwoju współczesnej edukacji nauczycieli, ponieważ z konstruktywizmem wiążą się określone implikacje o charakterze etycznym, społecznym i praktycznym, które są postrzegane jako potencjalnie wzbogacające edukację. Przyjmuje się, że konstruktywizm w znacznie większym stopniu niż dominujący dotychczas w polskiej edukacji paradygmat obiektywistyczny akcentuje aktywność osób uczących się w trakcie nauki, sprzyja twórczości, akcentuje związek pomiędzy językiem i myśleniem, sprzyja większej tolerancji w interakcjach międzyludzkich, sprzyja bardziej swobodnej komunikacji na lekcji oraz pozwala dostrzec i docenić znaczenie wiedzy potocznej uczniów i nauczycieli w kontekście edukacyjnym.

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PŘÍSTUP STUDENTŮ TECHNICKÉ UNIVERZITY K DRAMATICKÉ VÝCHOVĚ

THE ATTITUDE OF TECHNOLOGY STUDENTS TOWARDS DRAMATIC EDUCATION

Monika Schmidtová

Abstrakt

Příspěvek referuje o výzkumu předmětu „Dramatické techniky v komunikaci“ na Stavební fakultě ČVUT v Praze. Odhaluje studentské názory a postoje k dramatické výchově a ke společenskovědním předmětům obecně. Na základě výsledků tohoto výzkumu naznačuje způsob, kterým lze tyto předměty vyučovat tak, aby studentům zprostředkovaly společenskovědní disciplíny způsobem, který je pro technicky orientované studenty nejvíce přínosný.

Klíčová slova: *Dramatická výchova, technické univerzity, společenskovědní předměty, studenti techniky, názory a postoje*

Abstract

The paper documents the research of the special course „Dramatic education“ at the Faculty of Civil Engineering CTU in Prague. It reveals related student´s opinions and attitudes toward Drama in education and toward social science courses in general. Based on the results, it indicates the way to educate such courses so that the social sciences are mediated most effectively to the technology-oriented students.

Key words: *Drama in education, technical universities, social science courses, technology-oriented students, opinions and attitudes*

1 ÚVOD

V akademických rocích 2009/2013 se na Fakultě stavební ČVUT v Praze dařilo ojedinělému počinu: zařazení dramatické výchovy do nabídky povinně volitelných předmětů Katedry společenských věd. Předmět se realizoval pod názvem Dramatické techniky v komunikaci a byl určen studentům druhého ročníku bakalářského studia nejpočetnějšího oboru Stavební inženýrství. Cílem předmětu bylo rozvinout psychosociální dovednosti studentů, a zprostředkovat jim skrze zážitkové učení přijetí společenskovědních disciplín.

Tento počin byl ojedinělý hlavně ze dvou důvodů. Za prvé, o dramatické výchově bývá nejčastěji uvažováno v souvislosti s jejím působením na dětské, případně adolescentní účastníky. Co se terciárního vzdělávání týče, v současnosti jsem v České republice kromě pedagogických a divadelních fakult nenalezla žádnou, která by ji nabízela, a to ani jako čistě volitelný předmět. Dokonce i na školách středních jsou výjimkou gymnázia, která ji zařazují do studijních plánů. Popsaný stav pak způsobuje, že v povědomí veřejnosti se dramatická výchova týká pouze preprimárního a primárního vzdělávání. Za druhé, na dramatickou výchovu je ze strany technicky orientovaných jedinců často nahlíženo silně dichotomicky: „humanitní a společenskovědní versus technické a přírodovědné obory“. Zatímco některé společenskovědní disciplíny, jako například psychologie, etika nebo komunikace a rétorika bývají v různých kombinacích součástmi učebních a studijních plánů i technicky

orientovaných středních a vysokých škol jakožto „bezprostředně využitelné“, dramatická výchova zůstává jako disciplína „bez praktického využití“ vykázána čistě do škol humanitního zaměření, případně do zájmové oblasti.

Oba zmíněné přístupy, pro které je dramatická výchova opomíjena v určitých cílových skupinách, však nemají opodstatněnou argumentaci. Sama matérie dramatické výchovy – totiž dramatická hra – může poskytnout velký přínos právě cílové skupině ve věku vysokoškoláků, i skupině technicky orientovaných studentů. Jak uvádí Vágnerová: „Dospělý člověk je schopen kompromisu, který není jen vlivem jeho submise a rezignace na vlastní názor. Je projevem schopnosti uvažovat komplexněji a akceptovat řešení, které by bylo přijatelné z více hledisek, resp. pro více lidí. Postformální (komplexní) myšlení je typické otevřeností ke změně k přístupu k řešení různých situací i v chápání samotného problému… Otevřenost novým podnětům je nejvyšší v rané dospělosti. (Vágnerová 2007, s. 20). A dále: „Zlepšuje se schopnost emoční regulace… Podpora jiného člověka a možnost poznat jeho způsob interpretace přispívá k objektivnějšímu posouzení vlastních pocitů a vytvoření většího nadhledu“ (tamtéž, s. 24). Na studenty ve druhém ročníku bakalářského studia je možné metodami dramatické výchovy působit. A dále – jak uvádí Dobrovská: „…zjednodušený prakticistní postoj techniků k humanitním vědám může být ovlivněn více faktory. Jedním z nejdůležitějších může být vliv jazyka humanitních věd. Technik slyší, že například psychologie, pedagogika či sociologie převážně používá běžný jazyk, který působí zdánlivě jednoduše a srozumitelně. Inženýr, který obvykle nebývá verbálně orientován, a precizní verbální konstrukce jej neoslovují ani neoslňují, si učiní závěr, že humanitní předměty jsou jednoduché, verbálně předimenzované a není třeba jim věnovat větší pozornost. Slyšené je automaticky vnímáno jako osvojené a dosahování dalších rovin a stupňů poznání humanitních předmětů jako nadbytečné.“ (Dobrovská, D. 2004, s. 118). Přednášková forma humanitních předmětů tak mnohým studentům techniky nedokáže tyto disciplíny adekvátně zprostředkovat. Dramatická výchova využívá k pedagogickým účelům prostředků dramatické hry. Jedná se o zážitkové učení, kde „skrze vykonávání dramatického jednání…je splněna podmínka, že člověk se takového jednání sám aktivně účastní – ať již v roli herce či diváka – a pracuje tak se svým reálným prožitkem. (Svozilová, s. 19). Prostředky dramatické výchovy tak mohou zprostředkovat to, co verbální vyučování nedokáže.
Po prvních dvou letech výuky předmětu Dramatické techniky v komunikaci jsem se rozhodla k systematickému výzkumu přijímání kurzu studenty, a následně k ověření účinnosti jeho dopadu vzhledem ke stanoveným cílům. První etapu tohoto zkoumání zde předkládám.

2 REALIZACE

2.1 Předmět v kontextu ostatní výuky

Předmět se během sledovaných akademických roků 2011/12 a 2012/2013 realizoval v celkem sedmi cvičebních skupinách ve formátu 0+2, což reprezentuje dvě hodiny cvičení týdně. Interaktivní výuka probíhala ve cvičebních skupinách v počtu kolem 20 studentů v komorním prostředí menší katederní učebny. Kromě DT mohli studenti volit tyto předměty: Aplikovaná teorie ceny, Rétorika, Institucionální ekonomie, Sociologie a personalistika, Kulturní dějiny českých zemí, Komparativní dějiny, Etika a Filosofie, a Praktická hospodářská politika. Z nich ještě tři měly interaktivní charakter cvičení, ostatní měly formu přednášek.

2.2 Metody výzkumu

Vzhledem k předmětu a cílům zkoumání jsem zvolila výzkum kvalitativní, protože jak k němu uvádí Disman „Výzkum přináší mnoho informací o malém množství jedinců… Na začátku je pozorování a sběr dat. Pak výzkumník pátrá po pravidelnostech existujících

v těchto datech, po významu těchto dat, formuluje předběžné závěry a výstupem mohou být nově formulované hypotézy nebo nové teorie.“ (Disman, 2011, s. 286-287). Toto vymezení odpovídá záměru a podmínkám zkoumání.

Při sběru dat jsem využila: zúčastněné pozorování, vstupní a výstupní dotazníky, závěrečné studentské písemné reflexe, pedagogický deník a studentské deníky a s odstupem 2-3 let polostrukturovaná interview.

Vstupní dotazník obdrželi studenti na první hodině. Z důvodů zajištění anonymity respondentů jim bylo umožněno vyplnit dotazník pod značkou, která neodkazovala k jejich jménu, případně k přezdívce užívané v kurzu. Pod tou samou značkou vyplňovali na poslední hodině i výstupní dotazník. Student tak mohl zůstat v anonymitě až do ukončení předmětu, pokud si to přál. Vyplnění dotazníků nebylo prezentované jako povinné, nýbrž jako pomoc při probíhajícím výzkumu. Vstupní dotazník zjišťoval data potřebná k analýze cílové skupiny, typ absolvované střední školy, motivaci z výběru předmětu a očekávání s předmětem spojená. Výstupní dotazník obdrželi studenti na poslední hodině. Zjišťoval postoje k předmětu bezprostředně po jeho skončení a názory na konkrétní realizované aktivity. Odevzdání polostrukturované písemné reflexe na závěr kurzu bylo podmínkou zápočtu. Stejně jako u odevzdání výstupních dotazníků bylo studentům zaručeno, že jejich výstupy nebudou zpracovávány (čteny) před obdržením zápočtu. Tyto materiály zjišťovaly v širším kontextu postoje studentů k absolvovanému kurzu bezprostředně po jeho ukončení, postřehy a připomínky. Po prvním sledovaném akademickém roce však bylo zřejmé, že tento výzkumný nástroj neplní zcela svůj účel. Hlavní příčiny byly dvě. Splnění úkolu bylo možné až po ukončení kurzu, tj. koncem semestru, kdy se studentům kumulují povinnosti a kdy začíná zkouškové období. Jak uvádí Pelikán (2007, s. 65) unavení studenti často plnili tento úkol formálně. Navíc pro mnoho studentů z této cílové skupiny představuje tvorba souvislého textu nepříjemný nezvyklý úkol, a tito jedinci se snažili text minimalizovat. Stávalo se tak, že některé z těchto textů nepřinášely oproti dotazníkům příliš nových faktů. Proto jsem ve druhém sledovaném akademickém roce přidala požadavek vedení studentských deníků. Interview jsem pak natáčela s odstupem dvou až tří let od ukončení předmětu.

2.3 Analýza cílové skupiny

Během sledovaného období absolvovalo kurz 126 studentů a studentek z bakalářské etapy studia oboru Stavební inženýrství. Většina z nich byla v době realizování kurzu ve věku 21-22 let, tedy v období rané mladé dospělosti. Celkově se předmětu zúčastnilo 86 studentů (68%) a 40 studentek (32%) Další údaje analyzující cílovou skupinu pocházejí od všech studentů, kteří odevzdali vstupní dotazník, tj. 117 studentů a studentek.
První dotaz směřoval na předchozí zkušenost s dramatickou výchovou nebo podobnými aktivitami. V tomto přehledu je každý student započítán právě jednou, přičemž je zohledněna ta formálně „nejvyšší získaná zkušenost“ kterou student během předchozího vzdělávání získal. Přehled znázorňuje tabulka č 1.

Tabulka 1

Kategorie zkušeností	**Počet**	**%**
1- absolutně žádné	62	53%
2- pouze podobné	32	27%
3- neformální vzdělávání	10	9%
4- formální vzdělávání ZŠ	11	9%
5- formální vzdělávání ZUŠ	2	2%
celkem	117	100%

V celkovém souhrnu nadpoloviční část studentů neměla s dramatickou výchovou vůbec žádnou předchozí zkušenost, další zhruba čtvrtina měla zkušenost pouze s aktivitami podobnými. Nejčastěji se jednalo o začlenění prvků DV do různých jednorázových akcí jako jsou letní pobytové aktivity s organizovaným programem nebo tzv. teambuildingové aktivity. Pouze desetina studentů se setkala s dramatickou výchovou jako s předmětem ve formálním vzdělávání na základní škole, a u všech kromě jednoho se jednalo pouze o první stupeň. Další desetina se setkala s dramatickou výchovou v neformálním vzdělávání v různých zájmových kroužcích. S dramatickou výchovou jako takovou se tedy dříve setkala pouze pětina (20%) studentů.

Další dotaz směřoval k absolvovanému typu střední školy. Typ středoškolského vzdělání jsem zjišťovala, neboť u absolventů gymnázií lze předpokládat širší zkušenost s humanitními a společenskovědními předměty než u absolventů středních odborných škol. Přehled znázorňuje tabulka č 2. V celkovém souhrnu velmi mírně početně převažovali absolventi gymnázií (54%) nad ostatními.

Tabulka 2

Škola	**Počet**	**%**
odborná	51	44%
gymnázium	63	54%
jiná (např. lyceum)	3	2 %
celkem	117	100%

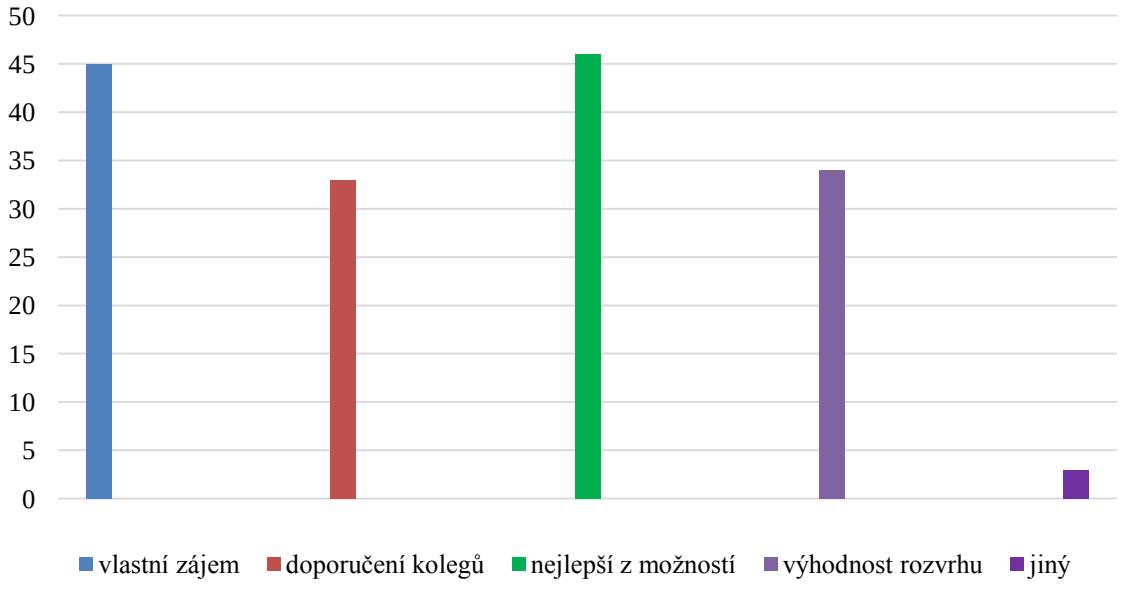
3 POSTOJE STUDENTŮ PŘED ABSOLVOVÁNÍM PŘEDMĚTU

3.1 Důvod výběru předmětu

Dotaz na motiv volby předmětu měl charakter polouzavřené otázky. Studenti obdrželi nabídku pěti možností, z nichž mohli uvést až tři, které měly na jejich volbu vliv. Podle mých předchozích pedagogických zkušeností s povinně volitelnými společenskovědními předměty, které se realizovaly stejným způsobem (malé paralelní cvičební skupiny o 15-24 studentech, kde dochází k osobnějšímu vztahu mezi studenty a pedagogem) obvykle totiž ovlivňuje volbu předmětu kombinace více faktorů. Uváděné možnosti jsem zvolila rovněž dle zpětné vazby ze všech předchozích příbuzných předmětů. Na jejím základě jsem vytipovala nejčastější možnosti, včetně těch motivů, které studenti sami považují za „méně ušlechtilé“, a ostýchají se k nim sami od sebe veřejně přiznat. Kromě nabízených možností mohli studenti přidat ještě jiný důvod v dotazníku neuvedený, případně ho uvést konkrétně. Přehled ukazuje graf č. 1.

Studenti hojně využili šance uvést několik důvodů svého výběru, což potvrdilo předpoklad, že na konečné volbě předmětu se podílelo více faktorů. Často se u jednoho a téhož jedince mísily důvody tzv. ušlechtilé jako „vlastní zájem“ a tzv. méně ušlechtilé jako „výhodnost v rozvrhu“. Nelze zjistit, který z dvou až tří uvedených motivů kdy v kombinaci převažoval, spolehlivě lze pracovat s jejich výslednými počty. V celkovém souhrnu měly nejčetnější zastoupení dva motivy „nejlepší z nabízených možností“ – uvedeno 46x a „vlastní zájem“ uvedeno 45x. Nižší opět téměř shodné zastoupení „výhodnost v rozvrhu“ uvedeno 34x a „doporučení kolegů“ uvedeno 33x.

Graf 1: Motivy zápisu celkem



Pomyslná první příčka „nejlepší z nabízených možností“ zde jen dokumentuje to, co studenti dále potvrdili v písemných výstupních materiálech. Při povinnosti zapsat jeden z povinně volitelných předmětů postupovali tzv. vylučovacím způsobem, kdy nejprve rozhodně vynechali ze svých úvah ty předměty, které si rozhodně zapsat nechtěli. Důvodem k apriornímu odmítnutí většinou byla silná nechuť ke konkrétní nabízené společenskovědní disciplíně, získaná na nižších stupních vzdělávání. Dle dalších výpovědí přivedla studenty k předmětu DT interaktivní forma cvičení, která jim vyhovuje více než přednášková forma. Zároveň však mnozí studenti uvedli, že na druhé straně shledávají nevýhodou cvičení poměrně vysoké penzum nutné účasti, přednášky jsou na FSv nepovinné. Přesto však raději zvolili předmět s nutností docházky než přednáškovou formu. Těsně zaujal druhé místo motiv „vlastní zájem“. Vzhledem k tomu, že přes 60% studentů nemělo s dramatickou výchovou žádné zkušenosti, bylo třeba zjistit, co přesně na nabídce předmětu zaujalo. K tomuto zjišťování sloužila další otázka vstupního dotazníku „Co od předmětu očekáváte?“.

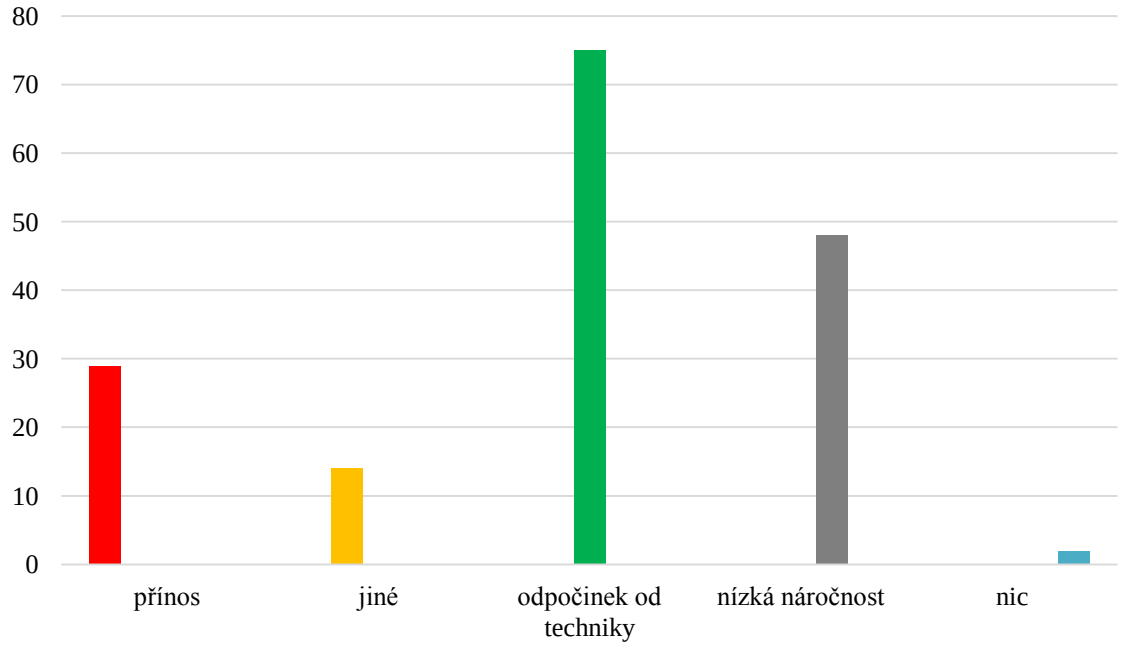
Dalším faktorem, který ovlivnil zápis předmětu, byla „výhodnost v rozvrhu“. K tomuto je třeba uvést, že sestavování celofakultního rozvrhu je na Fakultě stavební s téměř 3700 studenty logisticky náročné, a v tomto procesu mají pochopitelně prioritu předměty povinné. V důsledku toho předměty povinně volitelné neměly v rozvrhu stálé místo, a realizovaly se každý semestr v jiných dnech i hodinách. Studenti jeví snahu si osobní rozvrh zoptimalizovat, a uvažují o zápisu konkrétního předmětu i z tohoto hlediska. Téměř stejnou četnost však měla i odpověď „doporučení kolegů“, která měla pouze o jeden výskyt méně. V době výzkumu měl předmět DT za sebou čtyři semestry realizace. Studenti tak měli možnost oslovit jeho čerstvé absolventy. Tím získali informace, které sami považovali za důležité, ze zdroje, který považovali za relevantní, protože s nimi tvořil ve vztahu k předmětu jednu cílovou skupinu.

3.2 Očekávání od předmětu

Zvolila jsem opět formu polouzavřené otázky. Studenti dostali nabídku čtyř vytipovaných variant, z nichž mohli uvést až tři, které měly na jejich volbu vliv. Pokud uvedli variantu

„přínos“, mohli doplnit formou volného vyjádření konkrétně. Kromě nabízených možností mohli studenti přidat ještě jiný důvod v dotazníku neuvedený. Přehled ukazuje graf č. 2.

Graf 2: Očekávání od předmětu celkem



Studenti opět využili šance uvést několik očekávání zároveň, a opět se u jedněch a týchž jedinců mísila očekávání tzv. ušlechtilá jako „přínos“ a tzv. méně ušlechtilá jako „nízkou náročnost“. Respondenti nepovažovali tyto položky za vzájemně neslučitelné.

V celkovém souhrnu mělo výrazně nejčetnější zastoupení očekávání „odpočinek od techniky“ – uvedlo je 75 ze 117 studentů. Na druhém místě výrazně nižší zastoupení „nízkou náročnost“ očekávalo 48 ze 117 studentů. Očekávání „přínos“ uvedlo 29 a „jiné“ 14 studentů. Pouze 3 studenti uvedli, že vstupují do předmětu bez jakéhokoli očekávání.

Poněkud překvapivý byl výrazný náskok na prvním místě očekávání „odpočinek od techniky“. Překvapivý proto, že studenti FSv se se zvoleným oborem studia silně identifikují. Jak totiž uvádí Šafránková: „ S volbou ČVUT je spokojeno 80% studentů, s volbou programu na stejné škole třetina. Toto zjištění je na FSv i ČVUT stabilní ve výzkumech od r. 1995“ (Šafránková, 2006, s. 14). A dále „Z hlediska charakteristiky absolventů FSv lze konstatovat, že u nich existuje poměrně vysoký stupeň identifikace s oborem, s odborně technickým zaměřením jejich zájmu a činnosti (tamtéž, s. 27).

Vysvětlení tohoto zdánlivého paradoxu může přinést vhled do jiné stránky studentského pohledu na vlastní studium. V roce 2009 jsem analyzovala z lingvistické stránky eseje studentů tří fakult ČVUT na téma „vysokoškolské vzdělávání“. Na prvním místě v četnosti používaných cizích slov se objevil výraz *stres* se všemi jeho odvozeninami. K tomu nejsou připočteny ještě samostatně započítané výskyty *frustrace* a *deprese* (Schmidtová s. 140). Studenti jsou s volbou oboru studia spokojeni, nicméně zároveň vnímají studium jako velmi náročné, i co se jednostrannosti a interferenčních vlivů týče. To také vysvětluje, proč se na druhém místě v očekáváních umístila „nízká náročnost“. Studenti poté v širších písemných výstupních materiálech uvedli, že volili předmět, u nějž neočekávali časově náročnou přípravu a učení na závěrečný test.
Při analýze volně doplňovaných odpovědí dále vyšlo najevo, že odpovědi u položek „přínos“ a „jiné“ se občas překrývají, obsahují většinou zkušenosti v oblasti soft skills, a lze je tak

sloučit do položky jedné. Tím se s celkem 40 volně formulovanými očekáváními řadí na třetí místo bez velkého odstupu. Překryv těchto položek ukazuje tabulka č. 3.

Tabulka 3

Od předmětu očekávám konkrétně:	**považováno za „přínos“**	**považováno za „jiné“**	**celkem**
komunikaci	11	2	13
zábavu	1	5	6
sebepoznání, poznání vlastností, pochopení lidí	3	1	4
jednání s lidmi, interakce, sžívání se společností	3	1	4
zkušenosti	2	1	3
dovednosti veřejného vystupování	2	1	3
něco nového, něco jiného, něco víc	2	1	3
poznatky, rozšíření obzorů	1	1	2
inspiraci	1	1	2
Celkem			40

Nejčetnějším očekáváním z těchto překrývajících se volných odpovědí byla „komunikace“ blíže nespecifikovaná, uvedená celkem 13x, z toho 11 studentů ji považovalo za přínos. Na druhém místě uvedli studenti ve volně formulovaných odpovědích „zábavu“ – celkem 6x, z čehož jeden ji považoval za přínos. Takto formulované očekávání v sobě může skrývat různé postoje. Jak uvádí Marušák, jde o to, zda činnost studenta „jen“ zaujme a přinese mu určité uspokojení, nebo zda student nalezne i nějaké významy a smysl v souladu s cíli pedagoga, což ovšem předpokládá vzájemné propojení studentů a pedagoga (Marušák, s. 30). Co se týče ostatních konkrétně formulovaných volných odpovědí, studenti tento smysl a význam očekávali.

Podrobná analýza delších písemných výpovědí o naplnění/nenaplnění studentských očekávání od předmětu je v současné době ve stádiu zpracovávání.

4 ZÁVĚR

Analýza skupiny bakalářských studentů FSv ČVUT, kteří si zvolili jako povinně volitelný předmět dramatickou výchovu, a analýza jejich postojů k této volbě přinesla následující zjištění:

Studenti většinou nezaujali k (pro ně) nezvyklému předmětu apriorně negativní přístup. Při plnění povinnosti absolvovat jeden společenskovědní předmět uplatnili zdravý pragmatismus.

Tato cílová skupina se vyznačuje silnou identifikací k technickým disciplínám, které vnímá jako svou prioritu a svou vlastní odbornost. Dále se vyznačuje menší zkušeností se společenskovědními disciplínami. Ty studenti vnímají jako vytržení ze stereotypu vlastní odbornosti, a jako příležitost rozvinout schopnosti a dovednosti, o nichž si uvědomují, že se jim jich nedostává. Zároveň si však tito studenti přejí, aby tento proces probíhal způsobem pro ně akceptovatelným a co možná nejpříjemnějším. Své největší úsilí vynakládají na studium odborných předmětů. Z povinně volitelných vybírají ty, o nichž na základě dostupných informací předpokládají, že náročností (měřenou kombinací několika hledisek) nepřevýší předměty odborné. Tento postoj dokumentuje citát ze závěrečného písemného vyjádření studenta J. z letního semestru akademického roku 2011/2012:

„Dále jsem očekával předmět, který by mi neměl zabrat více než dvě hodiny týdně, protože studium na ČVUT je hlavně velmi náročné, co se času týče. Že by předmět měl být odpočinkem od všech technických předmětů (ač jsem nikdy humanitní obory neměl rád, spíše naopak), a tak trochu vytrhnutím ze stereotypu neustálého počítání… Už samotná pozice humanitního předmětu (ještě k tomu povinného – i když s výběrem z několika) na technické škole je dost obtížná. Naplnit cvičení činností, která bude studenty bavit, a bude mít současně i nějaký smysl, je podle mého názoru úkol přinejmenším obtížný…. Děkuji za bezproblémový předmět."

Pro výuku společenskovědních předmětů na technické univerzitě se jako optimální jeví několik činitelů. Větší část z nich ovšem nemůže ovlivnit pouze snaha pedagoga až během výuky, protože záleží na tom kolik a jakého prostoru se mu dostane. Týká se to vytváření studijních plánů, je to otázkou ekonomickou a organizační.

Prvním předpokladem je samozřejmě zařazení společenskovědních předmětů jako takových do studijních plánů. Situace na technických univerzitách v ČR se různí, Záleží na jednotlivých fakultách, zda a kolik humanitních, případně společenskovědních oborů do akreditace studijních plánů zařadí.

Forma vyhovující studentům je interaktivní výuka s možností komunikace mezi studenty samotnými i mezi studenty a pedagogem. Studenti si přejí i učení zážitkem, nepřejí si pouze přijímat pasivně verbálně informace o společenských problémech a jevech. To vyžaduje výuku po menších skupinách. Této formě výuky odpovídá na technických univerzitách cvičení. Tato forma je ovšem pro fakulty náročnější finančně i organizačně, a řešení tohoto problému je v kompetenci vedení fakult.

Na pedagogovi samotném je pak, aby tuto cvičební formu učinil přitažlivou a pro studenty poutavou. Je třeba, aby přijal fakt, že nepřipravuje budoucí společenskovědní odborníky, a že studenti své maximální studijní úsilí věnují svým oborovým předmětům.

Při splnění těchto předpokladů je možné docílit nejen toho, že technicky orientovaný student bude přijímat danou společenskovědní disciplínu kladně, ale vytěží z výuky pro sebe co nejvíce.

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THE SPECIFICS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF THE PROFESSIONAL AND AMATEUR MUSICIANS

Irina Arshava, Victoria Kutepova-Bredun

Abstract

The objective of the present study is testing the hypotheses of probable differences in the psychological well-being and the personal traits of professional and amateur musicians. The method of quasi-experiment for two non-equivalents groups of professional musicians and amateur musicians was chosen in the empirical study that allowed testing the hypothesis of the study by identifying intergroup differences. The sample involved 122 people: a group of professional musicians - 62 people and a group of 60 amateur musicians(aged 18 to 60 years old). The studying of the sample was carried out by the Five-Factor Inventory (R. McCrae, P. Costa, 1992) and the inventory "The Scale of Psychological Well-being" (K.Riff, 2005).The group of professional musicians has statistically higher levels of psychological well-being and the level of neuroticism.

Key word: *professional musicians, amateurs, personal traits, neuroticism, psychological well-being.*

1. Introduction

The psychological stress of people of creative professions is constantly growing, professional criteria and requirements, working conditions, time resources, as well as the speed of life are constantly changing. This leads to a violation of adaptation, psychological and emotional violations.

In this context, the study of the personality potential of the musician, in particular the psychological well-being of the personality of the musician, is very current, along with the study of professionally important qualities. The problem of the specificity of a personality of a musician has been paid more attention in recent times, in particular in the studies of E. Kemp, D. Coffman, N. Rozydestvenskaya, A. A. Blinova, B. A. Barash, D. K. Kirnarskaya, G. N. Tsipina, A. L. Gottsdiner, L. B. Bochkareva, A. B. Goldveneiser, E. G. Gurenko, V. I. Petrushin, as well as in the works of some professional musicians, which are devoted to certain types of musical activities (works of G. G. Neuhaus, S. I. Savvisky, Yu. A. Tsagarelli, etc.).

Most works explore such personality traits of musicians as anxiety, introversion, psychological health, self-esteem, etc. The novelty of the work is the study of psychological well-being among such category as musicians (professionals, amateurs).

2. Analysis of recent studies and publications

The problem of positive psychological functioning began arise a considerable interest of researchers from the middle of the XX century, correlating with existential and humanistic psychology with the principle of integrity in the approach to understanding the person, as well as with the interpretation of the personal way of existence - the existence of man as a unique integrity, having a unique life experience, a unique inner world, and a unique reaction to the circumstances of his life.

This approach requires the introduction of a term combining both the degree of positive functioning of the individual, and the degree of satisfaction of man himself and his life. This indicator can serve as the degree of psychological well-being of the individual. Unlike the term "psychological health," the term "psychological well-being" refers primarily to the

existential experience of a person's attitude towards his life, that is, is a subjective reality and is based on an integrated assessment of his life.
There is no single understanding of the term "psychological well-being" in psychology. Psychological well-being is explained in terms of happiness-misfortune, a subjective experience of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one's life (hedonistic theories of N. Bradbjorn and E. Diner), personal growth (eudeministic theory of A. Votermen), and even, in terms of psycho-physiological functions (R.M.Ryan, and K.Frederick).
In this article we refer to the understanding of the psychological well-being of K. Riff, who successfully combines the aforementioned theories and relies on the theory of A. Maslow, C. Rogers, G. Olport, K.G. Jung, E. Erickson, S. Buhler, B. Newgarten, M. Yaady and D. Birrin. K. Riff generalized and identified six main components of psychological well-being: self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, autonomy, environmental management, goal-life and personal growth. The concept of "psychological well-being" emphasizes the subjective emotional assessment of a person himself and his life, as well as aspects of self-actualization and personal growth. The importance of ensuring a person's sense of subjective well-being can not be overemphasized: it determines not only the psychological health of a person, but also her viability in the conditions of instability at break-down stages of the socio-economic development of society, the appearance of complications and obstacles to the achievement of life goals, stimulates readiness for self-realization, achievement of success.
Well-being is researched as the result of an individual's experience of success or achievements in various spheres of life: in professional realization, harmony in personal life, the realization of one’s own potential, etc.
Each of the six components of psychological well-being can achieve a different degree of expression, forming a unique integral index of psychological well-being of each person.
The objective of the present study is testing the hypotheses of probable differences in the personal traits and the psychological well-being of professional and amateur musicians.

3. Method and sample

The method of quasi-experiment for two non-equivalents groups of professional musicians and amateur musicians was chosen in the empirical study that allowed testing the hypothesis of the study by identifying intergroup differences.
The sample involved 122 people, among them: the first group of professional musicians - 62 people (aged 18 to 60 years old); the second group involved 60 amateur musicians who have an amateur experience of playing musical instruments. The studying of the sample was carried out by the Five-Factor Inventory (R. McCrae, P. Costa, 1992) and the test "The Scale of Psychological Well-being" (K.Riff, 2005).

4. Results

The results of the empirical study of the personality traits of the professional and amateur musicians by the NEO-PI (Mac-Crae, Costa,1992) are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Between-group differences in the character strength variables of NEO Five-Factor Inventory (R. McCrae, P. Costa, 1992)

Scales	**Professional musicians**	**Amateur musicians**	**Means value**	**Asymptotic means**
Extraversion	50,3871	53,23729	1473	0,065
Agreeableness	52,6129	53,11864	1772,5	0,769
Conscientiousness	52,91935	50,59322	1626	0,292
Neuroticism	**51,90323**	**47,71186**	**1423**	**0,035***

Openness to the new experienc	58,22581	57,67797	1822,5	0,973

*p≤.05

Table 1 shows that according to the results of the study by the NEO-PI, there are statistically meaningful differences between groups only in the "Neuroticism "scale. In comparison with amateur musicians, the level of neuroticism among professional musicians is higher. The high meanings of this scale characterize people as those who are incapable to control their emotions. In behavior it can be shown as a lack of sense of responsibility, evasion of reality, capriciousness. Such anxious people wait for the troubles, in case of failure, they easily fall into despair and they may have signs of depression in psychologically stressful situations.
According to the results of the research of the two groups of musicians by to the inventory of the "Scale of psychological well-being" K.Riff, statistically meaningful differences were found in the means of the scales "Autonomy" and "Personal Growth" which influenced on the results of the overall level of psychological well-being. Table 2 shows that professional musicians have higher means of the following scales.

Table 2: Between group differences in the character strength variables of the Scales of Psychological Well-Being (K.Riff, 2005)

Scales	**Professional musicians**	**Amateur musicians**	**Means value**	**Asymptotic means**
Positive relations with others	59,532	61,017	1536	0,128
Autonomy	59,290	54,525	**1227**	**0,002***
Environmental mastery	58,306	56,576	1710	0,537
Personal growth	67,065	60,390	**976**	**0,0001****
Purpose in life	64,823	62,763	1598	0,31
Self-acceptance	56,081	52,627	1547	0,143
The general index of psychological well-being	370,097	345,898	**1019**	**0,001**

According to the data obtained in the study using the "Scale of psychological well-being" inventory, professional musicians / in comparison with amateurs / are more independent, able to resist social pressure in their thoughts and actions and to regulate behavior according to their standards. They also have a sense of continuous self-development and self-improvement, meaningfulness of life and sense of realization of their potential.
High meanings of these scales influenced on a significantly higher integral indicator of the overall level of psychological well-being of professional musicians.
For a more detailed analysis of the possible influence of the factors of the age of the musicians and the level of professionalism (professional, amateur) on psychological well-being we applied the procedure of two-factorial variance analysis (MANOVA).
The dependent variable of the study was the indicator of the general index of psychological well-being (according to the inventory "Scale of psychological well-being" by K. Ryff). Independent variables were the level of professionalism of musicians (professionals / amateurs) and the age of the subjects.
The subjects were divided into four groups. The first group consisted from musicians-professionals under the age of 25 (47 people). The second group included the amateur musicians under the age of 25 (32 people). The third group consisted of professional musicians over 25 years old (15 people). The fourth group included amateur musicians over 25 (27 people).

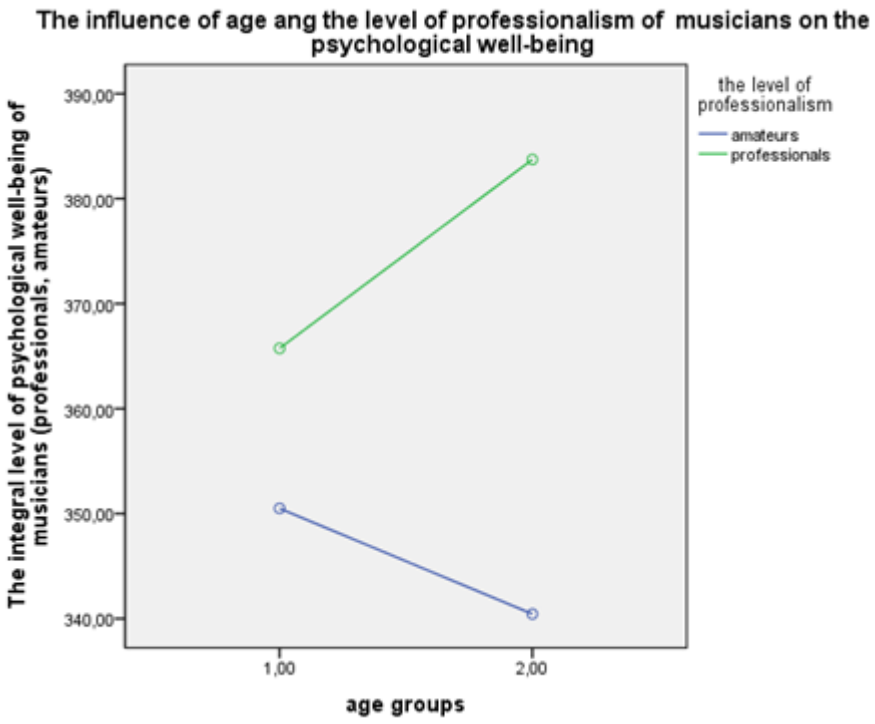
The differences of the indicators of psychological well-being were analyzed in four groups of the sample. Two-factorial variance analysis aimed to determine the influence of factors of age and professionalism of musicians (professional, amateur) on the psychological well-being of the individuals presented the following results.

Table 3. Results of two-factorial variance analysis of influence of factors of age and level of professionalism of musicians on psychological well-being of the individual.

Influence of factors	**Empirical meaning F**	**The level of differences significance**	**Results**
1) age	0,422	0,517	Insignificant influence (p >0,05)
2) professionalism level (professional / amateur)	23	0	Insignificant influence (p >0,05)
3) interaction of factors	5,28	0,23	significant influence (p <0,01)

As it can be seen from Figure 1, the younger age group of the professional musicians (18-25 years) shows higher levels of psychological well-being, while the older age group of the amateur musicians (25-60 years old), on the contrary, tend to reduce the level of psychological well-being.
The value of F - criteria of the influence of age and the level of professionalism on the psychological well-being, do not reach the level of statistical significance. The statistically significant influence of interaction of the investigated factors (F = 5.28, p = 0.23) on psychological well-being of the person was revealed.

Figure 1



5. Conclusion

The data obtained in this empirical study prove that professional musicians are characterized by high indicators of the overall level of psychological well-being (despite the higher level of neuroticism) and its components, in particular, awareness of personal growth. The latter provides self-confidence, satisfaction as a subject of activity.

Musical activity creates an inexhaustible resource for a gifted person to experience subjective well-being, which is confirmed by the fact that musicians-professionals have higher indicators of psychological well-being in comparison with amateur musicians.

According to the data obtained in the study, professional musical activity affects the growth of psychological well-being of a professional with age, while indicators of psychological well-being of amateur musicians are decreasing with age. We associate the further studies of the chosen problem with the special study of the role of the experiences of the state of the "flow" in the predisposition of subjective well-being of professional musicians.

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MULTIKULTÚRNA VÝCHOVA V PRAXI UČITEĽA

MULTI-CULTURE OF EDUCATION IN THE PRACTICE OF THE TEACHER

Erika Juhošová

Abstrakt

Reforma školského vzdelávacieho systému na Slovensku priniesla zmeny aj v oblasti etickej výchovy. Prioritou sa stáva rozvoj kľúčových kompetencií žiakov prostredníctvom napĺňania cieľov obsahového a výkonového štandardu daného predmetu. Cieľom práce je ponúknuť možnosti a spôsoby zážitkového vyučovania multikultúrnej výchovy (nielen) na hodinách etickej výchovy. Ak chce učiteľ splniť cieľ, ktorý si nastolil na začiatku vyučovacej hodiny, mal by dostatočne motivovať žiakov k spolupráci. Prostredníctvom zážitku sa cieľ vyučovacej hodiny dosahuje efektívnejšie a jednoduchšie.

Kľúčové slová: *etická výchova, multikultúrna výchova, zážitkové učenie, multikultúrne kompetencie, nižšie sekundárne vzdelávanie.*

Abstract

The reform of school systems in Slovakia has brought changes to the world of ethics. The initiative was to develop key competencies for the students by providing them with the knowledge of diverse topics in which they would need to comprehend. The aim of the work is To implement experiential education into the subject Ethics and offer opportunities for development multicultural competencies. If the teacher wants to meet the aim, which he set up at the beginning of the lesson, should motivate pupils sufficiently to cooperate. Through the experience, the aim of the lesson is made more efficient and easier.

Key words: *ethics, multicultural education, experiential education, multicultural competencies, primary school.*

1. ETNICKÁ A KULTÚRNA ROZMANITOSŤ VO SVETE A NA SLOVENSKU

Bez ohľadu na to, ako definujeme etnickú štruktúru ktorejkoľvek krajiny, či sa zameriavame na tradičné menšiny alebo na nové komunity vznikajúce migráciou, takmer nie je možné nájsť krajinu, ktorá by bola kultúrne alebo etnicky homogénna. Multikulturalizmus je v poslednom období aj na Slovensku často používaným termínom, pretože Slovensko je multikultúrna krajina najmä v súvislosti s tým, že na našom území žije viacero národnostných menšín (pozri T2). V súčasnosti žije 33,3 milióna cudzincov na území členských štátov EÚ, t.j. 6,6% populácie členských štátov EÚ, pričom podiel cudzincov v jednotlivých krajinách je rôzny (pozri T1).

T1 Percentuálny podiel cudzincov vo vybraných štátoch EÚ, 2014

Štát	Podiel cudzincov (v %)
Belgicko	11,3
Česká republika	4,1
Francúzsko	6,3
Holandsko	4,8
Írsko	11,8

Maďarsko	1,4
Nemecko	8,7
Poľsko	0,3
Portugalsko	3,8
Rakúsko	12,5
Slovensko	1,1
Spojené kráľovstvo	7,9
Švédsko	7,2
Španielsko	10,1

(EUROSTAT, 2014, s. 2 - Population of foreign citizens)

Slovensko sa stalo súčasťou multikultúrneho sveta, predsa však u nás prežívajú stereotypné pohľady na svet. Aj v demokratickom usporiadaní Slovenskej republiky pretrvávajú v praxi rôznych inštitúcií diskriminačné prístupy. V súčasnosti majú národnostné menšiny aj ústavou garantované rovnaké práva ako všetci ostatní občania Slovenska. Navyše, ústava garantuje aj ďalšie, tzv. menšinové práva – právo vzdelávania v materinskom jazyku, právo používať menšinový jazyk v styku s úradmi a právo zúčastňovať sa na riešení vecí týkajúcich sa národnostných menšín a etnických skupín. Národnostné menšiny tvoria na Slovensku oficiálne takmer 19,3%, z toho je však 7,0% nezistenej národnosti. Podľa Sčítania obyvateľov, domov a bytov z roku 2011 sú na Slovensku zastúpené nasledovné národnosti (Tabuľka T2):

T2 Obyvateľstvo trvalo bývajúce v SR podľa národnosti, sčítanie 1991 – 2011

Národnosť	**Trvalo bývajúce obyvateľstvo**	
	2011	
	abs.	**v %**
Spolu	**5 397 036**	**100,0**
slovenská	4 352 775	80,7
maďarská	458 467	8,5
rómska	105 738	2,0
česká	30 367	0,6
rusínska	33 482	0,6
ukrajinská	7 430	0,1
nemecká	4 690	0,1
poľská	3 084	0,1
chorvátska	1 022	0,0
srbská	698	0,0
ruská	1 997	0,0
židovská	631	0,0
moravská	3 286	0,1
bulharská	1 051	0,0
ostatné	9 825	0,2
nezistené	382 493	7,0

(Štatistický úrad slovenskej republiky, 2012, s. 54)

Údaje o rómskej menšine sa považujú za podhodnotené, keďže je známe, že mnohí Rómovia sa obvykle pri sčítaní obyvateľstva k svojej národnosti nehlásia. Oproti krajinám západnej Európy je podiel migrantov prichádzajúcich a usadzujúcich na Slovensku ešte vždy významne

menší. Napriek tomu sa Slovensko podľa E. Gallovej Kriglerovej (2009, s. 17) „začína stávať cieľovou krajinou migrácie“. Spolunažívanie rôznych kultúr v rámci jedného priestoru by malo byť založené na tolerancii a rešpektovaní kultúrnych, náboženských a sociálnych odlišností, ktoré vedú k vzájomnému obohacovaniu a v konečnom dôsledku aj k zvyšovaniu súdržnosti spoločnosti. To, k čomu dnes smeruje multikultúrna výchova budúcich Európanov, nevynímajúc Slovákov, je „ideál tolerancie a aktívneho uplatňovania všeľudských hodnôt“ (Ondrušková, N., 2005, s. 101). Nástroje, prostredníctvom ktorých je možné tento stav dosiahnuť, sú prehĺbené poznanie európskej minulosti, akceptácia rozporuplnej súčasnosti a posilňovanie presvedčenia o možnosti uplatňovať všeľudské hodnoty.

2. MULTIKULTÚRNA VÝCHOVA V ŠKOLE

Prínos multikultúrnej výchovy spočíva nielen v oblasti poznávania iných kultúr, ale i v axiologizácii určitých hodnôt. Vedomosti ešte nerobia človeka tolerantným a chápavým. Dôležitú úlohu preto v multikultúrnej výchove zohráva škola, pedagógovia, vzdelávacie programy, ale i rodičia a osobnosť samotného žiaka. Pojem multikultúrna výchova bol prevzatý z angl. multicultural education, ktorý by sa lepšie dal preložiť ako „multikultúrne vzdelávanie a výchova“, v angličtine je tento termín chápaný v širšom význame. V Slovenskej republike sa používa prevažne vo význame výchova, čo J. Průcha (2006) považuje za nepresné, pretože on hovorí, že dominantnou zložkou multikultúrnej edukácie je vzdelávanie, teda proces, ktorý spočíva v zámernom, organizovanom vyučovaní istých vedomostí, zručností, postojov a s tým spojeným učením na strane vzdelávaných subjektov. Ďalej budeme pracovať s termínom multikultúrna výchova, nie vzdelávanie. Chceme tým apelovať na výchovné ciele a súvislosti týchto procesov.

Multikultúrna výchova je jednou z ôsmych prierezových tém a je zaradená do obsahu vzdelávania v nižšom sekundárnom vzdelávaní s ohľadom na slovenské kultúrne prostredie, kde po stáročia spolunažívali príslušníci rôzneho etnického, národného, náboženského a kultúrneho pôvodu.

Ciele prierezovej témy MKV vychádzajú z neopakovateľnej hodnoty individuálneho ľudského života, z hodnoty komunity ako prirodzeného prostredia pre človeka, z rešpektu voči individuálnym potrebám človeka a z faktu rovnosti ľudí pred platnými zákonmi. Cieľom multikultúrnej výchovy je rozvoj pasívnych postojov k aktívnej participácii. Obsah a ciele multikultúrnej výchovy smerujú k výchove človeka, ktorý bude (Vančíková – Ľuptáková, K., 2008):

- mať úctu k sebe, vieru vo vlastnú hodnotu, hodnotu svojho kultúrneho spoločenstva, ktorý bude hrdý na vlastné kultúrne tradície,
- uvedomovať a ceniť si príslušnosť k národu, etniku, náboženskej skupine a pod.,
- vážiť si rodinu a rodičov, mať potrebu jej ochrany,
- ceniť si najvyššie ľudské hodnoty – lásku, mier, zdravie, pomoc, porozumenie, slobodu,
- priznávať hodnotu všetkým ľuďom, všetkým kultúrnym skupinám,
- presvedčený o rovnosti všetkých ľudí,
- rešpektovať rôzne spôsoby bytia a života, rozdiely medzi ľuďmi a kultúrnymi spoločenstvami (národmi, etnickými skupinami a pod.),
- uvedomovať si a akceptovať odlišnosť jednotlivých kultúr a vnímať túto inakosť ako prínos a obohatenie,
- schopný zaujať postoj k historickým udalostiam v podobe súhlasu, či nesúhlasu,
- oceňovať činy národných dejateľov a osobností vlastnej kultúry,
- všímať si a oceňovať hmotné i nehmotné kultúrne hodnoty,
- mať úctu k štátu, rešpektovať práva a zákony,
- tolerovať akékoľvek náboženské vierovyznanie,

- uvedomovať si potrebu vzájomnej pomoci a spolupráce ľudí, národov a pod.,
- odmietať egoistické formy správania, diskrimináciu, nespravodlivosť,
- mať ochotu a snahu pozerať sa na svet z hľadiska inej kultúry,
- presvedčený o potrebe pomáhať a aktívne sa angažovať v ochrane iného sveta, než je jeho vlastný.

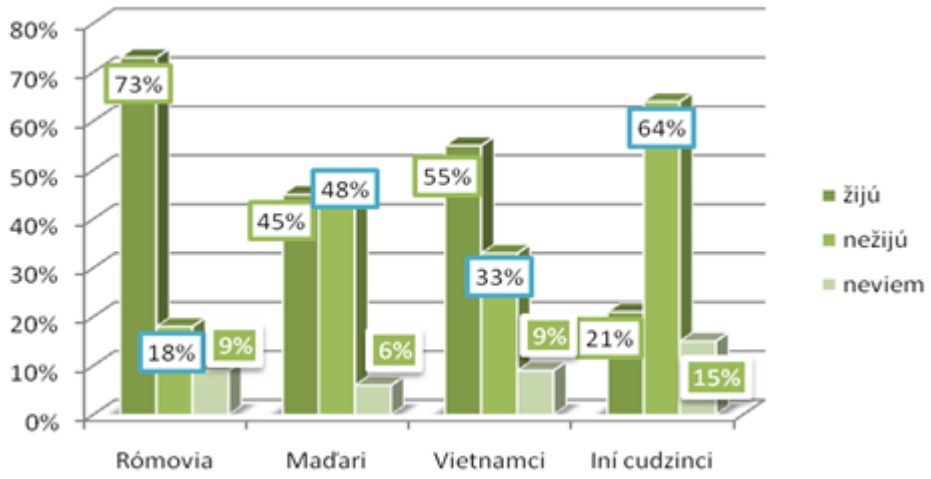
Vieme, že napĺňanie nielen týchto, ale i ďalších, nemenej dôležitých cieľov, musí byť podporované istým súborom informácií. Výsledkom aktívnej činnosti žiaka je totiž určitý konkrétny produkt, ktorý je merateľný, kontrolovateľný a napomáha spätnej väzbe.

3. PEDAGOGICKÝ PRIESKUM A JEHO VYHODNOTENIE

Aby sme nezostali iba na pôde teórie, uskutočnili sme pedagogický prieskum, ktorého cieľom bolo zistiť, aké sú názory a skúsenosti žiakov s kultúrnou rozmanitosťou. Prieskum bol realizovaný formou dotazníka v mesiaci máj v školskom roku 2014/2015 na Základnej škole Nábrežie mládeže 5, v Nitre. Dotazník vypracovalo anonymnou formou 87 žiakov v 6. – 8. ročníku. V dotazníku boli použité také otázky, ktoré nám pomohli získať cenné informácie z tejto oblasti a ktoré nás posunuli vpred, aby sme sa mohli naďalej zaoberať skúmanou problematikou a plánovať, ako postupovať do budúcna.

Jedným zo základných faktorov, ktorý ovplyvňuje vnímanie a názory mladých ľudí ku kultúrnej odlišnosti všeobecne a tiež k jednotlivým kultúrne odlišným skupinám, je charakter ich skúsenosti s kultúrnou odlišnosťou. Na jednej strane môžeme hovoriť o objektívnej skúsenosti, ktorá je daná tým, či majú mladí ľudia vôbec možnosť stretávať vo svojom okolí kultúrne odlišných ľudí. Na druhej strane je skúsenosť, ktorá je do značnej miery subjektívne vnímaná a prežívaná. V prieskume sme zisťovali, či v okolí skúmanej vzorky žiakov žijú príslušníci rôznych skupín a ako často sa s nimi stretávajú (graf 1).

Graf 1: Výskyt kultúrne odlišných skupín v okolí žiakov



Zdroj: vlastný prieskum

To, ako mladí ľudia vnímajú maďarskú menšinu na Slovensku, sme zisťovali prostredníctvom ich názoru na právo používať svoj jazyk na verejnosti a na základe posúdenia vzájomných slovensko-maďarských vzťahov. Prvý výrok sledoval, ako žiaci vnímajú spolužitie s Maďarmi na Slovensku. S výrokom „Spolužitie s Maďarmi na Slovensku je dobré, to len politici vytvárajú konflikty.“, čiastočne alebo úplne súhlasilo 45%, čo tvorí takmer polovicu žiakov. S výrokom úplne alebo čiastočne nesúhlasilo 33%, ostatní nevedeli odpovedať.

Vo výskumoch verejnej mienky sú Rómovia dlhodobo najnegatívnejšie vnímanou národnostnou menšinou. Spolužitie s Rómami odmieta, resp. vzťahy s nimi považuje za

negatívne značná časť populácie bez ohľadu na vek, vzdelanie, pohlavie. V našom prieskume sme názory na Rómov merali dvomi výrokmi. Prvý z nich (Myslím si, že by bolo dobré, keby sa trestné činy, ktoré spáchajú Rómovia, posudzovali prísnejšie.) sa týkal pomerne rozšíreného stereotypu o tom, že Rómovia páchajú trestnú činnosť častejšie než ostatné skupiny obyvateľstva, resp. páchanie trestnej činnosti je jednou z charakteristík rómskeho etnika. Úplný alebo čiastočný súhlas s týmto výrokom prejavilo 48,5% slovenskej národnosti a 12,13% inej národnosti. To znamená, že viac ako polovica respondentov 60,63% sa priklonila k tomuto výroku. Druhy výrok (Mnohí Rómovia žijú na Slovensku v zlých podmienkach preto, lebo v minulosti boli nútení žiť na okraji spoločnosti.), ktorý sa týkal Rómov, hovorí o tom, že zlá životná situácia Rómov často nie je výsledkom len ich zlej individuálnej životnej stratégie, ale je aj výsledkom dlhodobej exklúzie a marginalizácie týchto ľudí. Údaje k tomuto výroku podrobnejšie neanalyzujeme, pretože ako sa zistilo počas hodín, žiaci nerozumeli dobre tomuto výroku a nevedeli sa teda k nemu relevantne vyjadriť.

Vietnamci sú komunita, ktorá začala do našej krajiny prichádzať už počas obdobia socializmu. Podľa rôznych zdrojov žije na Slovensku približne 7 500 ľudí vietnamského pôvodu. Vietnamská komunita je medzi mladými ľuďmi pomerne viditeľná (aj vzhľadom na zjavnú fyzickú odlišnosť). Viac ako polovica žiakov (55%) uviedla, že v ich okolí žijú nejakí Vietnamci, napriek tomu sa na hodinách ukázalo, že o nich žiaci vedia pomerne málo. S negatívne ladeným výrokom nesúhlasilo 72% žiakov, čo predstavuje viac ako polovicu, z toho 12% tvorilo žiakov inej národnosti. S negatívnou formuláciou výroku súhlasilo 24% žiakov slovenskej národnosti. To vo všeobecnosti poukazuje na akceptáciu tejto komunity a ochotu vstupovať s vietnamskými deťmi do interakcie.

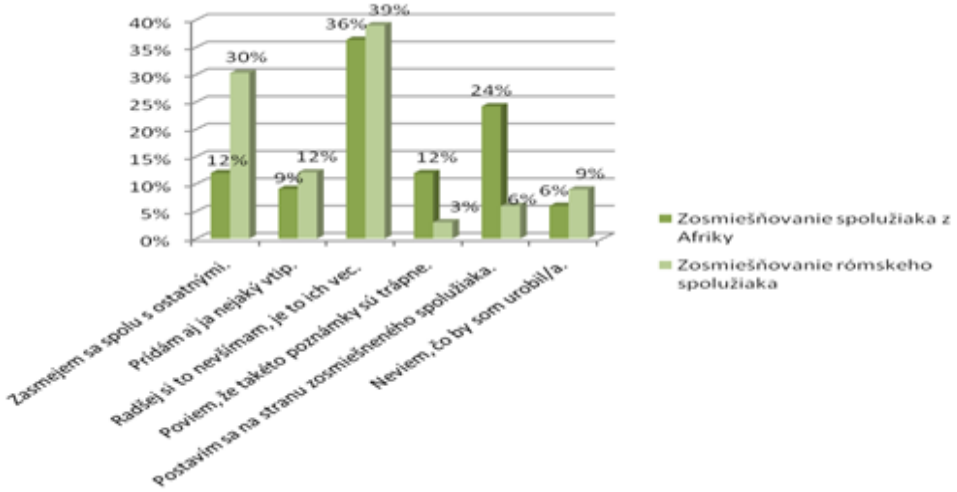
To, či sa predsudky a stereotypy voči týmto skupinám vytvoria, bude závisieť do veľkej miery od toho, akú podobu bude mať diskurz o narastajúcej rozmanitosti spoločnosti, ktorý nepochybne v blízkych rokoch vznikne. Pri formovaní vzťahu mladých ľudí ku kultúrnej odlišnosti a narastajúcej rozmanitosti zohráva dôležitú úlohu aj multikultúrna výchova. Na podrobnejšie porovnanie vnímania príslušníkov tradičných a nových menšín boli do dotazníka zaradené dve projektívne otázky, ktorých cieľom bolo zistiť, ako by sa mladí ľudia sami zachovali v prípade, keby niekto v triede urážal, alebo zosmiešňoval ich spolužiaka pochádzajúceho z odlišného prostredia (v jednom prípade išlo o spolužiaka z Afriky, v druhom o rómskeho spolužiaka). Takéto otázky sú vhodným metodologickým nástrojom, lebo umožňujú respondentom vžiť sa do konkrétnej situácie, ktorú je možné v realite zažiť. V tomto prípade sme sa zamerali na nasledujúce dve hypotetické situácie:

1. Zosmiešňovanie spolužiaka, ktorý pochádza z Afriky. Predstav si nasledujúcu situáciu. V triede máte spolužiaka, ktorý pochádza z Afriky. Cez prestávku mu niektorý z tvojich spolužiakov začne hovoriť: „Opice by sa mali vrátiť späť na stromy.“ Celá trieda sa rozosmeje. Otázka znela: Ako na to zareaguješ?

a) Zasmejem sa spolu s ostatnými.
b) Pridám aj ja ešte nejaký vtip.
c) Radšej si ich nevšímam, je to ich vec.
d) Poviem spolužiakovi, že takéto poznámky sú trápne.
e) Jednoznačne sa postavím na stranu spolužiaka z Afriky.
f) Neviem, čo by som urobil-a.

2. V druhom prípade išlo o zosmiešňovanie rómskeho spolužiaka, navodili sme túto situáciu: „Predstav si nasledujúcu situáciu. Medzi tvojimi spolužiakmi je jeden Róm. Spolužiak, ktorý je v triede veľmi obľúbený, mu cez prestávku povie: „No čo? Nosíte ešte dopravné značky do zberu?“ Celá trieda sa rozosmeje. Otázka znela: Ako zareaguješ? Možnosti odpovedí boli rovnaké ako pri prvej situácii. Tieto pomerne podobné situácie viedli k odlišným odpovediam (pozri graf 2).

Graf 2: Reakcia na zosmiešňovanie spolužiaka z Afriky a rómskeho spolužiaka



Zdroj: vlastný prieskum

Z výsledkov odpovedí na položku z dotazníka vyplýva, že v prípade afrického spolužiaka prevažuje tendencia obraňovať toho, kto je terčom útoku alebo výsmechu (tretina žiakov by sa postavila na stranu afrického spolužiaka a 12% by povedalo, že takéto poznámky sú trápne). Zarážajúca je ľahostajnosť žiakov (respondentov) voči situácii. Preto sme sa následne v rámci výchovy k multikultúrnemu porozumeniu zamerali na to, aby žiaci dokázali vyjadriť svoj názor, aj keď nemusí byť v súlade s názorom väčšiny, obhájiť si ho a nebáť sa zastať človeka, ktorý potrebuje pomoc.

4. UKÁŽKA ZÁŽITKOVEJ VYUČOVACEJ HODINY

Tradičná kultúrna rozmanitosť Slovenska sa prehlbuje vďaka otváraniu slovenskej spoločnosti a vďaka voľnejšiemu pohybu osôb. Pomáha aj medzinárodná spolupráca, migrácia príslušníkov blízkych i vzdialenejších a doposiaľ nepoznaných kultúr. Je dôležité zachovať pestrosť kultúr v rámci jednotného právneho systému, aby sa prehlboval humanistický a tvorivý charakter kultúry Slovenskej republiky. Žiakom by sme mali pomôcť pochopiť inakosť okolo nás a pripraviť ich na rôznorodosť v ich živote. Človek má prirodzene strach z vecí, ktoré nepozná. Tak je to aj s ľuďmi. To, čo je nové, neznáme a iné, považujeme v prvej chvíli za zlé, bojíme sa toho. Ak žiakom umožníme na hodinách prežiť isté skúsenosti, vzorce správania, pomôžeme im prekonať predsudky a stereotypy z neznámeho.

Typ vyučovacej hodiny: Zážitková
Téma: Predsudky a stereotypy.
Tematický celok: Pochopenie druhých, vžitie sa do ich situácie
Ročník: Siedmy
Čas: 45 minút
Výchovno-vzdelávacie ciele:
Žiak vie opísať, čo sú predsudky a stereotypy, dokáže vysvetliť, ako sa prejavujú v reálnom živote. Vie zhodnotiť správnosť/nesprávnosť stereotypného vnímania druhých.
Vyučovacie metódy: riadený rozhovor, debata, bádanie,
Vyučovacie prostriedky: tabuľa, krieda, rozstrihané kartičky, pracovný list pre výskumníkov s obrázkami.
Fázy vyučovacej hodiny:

1. Kognitívna a emocionálna senzibilizácia – „Letný tábor“ (8 min.)

Učebné požiadavky: Žiak vie obhájiť svoj názor a vysvetliť, prečo vnímame niektorých ľudí s predsudkami.

Sada učebných úloh: „Povedzte mi, do akého tábora by ste v lete najradšej šli? Popremýšľajte nad tým, koho by ste si vybrali za spolubývajúceho a koho určite nie. Povedz, s kým by si chcel bývať a s kým nie a prečo?“
Priebeh pedagogickej situácie: Žiakov motivujem rozprávaním o letných prázdninách a letnom tábore. Následne ich postavím pred situáciu, že si budú musieť vybrať spolubývajúceho. Majú na výber zo štyroch rovesníkov. Na tabuľu napíšem možnosti výberu:

1. Chlapec/dievča s piercingom v nose, farebným strapatým účesom na hlave, ovešaný/á reťazami.
2. Elegantne oblečený/é, čisto a slušne vyzerajúci/é chlapec/dievča s harmonikou v ruke.
3. Nevidiaci/e športovo oblečený/é chlapec/dievča.
4. Vietnamec s batožinou plnou hudobných CD-čok, CD prehrávačom.

Žiaci majú chvíľu čas na premyslenie, následne prezentujú svoje názory.
Hodnotová reflexia: (5 min.)
Žiak vie povedať, či je vnímanie ľudí s predsudkami správne, alebo nie a prečo. „Objavili sa tu nejaké predsudky? Voči ktorej skupine sa vyskytlo najviac predsudkov? Čo myslíte, prečo? Ako sa asi cítia títo ľudia, keď počujú, ako ich vníma okolie? Je správne posudzovať ľudí na základe nejakých stereotypov?“

2. Nácvik v triede – „Hra na výskumníkov“ (20 min.)

Učebné požiadavky: Žiak spolupracuje so spolužiakmi a na základe skúseností a poznatkov odpovedá na otázky.
Sada učebných úloh: „Počas 10 minút zistite a zapíšte, s čím sa deti na obrázku najčastejšie hrajú, aké hračky sa im páčia. Zistite, ako deti na obrázku trávia voľný čas. Zistite a zapíšte, ako sa deti na obrázku učia. Zistite, ako asi vyzerajú rodičia detí.“ „Čo mali deti na fotografiách spoločné a v čom sa odlišovali?
Priebeh pedagogickej situácie: Žiakom oznámim, že sa z nich na chvíľu stanú výskumníci. Žiaci sa rozdelia do troch skupín na základe odpočítavania od jedna do tri (jednotky tvoria jednu skupinu, dvojky druhú, trojky tretie). Každá skupina dostane jeden obrázok (na obrázku sú deti pred chalupou, chudobne odeté, každá skupina má rovnaký obrázok, líšia sa len nápisy pod obrázkami – jeden uvádza, že ide o rómsku rodinu, druhý – o indickú rodinu, tretí – mexickú rodinu, štvrtý – rumunskú rodinu). Ten je jediným zdrojom informácií (napr. zavedieme pravidlá: počas výskumného bádania sa nesmie žiaden výskumník vzdialiť zo svojho výskumného centra, s každým poznatkom musia súhlasiť všetci členovia skupiny, na vyriešenie úlohy budú mať žiaci 10 minút. Typy otázok k záznam z výskumu: S čím sa deti na obrázku najčastejšie hrajú, aké hračky sa im páčia? Ako deti na obrázku trávia voľný čas? Ako sa deti učia? Ako asi vyzerajú rodičia detí? a pod. Rozdelím tabuľu na tri časti, na každú napíšem jednu národnosť detí, s ktorou výskumníci pracovali. Jeden žiak, ktorý pekne píše, bude heslovite na tabuľu zapisovať postrehy žiakov. Následne si skupiny obrázky medzi sebou vymenia.
Reflexia: (8 min.)
Žiak vie vysvetliť, prečo volil také odpovede, aké volil, vlastnými slovami vie opísať, čo je predsudok. „Prečo ste pripísali tejto skupine detí iné vlastnosti? Čo vás ovplyvnilo? Máte osobné skúsenosti, na základe ktorých ste sformulovali vaše názory? Môžeme na základe jednej skúsenosti hádzať všetkých do jedného vreca?“ Kritické pochopenie. Žiakom kladiem otázky, na ktoré sa snažia odpovedať. Spoločne sa pokúsime dopracovať k pojmu predsudok, ktorý im následne vysvetlím. Slovne zhodnotím prácu žiakov.

3. Prepojenie s reálnym životom (transfer) - „Mladý reportér“ (4 min.)

Učebné požiadavky: Žiak porovnáva svoje sympatie so sympatiami členov rodiny.
Sada učebných úloh: „Zahrajte sa na reportérov a požiadajte niektorého dospelého člena rodiny, aby s vami vyplnil pracovný list týkajúci sa sympatií k iným národom.“

Priebeh pedagogickej situácie: Žiakom rozdám pracovné listy. Ich úlohou bude vyplniť tento pracovný list s niekým z rodiny.

5. ZÁVER

Etická a multikultúrna výchova by sa v beletristickej literatúre mohli pokojne nazvať „súrodencami“, ktorí sú vzájomnou oporou, obohacujú sa a prispievajú k tomu, aby ľudia boli voči sebe lepší a nesnažili sa hľadať rozdiely, ale spoločné záujmy. Aplikáciou teórie do praxe sme poukázali na to, že teória a prax musia kooperovať, aby bol dosiahnutý želateľný cieľ. Učitelia by mali byť na multikultúrnu výchovu odborne pripravení, spontánne a nenásilnou formou by mali začleňovať multikultúrnu výchovu do vyučovacieho procesu, z hľadiska vyučovacích metód odporúčame využívať ako ťažiskové zážitkové metódy, ktoré sa v našej praxi osvedčili aj v Intervenčnom programe výchovy k multikultúrnemu porozumeniu. Pedagogický prieskum vznikol z potreby reflektovať súčasnú situáciu vo vnímaní etnickej a kultúrnej rozmanitosti mladými ľuďmi na Slovensku. Jeho cieľom bolo zistiť, aké sú názory žiakov na iné národy a ich vnímanie kultúrnej odlišnosti. Vzhľadom na to, že sme zistili, že k istým menšinám dominujú predsudky, vypracovali sme vyučovacie hodiny etickej výchovy založené na zážitkovom vyučovaní zamerané na multikultúrnu výchovu. Jednu z hodín sme uviedli ako vzor pre inšpiráciu kolegom.

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DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN'S ARTISTIC CREATIVITY IN THE PROCESS OF NON-TRADITIONAL EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITY

Monika Kepičová

Abstract

The articles introduces the possibilities of developing children's creativity during non-traditional extracurricular activities. It is important to provide children with sufficient space for their full-time use of free time while enabling them to engage in activities that are unusual, engaging and generally have a positive impact on their personality growth and the development of creativity. Inspiration can also be found in the arts in traditional artistic elements and crafts, which, thanks to their originality and uniqueness are interesting for the child and therefore provide a non-traditional form of education in the current educational system.

Key words: *art creativity, experience, extra-curricular activities. folk craft*

1. INTRODUCTION

We use creativity in day-to-day activities and decision-making, so we encounter this notion quite often in education and psychology, because creativity plays a significant role in the person's overall personality and we consider it a unique element of human personality. Creative decision making, creative strategies, creative ideas, creative industry; this is just a small fraction of the concepts that we are currently experiencing and which are perceived very positively. Developing children's creativity is a very important activity that we can expand through the right methods in different areas. Any creative activity that we offer to a child plays an important role in developing its creativity. Knowing children‘s creativity is important especially in terms of education and training, as it serves to further develop and consolidate their abilities and talents. However, in the current curriculum in the field of arts education, there are frequent problems associated with lack of time and poor organization of teaching, where it is not possible to use other elements of education, such as learning by experience or project teaching, because the teacher does not have the time, the technical equipment and also there is the young people's growing lack of interest in artistic activity. If a teacher does not know how to solve these problems, there may occur a situation where children are gradually losing interest in these areas of education, which may cause a drop in their talents, as there is often no divergent thinking, which is common in artistic education. These are just the basic issues faced by art educators within the framework of artistic education. Therefore, it is necessary to reflect on opportunities, such as how lack of time in formal education can be effectively replaced in the context of extra-curricular activities, and raise the interest of children in the field of fine arts as well. But how to get the right attitude? If we want to make the visual arts available for children, we have to make it attractive for them. It is important to carry out forms of art education and mutual interaction in the art that will interest children and show them something new. The artistic activity taking place during extracurricular activities is an appropriate way to effectively work with child creativity.

2. CHILDREN’S CREATIVITY

A creative child often has a high level of abstract thinking, unusual abilities to create original solutions, a great deal of knowledge from different areas, is curious but also impatient, ambitious and enthusiastic about new things. How to lead a child to develop this important area of his personality is still an ongoing subject of research. Artistic creativity develops in

the child at around the age of three. Some theorists claim that the child is able to artistically express itself from the first year of its life. In this case, we are rather convinced that the child, by its curiosity and the discovery of the surrounding world, only leaves a trace, so he does not express his thoughts and perceives acquainting with the environment as a form of play, because the process of creation is more important than result.

For children of pre-school age and younger school age, it is very important to develop artistic creativity as it is a sensory experience but also an experience with new material and subjects. In this way, fine motoring gradually develops and communication improves. Art language is one of the first tools the child can use to express its opinion. In connection with art education, creativity is a significant phenomenon by which we can shape the development of a child. The child's creativity should therefore be given sufficient attention during this period and methods to develop it naturally should be constantly used (Valachová, 2010).

These methods should be used even for older children, but in this case the realization of creative activities can be complicated by child's artistic expression crisis, which is naturally associated with the rejection of any innovative solution, only because children are resisting against everything and everyone, without giving any logical argument. It should be borne in mind that creative activity is important because it is the best way to develop the child's fantasy, thinking, expression and facilitating the emotional or intellectual development of the child at any stage of development and therefore is a suitable method of dealing with defiant youngster, or with his mistrust in himself.

"Contemporary theoretical and practical findings, following the research work of researchers in recent decades, confirm that artwork contributes to the intellectual, emotional and aesthetic development of the child. Children present their own value system that reflects their values hierarchy. In a unique way they present ideas, opinions, or attitudes. At the same time, they compel children to create, thus supporting the development of divergent thinking and ultimately convergent thinking." (Šupšáková, 2000, p. 134). Although the artistic expression is the most natural language for children of pre-school age and younger school age, the external influence of the educational environment can be insufficiently fulfilled. We deal with how to prevent this negative influence in the chapter on the use of methods in extra-curricular activities.

3. WORK WITH CHILDREN IN THE CONTEXT OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The main goal for out-of-school and extra-curricular activities is to motivate and encourage children to make meaningful use of their free time and to develop their creativity, flexibility, presentation and awareness of their work while respecting the work of others. In carrying out extracurricular activities with children and young people, it is a purposeful educational activity, characterized in particular by being voluntary, less time-bound and inclusive. If we educate children and youth in the field of art and culture, it is necessary to adhere to certain principles: to introduce the extraordinary, interesting themes, to form moral and ethical ideas through art, to create the conditions for self-realization, mutual tolerance and respect. If we realize creative activities, happenings, creative workshops in designated spaces, such as galleries, workshops, studios or various public spaces; for children it means the independence and openness of the space, using inter-subject relations and it is easier to approach the diverse areas of education. In formal education, we have limitations at certain time and content limits. In extra-curricular activities, we give the child a greater sense of thinking, forming opinions and creating creative ideas, supporting activity, motivation and creative process of problem solving. We find out to what extent the child is motivated and open to the new approach, as it is possible to recognize various non-traditional areas in art education (Kováčová, 2010).

"Leisure time education is a difficult problem in practice: to create an appropriate mix of leisure and education so as to preserve their essential characteristics - free time as a time of freedom, education as a purposeful and deliberate guidance, influence on the child to support the development of its individual physical and psychological characteristics, his personality, to assist him in self-realization. The decisive factor is subjective leisure time with the characteristic "I want" and "I can" versus the obligatory "I have to". (Kratochvílová, 2004, pp. 96-97).

In the context of current education, one of the most acute questions is just what education model is most effective. It should be such a model that is effective in acquiring knowledge but also in terms of developing creativity. Children's visual expressions may regress to a certain extent with the demands of their own designs. A child in the presently visually overcrowded period usually tends to look for ready-made solutions, without using critical thinking, and it is understandable that with such easily accessible information there is a loss of interest in obtaining new information, and thus loss of interest in self-expression. It is a simpler and convenient way of solving any tasks and problems.

It is very important to create an educational environment in which the child gets more experience and has the possibility of direct interaction. All the above described facts also apply to artistic subjects. If our goal is to develop and shape the creativity of children while linking this process with the experience of learning, it is necessary to choose the right methods and procedures to achieve the desired goals. This is one of the good reasons why extra-curricular activities should also be used to apply these new practices. The realization of artistic activities is important both because of the acquisition of new information that positively influence sensory and intellectual knowledge of the world of the child, but also because of the discovery of new phenomena from the field of visual arts and the acquisition of a relation to aesthetics and beauty. Through artistic activities the child is learning various solutions to a wide variety of different situations. In the course of extracurricular art activities, the child's motoring and sensory-motor coordination, which are often unmanageable even at an older child's age (9-10 years), are better developed. At the same time, there is progress in spatial and time orientation. The child can easily receive new suggestions, assignments, and make solutions either individually or in groups (Gregušová, 2000).

At the outset of any extracurricular activities, it is mostly a child put before new situations, so it may initially be uncertain and refuse to do so because it does not know what to expect and is afraid of failure. Here, it is important to give the child enough time to build self-confidence and to recognize the environment in which the learning process takes place. But as far as education outside school is concerned, the curiosity of the children usually prevails over their primary fear.

3.1 Methods for the development of artistic creativity during extracurricular activities

Children's and young people's creative activities can use interesting and diverse methods that meet both didactic and pedagogical criteria, but in particular they raise children's interest in these activities. Developing creativity uses a whole host of practices and methods. The main idea is to break the stereotype, traditional thinking and open the way to a new way of thinking. Emphasis should be placed on the well-being and openness of the child, where it can invent and create new, unusual ideas, solutions, and products. During all this, humor, joy, trust, courage and fantasy are of great importance. The teacher should be a mentor for the child who sees its fluency (ability to produce a great deal of ideas and solutions), flexibility, originality, or elaboration of ideas.

When using methods to develop artistic creativity, it is necessary to let the child work freely, play and implement their ideas. Even a less skilled child can achieve a sense of satisfaction when the method is applied appropriately. It does not mean, however, not to correct the child's

activity during the realization, on the contrary the guiding principle in the art process is important, especially in the area of grasping the topic or in recognizing new techniques (Valachová, 2010). If the child understands the activity, it is a time when it is necessary to give the child space for their own realization and artistic game. If a child needs help, try to encourage and correct his or her activities. When asking questions, it means that it gets information about the world, its curiosity is formed as well as its attitudes to the environment, so these questions require correct, thoughtful answers. Teacher or educator can develop the child's creativity in any activity, even the extra-curricular. In the theories on artistic and educational subjects, we can find several different approaches to the development of artistic creativity. *"The basic method of developing creativity is to create creative tasks that require surprise to bring into the education process and present phenomena that are not in line with expectations. Children should be challenged, let them make estimates, create cognitive uncertainty, a problem that can have more solutions. The requirement for a creative teacher is to perceive the world around him with all senses, and also with "senses" like heart and reason."* (Valachová, 2008, p. 259).

Creative children are more motivated internally, because they are led by inner desires, interests and needs. There is a marked predominance of the experimental theme and the achievement of success over the motive of failure. A more creative child is spontaneous, playful, has a lot of adventures, experiments, and discoveries. However, we can raise these elements in any healthy children if we use learning through experience and play, learning by solving problems, learning each other in a group. It is possible to verify and apply new knowledge directly in practice, in real life - we can motivate the child so that it can return to these activities repeatedly. It is important to emphasize methods that support children's activity. In the methods for the development of artistic creativity, the teacher puts the greatest emphasis on his own work and presentation of the given activity. If we educate on the basis of experience, it is an opportunity for the child to gain experience by actively participating in the program, and it is very important for the child to be fully involved in the activity and to give it the greatest possible space. *"The basis of the education by experience is the principle of the effect - of own experiences, impressions that a person immediately experiences on his own skin, realizes them and changes his values, attitudes. An experience - like something personal, own, gained by a living life, an authentic situation - means enriching the inner life of a person, acquiring his or her own experience, and therefore having a significant impact on the formation, personality development and behavior of the individual. The experience becomes a part of the personality when it becomes rational, that is, it affects not only the emotional but also the intellectual aspect of the personality."* (Kratochvílová 2004, p. 227).

The problem solution method uses imagination, fluency, flexibility, imagination and originality. If we enter problematic tasks in the field of art activities in the extracurricular environment, suitable spatial and time conditions also help us to find the solution. We apply divergent thinking here, often with heuristic procedures. Thus, there are activities in which creative tasks need to be dealt with in a more attractive form and with some pre-prepared and deliberate plan to achieve the goal. In the pedagogical dictionary, the problem learning is explained as the way in which certain requirements are to be solved. Tasks should be interesting, compelling, reasonably complex, and there always has to be a tool to help solve the problem with the utmost accuracy (Průcha et al., 2003).

Group learning can also be perceived through the group realization of the art project, while developing the following key competences: the group creates subconsciously new situations which all are part of and therefore are forced to adapt and learn to respect each other. As a result, the child learns about himself, guesses his limits and gradually builds a healthy self-confidence and tenacity.

Participatory learning is learning where a child can decide what and how to learn. This method develops the skills of decision-making, responsibility, active listening and empathy towards the collective in which it is located. If a child realizes his limits, and how it feels when it is happy, sad, frightened, nervous, he or she can easily understand the feelings of others, and so understand their behavior in different situations.
Methods that are especially specific to the field of creative art development and based on contemporary art practice are also described by Valachová (2012). It is, for example, an art experiment in which the child has the opportunity to recognize art expression means. An artistic game that can also be part of an experiment. Art action. A paraphrase of free processing of a work of art, product or thought, in any other way. The retrospective synthesis, which arises from the analysis and helps to intensify the artwork experience.
Artistic creativity methods based on the direct experience of each child are also the Trojan bridge method that serves to overcome the crisis in artistic expression, or a method of articulating communicable evaluation that evaluates artistic activity as a process in which self and close surroundings are evaluated.

3.2 Activation of artistic creativity through own experience

An experience is an important factor by which our creativity can continually be shaped. Having a variety of experiences throughout our lives leads us to gain experience, which is why our personality is constantly changing, our behavior and action is affected. The experience is therefore an important factor in the process of developing the child's artistic creativity. Slavík perceives the experience as *"an individually perceived, experienced and memorable content felt as a meaningful whole, and a story in which a perceived situation is captured from the point of view of the individual"* (Slavík, 2001, p. 33). If we are thinking about how to make the learning pleasing for the child and to make new knowledge not only memorized, it is necessary to contribute to the learning process through experiences and constantly new, compelling situations. When we talk about experience, we mean something that stimulates us and gives us a deeper meaning of what we are doing. The same is true in the education process, where experience plays an important role. Aspects of experience are therefore certainly represented in art activities, where they provide an effective way of perception and understanding.
The ability to recognize and transform an artwork provides the child with a deep experience, while the child itself determines the extent to which it perceives the artistic work or the creative activity by the extent to which it is able to perceive and transform all the circumstances around the ongoing process. The artistic work is an excellent didactic aid for the pedagogue, as it can give insight into the child's psyche, it can help to solve life situations and reduce the inner tension of the child (Čarný, 2007).
Using creative methods helps to develop cognitive and non-cognitive functions that focus on experiences, survival, expression of feelings, they shape the critical thinking of the child, and playfully help the acquired knowledge transform into permanent knowledge. In an extracurricular environment, the use of the experience method helps to gain higher quality knowledge, skills and attitudes than memorizing or verbal instruction. If something is awesome, it arouses natural curiosity to discover something new, and that's the right situation when we can shape and develop the sensitivity and emotionality of the child.
The experience and surprise develops the child's art feeling and creativity. In adolescent learning, we could also interest a child who does not incline to artistic activity, it is only necessary to choose the right methods to achieve the desired goal. If we use extracurricular time to discover new visual techniques, we can shape children‘s natural curiosity. Something new to a child may not be something that has not yet been recognized in adults. An interesting option that leads to a guaranteed experience is the personal experience of children with the

past, in this case artistic techniques from the field of traditional folk art, which are further described in the next chapter of our contribution. An experience is a phenomenon that leads to the inner enrichment of every person's life and can be both positive and negative. Thanks to the experience the child can naturally change his / her views and attitudes. Interestingly, however, despite the same situation which more children may experience in education, this situation is different for each child, and it can be expressed entirely differently by the visual language. At this point it is very valuable for the visual pedagogue to observe these different ways of displaying reality. Ways to show reality also describe the extent to which the child is affected by the experience, how the child understands the technique of art, and the extent to which the child can develop its creativity. If we can make situations in out-of-school activities in which children can acquire an intense experience, if we set them up in unconventional situations that force the child to think and make decisions, we make the teaching interesting, we get the favor of children, which naturally extends our limits to which we can shape the child's artistic creativity (Slavík, 2001).

3.3 Forming artistic creativity through traditional folk elements, art and crafts

One of the non-traditional forms of extracurricular activities, which is also fascinating for children, is the active discovery of traditional folk art through craft techniques. If we are looking for new "unconventional" themes and new "unconventional" practices that help to develop artistic creativity, we can also draw on the artistic language of traditional folk art in Slovakia, thanks to which the contemporary art is full of these folk elements and is becoming more and more actual in new media and cultural contexts. If we learn from the knowledge that traditional art is a typical manifestation of every culture, it reflects the economic, social and political situation, it can positively influence the overall personality of each individual. Mistrík (1994, s.44) states: the viewer can expect from the art *"to give him sociological knowledge, knowledge of other cultures, people's lives in ancient cultures, religions. Viewers can expect entertainment, relaxation, contemplation, instruction. The viewer can expect to learn the art of living, to help him find the versatile moral values he can rely on. Someone is looking for a pleasant or shocking experience in the art, others expect that art will bring them into the world of super-sensual reality."*

Thanks to craft techniques, we have the opportunity to use group work, project or problem classes. To create stories and transform them through artistic activity, thus combining the historical essence of the craft with the direct perception of the child. The child learns not only the mechanical imitation of the technique, but also the ability to understand what the craft technique reflects, why it was created, what sense it had for a man in the past, and why the technique gradually disappears. These are all facts that can influence the child in his cognitive and socio-effective development. It follows that traditional art can help to identify one's own cultural identity, understand it, which can facilitate communication with another culture as well as understanding and respect of it.

New technologies allow us to combine different fields of knowledge in the context of culture and visual arts and combine remote and close cultures with one another. We can therefore say that the linking of art and new media points to the ever-improving information society. The traditional elements of art also have positive impact on the formation of new media. The artistic language of traditional folk elements and crafts can gradually be transformed into the visual language of the time by means of art. Thus, these areas are considered as unconventional opportunities by which we can also influence the creative language of the child in the process of developing creativity. Therefore, it is important to note that craftsmanship, which has its roots deep in the past, may be current, untraditional and new in the contemporary art, since the child has probably not yet been able to experience it personally (Valachová, Pavlikánová, 2014).

Traditional arts techniques from the field of folk craftsmanship can bring interest in children so much that we are able to develop their creativity to some extent. Folk art and handicrafts have once again become the hallmark of originality. That is why we can also use this area for extra-curricular activities to bring in the untraditional creative possibilities of processing traditional material.

4. CONCLUSION

When developing artistic creativity in the process of extracurricular activities, we are arousing the child's interest in the surrounding world, the desire to explore and discover, we teach to properly handle his / her leisure time and to decide for activities that have a positive impact on his / her overall personality. It is important to also use this time in the process of non-formal education in order for the child to be able to gain new knowledge through the personal experience of the activity. Teacher, educator, and parent have different methods available to shape the child's creativity. Joining experiential learning with non-traditional techniques provides immense values. The essential role in the development of creativity is to go naturally and to make the art expression of the child flow from the experience gained. The quality of the child's artistic creativity is all the greater, the greater the experience in the actual realization. If the experience is positive, it attracts the child to repeatedly express itself. The method of experiential learning is also very important in extra-curricular activities where, thanks to the untraditional environment in which the artistic activity is carried out, the child can perform all his / her ideas (Guillaume a Kováčová, 2010).

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PREŽÍVANIE POCITU BEZPEČIA OBYVATEĽOV SLOVENSKA

SENSE OF SECURITY IN CITIZENS OF SLOVAKIA

Veronika Boleková

Abstrakt

Autorka sa vo svojom príspevku zaoberá pocitom bezpečia u obyvateľov Slovenskej republiky. Príspevok bol vytvorený v rámci riešenia projektu „Monitoring latentnej kriminality a viktimologickej situácie na Slovensku“ (APVV-0752-12). Ide o celoštátny výskumný projekt realizovaný na reprezentatívnej výskumnej vzorke 1826 participantov. Hlavné zistenia výskumu poukazujú na prežívanie pocitu bezpečia u väčšiny obyvateľov (76.7%). Zistili sme rozdiely v pocite bezpečia v závislosti od miery viktimizácie participantov, veku a príslušnosti k socio-profesijnej skupine.

Kľúčové slová: *pocit bezpečia, majetkové trestné činy, násilné trestné činy, obete trestných činov*

Abstract

The author in this report deals with sense of security in citizens of Slovakia. This paper was written as a part of the research project „Latent crime monitoring and victimological situation in the Slovak republic“ (APVV-0752-12). It is a nation-wide research executed on the representative research sample of about 1826 respondents. The key findings show sense of security of the major part of citizens (76.7%). We found differences in sense of security depending on level of victimization, age and socio-professional group.

Key words: *sense of security, property crimes, violent crimes, victims of crime*

1 ÚVOD

Problematika vnímaného bezpečia a vnímaného ohrozenia je v súčasnosti predmetom mnohých diskusií a tiež empirických výskumov, najmä v súvislosti s narastajúcim počtom teroristických útokov v Európe či v dôsledku viacerých vojenských konfliktov a zvýšenej migrácie (Kentoš, Kopaničáková, 2017).

Pocit bezpečia determinuje viacero faktorov, vrátane vlastnej skúsenosti s kriminalitou v minulosti. Bozogáňová (2014) vysvetľuje tzv. ilúziu nezraniteľnosti, ktorá spočíva v predpoklade, že ľudia, ktorí sa nestali obeťou trestného činu, vidia samých seba ako menej zraniteľných a ohrozených v porovnaní s inými. Autorka zároveň dodáva, že viktimizácie sa v najväčšej miere obávajú ľudia s najnižším rizikom - ženy a seniori.

Obavy žien pritom pramenia z presvedčenia, že nie sú schopné obrany v situácii fyzického útoku. Okrem fyzickej zraniteľnosti môže byť vysoká miera obáv u žien vysvetlená tiež strachom zo sexuálneho násilia, ktorý vzbudzuje strach z kriminálnych trestných činov vo všeobecnosti (tzv. *sexual assault hypothesis*). Alternatívny pohľad ponúka tiež hypotéza socializácie (*socialization hypothesis*): ženy sú v rámci procesu socializácie a výchovy vedené k presvedčeniu, že ochranu ženy zabezpečuje muž a tiež k obavám, že žena sa častejšie stáva obeťou trestného činu spáchaného neznámym človekom na verejnosti (Rader, Cossman, Porter, 2012). Predpoklad, že pohlavie je významným prediktorom strachu z kriminality, bol empiricky opakovane podporený vo viacerých výskumoch, podľa ktorých majú ženy z kriminality väčší strach ako muži (Lane, Gover, Dahod, 2009; Reid, Conrad 2004; Fisher, Sloan, 2003).

Empirická evidencia o vzťahu veku a pocitu bezpečia nie je jednoznačná, zväčša však poukazuje na vyššiu mieru obáv u ľudí vo vyššom veku (Franklin, Franklin, 2009). Zvýšená vnímaná miera ohrozenia u starších ľudí je tiež vysvetľovaná presvedčením, že seniori sú menej schopní brániť sa útoku v dôsledku zhoršeného fyzického zdravia. Za determinant fyzickej zraniteľnosti je teda považovaná nielen príslušnosť k ženskému pohlaviu, ale tiež vyšší vek. O vyššej miere vnímaného bezpečia u mladších participantov referuje aj Bozogáňová (2015). Obavy o bezpečnosť sa tiež môžu spájať so sociálnou zraniteľnosťou, ktorá je podmienená najmä príslušnosťou k minorite a nízkym socioekonomickým statusom (Rader, Cossman, Porter, 2012).

Cieľom prezentovaného výskumu bolo zistiť, obeťami akých trestných činov sa stali obyvatelia Slovenska v sledovanom období, aká je miera ich pocitu bezpečia v krajine a v mieste bydliska. Chceli sme tiež zistiť, či sa úroveň pocitu bezpečia obyvateľov Slovenska líši v závislosti od skúsenosti s viktimizáciou, pohlavia, národnosti, dosiahnutého vzdelania, príslušnosti k socio-profesijnej skupine či vekovej kategórii. Formulovali sme 5 výskumných otázok:

VO1: Obeťami akých trestných činov sa stali obyvatelia Slovenska v sledovanom období ?
VO2: Aká je distribúcia participantov z hľadiska pocitu bezpečia v krajine ?
VO3: Aká je distribúcia participantov z hľadiska pocitu bezpečia mieste bydliska ?
VO4: Existuje rozdiel v pocite bezpečia medzi viktimovanými a neviktimovanými participantmi ?
VO5: Existuje rozdiel v pocite bezpečia v závislosti o socio-demografických charakteristík ?

2 METÓDY

2.1 Výskumný výber

Základný súbor (populáciu) tvorilo 4 569 200 obyvateľov Slovenska vo veku 15 a viac rokov, t.j. 84.66% z 5 397 036 všetkých obyvateľov s trvalým pobytom na území SR ku 21.5.2011 (podľa údajov *Sčítania obyvateľov, domov a bytov Slovenskej republiky v roku 2011, ŠÚ SR Bratislava).* Výberový súbor (N = 1826) bol vytvorený metódou kvótneho výberu so znáhodnením v poslednom kroku a reprezentuje obyvateľov Slovenska. Vybranými kvótnymi znakmi boli: pohlavie, vek, národnosť, vzdelanie, veľkosť bydliska a kraj. Výskumný výber tvorilo 879 mužov (48.1%) a 947 žien (51.9%) so slovenskou (86.7%), maďarskou (9.6%) alebo inou (3.7%) národnosťou žijúcich trvalo v Slovenskej republike. Informácie o distribúcii participantov z hľadiska veku uvádzame v Tab. 1.

Tab. 1: Distribúcia participantov z hľadiska veku

	Početnosť	**%**
od 15 do 17 rokov	80	4.4
od 18 do 24 rokov	220	12.0
od 25 do 29 rokov	178	9.7
od 30 do 39 rokov	363	19.9
od 40 do 49 rokov	292	16.0
od 50 do 59 rokov	305	16.7
od 60 do 64 rokov	121	6.6
65 rokov a viac	267	14.6
spolu	1826	100.0

2.2 Metódy zberu dát

Dáta boli zbierané technikou štandardizovaného rozhovoru, v rámci ktorého sa školení externí spolupracovníci – anketári pýtali na základné socio-demografické údaje (pohlavie, vek,

národnosť, vzdelanie, veľkosť bydliska a kraj, v ktorom participant žije, ako aj počet členov domácnosti a príjem domácnosti) a následne participantom položili sériu otázok vychádzajúcich z medzinárodného výskumu obetí ICVS (*International Crime Victims Survey).* V príspevku prezentujeme čiastkové výsledky spracovania dát, ktoré sme získali prostredníctvom otázok merajúcich pocit bezpečia v krajine, porovnanie bezpečnosti na Slovensku a v okolitých európskych štátoch, pocit bezpečia v mieste bydliska a tiež otázok zisťujúcich výskyt násilných a majetkových trestných činov v sledovanom období (od 1. septembra 2015 do 31. augusta 2016). Výskum bol realizovaný v dňoch od 1. do 14. septembra 2016.

3 VÝSLEDKY

3.1 Výskyt trestných činov

V sledovanom období sa na telefonickú linku pomoci obetiam alebo na niektorú organizáciu, ktorá sa venuje pomoci obetiam kriminality, obrátilo 53 participantov (2.9%). Ďalších 167 oslovených participantov rozmýšľalo o vyhľadaní pomoci, ale nakoniec tak neurobili (4.2%) alebo nemali dostatok informácií o kontaktoch na tieto organizácie (2.1%). Participanti vo výskumnom súbore sa v sledovanom období stali obeťami nasledovných majetkových trestných činov: odcudzenie vlastného alebo firemného auta (2.3%), odcudzenie majetku z vlastného alebo firemného auta (4.5%), odcudzenie bicykla (11%), vlámanie do domu alebo bytu (8.4%), vlámanie do chaty alebo iného rekreačného objektu (2.4%), odcudzenie majetku bez použitia násilia alebo hrozby násilia (17.4%), požadovanie úplatku (15.8%). Z násilných trestných činov sme zaznamenali výskyt olúpenia, t.j odcudzenia majetku s použitím násilia alebo hrozby násilia (3.3%), fyzického napadnutia (5.3%), sexuálneho násilia (0.8%) a tiež lúpežného napadnutia (3.3%).

Na základe výpovedí participantov sme vytvorili typológiu respondentov, ktorá obsahuje štyri kategórie: ani svedok, ani obeť (48.6%), len svedok (18.8%), len obeť (16.2%) a aj obeť, aj svedok (16.4%).

3.2 Pocit bezpečia

Z celkového počtu participantov sa na Slovensku cíti veľmi bezpečne 94 (5.2%) opýtaných a pocit bezpečia prežíva 1164 (64%) participantov (Tab. 2). Obavu o bezpečnosť vyjadrilo 541 (29.7%) participantov. V mieste bydliska sa cíti bezpečne alebo veľmi bezpečne 76.7%. Opačný názor vyjadrila takmer ¼ participantov (22.8%). Až 70.5% participantov uviedlo, že bezpečnostná situácia v našej krajine je lepšia ako v Ukrajine. Nadpolovičná väčšina opýtaných sa priklonila k názoru, že situácia v Slovenskej republike je porovnateľná s mierou bezpečia v Českej republike, Maďarsku a Poľsku (Tab. 3).

Tab. 2: Pocit bezpečia v krajine a v mieste bydliska

	Pocit bezpečia na Slovensku		**Pocit bezpečia v mieste bydliska**	
	Počet	**%**	**Počet**	**%**
veľmi bezpečne	94	5.2	169	9.4
bezpečne	1164	64.0	1210	67.3
nie bezpečne	434	23.8	336	18.7
vôbec nie bezpečne	107	5.9	74	4.1
neviem posúdiť	21	1.2	9	.5
spolu	1820	100.0	1798	100.0

Tab. 3: Hodnotenie bezpečia na Slovensku a v iných európskych krajinách

	Česká republika	Maďarsko	Poľsko	Rakúsko	Ukrajina
Bezpečnostná situácia je	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**	**%**
je lepšia	14.3	21.5	20.1	14.0	70.5
Rovnaká	68.2	60.9	63.2	39.7	15.3
Horšia	13.8	11.1	8.8	39.2	7.2
neviem	3.7	6.5	7.9	7.1	7.0
Spolu	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

V ďalšom kroku analýzy sme porovnávali štyri skupiny (typy) participantov : ani svedok, ani obeť; len svedok; len obeť; aj obeť, aj svedok. Rozdiely v pocite bezpečia v krajine medzi jednotlivými typmi boli malé (V = 0.102). Z celkového počtu participantov, ktorí sa v krajine cítia veľmi bezpečne, bolo 47.9% neviktimovaných participantov, 26.6% svedkov, 9.6% obetí a 16% participantov, ktorí sa v sledovanom období stali obeťou aj svedkom trestného činu. Distribúcia participantov, ktorí sa v krajine necítia vôbec bezpečne, bola nasledovná: 36.4% neviktimovaných participantov, 14% svedkov, 21.5% obetí a 28% participantov zo štvrtého typu obeť + svedok. Uvedená typológia tiež len v malej miere diferencuje pocit prežívania bezpečia v mieste bydliska (V = 0.132). Frekvencie participantov uvádzame v Tab. 4 a 5.

Tab. 4: Hodnotenie bezpečia na Slovensku u svedkov a obetí trestných činov

	typ				**spolu**
V krajine sa cítim	**ani svedok, ani obeť**	**len svedok**	**len obeť**	**aj obeť, aj svedok**	
veľmi bezpečne	47.9%	26.6%	9.6%	16.0%	100.0%
bezpečne	52.9%	19.3%	13.7%	14.0%	100.0%
nie bezpečne	39.4%	17.7%	22.4%	20.5%	100.0%
vôbec nie bezpečne	36.4%	14.0%	21.5%	28.0%	100.0%
spolu	48.4%	19.0%	16.1%	16.5%	100.0%

Tab. 5: Hodnotenie bezpečia v mieste bydliska u svedkov a obetí trestných činov

	typ				**spolu**
V mieste bydliska sa cítim	**ani svedok, ani obeť**	**len svedok**	**len obeť**	**aj obeť, aj svedok**	
veľmi bezpečne	50.9%	26.6%	8.3%	14.2%	100.0%
bezpečne	53.2%	19.4%	13.2%	14.1%	100.0%
nie bezpečne	34.5%	14.9%	26.8%	23.8%	100.0%
vôbec nie bezpečne	37.8%	10.8%	23.0%	28.4%	100.0%
spolu	48.9%	18.9%	15.7%	16.5%	100.0%

Napriek prežitiu trestného činu sa v krajine cíti veľmi bezpečne alebo bezpečne 46.8% obetí fyzického napadnutia a 41.3% obetí lúpežného napadnutia, avšak len 23.1% obetí sexuálneho násilia. Rozdiely medzi viktimovanými a neviktimovanými participantami boli malé (V = 0.128 pre fyzické napadnutie, V = 0.094 pre sexuálne násilie a V = 0.114 pre lúpežné napadnutie).

V mieste bydliska prežíva pocit bezpečia viac ako polovica obetí fyzického napadnutia (51.1%) a viac ako 1/3 obetí lúpežného napadnutia (36.2%). Z obetí sexuálneho násilia možnosť veľmi bezpečne nezvolil ani jeden participant. Len 26.7% obetí sexuálneho násilia

sa cíti v mieste bydliska bezpečne. Naopak, väčšina participantov, ktorí nezažili sexuálne násilie, sa v mieste bydliska cíti veľmi bezpečne (9.5%) alebo bezpečne (68%). Z hľadiska vecnej signifikancie boli rozdiely v distribúciách pocitu bezpečia v mieste bydliska medzi neviktimovanými participantami a obeťami fyzického násilia (V = 0.146), lúpežného napadnutia (V = 0.180) a participantami, ktorí v sledovanom období zažili sexuálne násilie (V = 0.116), malé.

Distribúciu pocitu bezpečia v krajine nediferencuje pohlavie (V = 0.025), národnosť (V = 0.039), ani úroveň dosiahnutého vzdelania (V = 0.089). Zistili sme však malé rozdiely medzi participantami z rôznych socio-profesijných skupín (V = 0.131) a vekových kategórií (V = 0.105). Veľmi podobné výsledky sme zistili aj pre pocit bezpečia v mieste bydliska (V = 0.03 pre pohlavie, V = 0.06 pre národnosť, V = 0.089 pre dosiahnuté vzdelanie, V = 0.140 pre socio-profesijnú skupinu a V = 0.123 pre vekové kategórie).

Z položiek merajúcich pocit bezpečia v krajine a v mieste bydliska sme následne vytvorili sumačný index celkového pocitu bezpečia s teoretickým rozpätím 2 – 8 bodov. Vyššia hodnota indexu indikuje vyššiu mieru obáv, resp. so vzrastajúcou hodnotou indexu rastie hodnotenie situácie ako nie bezpečnej. Empirické rozpätie vo výskumnom súbore je zhodné s teoretickým rozpätím s prostrednou hodnotou Mdn = 4. V Tab. 6 uvádzame hodnoty korelačnej miery veľkosti rozdielu r_m, na základe ktorej určujeme veľkosť rozdielu medzi jednotlivými kategóriami participantov z hľadiska socio-demografických charakteristík.

Tab. 6: Veľkosť rozdielu v indexe bezpečnosti podľa socio-demografických charakteristík

Socio-demografická charakteristika	**Veľkosť rozdielu - r_m**
Vek	0.182
Národnosť	0.062
Vzdelanie	0.137
Socio-profesijná skupina	0.224

U žien sme zistili približne rovnakú hodnotu indexu (Mdn = 4.34) ako u mužov (Mdn = 4.29). Rozdiely sme nezistili ani u participantov so slovenskou (Mdn = 4.3), maďarskou (Mdn = 4.46) a inou národnostnou príslušnosťou (Mdn = 4.23). Participanti so základným vzdelaním a stredoškolským vzdelaním bez maturity (Mdn = 4.44) sa obávajú o svoju bezpečnosť približne v rovnakej miere ako participanti, ktorí absolvovali maturitu (Mdn = 4.25) a vysokoškolské štúdium (Mdn = 4.14). Participanti vo veku 65 rokov viac vyjadrili najviac obáv o svoju bezpečnosť (Mdn = 4.65). Najvýraznejšie (r_m = 0.264) sa seniori líšili od skupiny participantov vo veku 15-17 rokov (Mdn = 4.01), ktorí vyjadrili najmenej obáv. Hodnoty mediánov v jednotlivých vekových kategóriách uvádzame v Tab. 7.

Tab. 7: Rozdiely v indexe pocitu bezpečia v závislosti od veku participantov

Vekové kategórie	**Index pocitu bezpečia**
od 15 do 17 rokov	4.017
od 18 do 24 rokov	4.215
od 25 do 29 rokov	4.241
od 30 do 39 rokov	4.199
od 40 do 49 rokov	4.279
od 50 do 59 rokov	4.428
od 60 do 64 rokov	4.367
65 rokov a viac	4.654
spolu	4.314

Nezanedbateľné rozdiely sme tiež zistili v závislosti od príslušnosti k socio-profesijnej skupine (r_m = 0.224) s najvyššou hodnotou indexu v skupine nezamestnaných respondentov (Mdn = 4.66). Hodnoty mediánov uvádzame v Tab. 8.

Tab. 8: Rozdiely v indexe pocitu bezpečia v závislosti od socio-profesijnej skupiny

Socio-profesijná skupina	**Index pocitu bezpečia**
zamestnanec v štátnom a verejnom sektore	4.12
zamestnanec v súkromnom sektore	4.33
podnikateľ, živnostník, farmár	4.30
Nezamestnaný	4.66
Dôchodca	4.58
Študent	4.01
Iné	3.88
spolu	4.31

4 DISKUSIA

Problematika prežívania pocitu bezpečia bola v začiatkoch jej skúmania dominantou kriminológie, nakoľko je prevažne stotožňovaná s výskumom strachu z kriminality. V súčasnosti predstavuje interdisciplinárny problém, ktorý vyvoláva čoraz viac záujmu aj na poli psychológie (Kentoš, 2014). V kontexte psychológie bezpečie tvorí jednu z nevyhnutných podmienok zdravého vývinu, psychickej pohody a zvládania každodenných nárokov prostredia. Cieľom prezentovaného výskumu bolo zistiť, či existujú rozdiely v pocite bezpečia v závislosti od skúsenosti s viktimizáciou a zvolených socio-demografických charakteristík. Volner (2005, s. 71) upozorňuje, že z metodologického hľadiska je dôležité zohľadniť, že „bezpečnosť nie je možné skúmať ani vysvetľovať mimo hraníc nebezpečnosti“, pričom nebezpečenstvom chápe súhrn hrozieb a rizík. Preto sme sa vo výskume zamerali aj na zmapovanie majetkových a násilných trestných činov, ktorých obeťami sa stali participanti vo výskumnom súbore reprezentujúcom obyvateľov Slovenskej republiky.

Z celkového počtu participantov sa stalo obeťou trestného činu 32.6% participantov. Najviac zastúpené boli trestné činy odcudzenia majetku bez použitia násilia alebo hrozby násilia, úplatkárstva, odcudzenia bicykla alebo vlámania do domu či bytu. Z násilných trestných činov sme zaznamenali častejší výskyt fyzického napadnutia v porovnaní s olúpením, lúpežným napadnutím či sexuálnym násilím (VO1). V Slovenskej republike sa cíti bezpečne 69.2% participantov a v mieste bydliska 76.7% opýtaných (VO2 a VO3).

Pantazis (2000) uvádza, že o svoju bezpečnosť sa vo väčšej miere obávajú ženy, seniori, menšiny a viktimovaní ľudia, a to z dôvodu ich sociálnej alebo fyzickej vulnerability. Autor zároveň dodáva, že v uvedených skupinách je viktimizácia častokrát menej pravdepodobná. Na rozdiel od viacerých štúdií sme v našom výskume nezistili rozdiel v hodnotení bezpečia medzi mužmi a ženami (Lane, Gover, Dahod, 2009; Reid, Conrad 2004; Fisher, Sloan, 2003). Nepodporili sme ani tzv. hypotézu sociálnej zraniteľnosti, ktorá predpokladá vyššiu mieru obáv o bezpečie u príslušníkov minorít. Prežívanie pocitu bezpečia v krajine sa podľa našich zistení výrazne nelíši ani v závislosti od úrovne dosiahnutého vzdelania. Tieto zistenia nie sú v súlade so závermi Vissera, Scholteho a Scheepersa (2013), podľa ktorých ľudia s vyšším vzdelaním a príjmom vykazujú nižšiu úroveň pocitu hroziaceho nebezpečia. Zistili sme však malé rozdiely medzi participantmi z rôznych socio-profesijných skupín a vekových kategórií, pričom najvyššiu obavu o svoju bezpečnosť vyjadrili seniori a nezamestnaní participanti. Nezamestnanosť sa môže spájať s nízkym socioekonomickým statusom a nízkym príjmom, ktoré sú prediktormi obáv o bezpečie (Rader, Cossman, Porter, 2012; Visser, Scholte, Scheepers, 2013). Starší ľudia sa zas o svoju bezpečnosť môžu obávať z dôvodu vyššej

fyzickej zraniteľnosti. (Franklin, Franklin, 2009). Zistenia týkajúce sa pocitu bezpečia v mieste bydliska boli takmer totožné s vyššie uvedenými výsledkami o pocite bezpečia v krajine (VO5).

Po priamej viktimizácii vzrastá citlivosť na riziko, preto obete zvyknú definovať situácie ako nebezpečné. Kentoš (2014) naopak uvádza, že viktimizácia paradoxne redukuje strach z hrozby u ľudí so skúsenosťou s kriminalitou a súčasne prehlbuje obavu z neznámeho u ľudí, ktorí sa obeťami či svedkami kriminality nestali. V našom výskume sme však zistili len malé rozdiely v pocite bezpečia medzi viktimovanými a neviktimovanými participantami (VO4).

V prezentovanom výskume sme zisťovali, do akej miery oslovení participanti vnímajú situáciu na Slovensku a v mieste bydliska ako bezpečnú. Precíznejší pohľad na skúmanú problematiku ponúkajú Kentoš (2016) a Bozogáňová (2016), ktorí zdôrazňujú multidimenzionálnu povahu teoretického konštruktu vnímané bezpečie. Jeho súčasťou je nielen kognitívna a emocionálna dimenzia (strach zo zločinu), ale tiež behaviorálna rovina, ktorú charakterizuje tzv. preventívne správanie. Emocionálny prístup k problematike zahŕňa špecifické emocionálne reakcie na konkrétne kriminálne hrozby, zatiaľ čo kognitívny prístup zohľadňuje makrospoločenské súvislosti vnímaného pocitu bezpečia. Pohľad na vnímané bezpečie cez prizmu behaviorálneho prístupu zdôrazňuje snahu o zmenu vlastného správania pod vplyvom obáv či strachu z možného ohrozenia. U žien sa zistila nižšia miera vnímaného bezpečia v kognitívnej, emocionálnej aj behaviorálnej rovine (Bozogáňová, 2016). Vzdelanie podľa zistení Kentoša (2016) mieru vnímaného bezpečia v emocionálnej rovine nediferencuje, avšak u ľudí s vyšším vzdelaním bola zistená vyššia miera preventívneho a protektívneho správania (behaviorálna rovina). S rastúcim vekom je spätý nárast obáv a vnímanie rizika (kognitívna rovina). Predpokladáme, že v porovnaní s inými štúdiami sme k odlišným výsledkom mohli dospieť práve preto, že sme nezohľadnili bohatosť skúmaného teoretického konštruktu. V budúcom výskume by sme preto chceli zdôrazniť multidimenzionálnu povahu pocitu bezpečia a skúmať jeho vzťah nielen k sociodemografickým charakteristikám, ale tiež k psychologickým premenným (kvalita života, osobná pohoda, hodnoty a pod.).

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KOLÉBKA ČESKÉ HUDBY - ZLONICE

CRADLE OF CZECH MUSIC - ZLONICE

Jan Tůma

Abstrakt

Příspěvek seznamuje se Zlonicemi, významným městečkem v oblasti hudebně pedagogické, které odvážně nazýváme jako jednu z kolébek české hudby. Jde o práci především s regionálními prameny, které jsou uchovány v místním Památníku Antonína Dvořáka. Cílem je uvědomění si významu tohoto místa pro národní hudební historii. Dokazuje důležitost Zlonic jako hudební kolébky, ve které získaly své hudební základy mnohé osobnosti a právě ty jsou důkazem pro obhajobu významu tohoto místa. Z dlouhého seznamu jmen, která mají spojitost se Zlonicemi, dokládáme oprávněnost tvrzení o kolébce hudby tentokráte na příkladu Antonína Wolfa.

Klíčová slova: *Zlonice, hudební vzdělání, kolébka hudby, učitel, varhaník, Antonín Wolf, památník*

Abstract

This article informs about Zlonice, an important town in the music pedagogy, which we can call one of the cradle of the Czech music. For the article were used the regional sources, which are kept in the Antonin Dvorak Memorial. The goal is to realize the meaning of this place for the national music history. It shows the importance of Zlonice as the music cradle, where many music personalities got their basis of music. And that proves the importance of this place. From the people, who are connected with Zlonice, we chose Antonin Wolf to confirm our statement about the cradle of music.

Key words: *Zlonice, musical education, cradle of music, teacher, organist, Antonín Wolf, memorial*

1. ÚVOD

Jsou obce a města, která sotva najdeme na mapě, a přece jsou známá, díky osobnostem, které v nich žili. Takto se do povědomí hudební veřejnosti dostává i městys Zlonice, ležící na severním okraji kladenského okresu.

Můžeme si klást otázku, proč odvážně nazýváme Zlonice kolébkou české hudby? Odpověď je jednoduchá - protože mnoho významných osobností, které se zapsali do hudebních dějin, se zde narodilo, nebo zde získalo základ hudebního vzdělání. Nejvýznamnější osobností je bezesporu Antonín Dvořák, který ve Zlonicích získal základy skladatelského umění pod vedením učitele Antonína Liehmanna.

2. PŘÍČINY HUDEBNÍHO VÝZNAMU ZLONIC

Zásluhu na hudebním podhoubí má fakt, že ve svém historickém vývoji měly Zlonice štěstí na majitele, kteří se nestřídali.“ V období téměř 300 let jim vládly dva významné rody Valkounové z Adlaru a Kinští z Vchynic a Tetova. Oba rody podporovaly kulturu a hudbu především. Kinští, poučeni hospodařením Valkounů, darovali místní farnosti dva statky

v Chržíně a Uhách. Z výtěžků těchto statků byli placeni varhaníci a učitelé, kterým se zde dobře dařilo. Podmínky pro hudební rozvoj upevňovala také skutečnost, že přijetí do služeb rodu Kinských bylo často podmíněno uměním hry na hudební nástroj, a tak varhaník, učitel a kapelník v jedné osobě vedl tým amatérských hudebníků, na jejichž rozvoji mohl pracovat. V roce 1759 farnost nechala postavit dokonce služební dům pro varhaníka, takzvanou varhaníkovnu, která sloužila svému účelu až do druhé poloviny 20. století a dnes je součástí expozice Památníku Antonína Dvořáka. Všechny tyto skutečnosti byly určujícími faktory bohatého hudebního života Zlonic.

3. POČÁTKY HUDEBNÍ HISOTRIE

Hudební tradice Zlonic jsou doloženy od roku 1616, kdy byla obnovena opuštěná utrakvistická škola Bohuchvaldem Valkounem a při tom uložil kantorům „povinnost slavných obřadů nedělních a svátečních se zpěvem a hudbou.“ Kdy byla škola ve Zlonicích založena s určitostí nelze říci, chybí prameny, ze kterých by se dalo čerpat. Předpokládáme, že hudba se zde provozovala i dříve, ale nemáme dosud žádné písemné důkazy. Ředitelé kůru nestačili plnit všechny uložené závazky, proto byli od roku 1660 fundováni také varhaníci. Jejich úkolem bylo dále zřizování a vedení orchestru a z toho plyne potřeba kvalitních hudebníků, kteří přicházeli do služeb vrchnosti. Druhou možností bylo vychovat hudebníky z řad místních obyvatel, a tak ke všem úkolům přibyla ještě výuka. Varhaník se tím stával zároveň učitelem, kapelníkem, dirigentem a skladatelem.

3.1 Významné osobnosti

Václav Horálek (ve Zlonicích 1743 – 1791)
Jan Křtitel Krumholz (asi 1742 Budenice u Zlonic – 1790 Paříž-Franice; ve Zlonicích do 1759)
Václav Krumholz (asi 1750 Zlonice – 1817 Vídeň-Rakousko; ve Zlonicích do 1795)
Josef Toman (1805 Charvátce – 1879 Zlonice; ve Zlonicích 1842 – 1879)
Antonín Liehmann (1808 Tubož – 1879 Zlonice; ve Zlonicích 1832 – 1879)
Josef Lev (1832 Sazená – 1898 Praha)
Adolf Průcha (1837 Zlonice – 1885 Praha)
Antonín Dvořák (1841 Nelahozeves – 1904 Praha; ve Zlonicích 1853-1857)
František Heveroch (1843 Nové Ouholice – 1923 Kralupy nad Vltavou; ve Zlonicích 1879 – 1904)
Otakar Hostinský (1847 Martiněves – 1910 Praha)
Josef Sedláček (1848 Koryta okr. Mladá Boleslav – 1931 Zlonice; ve Zlonicích 1870 – 1893)
Rudolf Liehmann (1855 Zlonice – 1904 Rakiški-Litva)
Antonín Wolf (*1858 Praha - 1937 Zlonice)
Karel Douša (*1878 Zlonice – 1944 Praha)
Eduard Ingriš (1905 Zlonice – 1991 Sout Lake Tahoe-USA)
a mnoho dalších osobností, jejichž význam zůstává zatím nedoceněn.

4. ANTONÍN WOLF

4.1 Úvod

Na příkladu Antonína Wolfa lze doložit, jak významné hudební místo Zlonice byly. Tento varhaník, učitel a skladatel původem z Prahy, na jehož hudebním vzdělání se mimo jiné podílely i tři zlonické osobnosti, odešel ze svého rodiště do Zlonic a působil zde 50 let, nejdéle ze všech místních varhaníků. Před svým odchodem z Prahy působil jako varhaník, učitel a sbormistr na

několika místech. A přesto tento nadějný 28 letý hudebník, s vyhlídkami na úspěšnou kariéru, požádal o místo ředitele kůru a varhaníka ve Zlonicích, o nichž věděl již od studijních let. Tímto můžeme dokumentovat vysokou hudební úroveň tehdejších Zlonic. Jak uvádí místní badatel Miroslav Hora ve svých zápiscích, bohužel bez uvedení zdroje. „Z některých zápisů se dovídáme, že se zlonickým kantorům, oproti jiným, vede královsky."

4.2 Dětství

Antonín Wolf se narodil v Praze 2. října 1858 a zemřel 12. ledna 1939 ve Zlonicích. Zajímavou osobností byl už otec Antonín Wolf st., který byl taktéž výborným hudebníkem, zakladatelem Pražských lidových zpěváků a tím i českého kabaretu. Jeho činnost je zachycena v různých časopisech a novinách. Jako příklad můžeme uvést Národní pěvec, Plátek, Kurýr, Český artista či Národní politika.

4.3 Studia

Malý Antonín se vzdělával již od malička doma u svého otce. Zajímavý je další sled jeho studia, do kterého zasahují tři bývalí občané Zlonic. V renomované škole Jana Augusta Starého, kde se učil hře na klavír, je Wolfovým učitelem Antonín Dvořák, tehdejší varhaník u sv. Vojtěcha. On, který prvé počátky hudebního umění získal od kantora Antonína Liehmanna ve Zlonicích, učil témuž umění Antonína Wolfa, pozdějšího ředitele a varhaníka zlonického kůru. V roce 1879 zahájil Wolf studium na varhanické škole, kde se jeho učitelem stává i profesor Adolf Průcha, zlonický rodák.

4.4 Počátky kariéry v Praze

Po ukončení varhanické školy se výsledkem „výborně schopný" se stává varhaníkem u dominikánů na kůru sv. Jiljí. Zde působil pět let. Zároveň své vzdělání doplňuje mimořádným studiem universitním na přednáškách dalšího zlonického občana PhDr. Otakara Hostinského. Je to jistě jen osudová shoda okolností, že tyto tři osobnosti hudebního světa, které získaly své hudební základy ve Zlonicích, se odvděčují výchovou dalšího významného hudebníka. V roce 1884 přijal místo učitele zpěvu v ústavu pro nevidomé na Hradčanech, kde působil tři roky. Zároveň byl sbormistrem v několika pěveckých spolcích a to ve Slavoji v Karlíně, Kosu v Holešovicích, v dělnické pěvecké jednotě Harmonie a pěveckém sboru pražských typografů.

4.5 Počátky kariéry ve Zlonicích

Ředitelem kůru a varhaníkem zdejšího kostela Nanebevzetí Panny Marie byl od 1. června 1887 do 30. června 1937, tedy plných 50 let. Nejdéle ze všech ředitelů kůru a varhaníků, kteří se na tomto místě vystřídali. Už z toho je patrné, že Zlonice byly, jak se lidově říká, dobrou štací, že zde muselo být dobré prostředí pro jejich práci, slušné existenční zajištění, možnost dalšího výdělku v podobě učitele hudby a kapelníka i možnost sebeuplatnění. Kůr dočasně vedli František Heveroch a Josef Sedláček. O stavu na zlonickém kůru vyšel kritický článek, uveřejněný v časopise Hudební výchova, který publikoval Karel Douša, zlonický rodák, žák Antonína Wolfa a pozdější profesor konzervatoře. Dle našeho soudu příliš kritický s ohledem na hudební umění obou učitelů a hudebníků, kteří se ujali vedení kůru po smrti Antonína Liehmanna a byli v kontaktu i s jeho neslavnějším žákem Antonínem Dvořákem. Nový mladý ředitel a varhaník si z Prahy přivezl snahu o zavedení reformy církevní hudby. Během pár let zněla z kůru zlonického kostela i díla pozdějších tvůrců jako Křížkovského, Foerstera a dalších.

4.6 Nejslavnější léta

Wolf se brzy stal hybnou pákou společenského života v městečku a to hlavě v letech 1887 – 1902. Byl spoluzakladatelem pěveckého spolku Hlahol a jeho dlouholetým sbormistrem. Byl činný i mimo hudební oblast v ochotnickém dramatickém souboru. Od počátku měl ve Zlonicích svou dobře obsazenou kapelu, s níž hostoval po okolí. Jeho kapela hrála při větších akcích a záhy se z ní vytvořila takzvaná Městská kapela, která měla již vyšší poslání, nežli kapela jeho předchůdce Antonína Liehmanna, jehož hudebníci tvořily menší kapely a hráli především na menších zábavách. Dokladem mohou být notové pozůstalosti obou zmiňovaných. U Liehmanna nalézáme drobnější taneční skladby, kdežto u Wolfa více vážných skladeb pro jiné uplatnění. Známé jsou například koncerty pořádané v parku budenického zámku – rodového sídla Kinských.

Významným hudebním tělesem, které Wolf založil a kde sám působil, bylo Zlonické pěvecké kvarteto, jehož členy byli Karel Živsa, Emanuel Michel, Emanuel Paur a Antonín Wolf. Koncertovalo nejen ve Zlonicích a jeho okolí, ale s velkým úspěchem vystupovalo i na jihu Čech. Podle ústního podání, zaznamenaného v roce1947 stavitelem Janem Nedvědem a dle zápisu Františka Paura si kvarteto poslechl i sám Antonín Dvořák při své návštěvě Zlonic v roce 1892. Ocenil prý jeho úroveň a uvažoval o možnosti spolupůsobení kvarteta při koncertech pořádaných před jeho odjezdem do Ameriky.

4.7 Pedagogické působení

Velkou zásluhu si získal Wolf jako pedagog. Učil zpěvu jak sborovému tak sólovému a to děti, mládež i dospělé. Vyučoval hře na klavír, harmonium, varhany a nástroje strunné i dechové. Vychoval řadu výborných zpěváků i hudebníků. Mezi ně patří především zmíněný Karel Douša, který vzpomíná jeho otcovské péče i trpělivosti: „Však je to právě Wolf, kterému vděčím za to, že jsem se mohl cele věnovati hudbě.“ Z dalších četných žáků jsou klavíristé Marie Hutterová, Matylda Havelková, Marie Tanzerová, Lidka Bayerová, Cyril Vymetal a další. Z jeho pěvecké školy vyšla koncertní pěvkyně Eliška Müchelová, Marie Lexová, Růžena Fajglová o jejímž pěveckém umění se velmi pochvalně vyjádřil skladatel Vítězslav Novák, jehož všechny písně a balady tato zpěvačka nastudovala a které sám skladatel Novák svěřil i provedení sopránového partu ve své baladě Svatební košile při koncertě konaném v roce 1923 ve Smetanově síni Obecního domu. Jeho širokou hudební činnost dokazují náročná díla provedená na kůru i klasické operety, které uváděl divadelní ochotnický spolek Šubrt a které vyžadovaly jak dobré zpěváky, tak i hudebníky.

4.8 Seznam dochovaných skladeb

Valse II
Píseň k sv. Jánu
Píseň (bez názvu) na slova Josefa Nováka
Sv. Václavská fanfára
IV. valčík
Při křtu zvonů
A dal-li Pán Bůh
Pro naše dívky
Náš zvyk
Našim strejčkům
O Andulce
Harmonie

Charlotte
Zigeunere
Generálbasové příklady
Hymnus českých pěvců
Smutný pochod

4.9 Závěr

Nezodpovězenou otázkou zůstává proč on, rozený Pražák, s dobrým vzděláním i existenčním zajištěním, odchází do venkovských Zlonic, aby si je zamiloval, sžil se s jejich životem a zůstal zde navždy. Jeho setrvání lze odůvodnit snad jen tím, že se mu zde líbilo a dobře vedlo, ale důvod pro jeho příchod v archivních materiálech zatím nenacházíme. Zajímavostí je, že do Zlonic přicházejí i jeho sourozenci, sestra Luisa, která mu jako starému mládenci vedla domácnost a později na důchod sestra Hedvika, členka sboru opery Národního divadla a bratr Josef, rovněž varhaník.

5. PAMÁNÍK ANTONÍNA DVOŘÁKA

Památník Antonína Dvořáka je od svého vzniku roku 1954 místem, v jehož archivu se shromažďuje řada materiálů, písemností a předmětů dokládající význam Zlonic jakožto hudebního městečka. Bohatý notový archiv využívají ke studiu nejen naši, ale i zahraniční badatelé. Nejrůznější pozůstalosti a archivní materiály nebyly dosud systematicky probádány a mohou přispět k objasnění významu Zlonic v dějinách hudby.

Památník nese jméno Antonína Dvořáka, který žil ve Zlonicích (poblíž rodné Nelahozevsi) v letech 1853–56. Pobýval zde nejprve v rodině svého strýce Antonína Zdeňka, který se v roce 1852 stal šafářem na zlonickém panství Kinských, a později u rodičů, kteří se do Zlonic přistěhovali roku 1855. Ve Zlonicích získal Dvořák hudební průpravu od vynikajícího hudebníka Antonína Liehmanna, který jej učil hře na varhany a hudební teorii. Dvořák si ho velmi vážil a roku 1880 dokonce zorganizoval ve Zlonicích koncert k uctění jeho památky, z jehož výtěžku byl Liehmannovi postaven pomník. Liehmannova dcera Terinka, Dvořákova první láska, je zvěčněna i se svým otcem v opeře Jakobín. Samotné Zlonice pak byly Dvořákovi inspiračním podnětem k jeho Symfonii č. 1 c moll z roku 1865, kterou později nazval „Zlonické zvony“.

Samotná budova dnešního Památníku Antonína Dvořáka pochází z roku 1745. Původně sloužila jako špitál (tj. starobinec) pro vysloužilé sloužící a chudinu místního panovnického rodu Kinských. Kinským patřilo celé panství až do roku 1920, v té době přešla stavba do majetku státu. Během 2. světové války zde získali azyl uprchlíci ze Sudet. Po válce budova sloužila jako skladiště papíru a chátrala natolik, že mělo dojít k její demolici. Ke kompletní rekonstrukci došlo péčí Vlastivědného kroužku Zlonicka a v budově byl zřízen Památník Antonína Dvořáka. Slavnostní otevření proběhlo v červnu roku 1954. Hlavní sál památníku dnes slouží pro pořádání koncertů, svatebních obřadů, výstav a jiných kulturních akcí.

Postranní vitríny informují o hudebních tradicích Zlonic a obsahují i doklady regionální historie včetně archeologických nálezů. Návštěvnická expozice je soustředěna především v místnosti nazvané Dvořákova síň. Vystaveny tu jsou předměty z osobního života hudebního skladatele Antonína Dvořáka, např. dirigentská taktovka, šperkovnice z ebenového dřeva – svatební dar manželům Dvořákovým od architekta Josefa Hlávky, kuřácká souprava z volských rohů, lipová ratolest a medaile jako ocenění Dvořákovy práce, úmrtní lože či zrcadlo z pražského bytu v Žitné ulici. Tyto a několik dalších předmětů věnoval do sbírek Památníku Ing. Otakar Dvořák, syn Antonína Dvořáka. V roce 1984 byla návštěvníkům zpřístupněna vedlejší budova zvaná Varhaníkovna (v majetku církve). Od poloviny 17. století to bývalo sídlo školního rektora

a varhaníka, dnes představuje dobově zařízený byt Dvořákova zlonického učitele Antonína Liehmanna, který ve Zlonicích působil v letech 1832–79. O vybavení bytu se velkou měrou zasloužili obyvatelé Zlonic. Vystavovaný fotografický materiál věnovali potomci Antonína Liehmanna a jeho dcery Terinky. V poslední místnosti je od roku 1994 pamětní síň zlonického rodáka Eduarda Ingriše (narozen 1905), hudebního skladatele, cestovatele, dobrodruha, amatérského fotografa, filmaře a mořeplavce, který od roku 1947 až do své smrti v roce 1991 žil ve Spojených státech amerických (autor trampské písně Teskně hučí Niagara).

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CRISIS INTERVENTION AS A PART OF CRISIS CENTERS

Soňa Šrobárová, Boris Pták

Abstract

Crisis intervention can be perceived as one of the inherent parts of the work of helping professionals that is designed for people in crisis. It is this social worker's intervention in crisis situations that he provides in crisis centers is an important part of his work. The crisis itself carries a negative undertone. During the crisis, an individual needs help, which must be properly chosen to bring the desired effect. Crisis helps solve an interdisciplinary team that provides medical, psychological, social and legal assistance.

Key words: *crisis intervention, crisis center, crisis, social worker*

1. THE CRISIS AS PART OF LIFE

Crises for which adaptation to a new life situation is needed are an important part of the development of each person. A serious crisis is just the birth of each of us that we have to deal with. Wise people say that if we manage our birth, then each of us has the worst behind (Tepperwein, 2014). We know that every crisis is our crisis, that only we are responsible for all the risks and apart from us, no other consequences are borne. We must understand that the universal background and source of possible manifestations of the crisis is only our inability to create optimally operating power over each of us. That is why we constantly seek and strive for a better life and the world. Our hope is in continuous and never-ending overcoming specific problems (Mihina, 1998). Every crisis is an unbearable burden for us. At first, the little steps to resolve the crisis are repeatedly postponed until a crisis occurs, when it can not be avoided and we have to fix the tasks. All of this often causes physical problems, sweat is sweating, heart beats, we may feel stomach or intestinal problems. We can not keep things going, or we may get frightened, and we can not think of anything meaningful and reasonable, and we are not able to act properly. Our loved ones can not always help us, and suddenly we find ourselves. We say that everything was fine yesterday, and today everything is completely different, today there is a crisis. We need to address it, because tomorrow we can face another crisis. It may not always be just the big events that are causing us a crisis (Tepperwein, 2014). Crisis is a common term that forces a person to act, even though he has limited time and resources (Špatenková, 2004). The crisis is, therefore, a state of internal imbalance that is affected by both external and internal factors. The crisis is initiated by a combination of three interdependent factors:

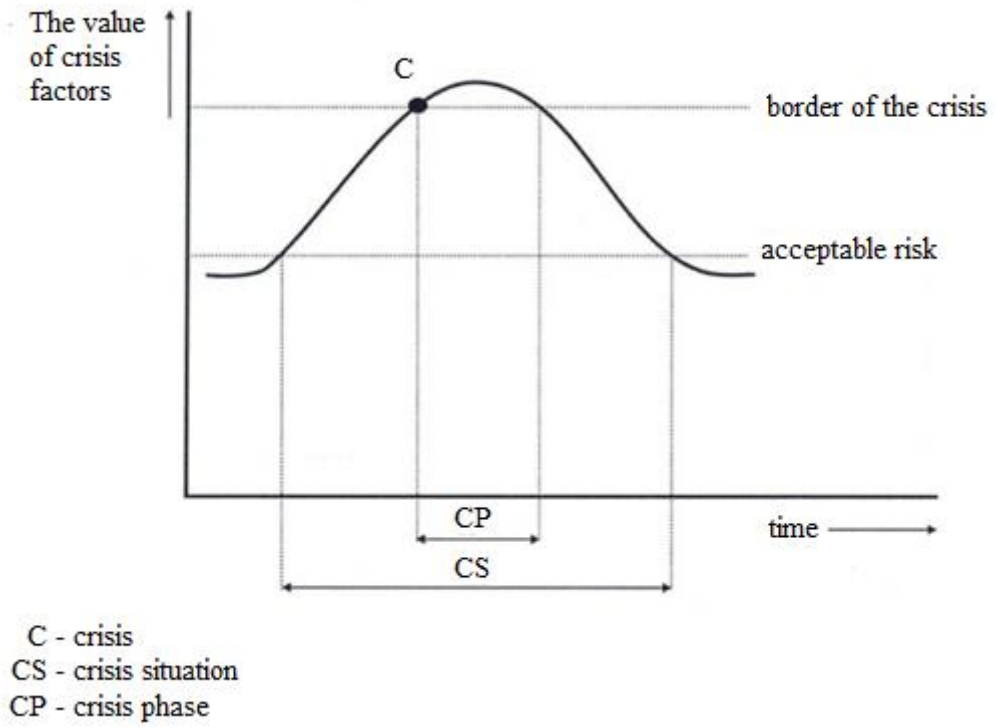
1. a stressful or dangerous event,
2. individual perception of this event,
3. the ability of an individual to use defense mechanisms and resources to manage the event.

The crisis triggerers include:

1. loss.
2. amendment,
3. necessity (Mátel, 2013).

Crises for which adaptation to a new life situation is needed are an important part of the development of each person. A serious crisis is just the birth of each of us that we have to deal with. According to current psychological concepts, the crisis is a transient state of internal imbalance caused by various critical events or life situations that require major changes and, in particular, solutions. In the crisis, each entity forces a person to act, even if he has only

limited time and resources. The crisis always represents a certain evolving state, but it must be seen as a transitional one, because it occurs after a state that is considered normal. The crisis may become a disaster or may leave some lasting consequences. Sometimes, however, these consequences have no meaning, but they can often lead the crisis to change the behavior of the subject (Špatenková, 2004). The crisis is just as much a part of the human being, a phenomenon of human society that can not be avoided. The crisis opens up a new level of progress and carries with it a certain subjective element. It can only appear in a being that I am fully aware of. For systems that are mechanical and physical, there are critical points, not a crisis. In the crisis, is every entity where its condition, manifests itself in an unreasonable weakening of its regulatory mechanisms, perceived as a threat to its own existence. In the crisis, there is a large dynamic charge with a potential change and a large psychic imbalance (Hunyadi, 2012). Without a crisis, it would not be possible to achieve a life shift, maturing.



Picture no. 1: Graphic representation of the relationship of crisis, crisis situation and crisis phase (Novák et al. 2005, picture. no. 2.4)

Intervention is defined by many scientific disciplines. In the psychological dictionary, it is defined as "targeted predictive intervention aimed at alleviating the person's difficult personal situation, any procedure or technique aimed at interrupting, preventing or correcting the ongoing process" (Hunyadi, 2012). It is a stage that deals with working with the client and solves his situation and has a distinct aggological background. Empirical experience shows that, in order for the intervention to be successful, it focuses on three problems at a time (Olah et al., 2008). Social intervention means: interfering, influencing, and protecting a citizen. From the point of view of social work, it is a direct interference with the ways of dealing with individuals, groups or institutions. It means that the individual has psychological and practical support in the social workplace. Tackling and overcoming the crisis depends on the realistic estimate of the event, the feasibility of the support network and the balancing strategies. We also use procedures that we have proven from the past or try new ones to address the crisis. This creates balancing strategies. We use contact with feelings, the ability to ease with crying or anger, to sense feelings, to respect the feelings of others, the ability to share our problems,

to have good contact with the body and our own needs, we must have our own borders, our orientation in the situation, when using the available resources and information, the ability to use older people's experiences, the potential of the natural community, patterns of collective behavior, inspiration in literary stories, the involvement of fantasy, faith and hope and the sense of suffering (Vodáčková, 2007). Crisis intervention is part of social work and we understood it as a special method used in acute crisis situations, it is intended for a client without a pre-arranged and planned meeting, which is in a strong emotional tension and stress. These feelings are based on the real situation of fantastic products of the client's mind (Oláh et al., 2008). It is actually intervention in the crisis (Špatenková, 2006). Crisis intervention is suitable for working with clients immediately after a crisis, has a short-term nature and ends with 1-6 weeks (Mátel, 2013). To achieve successful crisis intervention, we need the training and funding of social workers who are implementing the intervention. The role of all workers who provide crisis intervention is to support the client's competence and independence (Hunyadi, 2012). Intervention is tied to a client, family, group or community that are objects of social work. When every social worker is providing the intervention they has to respect the client and his right to determine his / her own borders may refuse assistance, respect the principles of voluntary and necessary client consent for intervention, use all possibilities of cooperation, implemented intervention in a transparent and comprehensible manner, all rights of the client must be respected, provide the client with sufficient space to take on their own responsibility, their own decision-making and their own solution to the whole situation.

They need to use social support and the social network within social intervention. A social worker uses social intervention either as a normal method or as a crisis intervention but requires immediate intervention. Social intervention is actually social therapy. Legislation of the Slovak Republic provides crisis intervention through state bodies in Act No. 543/2003 on state administration bodies in the sphere of social affairs, no. 448/2008 Coll. on social services, no. 305/2005 Coll. on social protection of children and social wounds and Act No. 300/1990 Coll. from. on citizens' association, no. 34/2002 Coll. about foundations, no. 147/1997 Coll. on non-investment funds and no. 213/1997 Coll. on non-profit organizations providing general services in the sense of Act no. 35/2002 Coll., Which are the most frequent form in the use of social services in crisis intervention.

2. RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

The purpose of the survey was to find out what is the procedure for crisis intervention of a social worker in the practice of a crisis center. Survey objects were social workers in crisis centers. The following tasks were set:

1. task: processing the theoretical part of the thesis,
2. task: realization of interview with respondents,
3. task: identify methods of crisis intervention for social workers in crisis centers,
4. task: identify their current way of crisis intervention in crisis centers,
5. task: interpretation of research results.

In the empirical part, we followed Peter Gavor (2006) when we used the interview method. The interview was conducted individually with four respondents (social workers) in their work environment and by mail and telephone communications. With the respondents, we conducted a semi-structured interview on which we had to process 13 questions. The interview scenario was processed to get the necessary information and opinions.

1st question: What methods are used by social workers in crisis intervention? Based on the above information, we can state that the methods used by social workers in crisis intervention are social diagnostics - the social worker uses various procedures that are aimed

at collecting and evaluating information about the client who has come to the crisis center to discover the causes for and the factors that caused it to solve this crisis independently, using only its own resources and needing help from professionals, social counseling - it is a professional activity carried out by experts, social workers. Its foundation is the relationship between the social worker and the client, the support, help, development, optimal application of the client to his real orientation in life is necessary. A social worker tries to eliminate or at least mitigate the negative habits or behaviors of a client during his stay in the crisis center, thereby educating the client in the crisis center, reducing emotional tension, helping the client solve problems and find a new sense of life. The client himself should be involved in problem analysis, trying to become better acquainted with himself, understand the motivation and causality of his behavior, social rehabilitation - a social worker in the crisis center provides measures that ensure a valuable life for clients in a crisis situation. A very important role is played by the factors of personality, the family background, the community in which the client lives. Very important is the individual ability of each client to actively implement the whole process and take advantage of all possibilities of the crisis center. The result is the ability to find a positive relationship to your environment. In social rehabilitation it is essential to achieve self-sufficiency of the client. A social worker uses active tools and services to help the client:

1. Social and personal assistance - means accompanying clients in a crisis center in terms of health, social or legal area, state authorities and institutions capable and willing to assist clients in resolving their crisis situations, also providing advice, guidance, procedures for dealing with such situations, provide contacts to individual components of the network to target groups in social counseling to solve a particular problem and provide direct work with clients, help and support in self-service tasks,
2. Educational activity - provides the entire interdisciplinary team that affects its clients, it is mutual interaction and is based on communication, serenity and education, ie it is a two-sided process,
3. Psychological care - psychological care in the crisis center is a confidential relationship between the psychologist and the client, when the client has the space to express their difficulties and problems, desires, goals. It is important to create autonomy and social adaptation of clients, develop their individuality, feelings of safety and satisfaction,
4. Special-pedagogical intervention - it is a deliberate, purposeful and planned activity that interacts between the client and the crisis center environment in order to positively influence the desired development of the client. The special pedagogical intervention is planned, directed and conducted by a special pedagogue. The processes used are compensation, correction, reeducation, rehabilitation, and stimulation,
5. Active therapy - it is the treatment by employing, by engaging in meaningful and creative activities seeks to develop motor, cognitive, communication, social, personality competencies of clients. It is important to motivate one's own activities, helping to create prerequisites for greater autonomy, active inclusion in the society, or to experience a meaningful being, when it is gradually solving a practical problem,
6. Promoting interest activities - these are activities that we understand as targeted activities aimed at satisfying and developing the individual needs, interests and abilities of clients in the crisis center. They have a strong influence on personality development and on good social orientation.

The client deals with subjects or activities that attract him to a cognitive or sensory site. An interesting subject or activity adds a special value to a person because he is guided by an effort to actively engage with him. The achievement of goals is accomplished by positive emotional attunement or satisfaction. The choice of method chosen by a social worker also

depends on who is helped in a crisis situation. Whether it is a man, a woman, a child, an older citizen, or an ethnic group.

2nd question: Social workers have training in crisis practice intervention? On the basis of all the information we have learned, we can state that education in the crisis center is essential because the aid is provided by self-educated professionals with rich working experience. It is an interdisciplinary team that consists of psychologists, pedagogues, social workers, educators, health professionals, lawyers and other professionals. The education of social workers is at least a second degree where several years of experience are required to gain the necessary professional experience. Nonetheless, social workers must regularly attend. Every social worker must have the necessary personal prerequisites and skills and, in order to help clients in the crisis, he must have the necessary focus.

3rd question: What is the way crisis intervention takes place in the crisis center? According to all the information we obtained from the survey, the crisis center under Act no. 305/2005 Coll. a child, family or adult physical person in a crisis situation, in urgent cases, especially in the case of a threat to the health or life of the minor (crisis intervention), on the basis of an oral or written request by a minor, parent or other the person responsible for the upbringing of the minor and at the same time informing them of which documents need to be produced or at the discretion of the court. The crisis center acts as a residential form. The Crisis Center develops an individual crisis management plan, which includes methods of working with a child, a physical person, a family, and close relatives of those. Part of the plan is to cooperate with the school and to regularly inform the child's legal guardian with uninterrupted compulsory school attendance. The Crisis Management Crisis Center evaluates in writing. If a child is in a crisis situation, the crisis center evaluates an individual plan with the institution of social protection of children and social guardianship. The crisis center is writing a crisis center program that includes in particular target groups, crisis center specialization, conditions of admission to the crisis center, methods of work, procedures of work, professional security, clients' rights and obligations, offer of after-care assistance after the end of an individual crisis management plan; capacity, if the crisis center carries out its activities in a residential form. In order to protect and safeguard physical persons, the crisis center does not disclose the crisis center program. Crisis intervention is addressed to a client who has suddenly come into an acute crisis situation. It is specialized assistance to people who suddenly find themselves in crisis. The client may enter the crisis center with an obvious or latent crisis. There is a situation where an individual is fully aware, admitting and, most of the time, consciously facing the crisis-inducing situation. Latent is when the client is not aware of, does not want or can not accept the situation that caused his crisis.

3. CRISIS INTERVENTION PROCESS

A social worker in a crisis center must immediately reduce the threat to the client that he was in the center. This includes, for example: the client does not have the necessary conditions to meet basic life needs, has poor living habits or inappropriate lifestyles, is poorly handicapped or is ill, is addicted to addictive substances or addictive harmful activities, is threatened by the behavior of other physical persons - domestic violence, or violent crime. When the client is safe, the role of a social worker is to correctly assess the situation and assess it. Crisis intervention begins, the basis of which is to master the state of the client when a social worker uses available strategic procedures. He tries to ventilate emotions, calm him down, and set goals together. The client leads to self-help and self-reliance. The role of the social worker is to propose to the client the possibility of resolving the crisis situation. The course of crisis intervention must be rapid, the social worker must ensure patient safety, ensure rapid

interdisciplinary cooperation and the quickest possible client relief, listen to the client, use a direct conversation or active negotiation if necessary. The social worker's approach is clear, transparent.

4. CONCLUSION OF THE SURVEY

Based on our knowledge and knowledge of crisis intervention and the results of the survey, we can assume that we have met the survey target. We have found out what intervention is in the practice of social workers. All of the findings proved to be positive, except in some areas where minor deficiencies occurred where smaller improvements are needed. We have allowed to suggest the following:

1. the establishment of more crisis centers in order to provide the greatest possible number of clients in difficult life situations;
2. to include more social workers in already existing centers, because of their excessive burden the more staff, the better the work done and the help of the clients to enable social workers to continue training (courses, trainings)
3. that the assistance provided is to the highest level of qualification and full of new trends, procedures and ideas for assistance to create the most appropriate conditions for the work of social workers,
4. coming to work with pleasure, enthusiasm, taste and prevention of burnout syndrome, various ways to help people in a difficult life situation not to be afraid to seek qualified help in crisis centers.

The key to successful crisis intervention is the change of view of the crisis itself. The client is able to express emotions, to get oriented in reality, to understand their situation, to be able to think autonomously about their future. Finding her place in a person's life can help to understand the opportunities that are present in a crisis situation. A social worker is a person who provides immediate help, his services are easy to reach, client care is continuous and has defined goals, prevents a possible deterioration, and counters the context of client relationships. Help is also active and, if necessary, directive.

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VYBRANÉ EFEKTY DLHODOBÉHO HRANIA NÁSILNÝCH POČÍTAČOVÝCH HIER

SELECTED LONG-THERM EFFECTS OF VIOLENT VIDEOGAMES PLAYING

Veronika Šimonová

Abstrakt

V rámci našej práce skúmania dlhodobých efektov hrania násilných počítačových hier sme sa rozhodli zamerať konkrétne na agresivitu ako predispozíciu agresívneho správania a normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa agresie v počítačových hrách a v bežnom živote. Pre účely výskumu sme použili slovenský preklad dotazníka agresivity Bussa a Perryho (1992). Normatívne presvedčenia sme skúmali prostredníctvom nami vytvoreného dotazníka. Zistili sme, že subjektívna miera vnímaného násilia v najpreferovanejších hrách u respondentov klesla. Agresivita u respondentov po piatich mesiacoch od prvého merania významne stúpla, a to aj čo sa týka menej intenzívne hrajúcich respondentov, aj intenzívnejšie hrajúcich respondentov. Pri normatívnych presvedčeniach sa významné rozdiely ukázali najmä v personálnych normatívnych presvedčeniach týkajúcich sa agresie v bežnom živote.

Kľúčové slova: *Počítačové hry. Videohry. Agresivita. Agresívne správanie. Násilné médiá. Normatívne presvedčenia. Normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa agresie.*

Abstract

As part of our work on exploring the long-term effects of violent computer games, we have chosen to focus specifically on aggression as a predisposition to aggressive behavior and normative beliefs about aggression in computer games and in ordinary life. For research purposes, we used the slovak translation of aggression questionnaire by Buss and Perry (1992). Normative beliefs are examined through a questionnaire we created. We found that the normative beliefs about aggression of the most preferred games decreased in respondents. Aggression of respondents in five months after the first measurement significantly increased, even in terms of less intense playing respondents and the respondents intense playing. The normative beliefs showed significant differences mainly in personal normative beliefs on aggression in everyday life.

Key words: *Computer games. Videogames. Aggression. Aggressive behavior. Violent media. Normative beliefs. Normative beliefs about aggression.*

1 ÚVOD

Hráč sa môže vďaka perspektíve sledovania hry očami hlavnej postavy jednoducho nechať uniesť čoraz komplikovanejším a zaujímavejším dejom alebo akčnosťou. Zdokonaľovaním grafického zobrazenia hier tak pôvodne obľúbené, zväčša nenásilné arkády ustúpili do úzadia v prospech modernejších hier, veľmi často s dávkou násilia. Počítačovým hrám venujú najmä mladí ľudia viac a viac času, nielen ich hraniu, ale hry sa stávajú obsahom komunikácie medzi mladými ľuďmi, ich vzájomného porovnávania, námetom na kamarátstva, skrátka – stávajú sa rozsiahlou oblasťou v živote nielen mladých ľudí.

1.1 Násilné počítačové hry

Na tematiku počítačových hier boli aplikované aj poznatky z oblasti médií všeobecne, ktoré boli epicentrom výskumu už v prvej polovici minulého storočia. Výskumníci hneď odhalili silu vplyvu médií na človeka, na jeho zmýšľanie a rozhodnutia (napríklad Berkowitz, Geen, 1967; Brady, Matthews, 2006; Buchman, 2003). Počítačové hry sú pritom označené za jednu z najnebezpečnejších foriem, keďže ide o interaktívny softvér, ktorý komunikuje s hráčom pomocou 2D a 3D grafiky (Ronchi, 2009), kvalitného ozvučenia, pri ktorom sa vie zabaviť, a ponúka mu odlišný, tzv. virtuálny svet. Hráč sa môže vďaka perspektíve sledovania hry očami hlavnej postavy jednoducho nechať uniesť čoraz komplikovanejším a zaujímavejším dejom alebo akčnosťou. Nemôžeme opomenúť ani mieru stotožnenia s hlavným hrdinom, ktorá pri týchto charakteristikách spĺňa dôležitú úlohu učenia, formovania a prenesenia naučeného aj do bežného života (Gentile, 2014).

Jedným z najdôležitejších zistení v tomto smere je to, že dlhodobé hranie zvyšuje agresívne správanie v súvislosti s následkom naučenia scenára pre agresívne správanie a kognície (Bushman, Huesmann, 2006). Ďalší výskumníci ba základe modelu GAM Andersona a Bushmana aplikovaného na dlhodobé efekty hrania sa zaoberajú desenzitizáciou a empatiou, hostilitou, normatívnymi presvedčeniami týkajúcimi sa agresie, prosociálnym správaním, sociálnou percepciou (Hollingdale, Greitemeyer, 2013). Podľa modelu GAM práve učenie, aktivácia, a používanie agresívnych kognitívnych schém (vedomostné štruktúry spojené s agresiou, ktoré máme v pamäti) sú dôležitými faktormi pri rozhodovaní konať agresívne. Tvorba agresívnych kognitívnych schém nastáva pri sledovaní násilných médií. Tieto agresívne kognitívne schémy poskytujú informáciu o odpovedi jednotlivca v súlade s daným (momentálnym) sociálnym javom (Luo Lan et al., 2010).

Podľa Guntera, Harrisona a Wykesovej (2003) je násilie v médiách prítomné (oprávnené aj neoprávnené násilie), ak je zobrazované:

- vyhrážanie sa fyzickým násilím alebo priame použitie fyzického násilia
- vyhrážanie sa so zbraňou alebo bez zbrane s cieľom poškodiť alebo zastrašiť ľudskú bytosť, skupiny ľudí alebo neživé objekty
- zobrazovanie následkov násilia pôsobeného ľuďmi, následky havárií, katastrof
- úplné poškodenie alebo pokus o poškodenie ľudských bytostí, prostredia (živého aj neživého)
- reálne zobrazovanie utrpenia obetí a ich poškodenia

1.2 Agresivita a normatívne presvedčenia

Agresivita je relatívne trvalá dispozícia či vlastnosť osobnosti správať sa agresívne. Je podmienená vrodenými, biologickými faktormi (konštitúcia, temperament, biochemické faktory v centrálnom nervovom systéme) a učením (sociálne, najmä imitačné učenie). Agresivita je vnímaná v najširšom slova zmysle ako tendencia (dispozícia) vykonať agresívny čin, správať sa agresívne alebo zámerne ubližovať. (Lovaš, 2010). Čo sa týka moderujúcich premenných dlhodobého hrania, Gentile a kolektív vo svojom výskume uvádzajú vplyv premenných ako rod, črta hostility, a týždenné množstvo hrania videohier (Gentile et al., 2004).

Ľudstvo pre efektívne fungovanie v spoločenskom priestore uplatnilo systém pravidiel, ktoré ovplyvňujú, regulujú správanie, sociálne interakcie. Tento systém sa nazýva systém sociálnych noriem, jeho podmienkou je prijatie a uznávanie v rámci skupiny (nielen v globálnom pohľade, ale pri pohľade na subkultúry) (Ráczová Babinčák, 2009). Keďže dodržiavanie noriem pochádza u jedinca z rôznych zdrojov motivácie správania, bolo

potrebné normy diferencovať. Prístup Norm Focus Theory (teória ohniska noriem) autorov Cialdiniho, Rena a Kallgrena rozlišuje injunktívne a deskriptívne normy. Injunktívne určujú to, čo sa má alebo nemá robiť, alebo „malo by sa a nemalo by sa“. Zodpovedajú klasickému chápaniu sociálnych noriem, keďže správanie prikazujú a jeho nedodržiavanie je sankcionované. Deskriptívne normy v sebe nesú informáciu, ako sa ľudia bežne správajú. V situácii, v ktorej injunktívna norma popisuje, ako by sa správať mali, deskriptívna norma popisuje skutočný stav, ako sa ľudia naozaj správajú (toto správanie nemusí korešpondovať s injunktívnou normou (Lovaš, 2000).

Nie vždy teda koná podľa injunktívnej či deskriptívnej normy. Schwartz (1977) uviedol (na základe teórie aktivácie noriem), že v takejto situácii je aktivovaná personálna norma, ktorá je výsledkom vlastného rozhodnutia. Túto normu rešpektuje preto, lebo to považuje za potrebné (Ráczová, Babinčák, 2009). V kontexte teórie kognitívnych reprezentácií noriem bol pre účely preskúmania normatívnej regulácie ľudského správania vytvorený model diferenciácie sociálnych a personálnych noriem (IDP), kde injunktívna norma môže byť internalizovaná, a stáva sa tak personálnou normou (Lovaš, 2000).

Nešpor a Csémy prostredníctvom schémy vychádzajúcej z modelu GAM ilustratívne vysvetľujú doterajšie poznatky o zmenách v kognitívnej sfére v dôsledku dlhodobého hrania násilných počítačových hier, ktoré sú aplikovateľné na všetky vekové ročníky. Jedinec v procese dlhodobého hrania preňho zábavných hier prestáva vnímať plnú mieru násilia hier, jeho personálne normatívne presvedčenia ohľadom agresie prechádzajú do polohy akceptovania agresie a odvetnej agresie (čiže sú pronásilnejšie): *Mám právo na agresiu, mám právo na agresiu v prípade napadnutia.* Zároveň sú pronásilné personálne normatívne presvedčenia istou predispozíciou konať agresívne, podobne ako agresivita.

2 METÓDY

2.1 Výskumná vzorka

Z celkového počtu respondentov zúčastnených v prvom a druhom meraní bolo napokon 53 študentov (chlapcov) 3. a 4. ročníkov stredných škôl a prvých ročníkov vysokých škôl v Košiciach. Čo sa týka dievčat – zúčastnilo sa ich nepomerne málo, takže pre prípadné výraznejšie rodové rozdiely sme pracovali len so vzorkou chlapcov. Vekové rozpätie chlapcov bolo od 17 do 21 rokov (X=19,25, SD=1,48). Respondenti sa výskumu zúčastnili dobrovoľne a zber dát prebiehal anonymne.

2.2 Metóda

Skúmanie dlhodobých efektov násilných počítačových hier prebehlo v roku 2012, kedy sme vykonali sériu výskumných analýz, kde sme si vzorku respondentov rozdelili na základe niekoľkých kritérií. V prvej časti sme zisťovali, ako sa v priebehu času menili charakteristiky hrania násilných počítačových hier u respondentov, a to subjektívna miera násilia v hrách, a intenzita hrania, čo sa týka častosti a dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia. V druhej časti sme sledovali, akými spôsobmi v čase dochádza k zmenám v agresivite (zisťovanej klasickým dotazníkom) a normatívnych presvedčeniach (nami zoštylizované výroky) u hráčov, u ktorých sa miera vnímaného násilia v preferovanej počítačovej hre (alebo viacerých hrách) menila. Následne sme zisťovali taktiež tieto zmeny v čase v agresivite a normatívnych presvedčeniach u hráčov, ktorí hrajú intenzívnejšie (týkajúc sa častosti a dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia), a hráčov, ktorí hrajú menej intenzívne. Jednotlivé informácie sme od našich respondentov zisťovali dvakrát, v septembri, a vo februári, tzn. retest sme vykonali 5 mesiacov po prvom testovaní, v oboch prípadoch prostredníctvom nasledujúcich použitých dotazníkov.

2.3 Použitá metodika

Mieru agresivity respondentov sme zisťovali pomocou subjektívnych výpovedí, Bussovho a Perryho dotazníka agresivity. Tento dotazník bol preložený a použitý aj v našich podmienkach. Obsahuje 29 položiek, zo 4 subškál zisťujúcich fyzickú (FA) a verbálnu (VA) agresivitu, zlosť (Z) a hostililu (H). Koeficient reliability alpha pre celý dotazník bol 0,817 (pre jednotlivé subškály: FA= 0,80, VA= 0,56, Z= 0,67, H =0,62).

Normatívne presvedčenia sme zisťovali nami skonštruovaným dotazníkom normatívnych presvedčení, na základe princípov IDP Modelu. Pozostáva zo šiestich základných otázok, ku ktorým je priradená 5-bodová intervalová škála s verbálnym ukotvením „určite nie“ (1), „skôr nie“ (2), „neviem“ (3), „skôr áno“ (4), „určite áno“ (5). Prvé dve otázky sa týkajú injunktívnej normy (smie sa – nesmie sa), pričom jedna vyjadruje fyzickú agresiu, a druhá verbálnu. Druhé dve otázky zisťujú deskriptívnu normu (stáva sa – nestáva sa), fyzická a verbálna. Tretie dve sa pýtajú na personálne normy (mám právo – nemám právo), taktiež ohľadom fyzickej a verbálnej agresie. Týchto šesť otázok sa potom obmení do tvaru smie sa/ stáva sa/ mám právo na odvetnú agresiu (reaktívny agresívny čin). Súbor týchto otázok skúmame na prostredí bežného života, a prostredí počítačovej hry.

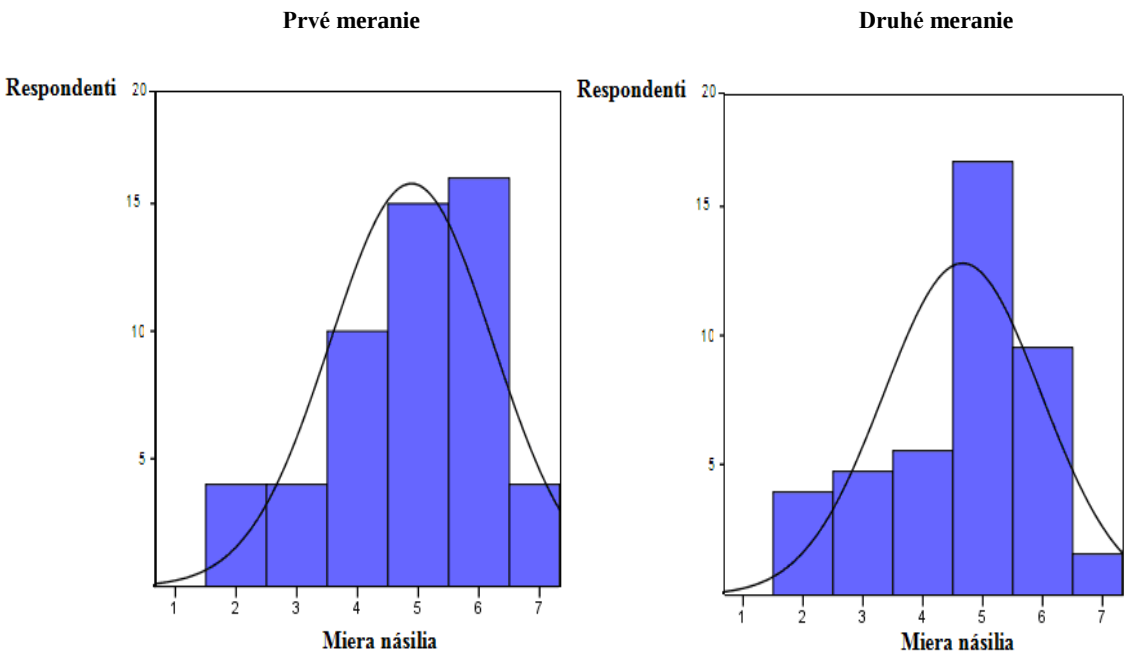
Poslednou použitou metodikou bol nami skonštruovaný dotazník o hraní hier, v rámci ktorého respondenti boli požiadaní o uvedenie demografických údajov (vek, rod), osobnej značky (pre správne doplnenie druhého zberu dát), a dvoch najpreferovanejších počítačových hier. Na nižšie ponúknutej 7-bodovej škále mali určiť, do akej miery podľa nich sú tieto hry násilné (vôbec nie násilné = 1, veľmi násilné = 7). Následne mali z možností vybrať, ako často hrajú najpreferovanejšiu hru, a ako dlho trvá ich jedno hracie sedenie. V prípade posúdenia frekvencie na 5-bodovej posudzovacej škále: takmer vôbec, maximálne raz za mesiac, raz týždenne, maximálne 4-krát v týždni, denne. V prípade posúdenia dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia na 5-bodovej posudzovacej škále: 0 - 30 minút, 30-60 minút, 1-2 hodiny, 2-4 hodiny, viac.

3 VÝSLEDKY

3.1 Miera násilia

Analyzovaním našich údajov sme zistili, že 53 respondentov výskumu hralo počítačové hry v rôznej miere. Respondenti, mali v rámci dotazníka týkajúceho sa hrania počítačových hier opísať dve najpreferovanejšie počítačové hry prostredníctvom subjektívne vnímaného násilia v týchto hrách na 7-bodovej škále so slovným ukotvením (v bode 1 = vôbec nie násilné, 7 = veľmi násilné). 8 respondentov uviedlo v druhom meraní ako najpreferovanejšiu hru tú, ktorú v prvom meraní uviedli ako druhú najpreferovanejšiu. V tomto prípade sme pri zisťovaní miery násilia pri prvom meraní brali do úvahy práve túto druhú najpreferovanejšiu hru. V nasledujúcej tabuľke sú uvedené hodnoty miery násilia v prvom a druhom meraní:

T test pre dva párové výbery ukázal štatisticky významný rozdiel vo vnímanej miere násilia v najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hre, v druhom meraní respondenti uvádzali nižšiu mieru násilia (X=4,66), obr.2, než v prvom meraní (X=4,89), obr.1, kde $p<0,05$ a štatistické kritérium t=2,576, čím sa potvrdila naša hypotéza H1 o tom, že miera násilia u respondentov klesne.



Obr. 1 Vnímanie násilia najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hry pri prvom a druhom meraní

Na základe analyzovania rozdielu miery násilia sme respondentov pre ďalšie zistenia rozdelili na dve skupiny – v jednej sú hráči, ktorí uviedli v reteste nižšiu mieru násilia najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hry, než pri prvom meraní (N=13). V druhej skupine sú hráči, ktorí uviedli rovnakú, alebo vyššiu mieru násilia najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hry (N=43). Respondentov sme takto rozdelili kvôli štatisticky významnému rozdielu vnímania násilia medzi jednotlivými meraniami, a to v prospech poklesu vnímaného násilia v najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hre.

3.2 Intenzita hrania

Intenzitu hrania sme analyzovali na základe odpovedí respondentov na otázky týkajúce sa často hrania a dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia. Čo sa týka rozdielov v častosti hrania, pre prvé meranie X=2,40, pre druhé meranie X= 2,28), v dĺžke jedného hracieho sedenia pre prvé meranie X=2,81, pre druhé meranie X=2,92. T testy pre dva párové výbery však neukázali štatisticky významné rozdiely ani čo sa týka častosti hrania (t = 1,766 a p = 0,083) ani dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia (t = -1,00 a p = 0,322) u najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hry.

Na základe odpovedí respondentov čo sa týka častosti hrania a dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia, čiže intenzity hrania najpreferovanejších násilných počítačových hier, sme rozdelili respondentov na menej intenzívnych (N=28) a intenzívnejších hráčov (N=25) násilných počítačových hier. Medzi menej intenzívnych sme zaradili tých, ktorí uviedli na škále častosti hrania hodnotu 1(vôbec), a zároveň na škále dĺžky jedného sedenia ľubovoľnú hodnotu, a tých, ktorí uviedli na škále častosti 2 (raz za mesiac), a zároveň na škále dĺžky jedného hracieho sedenia hodnoty 1, 2 alebo 3 (čiže hrali maximálne raz za mesiac po dobu maximálne 1-2 hodín).

3.3 Agresivita u celého súboru respondentov

Na základe analýzy párových porovnaní sme zistili, v súlade s teoretickým zázemím, že je rozdiel v miere agresivity u respondentov medzi prvým a druhým meraním. Porovnali sme, ako sa menila agresivita u menej intenzívnych hráčov a u intenzívnejších hráčov, takisto

u celého súboru hráčov. V nasledujúcej tabuľke vidíme, ako rôzne sa menili jednotlivé priemerné skóre v teste agresivity:

Tab. 1 Miera agresivity pri prvom a druhom meraní

	Prvé meranie (mean)	Druhé meranie (mean)	F (Anova)
Agresivita	72,75	77,49	**5,410***
Menej intenzívni hráči (N=28)	74,64	76,18	0,324
Intenzívnejší hráči (N=25)	70,64	78,96	**6,454***

*p<0,05

Čo sa týka agresivity, výsledky ukázali, že celkovo u hráčov došlo k zmene, teda miera agresivity u nich stúpla (v prvom meraní X=72,75, v druhom meraní X=77,49, kde F=5,410 a p<0,05) . Po rozdelení súboru na skupinu menej intenzívnych a intenzívnejších hráčov sa ukázalo, že u menej intenzívnych hráčov miera agresivity signifikantne nestúpla, ale u intenzívnejších hráčov áno. Dosahovali priemerne vyššie skóre v teste agresivity v druhom meraní (X=78,96), než v prvom meraní (X=70,64), kde F=6,454 a p<0,05. Z toho vyplýva, že okrem času je významná aj príslušnosť do skupiny (menej intenzívnych a intenzívnejších hráčov). Výsledky taktiež poukazujú, že interakcia času a skupiny je významná, teda jednotlivé skupiny v priebehu času sa menia rôznymi spôsobmi. U skupiny intenzívnejších hráčov je nárast agresivity výraznejší.

3.4 Zhrnutie zmien normatívnych presvedčení týkajúcich sa agresie v bežnom živote a v prostredí počítačových hier

V celom súbore respondentov, v druhom meraní oproti prvému došlo k zmenám v nasledovných normatívnych presvedčeniach v nežnom živote: deskriptívne normatívne presvedčenie týkajúce sa fyzickej agresie, personálne normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa fyzickej i verbálnej agresie, kde sme u hráčov celého súboru zaznamenali vo všetkých troch prípadoch nárast, a to v zmysle posunu k pronásilnejším odpovediam, čiže vyjadrovali silnejší súhlas s nasledovným: *stáva sa fyzická agresia, mám právo na fyzickú/verbálnu agresiu.* Predpoklad o pronásilnejších normatívnych presvedčeniach sa nám potvrdil pre personálne normatívne presvedčenia.

Pri bližšom pohľade na skupinu intenzívnejšie a menej intenzívne hrajúcich hráčov sa nám potvrdila len zmena u intenzívnejšie hrajúcich respondentov v prípade personálnych verbálnych normatívnych presvedčení, vidíme významný rozdiel, kde stúpli na škále v smere pronásilnejšom. V prostredí počítačových hier u týchto hráčov aj napriek nevýznamným rozdielom u celého súboru sa prejavili rozdiely v deskriptívnych fyzických presvedčeniach, personálnych fyzických verbálnych normatívnych presvedčeniach. U všetkých troch bol tento rozdiel v smere pronásilnejšom. Predpoklad o pronásilnejších presvedčeniach u intenzívnejšie hrajúcich respondentov sa nám potvrdil pre personálne a deskriptívne normy.

U skupiny respondentov, kde klesla vnímaná miera násilia v najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hre došlo k zmene pri deskriptívnych fyzických normatívnych presvedčení, ktorá sa zhoduje so zmenou u celého súboru.

Tab. 2 Zmeny v normatívnych presvedčeniach týkajúcich sa agresie v bežnom živote u celého súboru respondentov (N=53)

Normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa agresie v bežnom živote		Prvé meranie (mean)	Druhé meranie (mean)	F (Anova)
Injunktívne normatívne presvedčenia	Smie sa fyzická	1,54	1,58	1,004
	Smie sa verbálna agresia	2,11	2,08	2,090
Deskriptívne normatívne presvedčenia	Stáva sa fyzická agresia	2,30	2,65	**5,960***
	Stáva sa verbálna agresia	2,99	3,31	1,668
Personálne normatívne presvedčenia	Mám právo na fyzickú agresiu	1,53	1,64	**4,769***
	Mám právo na verbálnu agresiu	2,20	2,62	**9,197***

*p<0,05

Tab. 3 Zmeny v normatívnych presvedčeniach týkajúcich sa agresie v bežnom živote a v prostredí počítačovej hry u jednotlivých skupín v rámci súboru

	Normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa agresie v bežnom živote a v prostredí počítačovej hry		Prvé meranie (mean)	Druhé meranie (mean)	Kritérium
V prostredí počítačovej hry	Personálne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina hráčov, u ktorých neklesla miera vnímaného násilia v hre N=40 *Mám právo na fyzickú agresiu*	3,02	3,62	**t= -2,504***
	Deskriptívne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina intenzívnejšie hrajúcich hráčov N=25 *Stáva sa fyzická agresia*	3,32	4,00	**F=4,668***
	Personálne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina intenzívnejšie hrajúcich hráčov N=25 *Mám právo na verbálnu agresiu*	2,76	3,68	**F=12,138***
V bežnom živote	Deskriptívne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina hráčov, u ktorých klesla miera vnímaného násilia v hre N=13 *Stáva sa fyzická agresia*	2	4	**Z= -2,716***
	Personálne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina menej intenzívne hrajúcich hráčov N=28 *Mám právo na verbálnu agresiu*	1,65	2,35	**t= -2,563***
	Personálne normatívne presvedčenia	skupina menej intenzívne hrajúcich hráčov N=28 *Mám právo na verbálnu agresiu*	1,50	2,43	**F=9,331***

*p<0,05

4 DISKUSIA

Cieľom empirickej časti našej práce bolo preskúmať dlhodobé efekty počítačových hier. V posledných rokoch sa objavilo množstvo výskumov ohľadne týchto efektov, či už pozitívnych alebo negatívnych. Z pozitívnych môžeme spomenúť lepšie priestorové videnie a reakčný čas, z negatívnych sú to rôzne charakteristiky týkajúce sa myšlienok, správania, emócií. My upriamujeme pozornosť práve na „negatívne“ vplyvy, konkrétne vplyv dlhodobého hrania násilných počítačových hier na agresivitu (ako tendenciu k agresii), empatiu (ako predispozíciu k pomáhajúcemu správaniu) a normatívne presvedčenia (ktoré odrážajú kognitívne procesy) týkajúce sa agresie v bežnom živote na jednej strane a počítačových hrách na strane druhej.

V prvom kroku sme zisťovali, ako sa za 5 mesiacov u respondentov zmenili charakteristiky intenzity hrania a miery vnímaného násilia v najpreferovanejšej počítačovej hre. Na fórach ohľadom hier (napr. all in mind, na www.allinmind.com) existujú rebríčky počítačových hier na základe obsahu – násilia, dynamiky, napätia, obtiažnosti, atď., nás však zaujímala práve subjektívna miera vnímaného násilia u respondentov. Vo výpovediach respondentov sa často opakovali niektoré násilné hry a menej násilné hry (napr. Cradle of death, World of Warcraft, GTA, Stronghold, Counter Strike), ktoré hráči označovali rôznou mierou násilia. Intenzita hrania, vyjadrená častosťou hrania a dĺžkou jedného hracieho sedenia sa u respondentov nezmenila štatisticky významne. Vzorku hráčov sme si rozdelili na menej intenzívne hrajúcich a intenzívnejšie hrajúcich. Čo sa týka subjektívnej miery vnímaného násilia, táto štatisticky významne klesla, teda sme skúmanú vzorku rozdelili na tých, u ktorých sa miera násilia v hre nezmenila, a na tých, u ktorých miera násilia v hrách klesla. Pokles miery vnímaného násilia možno pripísať postupnej desenzitizácii, ktorá nastáva u hráčov násilných počítačových hier (napr. podľa modelu GAM).

V ďalšom kroku sme skúmali, ako sa menili, či nemenili agresivita a normatívne presvedčenia u celého súboru respondentov. Naše zistenia zväčša korešpondovali s doterajšími zisteniami rôznych autorov. Agresivita, (meraná dotazníkom Bussa a Perryho, preložený a použitý aj v našich podmienkach), u respondentov významne stúpla, ako tvrdí viacero dlhodobých výskumov hrania počítačových hier, ktoré sledujú nielen agresivitu, ale aj jej prejavovanie v kontexte bežného života (napr. Carnagey, Anderson, Bushman, 2007). Pri pohľade na zmeny v agresivite u skupín respondentov, ktoré sme vytvorili (viac a menej intenzívni hráči, a tí, u ktorých klesla, resp. neklesla miera vnímaného násilia), tiež existujú rozdiely medzi prvým a druhým meraním vo všetkých skupinách respondentov. Navyše, intenzívnejší hráči dosiahli aj v našom výskume väčší prírastok v agresivite, potvrdzujúc hypotézu, že na agresivitu u hráčov vplýva nielen dlhodobé hranie, ale aj samotná intenzita respektíve frekvencia hrania násilných počítačových hier.

Čo sa týka normatívnych presvedčení týkajúcich sa agresie, v našom výskume sa čiastočne potvrdilo, že pod vplyvom dlhodobého hrania sa stávajú pronásilnejšími, a to najmä personálne normatívne presvedčenia týkajúce sa fyzickej agresie v bežnom živote. Tie, ktoré sa vzťahovali k prostrediu počítačovej hry výraznú zmenu v čase nezaznamenali, jedine u hráčov intenzívnejšie hrajúcich. Naše zistenia ohľadom pronásilnejších normatívnych presvedčení s odstupom 5 mesiacov korešpondujú so zisteniami Krahé a Mollerovej (2004) na nemeckej vzorke, kde práve frekvenciu hrania považujú za prediktor akceptácie fyzickej agresie ako normy. Bližšie prevedené, u hráčov boli posilnené presvedčenia: *stáva sa fyzická agresia, mám právo na fyzickú/verbálnu agresiu.* V súhlasnosti s predpokladmi, normatívna akceptácia fyzickej agresie vzrastá ako funkcia vystavovaniu sa násilným médiám. Frekvencia je zároveň dobrým prediktorom akceptácie fyzickej agresie ako normatívum. (Hasan, et al., 2013; Krahé, et al., 2011)

Uvedomujúc si obmedzenia nášho výskumu navrhujeme ďalšie skúmanie danej problematiky dlhodobých vplyvov nielen násilných počítačových hier, ale aj širšie rozptýleného mediálneho násilia. Keďže sme sa zamerali na hráčov násilných hier (bez porovnania s nehráčmi), v našej vzorke bolo len minimum žien (ktoré sa ochotne zúčastnili aj retestu), ktoré sme z obavy skreslenia záverov kvôli rodovým rozdielom hneď vylúčili. Taktiež dlhodobé výskumy majú niekoľko obmedzení, nemožno sa spoliehať na čistý vplyv násilných počítačových hier a nebrať pri tom do úvahy ostatné vplyvy prostredia či antecedentov, vek, rodičovskú kontrolu, konkrétny obsah počítačových hier (keďže aj v našom výskume hráči hrali rôzne hry). Prínos našej práce vidíme práve v doložení výsledkov ďalšieho dlhodobého výskumu týkajúceho sa vplyvu hrania násilných počítačových hier na jednotlivé aspekty osobnosti, správania, ktorých v našich podmienkach pre porovnanie zatiaľ niet.

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MOTIVACE PŘI VÝUCE FYZIKY

MOTIVATION IN TEACHING PHYSICS

Veronika Burdová, Jiří Tesař

Abstrakt

Motivace je jedním ze základních didaktických prostředků výuky. Vzniká na základě složitých vzájemně propojených vazeb mezi potřebami a incentivy. Příspěvek popisuje vybrané motivační výukové techniky, jejichž cílem je vzbuzení zájmu o fyziku a přírodní vědy. Tyto techniky podporují bezděčné využívání znalostí fyziky v běžném životě žáka a pomáhají vytvářet kladný vztah k fyzice. Mezi tyto techniky patří využití krátkých videosekvencí z filmů, nonverbální úlohy, exkurze, ale také humor a další.

Klíčová slova: *motivace, motivační výuková technika, fyzika, žák, výuka*

Abstract

Motivation is one of the basic didactic means of teaching. It is based on complex interrelationships between needs and incentives. The paper describes selected motivational teaching techniques aimed at raising interest in physics and science. These techniques support inadvertent use of physics knowledge in a student's everyday life and help to create a positive relationship to physics. They include the use of short video sequences from films, nonverbal tasks, excursions, but also humor and more.

Key words: motivation, motivational teaching technology, physics, pupil, teaching

1 ÚVOD

Podle mnohých výzkumů upadá zájem žáků o fyziku. Od roku 1995 se počet studentů fyziky na vysokých školách v EU snížil téměř na polovinu [19]. Tento trend se snaží zmírnit mnoho projektů a výzkumů. Motivace jako jeden ze základních kamenů výuky nabízí další možnou cestu, která může hledat odpovědi na otázky: Proč výuka fyziky se stává pro žáky neatraktivní a nezajímavou? Ze závěrů expertní skupiny EU vyplývá, že výuka přírodních věd je pro žáky nezajímavá – bylo zjištěno, že jen 15 % žáků v EU je spokojeno s kvalitou výuky přírodovědných předmětů ve škole a pro téměř 60 % není výuka dostatečně zajímavá [12]. V tomto příspěvku se pokusíme zamyslet nad možností využití motivačních technik, které by mohly pomoci z této krize. Po výzkumu motivace volají i samotní učitelé, kteří kladou otázku: Jak zvýšit zájem žáků o fyziku [5]?

2 STAV V ČR A ZAHRANIČÍ

V naší republice se problematice motivace ve fyzice věnoval Josef Trna, z jehož díla budeme čerpat a mnohé otázky se pokusíme dál rozvinout. Nabízí se využití i šetření TIMMS a PISSA, při kterých žáci vyplňují dotazníky zkoumající zájem o fyziku a další přírodní vědy. Tyto výzkumy ukazují, že se nezájem o studium přírodních věd v ČR prohlubuje. Například v roce 1995 odmítalo přírodovědu 17 % dotázaných žáků ze 4. ročníků ZŠ, ale v roce 2007 ji odmítalo již 28 % dětí. Žáci 8. tříd v roce 1995 odmítali nejvíce shodně fyziku a chemii (17%) a v roce 2007 byla nejvíce odmítaná opět fyzika (27 %), pak matematika (26 %) a s 22 % chemie [12]. Středoškolští žáci odmítají přírodovědné předměty více než žáci základních škol. Například chemii odmítlo ve výzkumu uskutečněném v roce 2008 kolem

50 % žaků [13]. Z výzkumů nejen u nás vyplývá, že fyzika je pro žáky předmět, na který se netěší a v oblíbenosti předmětů u středoškoláků se dostává na předposlední místo před chemii. Tyto výsledky korespondují i s preferencí humanitních vysokých škol před technickými a přírodovědnými školami. Nahlédneme-li do statistik počtu přihlášek na vysoké školy, tak na prvním místě v počtu přihlášek stabilně setrvávají ekonomické a humanitní školy, za nimi můžeme nalézt technické obory, kde je počet přihlášených stabilní. U přírodních věd nastal v počtech přihlášených od roku 2010/2011 obrovský propad, v tomto školním roce bylo na přírodní obory podáno 23 372 přihlášek a ve školním roce 2017/2018 to bylo již jen 17 230 přihlášek [16].
Tento stav není jen v naší republice. Ve studii Secondary school pupils' perceptions of physics. Research in Science & Technological Education, která se zabývala vztahem žáků středních škol k přírodním vědám dopadla fyzika nejhůře i v Anglii. Žáci jí označili za nejméně populární vědu a vědu pro ně nejvíce obtížnou [1]. Naproti tomu ve Skotsku dosahuje fyzika vysoké popularity, zde je fyzika jedním z nejoblíbenějších předmětů. Důvody tohoto jejího postavení můžeme nalézt např. v článku Attitudes towards Physics. Fyzika je v této zemi společností vnímána jako velmi důležitý a pro další kariéru klíčový předmět. Fyzika nesmí být chápána jako předmět pro mimořádně nadané. Jeden z hlavních cílů předmětu je jeho napojení na praxi [17]. Ze studie Teaching physics: Students' attitudes towards different learning activities, která hledala odpověď na otázku, jak zvýšit popularitu fyziky? Ze studie vyplývá, že žáci v hodinách postrádají konstruktivní činnosti, které je vedou k aktivitě a baví je. V hodinách fyziky se považují za pasivní, a proto u nich tento předmět nedosahuje obliby. Činnosti jako jsou frontální pokusy apod. dělají velmi málo a spíše převládá písemná náplň (výklad s řešením příkladů). Výzkumná studie dospívá k závěru, pokud by se podařilo v hodinách zvýšit zapojení samotných žáků, tak by se dostala fyzika z posledních míst v oblíbenosti předmětů výše [15]. V další části našeho příspěvku se pokusíme nastínit motivační výukové techniky, které zapojují samotné žáky více do výuky. Než se dostaneme k těmto metodám, tak se krátce zamyslíme nad motivací.

3 MOTIVACE

Motivaci v nejširším slova smyslu můžeme definovat jako souhrn činitelů, které podněcují, směřují a udržují chování člověka. Tím, že motivace je souhrn činitelů, tak se mnozí učitelé dopouštějí chyby, pokud žáky rovnou označí za nemotivované. Každá motivace žákovského chování má dva zdroje – vnější a vnitřní. Vnitřními zdroji jsou *potřeby*, které determinují vnitřní motivaci. Potřeby označujeme za dispoziční motivační činitele, projevují se pocitem vnitřního nedostatku nebo přebytku. Existují ve složitých vzájemných propojeních a vztazích, jejich základní rozvrstvení ukazuje Maslovova pyramida [11]. Můžeme je rozdělit na primární (potřeby nižšího řádu) a sekundární (potřeby vyššího řádu). Vnějšími zdroji jsou *incentivy* – vnější podněty (jevy, události, názory...). Ty mají schopnost vzbudit a naplnit potřeby jedince. Rozlišujeme pozitivní a negativní. Pozitivní vyvolávají chování směrem k nim a patří sem např. pochvala. Negativní vyvolávají chování směrem od sebe, patří sem např. výsměch, trest. Potřeby a incentivy tvoří velmi úzce propojený vztah. Na základě vzájemné interakce potřeb a odpovídajících incentivů vzniká a vyvíjí se motiv, který determinuje chování žáka. Zde vzniká velká variabilita mezi žáky. Ti mohou jednat jak na základě uspokojování potřeb, tak na základě vnějších incentiv. Například žáka, který jedná na základě poznávací potřeby, může zaujmout ve výuce „ledacos" (např. pokus, problémová úloha aj.) Naopak žáka, který tuto potřebu má rozvinutou slabě, je mnohem složitější zaujmout. Učitel musí používat promyšleně vnější incentivy a snažit se po krocích u něho rozvíjet poznávací potřebu.
Zaměříme-li se na specifika školní motivace k učení, můžeme se na ni podívat ze dvou rovin. V první rovině se prostřednictvím motivace zvyšuje efektivita učení, v druhé rovině dochází k samotnému rozvoji motivačních a autoregulačních dispozic u žáka. V tomto druhém pohledu

škola rozvíjí vůli, zájmy a další motivační a autoregulační dispozice, které žáci využijí v dospělém životě.

Jak vybrat správné motivační techniky?
Tuto otázku nám mohou pomoci vyřešit samotní žáci. Ve výzkumu, který provedl Trna, jim byly nabídnuty různorodé techniky, u kterých byl zkoumán jejich motivační potenciál [19]. Do tohoto výzkumu bylo zapojeno 170 žáků osmých ročníků. Ze závěrů tohoto výzkumu můžeme vybrat tyto činnosti, které dosáhly extrémně kladného hodnocení: Čtení sci-fi a povídek a následně o nich diskutovat s učitelem, práce s počítačem při řešení fyzikálních úloh, návštěvy míst, kde lze vidět využití fyziky v praxi (továrny, výzkumná místa,…), objevovat společně s učitelem fyzikální zákony besedou o fyzikálních dějích, spojeno s pokusy (heuristický rozhovor), vidět neobvyklý fyzikální pokus či kouzlo a pak pomocí učitele hledat jeho fyzikální podstatu, sledování filmů (videopořadů) o fyzikálních jevech. Naopak extrémně záporné hodnocení od žáků získaly tyto činnosti: Obava ze zkoušení nebo písemné práce z fyziky, dělání výpisků o fyzikálních jevech z učebnice, učení se fyzikálních vztahů nazpaměť, písemné práce na příklady.
Nejvyššího kladného skoré dosáhly filmy a sci-fi povídky s následnou besedou s učiteli. V další části příspěvku se zamyslíme nad možným využití vybraných motivačních výukových technik (MVT) při hodině fyziky.

4 VYBRANÉ MOTIVAČNÍ VÝUKOVÉ TECHNIKY (MVT)

4.1 FYZIKA VE FILMU, V NAUČNÝCH POŘADECH A V REKLAMĚ

Tato MVT v sobě skrývá obrovský potenciál. Pro žáky, kteří tráví u televize i několik hodin denně, je tato MVT přirozená součást jejich života. Ve filmech pozorují fyziku bezděčně a pokud se ji naučí ve filmu vidět, tak dochází u nich k přirozenému rozvoji fyzikálního myšlení. Největší předností této metody je její atraktivnost a tím vznikající zájem žáků a studentů o fyzikální rozbor běžných jevů z praxe. Na tuto motivační výukovou techniku se podíváme z více stran. Fyzikální náměty můžeme nalézt nejen v populárně naučných pořadech, ale také například ve známých českých filmech a reklamách. Z každé této oblasti vybíráme do příspěvku jednu ukázku.

Všeobecně známé české filmy
Tento žánr zobrazuje běžný lidský život. Většina českých známých komedií fyzikální zákony respektuje [9]. V těchto pořadech se dá nalézt mnoho fyziky. Jejich videosekvence se dají využít ve fyzice a dokreslit jimi jevy, které se experimentálně ukazují obtížně. Žáky vedou k rozvoji kritického myšlení a fyziku ukazují v běžném životě. Mohou i zajímavým způsobem oživit hodinu, mnohé scénky svou vtipností dokáží zaujmout samy o sobě. Některé scénky se staly notoricky známé a žáci je znají i bez promítání. Tato MVT se díky své atraktivnosti v hodnocení žáků stává nejzajímavější a nejatraktivnější. Z těchto filmů lze pomocí Movie Makeru, který je součástí systému Windows vystřihnout kratičké dvaceti sekundové videosekvence. Po jejich zhlédnutí pak mohou žáci hledat informace k posouzení jejich reálnosti. Tyto informace jsou volně přístupné na internetu a někdy lze všechny potřebné informace vyčíst ze samotných videosekvencí.

VESNIČKO MÁ STŘEDISKOVÁ
„To něco uvidíte, Drápalík si lehl pod kombajn na břicho a chtěl si posvítit baterkou na převody. Vtom na něj Turek nacouval předním kolem, a když jsme na něj volali, máš tam chlapa, tak ho převálcoval ještě jednou cestou nazpátek. Pojďte se podívat, pane doktore, to něco uvidíte.“ Z technických příruček ke kombajnu a informací ze samotné videosekvence lze určit výsledný tlak kombajnu na Drápalíka. Jeho hodnota vychází 0,46 MPa. Člověk je

schopen vydržet tlak o hodnotě 0,8 MPa. Drápalík by přejetí kombajnem přežil. Jsou známé příklady, při kterých člověka kombajn přejel bez zdravotních následků. Druhá fyzikální myšlenka, kterou jsme se zabývali, je jak velkou silou by musel kombajn působit, aby Drápalíka zatlačil 20 cm do pole (viz sekvence). K ověření této fyzikální myšlenky jsme udělali fyzikální experiment přímo na poli pomocí traktoru. Z výsledného porovnání vychází, že hodnota velikosti síly by musela být dvojnásobná, než je kombajn schopen vyvinout [2].

Naučné pořady

Druhá MVT je mezi žáky velmi oblíbená. Na dokumenty se doma dívá více jak 50 % procent žáků. Vzbudit zájem o tyto pořady může i následná diskuze žáků s vyučujícím, kdy tato činnost získala také extrémně kladného hodnocení. V dnešní době vzniká mnoho pořadů s fyzikální a technickou tématikou. Jsou natočené tak, aby diváka zaujaly a vtáhly do děje. Kromě populárně naučných pořadů se dnes objevují i show s fyzikální tématikou např. Zázraky přírody.

Na ukázku této MVT uvádíme pořad Já budu Einsteinem, který natočila Česká televize. Zábavná vědecká show plná experimentů a překvapivých poznání. Matěj, Tonda, Stázka a profesor Tomáš Tyc odhalují svět fyziky díky zajímavým pokusům. Všechny díly se dají zhlédnout na internetu. Celá série obsahuje 25 dílů ze všech částí fyziky. Pořad je vhodný pro žáky druhého stupně ZŠ. Každý díl má ústřední fyzikální myšlenku, které se týkají i pokusy. Při svých objevných výpravách děti objevily záhadnou laboratoř s panem profesorem, který jim vysvětluje jejich zvídavé otázky. V pořadu se také objevují různí fyzici z minulosti, kteří hlavní hrdiny seznamují se svými objevy a vynálezy [6]. Nahlédneme-li do konkrétního dílu Fyzika v kuchyni, zjistí diváci odpovědi na následující otázky. Jak se dá ohřívat polévka pomocí gramofonu a vznik odstředivé síly? Jak vzniká vodorovná hladina? Jak se dá poznat, zda je vajíčko vařené nebo syrové, aniž by se muselo rozbít? Jak lze při roztočení postavit vařené vajíčko na špičku? Na jakém principu funguje mikrovlnná trouba? Celý díl vrcholí zajímavými pokusy v mikrovlnné troubě od rozsvícení prasklé žárovky až po vypalování CD, viz obr. č 3.

Televizní reklama

Reklama se v dnešní době snaží ovlivňovat stále více žáky ZŠ. Děti jsou pro inzerenty ideálními partnery. Toto tvrzení potvrzuje výzkum z Norimberku [3]. Z jeho závěrů vyplývá, že 82 % rodičů klade při koupi nového vozu velký důraz na rady svých dětí. Ti si ale často vůbec neuvědomují manipulativní snahy reklamního sdělení a nepřemýšlejí nad reálností obsahu reklamy, které nabádají k nákupu propagovaného zboží. Naši žáci jsou velmi častými příjemci televizního vysílání, a tedy i televizních reklam, které mohou ovlivnit jejich rozhodovací procesy. Ve fyzikálním rozboru televizních reklam je možné ukázat fyzikální nesmyslnost některých reklam. Žáky dovést k zamyšlení nad jejich fyzikální reálností, podpořit v nich vývoj kritického myšlení.

Pom – Bar

Hlavní myšlenka reklamy spočívá ve využití zákona setrvačnosti při snaze získat brambůrky. Díky sešlápnuté brzdě vletí brambůrky zezadu přímo k mamince. Se žáky se dá rozebírat i nutnost připoutání a další bezpečnostní prvky v autě. Na obrázku je vidět ukázka pracovního listu k této reklamě. Úvodní obrázek je vystřižen z videosekvence a vystihuje fyzikální podstatu dané reklamy. V další části se žáci zamýšlí nad fyzikálním jevem, který jim pomůže posoudit reálnost dané reklamy, na kterou jsou tázáni v úkolu. V posouzení fyzikální reálnosti jim pomáhají návodné otázky, které rozvíjí jejich fyzikální myšlení [3].

4.2 DALŠÍ VYBRANÉ MOTIVAČNÍ VÝUKOVÉ TECHNIKY

Nonverbální úlohy

Řešení úloh je jednou ze základních činností při hodinách fyziky. Patří mezi základní výukové metody. V hodnocení žáků, ze kterého vycházíme, ale získalo extrémně zápornou hodnotu. Možná příčina se může nacházet ve způsobu zadávání úloh. Žáci dostávají často hodnoty, které jsou pro ně odtržené od reality a většinou provedou pouhé dosazení do fyzikálních vzorců. Ve většině úloh se nevyskytují konkrétní předměty (osoby), ale abstraktní pojmy jako např. hmotný bod apod. Chybí motivační prvek, který by žáky vtáhl do řešení dané úlohy. Tuto nevýhodu může kompenzovat zadání úlohy neverbální cestou například pomocí obrázku, videosekvence apod. „Námět takovýchto úloh musí v žácích vyvolávat pozitivní vztah, musí je něčím zaujmout, např. časovou nebo lokální aktualizací, případně i tím, že se jedná o skrytý problém.“ [18] Jako příklad uvádíme nonverbální úlohu z tematického celku elektřina [18].

Žáci dostanou úlohu zadanou pomocí obrázku a na základě své vlastní zkušenosti a znalostí z daného tematického celku rozebírají daný fyzikální jev. V našem příkladu, zda je možné zapojit současně rychlovarnou konvici s mixérem. Na štítku u konvice se nachází dvě hodnoty příkonu. Při zapnutí konvice počítáme s vyšší hodnotou, protože topná spirála v konvice je chladná a má nižší odpor. Odpor roste se zvyšující teplotou. Při zapnutí má konvice maximální příkon. Vypočteme-li hodnotu procházejícího proudu, tak vychází hodnota vyšší než 10 A, dojde k přetížení a jistič vypne. Žáci mohou u této úlohy vymýšlet různé další kombinace domácích spotřebičů. U konvice by mohli určit i kolik stojí zbytečné ohřívání konvice plné vody na jeden hrneček čaje. Nonverbální úlohy mohou být zvoleny z různých tematických celků a s návrhy mohou přijít i samotní žáci.

Netradiční úlohy

Tato MVT úzce souvisí s předcházející MVT. Cílem těchto úloh je zaujmout a vzbudit zájem o danou úlohu. Zadání těchto úloh vychází ze životní zkušenosti žáků a řeší situace jejich běžného života. V době výpočetní techniky se nabízí tyto úlohy připravit v programu PowerPoint, kde mohou být jednotlivé části zanimovány a rozkrokovány. Žáci se mohou při řešení úlohy k jednotlivým částem vracet. Jako příklad vybíráme příklad úlohu na skok do vody.

Může Vás zabít placák?

Úkolem v žáků při řešení této úlohy je určení rychlosti dopadu při skoku z výšky 25 m a zamyšlení se nad rozdílem skoku typu „placák“ a „šipka“. Při řešení využijí zákon zachování mechanické energie. Skokan má na začátku potenciální energii, která se přeměňuje v energii kinetickou. Z této analýzy určí rychlost skokana těsně před dopadem. V druhém úkolu se studenti zamýšlí nad stylem skoku. Skokanovi radí, zda si má vybrat „šipku“ anebo „placák“. Při tomto posouzení vycházejí z Newtonova vztahu pro odporovou sílu. V této části provádí kvalitativní rozbor daného vztahu. Výška skoku je 25 metrů, podle Asociace pro skoky je to jedna z posledních bezpečných výšek. Dopadová rychlost skokana vychází $79{,}73\ km \cdot h^{-1}$ a pokud by zvolil „placáka“, tak by tento skok s největší pravděpodobností nepřežil [4].

Jako zajímavost lze ukázat následky placáku z dané výšky – při experimentu bylo použito prase z jatek. V další zajímavosti mají žáci shrnout záchranu tonoucího, natočenou hasiči. Úvodní video ukazuje skok do mělké vody, žáky vede k zamyšlení nebezpečí takového počínání. V roce 2016 zahynulo v ČR 181 osob následkem skoku, nebo utonutí ve vodě.

Myšlenkové mapy

Myšlenkové neboli pojmové mapy vychází z kognitivní psychologie. Techniku pojmového mapování vyvinul a jeho vývojovým týmem na Cornell University v 70. letech 20. století

jako prostředek k usnadnění získávání vědeckých poznatků svými studenty. Cílem této MVT je smysluplné učení nových pojmů. Pokud má žák vizuální představu zasazenou do pojmové struktury vzájemně propojených pojmů, osvojuje si podle Novaka dané učivo snáze [14].
Pojmová mapa ukazuje vazby mezi jednotlivými pojmy, které spolu souvisí. Tyto vazby znázorňují spojnice, které dané pojmy vzájemně propojují. Pojmová mapa je diagram vzájemně propojených pojmů. Myšlenková mapa usnadňuje pochopení provázanosti jednotlivých komponentů dané mapy. Existuje několik základních typů – pavoukové, hierarchické, systémové, postupné ad. Myšlenkové mapy mohou mít různou podobu a náročnost. Mohou být úplné anebo neúplné. Využití těchto map nese v sobě tvárnost a kreativitu. Na ukázku vybíráme pojmovou mapu na pojem „gravitace“. Jedná se o úplnou pojmovou mapu, jejímž cílem je shrnutí poznatků o gravitaci. Pojem gravitace je centrálním pojmem a všechny spojnice z něho vychází. Mapa ukazuje celou poznatkovou strukturu, kterou by si žák ZŠ měl o gravitaci zapamatovat.

Humor ve fyzice

Humor je součástí našeho života, pokud vyučující dokáže do své hodiny vnést „špetku humoru“ stává se předmět pro samotné žáky přitažlivější. Humor působí v hodině relaxačně a emočně zabarvuje probírané učivo, v žácích může vyvolat poznávací potřebu. Jako ukázku uvádíme fyzikální hodinu Járy Cimrmana z tematického celku Optika. Nejprve ukazuje základní pojmy optiky světlo a tmu: Zhasnout, prosím!“ (V sále se zhasne, Weigel rozsvítí svíčku.) „Toto je světlo.“ (Weigel svíčku sfoukne.) „Toto je tma. Světlo, prosím!“ (V sále se rozsvítí.) Po této názorné ukázce vysvětluje základní pojmy z akustiky – ticho a zvuk. A teď základní pojmy akustiky. Prosím o naprosté ticho. Ještě není ticho. „Toto je ticho“ a (zazvoní zvonečkem) „toto je zvuk.“ „A nyní si ukážeme jeden pokus.“ Po zavedení základních pojmů z optiky a akustiky – přechází k důkazu, že světlo je rychlejší než zvuk. Tento důkaz provádí se svými kolegy. „Kolegové budou tak laskaví a pomohou mi.“ (Čepelka vezme zvonek, Svěrák zapálí svíčku. Weigel tleskne a oba, svítíce a zvoníce, vyrazí z jednoho kouta jeviště na druhý. Svěrák je v cíli dřív.) „Viděli jste Cimrmanův názorný důkaz, že světlo je rychlejší než zvuk.“ Dále demonstruje jeden ze základních zákonů optiky – zákon lomu. (Weigel rozsvítí svíčku a upustí ji na katedru. Svíčka se přelomí v půli.) „Kdo se trochu vyzná v optice, tomu je smysl pokusu zřejmý: světlo (ukáže zlomenou svíci) se při dopadu láme.“ Tato scénka humorným způsobem shrnuje základní fyzikální znalosti o světle a zvuku. Na internetu se dají nalézt i další vtipné scénky. V této MVT se dá využít i humorných situací se života fyziků. Jako ukázku volíme příběh z přednášek lorda Kelvina [19].

Chybná trefa

„Lord Kelvin prováděl tradičně při svých přednáškách pokus, při němž střílel na veliké balistické kyvadlo. Pušku nabíjel značnou dávkou prachu. Kalibr byl veliký, asi půl coule. Studenti to považovali za vrcholný okamžik kursu. Jednou střelil chybně a to tak, že kulka proletěla zdí a tabulí ve vedlejší posluchárně. Když tam velmi znepokojený Kelvin vběhl, našel docenta u tabule nezraněného. Studenti však volali: „Chybná trefa – zkuste to ještě jednou, Bille!“ [19].

Hra na schovávanou

Existuje i velká řada fyzikálních vtipů, na kterých je zároveň vidět, zda žáci danou látku pochopili. Na ukázku vybíráme vtip ze hry na schovávanou, kterou hrají Blaise Pascal, Issac Newton a Archimedes ze Syrakus. Fyzikální myšlenka vtipu spočívá v definici jednotky pascal, kterou znázorňuje obrázek č.9. Pascal a Newton hrají na schovávanou. Archimedes piká. Pascal se rozhlédne a hbitě se schová do křoví. Newton vezme klacek, v zemi okolo sebe nakreslí čtverec metr krát metr a postaví se do něj. Nijak se neschovává. Archimedes

dopiká, rozhlíží se kolem sebe. Samozřejmě, že ihned vidí Newtona a volá "Deset dvacet Newton!" Newton v klidu řekne: "Tak se teda pěkně pleteš! Jeden Newton na metr čtvereční je přece pascal!"

Science centra a exkurze

Tato motivační MVT se ve školách využívá velmi zřídka, i když je její motivační potenciál velmi vysoký. Dnes se exkurze do našich škol začínají vracet díky Science centrům, která začala vznikat na přelomu 70. let minulého století. Hlavním úkolem tohoto místa se stává neformální vzdělávání, které se primárně zaměřuje na cílenou popularizaci vědy a techniky. Důraz je v něm kladen zejména na interaktivitu a učení se formou hry a samostatného objevování vědy a techniky prostřednictvím osobní zkušenosti. V naší republice bylo první Science centrum otevřeno v Liberci v roce 2005. Na mnohých školách se tyto exkurze dají naplánovat v rámci projektových dnů, které v dnešní době má téměř každá škola. V centrech se dá domluvit doprovodný program, nebo si vyučující může pro žáky připravit pracovní listy, myšlenkové mapy apod. Mnohá centra nabízejí pro školy zpracované pracovní listy k daným expozicím. Jako ukázku uvádíme návrh třídenního projektu Vesmírná odysea. V prvním dnu se žáci seznámí se zajímavostmi a základními informacemi z Vesmíru, tento program se odehrává v planetáriu IQ Landia v Liberci, kde v simulaci projdou celou noční oblohu a naučí se v ní orientovat. Poté se v „laborkách“ Science centra účastní připraveného programu Astrofyzika. Druhý den si znalost noční oblohy prakticky vyzkouší při pozorování noční oblohy na Ještědu. Během dne mohou pozorovat sluneční skvrny. Třetí den se opět vracejí do IQ Landie na domluvený program o dobývání Vesmíru, zkusí se pohybovat v simulátoru vesmírného vozítka a projdou si celou expozici Vesmír, ve zbylém času celé Science centrum.

Jednoduchý fyzikální experiment

I když tuto MVT uvádíme v našem příspěvku jako poslední, tak hraje nezastupitelnou roli ve vytváření poznávací potřeby u žáků. V dnešní době, kdy se snižuje časová dotace na výuku fyziky, se tento negativní vliv projevuje absencí experimentů ve výuce. Můžeme položit otázku: „Nepřispívá tento fakt k negativnímu postoji žáků k výuce fyziky?“ Z výzkumů zmíněných výše vyplývá, že žáci chtějí v hodinách experimentovat a být aktivními tvůrci dané hodiny [1,10]. Tato MVT se stává incentivou, která aktivizuje poznávací potřebu. Jako příklad uvádíme mezi žáky velmi oblíbený jednoduchý experiment se sklenicí vodou a kouskem papíru a silonovou punčochou. Na skleničku plnou vody umístíme papír a otočíme jím dnem vzhůru, po odebrání papíru voda překvapivě nevyteče, důvodem tohoto chování je blána na silonové punčoše vzniklá v důsledku povrchového napětí vody. Punčocha při demonstračním provedení pokusu není vidět a žákům tento experiment připomíná fyzikální kouzlo.

5 ZÁVĚR

Cílem našeho příspěvku bylo ukázat vybrané motivační techniky a jejich konkrétní využití při výuce fyziky. V příspěvku jsme nevyčerpali všechny MVT, ale snažili jsme se zvolit ty, které považujeme pro učitele za snadno dostupné, popř. jinak zajímavé. Cílem těchto technik je snaha zvrátit negativní vztah žáků a studentů k fyzice a přírodním vědám. Tyto techniky kladou vysoký důraz na motivační prvek a vytvářejí pozitivní vztah k danému předmětu. Jejich cílem je vzbudit u žáků na základě incentivy poznávací potřebu a její následné uspokojení. Uvedené MVT mohou vhodně doplňovat výuku fyziky a ukazovat její propojení s každodenní zkušeností žáka.

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COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE - A TOOL FOR INCREASING THE COMPETITIVENESS OF A BUSINESS

Magdaléna Cárachová

Abstract

The need for competitive intelligence ensues from a constant and ongoing change in the competitive environment and from the ever-increasing amount and variety of information that affects business activities. Currently, CI (Competitive Intelligence) is essential for all businesses. For large companies, it is important because the business environment is changing and their role is to adapt to maintain their position. For small businesses, CI is also important because they have to make use of the ever-changing market gaps and are in constant danger from medium and large companies. Knowledge as a result of competition news is what differentiates competitors, similar products or services. In this context, the article points out the importance of CI.

Key words: *Competitive Intelligence, competitiveness, offensive CI, defensive CI, lobbying CI, search engines, meta-search engines, invisible web, social networks and CI.*

INTRODUCTION

Currently, it is increasingly challenging for a business to have competitive abilities in the market environment. Businesses continuously need to obtain information and analyze it in order to carry out strategic decisions. Proper decision-making on business management is decisively influenced by a sufficient amount of timely and relevant information. For the successful development and implementation of the operational but mainly strategic goals of the company and for the implementation of significant business projects it is necessary to know the objectives of the competition in advance and to face them successfully. Today all businesses, small and large, have access to mainly the same information. A business that will be one step ahead of others will be one that can transform this information into actionable knowledge. In a determined period of time, businesses have started collecting large amounts of data and information that often lost meaning and was unclear to such an extent. For this reason, it is important for companies to establish and use a system that ensures the transformation of information into knowledge. This process can also be implemented through Competitive Intelligence. Businesses are increasingly aware of the need for timely and mainly reliable information on the surroundings in which they are doing business and about the future intentions of their competitors. Due to this monitoring and analysis, or obtaining information about competitors is one of the key activities of each business. A business not involved in monitoring competing businesses has a relatively small chance of surviving in a competitive environment. By monitoring competition, various ideas can be obtained in terms of improving the offered products or services, thus heading off the competition. Moreover, obtaining information on the competition is necessary for companies that have not yet started doing business and plan to enter the market.

1 COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE

The Internet has become an integral part of our lives in every area of activity. With the launch of Web 2.0, its volume has started to grow exponentially, thanks to the creation of its own users. These conditions are ideal for the emergence of new companies, which can be established at a substantially higher rate, without the need for brick-and-mortar shops and the possibility of international activity. The possibilities offered by social networks can influence

the development of the company in both positive and negative terms. In this dynamic environment, it is a must for every business to monitor the interests of both current and potential customers, to know their competitors and actively seek ways of becoming better. Competitive Intelligence is a set of activities like defining, collecting, analyzing, as well as distributing information and knowledge about customers, competitors, and other aspects of the external environment in which the company is located. These activities are performed with the purpose of achieving a competitive position, reducing the risk of threats from the environment and mapping out possible opportunities. In the case of CI, there is an entire range of methods and practices dependent on information and communication technologies, methods of knowledge management, management theory and psychology that help to gain and maintain a competitive advantage.

The professional literature provides several definitions of CI.

SCIP (Society of Competitive Intelligence Professionals) describes CI as a "systematic and ethical program for the collection, analysis and management of external information that can influence company activities, plans and decisions. In other words, it is a way of increasing our competitiveness on the market through a higher level of understanding our competitors and the entire competitive environment." [1] Gartner defines Competitive Intelligence as market analysis with the aim of understanding the current situation, foreseeing future events and applying this knowledge in favor of its own business. At the same time, Gartner divides the objectives of this practice into two categories. The first category is offensive targets, including the location of the company at the forefront of the market, the planning of the process for maintaining and improving this position and the further allocation of resources. The second category is defensive targets, which include knowledge of the current market situation, possible developments of the situation, and the planning of responses to these events. [4]

Leonard Fuld is one of the most significant figures in Compatible Intelligence, defining it in the subsequent points:

- "Information that has been analyzed in order to make a decision based on it.
- An early warning tool that alerts management to possible threats and opportunities.
- A tool for providing rational evaluations.
- A method of companies possibly improving their profits.
- The way of the company's life, continuous process.
- A natural part of all successful and significant companies.
- An activity that is performed on a hierarchical basis.
- Allows a company to see what is happening inside it.
- A long and short-term process." [3]

Currently there is not only one definition of CI. There are many definitions that say what Competitive Intelligence, but all lead to the same conclusion. Most definitions are identical in the following points:

- Competitive Intelligence is a systematic, ethical and legal activity (different to spying).
- The purpose of Competitive Intelligence is to increase the competitiveness of the business and maintain a competitive advantage.
- The essence of Competitive Intelligence is to define, collect, analyze and distribute information and knowledge that makes it possible to carry out the right decisions at a strategic and tactical level.
- Competitive Intelligence mainly focuses on the external environment in which the company is located.
- The primary advantage of using Competitive Intelligence is to acquire a large amount of timely and relevant information that can help to make the right decisions.

If we look at the definition of CI in terms of its function within a company, CI is responsible for the timely identification of risks and market opportunities before they become clear. Experts call this process “early signal analysis”.
The main role of CI is to help a company identify the benefits and successes of competitors, which they could apply in their own company. On the other hand, CI helps a company to understand and identify the disadvantages and mistakes of the competition, thus enabling the company to learn from them. With the help of the publicly available resources that have been collected and subsequently analyzed, it is possible to foresee possible market changes and the steps of the competition. Based on the observations of competition and the external environment, CI can warn about the use of obsolete business management practices, pointing to its weak sides.
As aforementioned, Competitive Intelligence represents a systematic, legal and ethical process of aggregating, identifying, monitoring, analyzing and organizing information about the business environment and competing companies analyzed to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the competition and to recognize their strategic goals, which will enable companies to make the right strategic decision on their own. In today’s competitive environment, Competitive Intelligence has become an integral part of management.

1.1 Classification of CI in terms of the operating environment

If we talk about CI in general, we usually mean offensive CI. In addition to this type, there is defensive CI. And the last type is impact CI. It depends on the business which CI it will use. The business usually decides according to its position on the market.

1.1.1 Offensive CI

Offensive CI mainly focuses on the environment of the business. The effort is to obtain timely information on possible opportunities and threats from the environment of the business. It is about collecting information about the market and competition. The essence of active competitive intelligence is the use of intelligence procedures, methods and means to uncover the strategy and know-how of competing companies and their subsequent use for the needs and to obtain a competitive advantage for their own company. The company management can use the information coming from this type of intelligence activity to implement measures against the competition, to protect their own interests and goals. In offensive intelligence, it is important to precisely specify the area of interest so that operative workers can focus on searching for relevant information In offensive competitive intelligence, it is very important to follow ethical and legal principles to avoid possible illegal behavior, because a numerous methods that are convenient and suitable for competitive espionage are in conflict with the law. The offensive concept of competitive intelligence means the creation of intelligence activities, whether the initiative to influence the market with the purpose of achieving the company’s goals, aspirations and intentions, so that competing companies are forced into activities that do not allow them to achieve their goals and intentions, which could threaten the activities of the company. The goal of active competitive intelligence is to reduce the level of uncertainty level for a given decision, reduce the number of variants, and so achieve the more efficient expending of usable resources to implement only the most advantageous variants.

1.1.2 Defensive CI

Defensive Competitive Counter Intelligence has the task of protecting its own data in order to prevent the company from disclosing and thus losing its competitive advantage. This status is primarily achieved by collecting information for the purpose of the timely disclosure of competitive activities. In the case of illegal activity, it is the task of the company to collect

evidence for success in legal proceedings. In terms of legal information, defensive intelligence seeks to protect strategic business information from attempts to obtain it by competitors. Information is currently the most valuable asset, and the loss of know-how can practically lead to bankruptcy. In this area of intelligence there are usually no problems. It is self-help, entirely legitimate and the legitimate protection of our own economic interests [7].
There are three basic defensive intelligence activities [8]:

- Protection of data, information, computer and communication systems. The purpose is not only to protect secret information, but to prevent the generation of signals referring to this information. This activity is essentially Competitive Intelligence - the opposite of collecting indices about the competition and the early warning system in offensive intelligence.
- Protection against impact intelligence by competitors is designed to detect and neutralize all offensive efforts by the competition. Disinformation is a frequently used and effective method.
- Physical security of the company - classic security of gates, entrances, offices, buildings.

The main task of defensive CI is to protect the information and business interests that are part of business secrets. This is the prevention of theft of sensitive data. It focuses on offensive CI attacks by competing businesses. Employees play an important role, who should be trained and aware of which information is sensitive for the business. It is important to be familiar with the technique and procedures used by competitors for high-quality defensive CI. Employees should be in tune to the thinking of competitors most likely to have an IC department, with the goal of seeking information important to our business.

1.1.3 Lobbying CI

The goal of this type of CI is to influence the intentions and measures of competing companies. Each piece of information without justification is meaningless and thus it is important for the company to build up a network of information flows, processing systems, procedures and rules so that the used information has an influencing function. Lobbying Competitive Intelligence is a set of methods, activities, and forms whose goal is a form of influence, pressure, disinformation, as well as simple persuasion and the presentation of information to achieve a favorable situation and conditions for the decision of business subjects. It is the company's own communication to obtain the exact intentions of people, companies, etc. and, possibly influencing the intentions of these individuals and companies for the benefit of the client. This activity is performed by presentationally sound people who have the talent to influence a person in a very short time. Mainly the methods of persuasion and argumentation, demonstration methods and disinformation are used. The most influential instrument of lobbying intelligence is, mainly the public and private media close to the company's intent.

1.2 Classification of CI according to focus

Segmentation according to focus uses the nomenclature based on the area supported in the business. The borders of this segmentation are not precisely defined, and individual procedures may overlap one another. It is possible to classify the following groups: [9]

- Strategic Competitive Intelligence – collecting a lot of relevant information to enable the long-term competitive strategies, plans, and the mission direction of the business. It tries to predict future developments. It serves for risk assessment, venture capital planning, mergers, acquisitions, long-term research, development, and decision-making on differentiating products from competitors.

- Tactical Competitive Intelligence – helps plan and decide at a lower level of management, at the level of situations and decisions of a short-term nature. It mostly addresses current situations, their impact on the business, and the required response to them. The focus is on the company's operation, sales, pricing, advertising, marketing, and so on. The emergent plans are more accurate because they are created with less uncertainty than with strategic planning.
- Competitor Competitive Intelligence – focuses on collecting information only about the nearest competition, not about the entire market, its current activities, as well as plans for the future. It also seeks potential competition among new companies. Obtaining information is conducted through, for example, the monitoring of current offer and campaigns of companies and their success.
- Customer Competitive Intelligence – focuses on current and potential future customers, examining the levels of product price, promotions and their effectiveness, and thus supporting marketing planning, or provides retrospective data on successes and errors, e.g. product introduction. Partially overlaps with CRM (Customer Relationship Management).
- Market Competitive Intelligence – focuses on the current market environment. The effort is to obtain information on new trends and market innovations, their size and changes over time. It can help determine future market development and, as a result, possible threats and opportunities.
- Partner Competitive Intelligence – an often underestimated but not less important category. It tries to maintain long-term positive relationships with business partners and the public sector. A part of it is to obtain information about the supplier's negotiating power.
- Technical/Technological Competitive Intelligence – supports the creation of strategies in the area of the research and development of technologies. It allows adapting and keeping up with the latest trends and innovations at the competition's and keeps pace with their development or overtake them. These days technologies are a key means of gaining an advantage over the competition.
- Financial Competitive Intelligence – focuses on finance, monitoring and analysis. Evaluates the situation of competing objects.
- Other types of Competitive Intelligence – there are also other specialized types of Competitive Intelligence such as Country Competitive Intelligence, Talent Competitive Intelligence, Military Competitive Intelligence, and others that specifically target the area expressed directly by their name.

2 DATA SOURCES FOR COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE

A company that does not have a continuous view of what is happening in its environment runs the risk of losing track of current trends, stopping the production of products that are of interest to customers, or simply losing out to other companies. As already noted, competitive intelligence is a necessity for every business. Of course, this requires access to information. It is important to know where to search for it, how to obtain and use this information.

2.1.1 Typology of information sources

There are several classification of information sources. The most well-known division is a distributing into primary and secondary resources. In the case of primary sources, these are pure, unprocessed information. This includes personal information, questionnaires, interviews, information from clients, business partners and competitors. This also includes the websites of competitors or their electronic newsletters. From this information it is possible to obtain relevant information to an extent that is not normally available. These are the

foundations of success for good relationships with customers, suppliers and business partners. [9]
Secondary sources include commonly available information. These are all available websites on the Internet, search engine content, social networking posts, publications, magazines, statistics, presentations, studies, and much more. The disadvantage is that these data may not always be relevant or true and should be thoroughly checked at the information processing stage. [9] Secondary sources conceal a major potential in their quantity. These days a number of reviews, social networking articles, and an incredible amount of sites are appearing on the Internet, from which current trends and the development of competition can be monitored. These offer a new opportunity of monitoring online events and should not discourage companies from doing so, in terms of the possibilities of processing through Big Data tools.
Another criteria for sharing information may be their availability. According to this criteria, we know the published resources that are commonly available, publicly disseminated without any limitations. These resources are prone to misleading information and should thus always be verified from multiple sources. The second type are sources that have been half-published, which are not available in the traditional manner, but can be made available upon request, whether out of statutory duty or subject to certain conditions. These documents, unless they are falsified, contain true information. These include, for example, annual reports, research and technical reports, institutional analyzes, conference materials, prospectuses, etc. The last type is unpublished information not normally available because it is from closed sources or has never been published. These documents may even be subject to state, business or medical secrets. [9]

2.1.2 Search Engines

There are currently hundreds of tools for searching for information on the Internet, which may be of a general as well as professional nature, depending on the information sources or topics. Many Internet search engines provide a wide range of advanced methods and features that can be used for long-term data collection and monitoring of information resources. The Google search engine is most often used to search for information. The Google search engine provides an entire range of advanced features and useful applications for CI, while many of these applications are steadily growing.
The following applications are particularly important for achieving CI objectives:

- Google Alerts – a tool used to regularly monitor messages. It is enough to enter the correct keywords to systematically save messages to certain e-mailboxes.
- Google Insight – an application that can help you obtain detailed statistical results for a specific term sought-after on the Internet. The results of statistics can be limited to the selection of data according to a certain category, time period or geographical layout.
- Google Trend – a service that demonstrates an increase in the number of searches for a specific keyword. It also provides information on what is causing this increase.
- Google Analytics – a tool owned by Google that obtains statistics about its users.
- The www.alexa.com server is of great importance to competitive intelligence, exactly because it provides various statistics regarding the traffic of the competition's website.

2.1.3 Metasearch engine

Metasearch engines are a superstructure of classic search engines and remove their disadvantage through the different indexing methods/ Metasearch engines provide more comprehensive services than the search engines themselves. The user request is simultaneously entered for several search engines. The user obtains more results and can

compare outputs produced by individual search engines. The results are divided according to type of media, source, and keywords. [9]
The principle of functioning is similar to search engines based on three components - the dissemination mechanism, the interface agent and the display mechanism. The dissemination mechanism determines the search systems to which the request will be sent. The interface agent establishes a connection to this system and converts the request of the user into the format used by the search engine. The display mechanism removes duplicate links, arranges them according to relevancy, and translates the results into an user-friendly format and sends them for display. [5]
In terms of Competitive Intelligence, metasearch engines are mainly suitable for the following:

- finding the lowest price of goods,
- monitoring price statistics for certain goods,
- finding the utility value of goods,
- tracking of packages,
- monitoring of business opportunities,
- monitoring of changes in the offer of goods through an online store,
- monitoring changes in the websites of business partners and websites,
- monitoring the inability of companies.

2.1.4 Monitoring of websites

The goal of competitive intelligence is to obtain information on the competition, new trends and products in a given area of business in a timely manner. Websites are one source of such information. The monitoring of a website monitors changes to the websites of business partners and competitors. It also allows you to track the occurrence of a specific chosen term on the Internet. There are tools that will alert the user to the changes after their monitoring. Website monitoring is particularly useful for a large number of business partners or competitors.

2.1.5 Invisible website

An invisible website is anything that is not a surface website, and because of this it is not possible to access information using common search tools. When searching for information on the Internet, search engines are mostly used, but the problem is the absence of their validity. It is often necessary to verify their relevance through other sources. Moreover, it is possible to collect information from different data centers and commercial, factographic and bibliographic databases, which vary according to their focus - scientific, medical and educational. Access to them is often for a fee. Information from these sources is considered valid. These resources are referred to as a surface website.
The reasons for invisibility are the following:

- There is no link to that page from another website and these pages do not contain any backlinks. Robot programs cannot find it and cannot index it.
- The website manager does not allow robots to index content. In this case, it is possible to access the given content only after entering the access data or after describing the text from the image.
- Robots are not programmed to index certain types of file.
- The content of the page is created dynamically and is generated by the user's query and is only available while the user is viewing it. [2]

The content on the deep web is specific and the information contained in it is focused on a particular theme and deals with an issue in more detail. For example, scientific databases, databases of full-text publications and academic institutions. A special search engine is used

to search for information on hidden sites, which work on the principle of the metasearch engine. They are not based on the indexing principle, but the query translates into another search form and then groups the returned outputs. [6]

2.2 Information sources for an analysis of the macro-environment of the business

The macro-environment of the business contains information that can be divided into areas in general terms based on the analytical model for a macroeconomic analysis of a company, named PESTLE. This is name is acronym comprised of political, economic, social, technological, legislative and environmental factors. As a result, it is always necessary to systematically monitor reliable information for a particular business according to those areas important for the strategic management of the business. For each of these areas, it is important to identify important business factors and then to systematically review and evaluate them during development. All this must be consistent with the relevant information sources.

2.3 Social networks and CI

Currently, social networks are an integral part of everyday life. Social networks are widespread throughout the world. All social networks are a great benefit to Competitive Intelligence, because it is thanks to them that it is possible to discover difficult market situations, to map the position of the competition and to foresee future developments in the industry. Social networks have become an important and valuable source of information for CI, mainly with the emergence of virtual social networks.

The basic criteria through which widespread social networks are in relation to Competitive Intelligence are the following:

- Network focus is the main criteria for defining the thematic area that is the research subject. This type of information can be extracted from the researched networks. The criterion for the widespread social network according to their focus determines whether it is important to focus on a particular network in the CI research. The basic categories critical to CI:
  - leisure time social networks,
  - multimedia social networks,
  - intelligence social networks,
  - educational social networks,
  - professional social networks.
- Network level monitors the level of content being researched and at what level the members specialize in the area. Social networks can be classified into the following levels:
  - lay social networks,
  - popular-educational social networks,
  - professional social networks,
  - scientific social networks.
- Accessibility of the network is important in terms of the availability of information contained both on the network and outside the network. Network accessibility is a decisive factor for the successful processing of the entire CI analysis. If the information cannot be accessed, then they have no meaning for CI. CI mainly works with legally and ethically accessible information resources. In terms of network accessibility in relation to CI, the following categorization are of consequence:
  - open social networks,
  - limited social networks,
  - closed social networks.

- Anonymity of the network is one of the most important criteria for assessing the information received in terms of reliability of resources. Information is believed to be reliable when we are able to clearly identify the source and origin for the acquired information and knowledge. The thus acquired information and knowledge are of much greater importance and value for CI than information obtained from anonymous networks where it is not possible to clearly identify their source and origin of information. Networks are classified into the following categories in terms of information value:
  - networks with clearly identifiable resources,
  - networks with unreliably assigned resources,
  - anonymous social networks.

2.3.1 Social Network Analysis

"Social Network Analysis (SNA) is a sociological discipline that maps links in the social network and tries to identify key actors with mathematical approaches such as, e.g., graph theory." [9] The entire SNA section is committed to linking these mathematical approaches to modern technologies, which is a great asset to Competitive Intelligence. In terms of SNA and CI, not all actors are equal. Some are active contributors in the social network, who are also important information sources and others as passive recipients. In terms of CI, it is important to identify those key people who fulfill certain important tasks. In terms of this, it can be said that the person is the main representative of information.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it is important to highlight that for firms and companies the protection of their know-how, business secrets and sensitive information is critical if they are to be competitive. Companies that use Competitive Intelligence the most have the advantage of being able to foresee market changes and the moves of the competition to help them react in a timely and effective way to events and opportunities. They maintain a higher level of awareness, a continuous state of readiness to make decisions and commit to action. Companies are able to map new and potential competitors, know about new technologies, processes and products that apply to the industry, learn from the mistakes and successes of others, plan and make decisions addressing strategic and tactical goals and achieving a leading position in the industry. When using competitive intelligence, it is advisable to use all three types - offensive, defensive and lobbying - for the efficient functioning of intelligence activities. To ensure the smooth running, development and advancement of businesses today, it is essential to use information and communication technologies (ICT) in all areas of the activities of the business. Because the area of ICT is constantly developing, innovating, a company has a vast amount of alternatives to choose from in terms of which ICT tools to use in order to achieve effective results in its work. When used properly, a company gains a competitive advantage on the market, the time for processing and analyzing a certain amount of information is shortened, and it is able to alert top management to possible opportunities as well as the risks that may arise in the business. In relation to this, businesses can respond to unexpected events in time. A modern business can learn from the mistakes of others, exploit the potential of the market, and respond to the customers' needs.

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PROCESY ŘÍZENÍ RIZIK BEZPEČNOSTI INFORMACÍ

INFORMATION SECURITY RISK MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

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Abstrakt

Základním stavebním kamenem každého managementu kybernetické bezpečnosti organizace je identifikace aktiv, relevantních hrozeb a zranitelností, tudíž řízení rizik, napříč organizací. Čímž se proces řízení rizik se stává nedílnou součástí fungování každé organizace. K problematice managementu rizik v organizaci se dá přistupovat na základě nejrůznějších přístupů. Ať už se jedná o legislativní přístup, normativní či metodický. Ne vždy je však organizací zvolený přístup k problematice řízení rizik komplexní. Obecně v každé metodice je možné na základě analýzy a komparace s jinou metodikou možné najít oblasti, které daná metodika nezohledňuje. Práce je orientována na identifikaci těchto oblastí a komparaci jednotlivých procesů řízení rizik, s cílem identifikace nejoptimálnějšího přístupu k řízení rizik bezpečnosti informací a minimalizace potencionálních rizik plynoucích z nepokrytí komplexního spektra hrozeb.

Klíčová slova: *management kybernetické bezpečnosti organizace, aktivum, hrozba, zranitelnost, riziko, proces.*

Abstract

The cornerstone of every organizations cybersecurity management is identification of assets, relevant threats and vulnerabilities, hence risk management, across organizations. This makes the risk management process an integral part of the functioning of each organization. Risk management in the organization can be accessed through a variety of approaches. Whether it is a legislative approach, normative or methodical. However, it is not always a complex approach to the issue of risk management. In general, in each methodology, it is possible to find areas that are not considered by the methodology based on analysis and comparison with another methodology. The paper is focused on the identification of these areas and the comparison of individual risk management processes in order to identify the most optimal approach to risk management of information security and to minimize the potential risks resulting from not covering the complex spectrum of threats.

Key words: *organizations cybersecurity management, asset, threat, vulnerability, risk, process.*

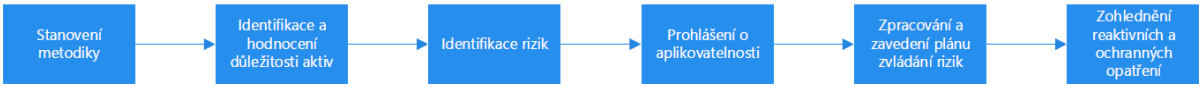
1. PROCESY ŘÍZENÍ RIZIK V ORGANIZACI

Problematika řízení rizik v organizaci může být řešena na základě normativních aktů, které jsou procesně odlišné. Jedná se zejména o legislativní dokumenty, normy, metodiky, směrnice, rámce a další dokumenty, na základě kterých lze řízení v organizaci realizovat. Normativní akty pro řízení rizik v organizaci byly vytvořeny ke zmírnění dopadů kybernetických bezpečnostních incidentů. Tyto normativní akty obsahují jak obecné rysy, tak i specifické techniky pro implementaci bezpečnostních opatření. Příkladem normativního aktu může být legislativní rámec aplikovaný na prvky kritické infrastruktury v České republice. Mezi tyto normativní akty patří Zákon č. 181/2014 Sb., o kybernetické bezpečnosti a jeho provázející vyhlášky a nařízení (dále jen ZoKB) (1, 2). Dalším příkladem normativního aktu

je soubor ČSN ISO/IEC norem 27000 (dále jen ISO/IEC 27000) (3). Dalším rozšiřujícím normativním aktem vztahujícím se k řízení rizik kybernetické bezpečnosti jsou standardy a pokyny vydané národním institutem pro standardy a technologie (dále jen NIST). Problematice bezpečnosti informací – kybernetické bezpečnosti se věnuje řada standardů označená NIST 800-xx (4). Dalším normativním aktem pro řízení rizik kybernetické bezpečnosti organizace je Risk IT Framework (dále jen Risk IT). Jedná se o sadu principů pro řízení rizik informačních technologií, který je vyvinut a udržován asociací ISACA (5).

1.1 Proces řízení rizik v organizaci dle zákona o kybernetické bezpečnosti

V rámci zákona o kybernetické bezpečnosti (dále jen ZoKB) je proces řízení rizik v organizacích definován jako jedno z organizačních opatření v rámci části zákona týkající se bezpečnostních opatření (1). Řízení rizik zde není detailněji rozváděno ani definováno. Definice a podrobnější výklad řízení rizik je uveden v provázející vyhlášce č. 316/2014 Sb., o bezpečnostních opatřeních, kybernetických bezpečnostních incidentech, reaktivních opatřeních a o stanovení náležitostí podání v oblasti kybernetické bezpečnosti (vyhláška o kybernetické bezpečnosti) (dále jen kybernetická vyhláška) (2).
Kybernetický vyhláška specifikuje proces řízení rizik do šesti dílčích částí. Jednotlivé části a jejich vzájemná provázanost jsou znázorněny na obrázku č. 1.



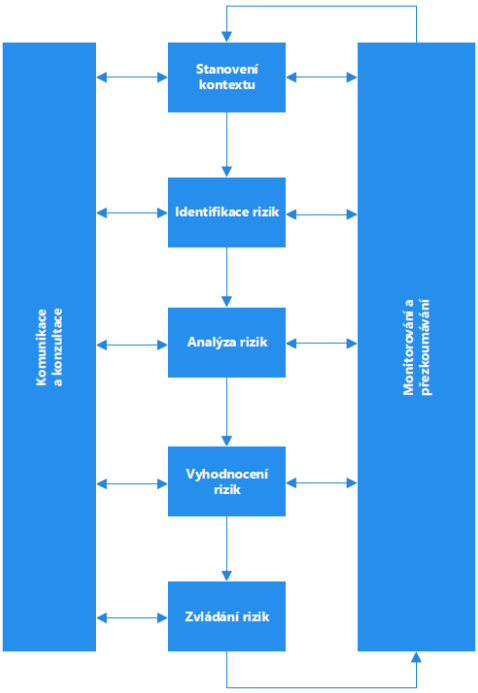
Obrázek č. 1.: Proces řízení rizik dle ZoKB
Zdroj: Upraven autorem (2).

Stanovení metodiky je prvním krokem procesu řízení rizik dle ZoKB. V rámci tohoto kroku se stanovují metodiky pro identifikaci a hodnocení aktiv a identifikace a hodnocení rizik, včetně stanovení kritérií pro přijatelnost rizik (2).
Identifikace a hodnocení důležitosti aktiv je druhým krokem v procesu řízení rizik dle ZoKB. V rámci tohoto kroku jsou identifikována aktiv a rozdělena na primární a podpůrná. Aktiva jsou hodnocena dle důležitosti na základě stupnic o čtyřech úrovních (2).
Identifikace rizik je třetím krokem procesu řízení rizik. V rámci tohoto kroku jsou zohledněny hrozby a zranitelnosti a posouzeny možné dopady na aktiva. Hodnocení rizik je realizováno na základě funkce: $riziko = dopad * hrozba * zranitelnost$
Na základě této funkce je možné stanovit hodnotu rizika, což je nezbytnou součástí metodiky pro identifikaci a hodnocení rizik (2).
Prohlášení o aplikovatelnosti je čtvrtým krokem procesu řízení rizik dle ZoKB. Toto prohlášení je zpracováno na základě bezpečnostních potřeb a výsledků hodnocení rizik. Prohlášení obsahuje přehled vybraných a zavedených bezpečnostních opatření, tudíž reflektuje aktuální stav organizace z hlediska kybernetické bezpečnosti (2).
Zpracování a zavedení plánu zvládání rizik je pátým krokem procesu řízení rizik dle ZoKB. Tento plán obsahuje cíle a přínosy bezpečnostních opatření pro zvládání rizik osoby zajišťující prosazování bezpečnostních opatření, potřebné finanční, technické, lidské a informační zdroje, termín jejich zavedení a popis vazeb mezi riziky a příslušnými bezpečnostními opatřeními (2).
Zohlednění reaktivních a ochranných opatření je šestým krokem procesu řízení rizik dle ZoKB. Jedná se o zohlednění reaktivních a ochranných opatření vydaných Národním bezpečnostním úřadem v oblasti hodnocení rizik. V případě, že hodnocení rizik je aktualizované o nové zranitelnosti spojené s realizací reaktivního nebo ochranného opatření překročí stanovené kritéria pro přijatelnost rizik, dochází k doplnění plánu zvládání rizik.

Proces řízen rizik dle ZoKB je soubor po sobě jdoucích kroků s cílem zajištění kybernetické bezpečnosti organizace. Součástí celého procesu je i aktualizace hodnocení rizik, která indikuje částečnou cykličnost celého procesu (2).

1.2 Proces řízení rizik v organizaci dle ČSN ISO/IEC norem

Řízení rizik je v ISO/IEC normách vymezeno v normě ČSN ISO/IEC 27005 Informační technologie – Bezpečnostní techniky – Řízení rizik bezpečnosti informací. Tato mezinárodní norma poskytuje doporučení pro řízení rizik bezpečnosti informací v rámci organizace, zejména pak doporučení s ohledem na požadavky řízení bezpečnosti informací podle ISO/IEC 27001. Proces řízení rizik dle ISO/IEC 27005 je znázorněn na obrázku 2.



Obrázek č. 2.: Proces řízení rizik dle normy ISO/IEC 2007
Zdroj: Upraven autorem (6).

Z obrázku je patrné, že proces řízení rizik je dle ISO norem složen z 5 posloupných a 2 průběžných kroků, které do této posloupnosti po celý její průběh vstupují. Dále je z obrázku patrné, že se jedná o cyklický proces, který se neustále opakuje.

Stanovení kontextu je prvním krokem v rámci předložené normy pro proces řízení rizik. Stanovení kontextu tj. vnitřního rámce a pravidel pro řízení bezpečnosti informací organizace (6).

Posouzení rizik bezpečnosti informací je druhým krokem procesu řízení rizik dle ISO normy. Toto posouzení má za cíl identifikovat aktiva, hrozby, stávající opatření, zranitelnosti a následky (6).

Analýza rizik je třetím krokem procesu řízení rizik. Tuto analýzu lze provádět v různých úrovních podrobnosti. Analýzy rizik by měly být v souladu se stanovenými kritérii pro hodnocení rizik. Na základě analýzy rizik by mělo dojít k posouzení následků, určení pravděpodobnosti incidentu a určení úrovně rizik (6).

Hodnocení rizik je čtvrtým krokem procesu řízení rizik, spočívající v porovnání úrovně rizik s přiřazenými úrovněmi hodnot a kritérii pro hodnocení rizik. Cílem hodnocení rizik je udělení priority podle kritérií hodnocení rizik v souvislosti se scénáři incidentů, jež k těmto rizikům vedou (6).

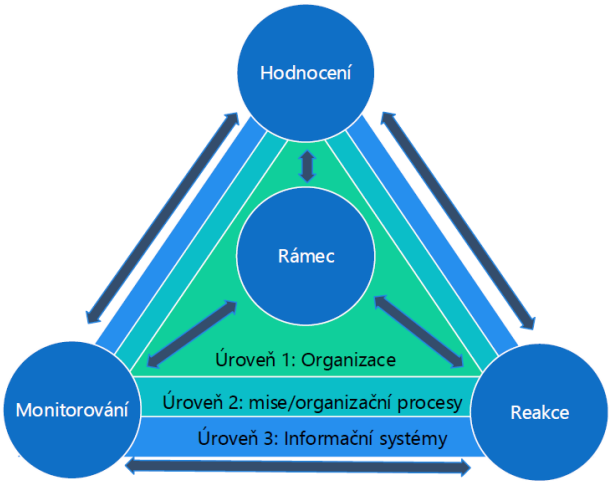
Ošetření rizik je pátým krokem procesu řízení rizik bezpečnosti informací. V rámci ošetření rizik je rozhodnuto, která rizika jsou vybrána k podstoupení, redukci, vyhnutí se nebo sdílení (6).
Akceptace rizik bezpečnosti informací je šestým krokem v procesu řízení rizik. Vstupem pro tento krok je plán ošetření rizik a posouzení zbytkových rizik v závislosti na rozhodnutí o akceptaci vedoucích pracovníků organizace (6).
Komunikace a konzultace rizik bezpečnosti informací je prvním průběžným krokem procesu řízení rizik. Pro tento krok jsou vstupem veškeré poznatky získané v předchozích částech procesu řízení rizik. Jedná se o činnost, ve které ti co rozhodují a ostatní zainteresované strany sdílejí informace o rizicích pro danou organizaci. Komunikace a konzultace rizik vede k získání dohody o tom, jak řídit rizika výměnou a/nebo sdílením informací o rizicích. Organizace by měla dále vytvářet plány komunikace rizik pro běžné operace, jako i pro nouzové situace. Z tohoto důvodu je činnost komunikace rizika cyklicky se opakující proces, který může být i nepřetržitý (6).
Monitorování a přezkoumávání rizik bezpečnosti informací je druhý průběžný krok procesu řízení rizik (6).
Proces řízení rizik dle ISO norem je soubor po sobě jdoucích kroků s cílem zajištění kybernetické bezpečnosti organizace. Celý proces průběžně provází komunikace a konzultace rizik, monitorování a přezkoumávání rizik, čímž je zajištěna cykličnost jeho procesu, tudíž i jeho vyšší důslednost v celkovém procesu řízení rizik.

1.3 Proces řízení rizik v organizaci dle standardu NIST

Problematiku řízení rizik upravuje 8 standardů NIST. Jednotlivé standardy specifikují jednotlivé částí řízení rizik v organizacích. Primárně se problematice řízení rizik věnuje standard NIST 800-39 – Správa rizik informační bezpečnosti – organizace, mise a zobrazení informačního systému (7).
Standard NIST identifikuje tři úrovně, na kterých je nezbytné řídit rizika. Jedná se o informační systémy, mise/obchodní procesy a organizace.
Proces řízení rizik je dle NIST 800-39 použitelný na všech třech úrovních řízení rizik je složen ze čtyř kroků:

- Rámec rizik;
- Hodnocení rizik;
- Reakce na rizika;
- Monitorování rizik (7).

Každý z těchto kroků je strukturovaný a zaměřený na vstupy nebo předpoklady nezbytné pro zahájení daného kroku, tj. specifické činnosti, která tvoří krok a výstupy nebo podmínky vyplývající z daného kroku. V kontextu procesu řízení rizik a jeho víceúčelové aplikace se také diskutuje o účinku konceptů řízení rizik, tj. toleranci rizika, důvěře a rizikové kultuře. Proces řízen rizik je znázorněn na obrázku 3. Součástí procesu je i znázornění úrovní organizace (7).



Obrázek č. 3.: Proces řízení rizik dle standardu NIST
Zdroj: Upraven autorem (7).

Obousměrné šipky na obrázku znázorňují, že informační a komunikační toky mezi jednotlivými složkami řízení rizik a také pořadí provedení mohou být proměnlivé a mohou reagovat na dynamickou povahu procesu řízení rizik (7).
Jednotlivé kroky procesu řízení rizik dle NIST nejsou samy o sobě sekvenční. Kroky jsou prováděny různými způsoby, v závislosti na konkrétní vrstvě, kde je daný krok použit a na předchozích činnostech týkajících se každého z kroků. Z tohoto důvodu není možné stanovit, který z kroků je prvním a který následným. Jednotlivé výstupy kroků mohou být označeny jako konzistentní a to z důvodu, že přímo ovlivňují jeden nebo více dalších kroků řízení rizik v procesu řízení rizik (např. pořadí, stupeň přesnosti, formálnost a důkladnost aplikace) a jak jsou výsledky každého kroku zachyceny a sdíleny – a to jak uvnitř organizace, tak i externě se zainteresovanými stranami. Cílem procesu řízení rizik a souvisejících koncepcí navázaných na rizika je vyvinout lepší pochopení rizika informační bezpečnosti v souvislosti s širšími akcemi a rozhodnutími organizace (7).
Rámec rizik – vytváří kontext a poskytuje společný pohled na to, jak organizace řídí rizika. Hlavním výstupem tohoto kroku je vytvoření strategie řízení rizik, která řeší, jak organizace hodlají posoudit rizika, reagovat na rizika a sledovat rizika. Strategie řízení rizik vyjasňuje specifické předpoklady, omezení, tolerance rizik a priority/kompromisy používané v organizacích pro provádění investičních a provozních rozhodnutí. Strategie řízení rizik zahrnuje také veškerá rozhodnutí a úvahy na strategické úrovni o tom, jakým způsobem by rizika měla být řízena (7).
Hodnocení rizik – identifikuje, kategorizuje a odhaduje rizika pro činnosti organizace, aktiva organizace, jednotlivce a jiné organizace. Hodnoceny jsou rizika vyplývající z provozu a využívání informačních systémů. Pomocí výsledků posouzení hrozeb a zranitelností je možné identifikovat a posoudit rizika z hlediska pravděpodobnosti výskytu a možného nepříznivého dopadu na organizaci. Hodnocení rizik lze provést na jakékoli úrovni řízení rizik s různými cíli a důležitostí vytvořených informací. Celopodnikové hodnocení rizika může být založeno výhradně na předpokladech, omezeních, tolerancích rizik, prioritách a kompromisech stanovených v jednotlivých částech procesu řízení rizik. Hodnocení rizik provedené na jedné úrovni mohou být použity k vylepšení nebo zvýšení informací o ohrožení, zranitelnosti, pravděpodobnosti a dopadu použitých při hodnoceních provedených v jiných úrovních. Míra, v níž lze informace z posuzování rizik opětovně využít, je uváděna podobností cíle organizace, nebo obchodních funkcí a stupněm autonomie, které organizační subjekty nebo sub komponenty mají vůči rodičovským organizacím. Organizace, které jsou

decentralizované, mohou očekávat, že budou provádět další činnosti týkající se hodnocení rizika a v důsledku toho mohou mít větší potřebu komunikovat v rámci dané úrovně s cílem identifikovat průřezové hrozby a zranitelnosti. Decentralizované organizace mohou i nadále těžit z informací z hodnocení rizik 1 úrovně a zejména při identifikaci počátečního souboru zdrojů ohrožení a zranitelností. Hodnocení rizik na úrovni celé organizace poskytuje určitou počáteční klasifikaci rizik pro osoby, které rozhodují. Tyto osoby následně zvažují možné reakce na dané riziko (7).

Reakce na rizika – identifkuje, hodnotí, rozhoduje a provádí vhodné kroky k přijetí, vyloučení, zmírnění, sdílení nebo převedení rizika vyplývající z provozu a využívání informačních systémů. Identifikace a analýza alternativních postupů se obvykle vyskytuje u vrstvy 1 nebo 2. To je způsobeno skutečností, že alternativní způsoby reakce na rizika jsou hodnoceny z hlediska očekávaných dopadů na celou organizaci a schopnosti organizace pokračovat v úspěšné realizaci své činnosti. Rozhodnutí o použití opatření na reakci na rizika v celé organizaci se obvykle provádějí na vrstvě 1, ačkoli jsou rozhodnutí o rizicích informována z nižších úrovní. V rámci vrstvy 2 jsou vyhodnocovány alternativní postupy, pokud jde o očekávané dopady na činnost organizace a její cíle. Ve vrstvě 3 jsou alternativní způsoby činnosti vyhodnocovány z hlediska životního cyklu vývoje systému nebo maximálního času, který je k dispozici pro realizaci vybrané reakce na rizika. Rozsah možných reakcí na rizika je hlavním faktorem toho, zda je činnost prováděna na vrstvě 1, 2, nebo 3. Rozhodnutí o rizicích jsou ovlivněna tolerancí vůči organizačnímu riziku, které je rozvíjeno v rámci 1 vrstvy. Organizace mohou provádět rozhodování o rizicích na kterékoliv vrstvě řízení rizik s různými cíli a užitečností vyrobených informací (7).

Monitorování rizik – poskytuje organizacím prostředky k:

- ověřování shody;
- stanovení trvalé účinnosti opatření pro reakci na rizika;
- identifikaci změny v informačních systémech organizace a provozních prostředích, které mají dopad na rizika (7).

Analýza výsledků monitorování dává organizacím schopnost udržet si povědomí o vzniklém riziku, zdůraznit potřebu přehodnotit další kroky v procesu řízení rizik a zahájit činnosti na zlepšení procesů podle potřeby. Organizace používají nástroje, techniky a postupy pro monitorování rizik pro zvýšení informovanosti vedoucích pracovníků s cílem rozvíjet pochopení probíhajícího rizika. Organizace mohou provádět monitorování rizik na jakékoliv stupni řízení rizik s různými cíli a užitečností vytvořených informací. Například činnosti monitorování úrovně 1 mohou zahrnovat průběžná hodnocení hrozeb a způsob, jakým by změny v prostoru ohrožení mohly ovlivnit aktivity úrovně 2 a 3, včetně podnikových architektur a informačních systémů organizace. Monitorovací aktivity 2. úrovně mohou zahrnovat například analýzy nových nebo stávajících technologií, které se buď používají, nebo jsou zvažovány pro budoucí využití organizací k identifikaci využitelných slabých míst a/nebo nedostatků v těch technologiích, které mohou ovlivnit úspěch organizace/obchodu. Monitorovací aktivity 3. úrovně se zaměřují na informační systémy a mohou zahrnovat například automatizované sledování standardních konfiguračních nastavení pro produkty informačních technologií, skenování zranitelností a průběžné hodnocení bezpečnostních kontrol. Vedle rozhodování o vhodných monitorovacích aktivitách v rámci úrovně rizik organizace rozhodují také o tom, jak má být prováděno monitorování (např. automatizované nebo manuální přístupy), četnosti monitorovacích činností, kritických bodů na akčních plánech a milnících a tolerance rizika (7).

1.4 Proces řízení rizik v organizaci dle rámce Risk IT

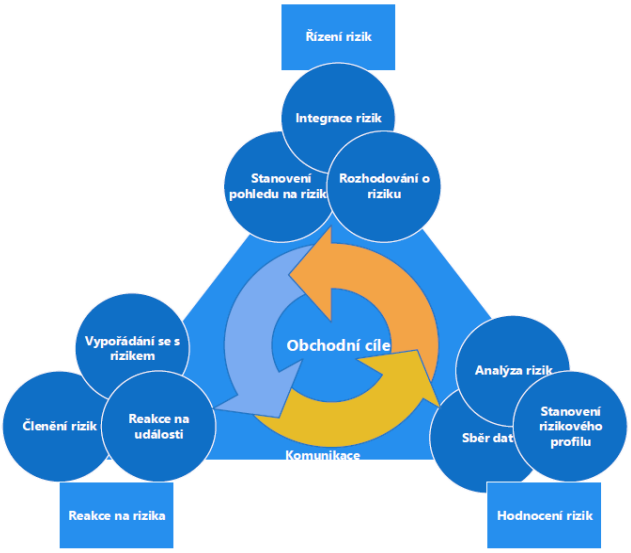
Řízení rizik dle rámce Risk IT je definováno a založeno na řadě základních principů efektivního řízení rizik informačních technologií (dále jen IT). Jedná se o principy založené

na obecně přijímaných principech řízení rizik organizace, které byly aplikovány na oblast IT. Model procesů řízení rizik IT je navržen a strukturován tak, aby umožňoval organizacím uplatňovat zásady v praxi a hodnotit jejich výkonost (8).
Rámec Risk IT je primárně zaměřen na obchodní rizika související s používáním IT. Propojení IT s činností organizace je založeno na principech, na kterých je rámec vybudován, tj. efektivní řízení organizace a řízení rizik informačních technologií. Toto propojení je znázorněno na obrázku 4 (8).

Obrázek č. 4.: Principy řízení rizik dle rámce Risk IT
Zdroj: Upraven autorem (8).

Model procesů řízení rizik seskupuje klíčové činnosti do řady dílčích procesů. Tyto procesy jsou seskupeny do tří domén, které souhrnně udávají proces řízení rizik v organizaci dle rámce Risk IT. Oblasti řízení rizik dle rámce Risk IT jsou znázorněny na obrázku 6. Jedná se o oblasti:

- řízení rizik;
- hodnocení rizik;
- reakce na rizika (8).



Obrázek č. 5.: Proces řízení rizik dle rámce Risk IT
Zdroj: Upraven autorem (8).

Na obrázku je rovněž znázorněna cykličnost celého procesu, tj. neustálé opakování jednotlivých oblastí. Jednotlivé oblasti mají společný cíl, ale rozdílné dílčí cíle, které směřují k celkovému řízení rizik organizace. Dílčím cílem oblasti řízení rizik je zajištění, aby postupy řízení rizik byly zakotveny v podniku a umožnily tak zajistit optimální výnos s ohodnocením rizikovosti (tj. stanovení úrovně rizik, které je pro organizaci přijatelné vzhledem k vykonávané činnosti). Dílčím cílem oblasti hodnocení rizik je zajistit, aby byla identifikována, analyzována a prezentována rizika v podnikovém prostředí. Dílčím cílem oblasti reakce na rizika je zajištění, aby související rizika, příležitosti a události řešili nákladově efektivním způsobem a v souladu s prioritami organizace (8).

Řízení rizik je dle rámce Risk IT složeno ze čtyř dílčích částí. Jedná se o části:

- Míra averze k riziku a tolerance rizik – míra averze k riziku (tzv. risk apetit) znázorňuje míru rizika, kterou je organizace ochotná přijmout, když se snaží dosáhnout svých cílů. Při zvažování této míry rizika je důležité zvážit schopnost podniku absorbovat ztráty a predispozice manažerské kultury k přijímání rizik. Risk apetit může být znázorněn pomocí rizikových map. Tolerance rizik je tolerovatelná odchylka od úrovně stanovené rizikovým chováním a obchodními cíli (8).
- Odpovědnosti a povinnosti pro IT řízení rizik – spočívá ve stanovení rolí procesu řízení rizik, nesoucích odpovědnost za jednu nebo více činnosti v rámci procesu řízení rizik. Odpovědnosti a povinnosti v procesu IT řízení rizik je možné znázornit pomocí matice odpovědností (dále jen RACI matice) (8).
- Povědomí a komunikace – informovanost o riziku znamená uznat fakt, že riziko je nedílnou součástí činností organizace. Získání povědomí neznamená vyhnutí se riziku, ale získání znalosti o IT rizicích organizace a jejich komunikace. Komunikace prostřednictvím informačních technologií je realizována širokou škálou informačních toků. Komunikace s sebou nese vznik komunikačních rizik, která musí být zohledněny. Dále rámec doporučuje vytvoření komunikační matice zahrnující všechny zainteresované strany v procesu řízení rizik. Součástí této matice jsou podrobnější informace, např. zdroj a místo určení informací, vstupy, výstupy a všechny zainteresované strany procesu řízení IT rizik organizace (8).
- Riziková kultura – chráněná riziková kultura charakteristicky nabízí nastavení, ve kterém jsou diskutovány složky rizika, např. jaké jsou přijatelné úrovně rizika. Přijatelné úrovně rizika jsou stanovovány vedením společnosti v kooperaci se zainteresovanými stranami. Součástí rizikové kultury je i informování o rizicích napříč organizací. Součástí tohoto informování je i definice reakcí a odůvodnění proč mají jednotlivý zaměstnanci organizace na události reagovat (8).

Hodnocení rizik je dle rámce Risk IT složeno ze dvou dílčích částí:

- Popisu podnikatelského dopadu – zásadní hodnocení rizik informačních technologií a rozhodnutí založená na rizicích vyžadují, aby bylo riziko IT vyjádřeno jednoznačnými a jasnými obchodně relevantními podmínkami. Efektivní řízení rizik vyžaduje vzájemné porozumění mezi IT a obchodním oddělením. Všechny zainteresované strany musí disponovat schopností porozumět a vyjádřit, jak mohou nepříznivé události ovlivnit cíle organizace (8).
- Vytváření rizikových scénářů – jednou z výzev řízení rizik v oblasti IT je identifikování důležitých a relevantních rizik. Jednou z technik k překonávání rizik je vývoj rizikových scénářů. Jedná se o základní přístup, který přináší realismus, vhled, organizační zapojení, zdokonalenou analýzu a strukturu řízení rizik IT pro danou organizaci (8).

Reakce na rizika je dle rámce Risk IT složeno ze dvou dílčích částí:

- Stanovení klíčových identifikátorů rizik – ukazatele rizika jsou metriky, které mohou ukázat, že podnik podléhá nebo má vysokou pravděpodobnost, že bude vystaven

riziku přesahující definovaný risk apetit. Klíčové identifikátory rizik jsou specifické pro každou organizaci a jejich výběr závisí na řadě parametrů ve vnitřním a vnějším prostředí, jako je velikost a složitost organizace (8).

- Definice a prioritizace reakce na rizika – jedná se o proces diskuse a výběru vhodné reakce na rizika, tj. s ohledem na riziko, na jakou odezvu a jak si vybrat mezi dostupnými možnostmi reakce (8).

2. KOMPARACE PROCESŮ ŘÍZENÍ RIZIK V ORGANIZACI

ZoKB	ISO/IEC	NIST	Risk IT
Stanovení metodiky - identifikace aktiv -hodnocení aktiv - identifikace rizik - hodnocení rizik			
Stanovení kritérií pro přijatelnost rizik	Stanovení kontextu: - obecná hlediska - základní kritéria - rozsah a hranice - organizace řízení rizik	Rámec rizik: - strategie řízení rizik	Řízení rizik: - míra averze k riziku a tolerance rizik - odpovědnosti a povinnosti pro řízení rizik - riziková kultura
Identifikace a hodnocení aktiv			
Identifikace rizik: - zohlednění hrozeb - zohlednění zranitelností - posouzení dopadu na aktiva - hodnocení rizik	Posouzení rizik: - obecný popis posouzení rizik - identifikace rizik - analýza rizik - hodnocení rizik	Hodnocení rizik: - posouzení hrozeb a zranitelností - posouzení rizik	Hodnocení rizik: - popis podnikatelského dopadu - vyjádření rizikových scénářů
Prohlášení o aplikovatelnosti	Akceptace rizik		
Zpracování a zavedení plánu zvládání rizik	Ošetření rizik: - obecný popis ošetření - modifikace rizik - vyhnutí se riziku - sdílení rizik	Reakce na rizika	Zásady reakce na rizika: - stanovení klíčových identifikátorů rizik - definice a prioritizace reakce na rizika
Aktualizace plánu zvládání rizik	Monitorování a přezkoumávání rizik	Monitorování rizik	
	Komunikace a konzultace		Řízení rizik: - povědomí a komunikace

Tabulka 1: Srovnání procesů/přístupů k řízení rizik v organizaci
Zdroj: Vlastní

Z tabulky 1 je patrné, že proces řízení rizik dle jednotlivých normativních aktů je rozdílný. Nicméně v některých dílčích částech procesu je možné nalézt podobnost. Tato podobnost není však napříč celým procesem řízení rizik v organizaci. Z tohoto důvodu je možné konstatovat, že se jednotlivé přístupy k problematice řízení rizik navzájem doplňují a je tudíž pro komplexnost celého procesu řízení rizik vhodné použít kombinaci těchto přístupů.

3. ZÁVĚR

Práce je zaměřena na problematiku řízení kybernetických rizik v organizaci v návaznosti na její odolnost vůči kybernetickým bezpečnostním hrozbám. V práci bylo upozorněno na existující normativní akty, které slouží jako metodické podklady pro organizaci k řízení rizik. Řízení rizik představuje velice rozsáhlou a komplexní problematiku, která zasahuje do

širokého spektra činností organizace. Z předloženého vyplývá, že řízení rizik je klíčovou a nedílnou součástí organizací. Na základě komparace jednotlivých procesů řízení rizik je možné stanovit nejednotnost a nekomplexnost jednotlivých přístupů. Z čehož vyplývá nezbytnost použití více než jednoho normativního aktu v rámci řízení rizik kybernetické bezpečnosti.

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APPLICATION OF DATA CLASSIFICATION IN HEALTH RECORDS FOR SLOVAK E-HEALTH

Erik Kučera, Oto Haffner, Erich Stark

Abstract

The topic of classification, representation and clustering of text documents and information extraction is still very researched area. The area of data mining, knowledge mining and text mining has its specific challenges in various languages. This article deals with the methods of pre-processing of medical data, namely Slovak medical records written in natural language, and their subsequent analysis, especially classification of their parts (paragraphs) into classes.

Keywords: *data classification, natural language processing, medical records, health records, data mining, knowledge mining*

1 INTRODUCTION

Data mining is a process of analysing big amounts of data from various perspectives, their summarization and their use in different sectors. It uses methods of statistics, artificial intelligence (AI), mathematics, machine learning, etc. Data mining is presently very widely used in practice. For example, in research, for blocking of spam, in marketing to decide which customers it is appropriate to send an offer. Knowledge discovery is a process of automatic or semiautomatic extraction of knowledge. There are different methods of knowledge discovery but in general, it has following key steps: definition and analysis of our task, obtaining relevant data and its comprehension, data pre-processing, data mining, evaluation and identification of patterns and found knowledge [1] [2].

Process of data mining begins with an analysis of the particular task and understanding of existing knowledge and definition of an objective. A process of obtaining relevant data follows. It is necessary to decide which attributes in the existing databases are relevant to our task. Then we need to understand this data [3]. It is necessary to decide whether there is sufficient sample for extracting relevant and applicable knowledge. All these steps were also applied in the proposed project. In the phase of understanding the problem, we studied the current state of the problem of electronisation of health records in Slovakia [4]. In the next phase of understanding the medical data, we started studying specific reports, we investigated their quality regarding further processing and subsequent data mining process. During the preparation phase, we tried to select a suitable sample of health records for the next phases of the process. In the phase of modelling the data, we applied various algorithms and tweaked their parameters. Then we evaluated the results achieved by them.

The paper focuses on describing the problems that are related to the processing of unstructured text contained in medical records taking into account various possible forms of the records defined for example by particular writing style of a physician. Aim of the presented work is to highlight design of the whole process of obtaining structured information from unstructured documents. Being aware of the particularities of Slovak language, we tried to describe all particular phases of the whole extracting process in detail.

2 RESEARCHED METHOD

In this section, we introduce a method, which is a contribution to the field of categorization and data mining of health records in Slovakia. The result of this procedure is mainly classification of paragraphs of health reports and aggregation of data into logical units.

Division of medical records to individual paragraphs - Physicians usually divide logical parts of their documentation (records) into paragraphs. So, a reasonable step is a division of the original text into these physical units - paragraphs. Each paragraph of the report is saved in a separate text file. We used a software (SW) library Apache POI which was used for creating of our application. This application was used for division of documents into paragraphs. Using this application, we can easily divide a lot of documents into distinct paragraphs.

Lemmatization - The next step is lemmatization of texts using SW tool Morphonary. During the process of lemmatization, we ensure the words with the same word root (for example: doctors and doctor) are identified as the same term. This is important during process of paragraph classification.

Analysis of the list of the most common words in the records - Lemmatized texts should be further investigated with the SW application RapidMiner. Using the list of the most common words in records, we can analyse whether a certain doctor uses its own atypical abbreviations or words. If these words are found, they should be inserted into lemmatizer's dictionary as a new entry. E.g. if the doctor uses an abbreviation 'pcnt' instead of a word 'pacient' it is good to add a pair 'pcnt - pacient' to lemmatizer to replace all 'pcnt' occurrences with 'pacient'.

Completion of lemmatizer - It consists of the addition of atypical words to the dictionary of lemmatizer.

Categorization of the paragraphs - This is one of the most important things on described progress in the area. In this step, we try to classify paragraphs of health records to the correct category like prescripted medicine or patient's subjective complaints. In the practical part of the article, we try to introduce the procedure using RapidMiner how to classify mentioned paragraphs. Since this is a broader issue, results and the success of each method is given for clarity in a separate chapter.

Classification of data into logical units - Using tokenization the text was divided into small pieces, and many of them are related. Therefore, in the last phase, we tried to group each part of the medical reports using logical structures into compact units.

2.1 Division of medical records into paragraphs

We assume that documents produced by physicians are created by Microsoft Office, Libre Office or OpenOffice. We used the SW library Apache POI [5] for processing these files. The application can be used for processing of many files (medical records). We can send the input and output folder where processed documents (divided into paragraphs) are located (Fig. 1).

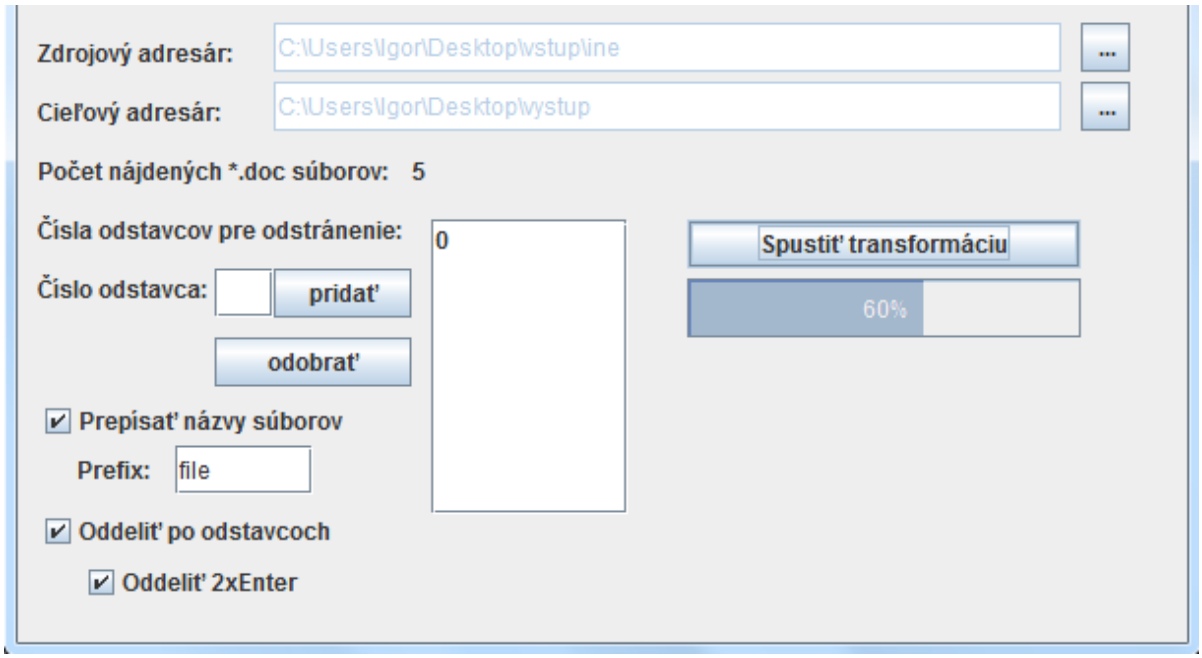

Fig. 1 Application "DOC transform" programmed using Apache POI library

2.2 Lemmatization

We used SW tool Morphonary for lemmatization because of its best ratio 'speed / efficiency / complexity' [6]. This tool was programmed in Java programming language.

Morphonary works with three dictionaries: Dictionary of foreign words (in Slovak language *Slovník cudzích slov - SCS*), Dictionary of Slovak language (in Slovak language *Slovník slovenského jazyk*a - SSJ) and declined words dictionary. SCS contains approximately 60 000 words in basic form. SSJ contains approximately 12 000 words.

The very important is 'declined words dictionary'. This dictionary contains 1730 words in basic form and their inflected forms. These 1730 words are selected to represent the variability of inflected forms of words. There are pairs 'basic form / inflected form'. If the algorithm does not find a word (that is going to be lemmatized) in SSJ or SCS, this process occurs. Based on these word pairs, the algorithm evaluates the suffixes. In the case of similarity, the algorithm replaces the word that should be lemmatized with its predicted pattern - the root word in the basic form found in this dictionary.

2.3 Lemmatization Analysis of the list of the most common words in the records

This step consists of pre-processing (tokenization, stop-words removal, filtering tokens shorter than 2 characters and longer than 99 characters) and further processing by RapidMiner application (Fig. 2).

Now we can use RapidMiner for obtaining of the list of words and analyse it (Fig. 3).

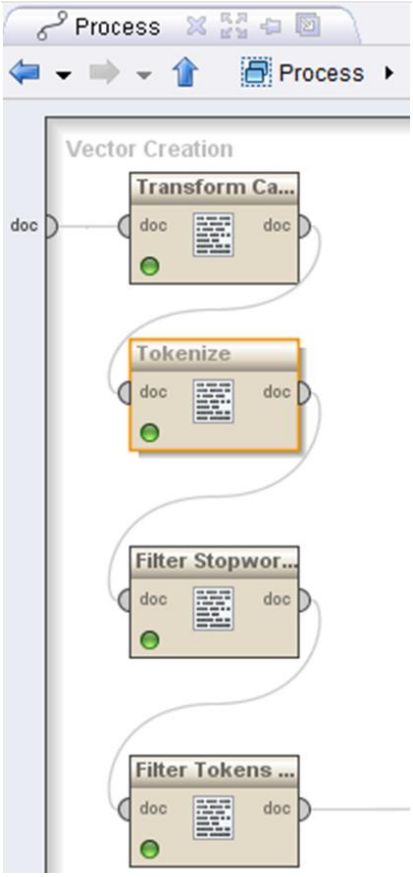

Fig. 2 Pre-processing - RapidMiner application

Result Overview | WordList (Process Documents from Files)

Word	Attribute Name	Total Occurences	Document Occurences
mg	mg	48	12
hrudník	hrudník	26	17
bila	bila	25	11
st	st	25	13
mmnuť	mmnuť	23	3
mudr	mudr	21	9
pacient	pacient	21	16
deň	deň	20	13
vyšetriť	vyšetriť	20	15
odd	odd	17	11
ul	ul	17	9
zmena	zmena	17	12
interný	interný	15	15
lekár	lekár	14	14
min	min	13	11
prijať	prijať	13	11
uka	uka	13	3

The column Total Occurences

Fig. 3 Wordlist - RapidMiner application

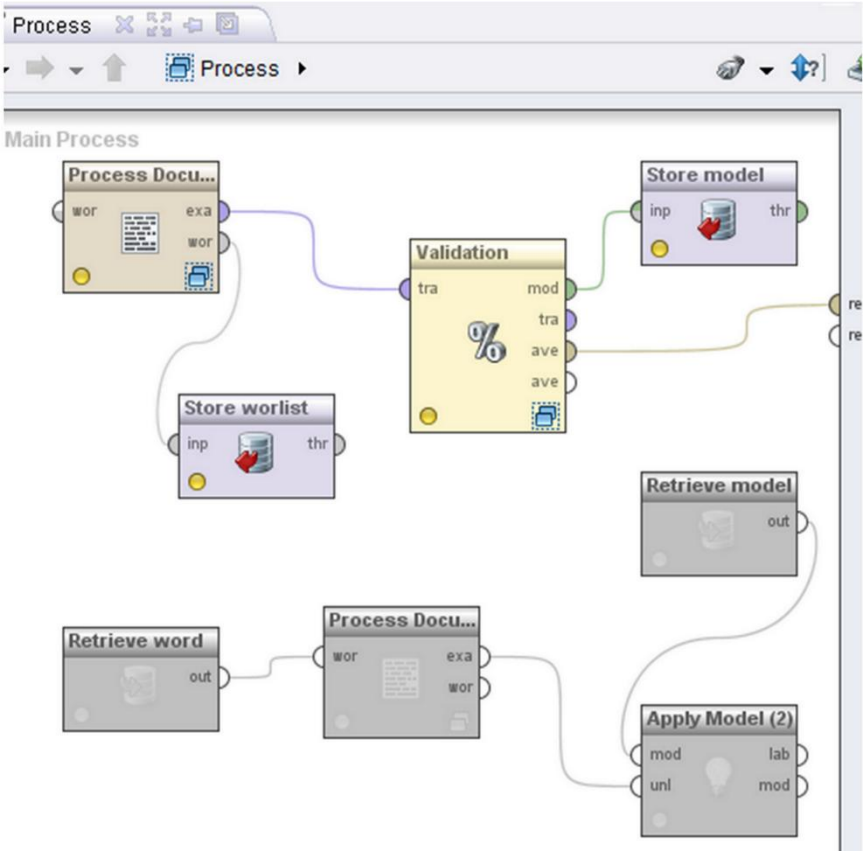

Fig. 4 Classification - making of classifier

2.4 Completion of lemmatizer

In health records, foreign words are frequently used and also technical terms or own doctors' abbreviations. By analysis, it was found that lemmatizer has the lowest percentage of correctly processed words with this group of tokens. We decided to find a methodology that does not lemmatize these words. If a word is an abbreviation, it should be transformed into its full form.

This is short description of proposed method:

1. For several randomly chosen medical records of a certain physician, we obtain a word list that belongs to mentioned word group.
2. A list of these words is shown to the physician who translates it into the full form.
3. We export these pairs of words ('abbreviation – full form') to file of CSV format.
4. We import this file in the Morphonary and add it to the declined words dictionary.
5. After lemmatization process, these abbreviations and special words will be translated into their full forms.

2.5 Categorization of paragraphs

For categorization of paragraphs, we mainly use classification (supervised learning). That means that we must classify some sample data manually. Then a classifier is created, and then this classifier is used to classify other data. We can easily perform this process in RapidMiner application. We use mainly three methods of classification - Naive Bayes, decision tree and k-nearest neighbour (k-NN).

We will shortly show how to use k-NN method in RapidMiner (using of Naive Bayes or decision tree is very similar).

The basis is to correctly set the operator *Process Documents from Files*. We can see the entire process in Fig. 4.

In the window, we have 2 groups of operators (Fig. 4). The lower group is deactivated in the figure. Next, we set input files for operator *Process Documents from Files*. These input files are a training set of data that are manually classified by human (supervisor). We can see this in Fig. 5. Our categories are epicrisis, code of the medical facility, medicine (or therapy), names (of doctors, etc.), subjective problems, examination, and conclusion.

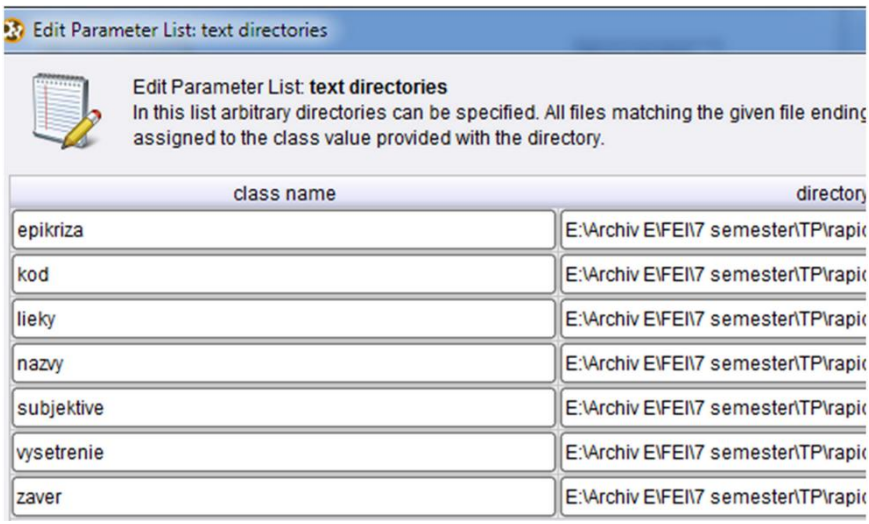

Fig. 5 Classification – training set

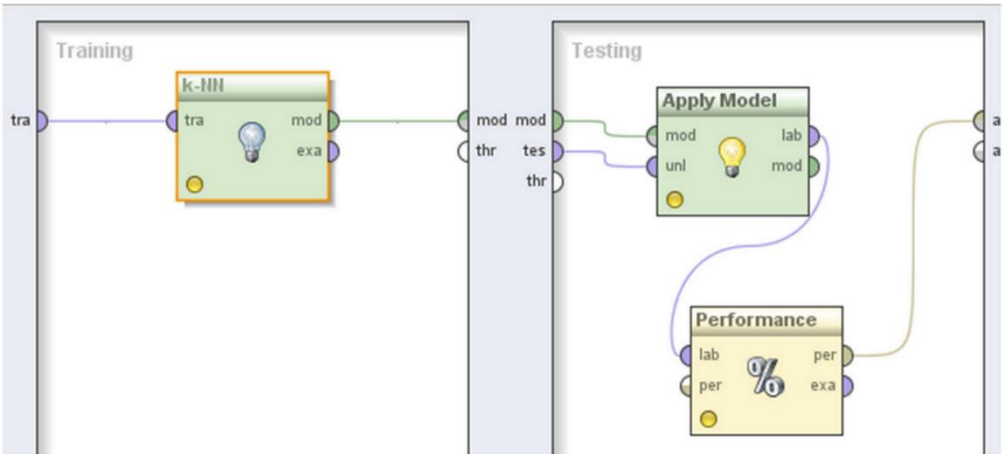

Fig. 6 Subprocess of operator X-Validation

We need also the operator called *X-Validation* that can be found in operators menu: *Evaluation* - *Validation* - *XValida*tion. This operator is used for teaching the classifier and its cross-validation.

When we double-click on the operator *X-Validation* we can see the window of cross-validation subprocess (Fig. 6). This window has two subwindows: *Training* and *Testing*. We insert the operator *k-NN* (or *Naive Bayes* or *Decision tree*) to subwindow named *Training*. Then we set *Measure types* to *NumericalMeasures* and *CosineSimilarity*.
Then we insert operators names *Apply Model* (*Modeling – Model Application* - *Apply Model*) and *Performance* (*Evaluation* - *Performance Management* - *Performance*) to subwindow called *Testing*. Finally, we link the operators as we can see in Fig. 6.

We need to add 2 operators of type *Store* (*Repository Access - Store*) to the main process. We link the 1st one to the output called *wor* of the operator *Process Documents from Files*. On its settings, we choose the path where the input should be stored. This output is the wordlist from operator named *Process Documents from Files*. We will need this output later - during classification. The second operator named *Store* is linked to the output *mod* of the operator called *X-Validation*. By this, we saved our trained classifier to a file. We will need it during the classification.

accuracy: 87.62% +/- 8.02% (mikro: 87.50%)

	true epikriza	true nazvy	true lieky	true vysetrenie	true subjektive	true zaver	true kod	class precision
pred. epikriza	6	0	1	0	1	1	0	66.67%
pred. nazvy	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	100.00%
pred. lieky	0	0	12	0	0	2	0	85.71%
pred. vysetreni	0	0	0	14	2	0	0	87.50%
pred. subjektive	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	100.00%
pred. zaver	1	0	0	1	0	9	0	81.82%
pred. kod	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	100.00%
class recall	85.71%	100.00%	92.31%	93.33%	57.14%	75.00%	100.00%	

Fig. 7 Report of cross-validation

Then we can run the process. Next, we open results window and the tab named *PerformanceVector*.

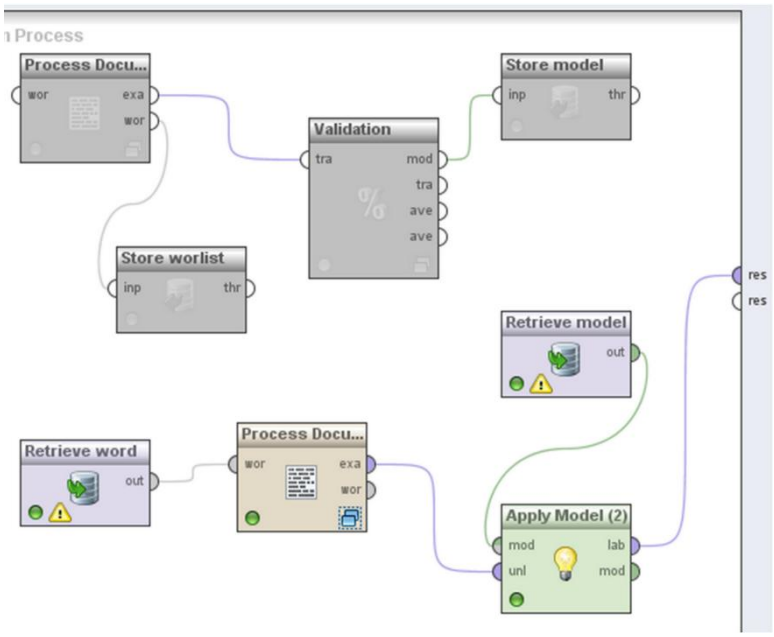

Fig. 8 Classification using trained classifier

In Fig. 6, there are results of cross-validation that was performed using training data. A sum of values in a row determines the number of documents that are categorized to the certain class. For example, there are 9 files categorized to the category named *epicrisis*. A sum of values in a column determines the number of documents that are of a certain type/class - we have this information because training data was manually categorized by worker. For example, seven files really belong to the category named *epicrisis*.

The last column *class precision* determines what ratio of documents classified by the operator as epicrisis really belongs to this class. The last row *class recall* determines what ratio of documents that are really of a certain class has been really classified to correct class. The result of cross-validation gives us information about the precision of our classifier. We can further modify our training data or parameters of the operator.

Next, there is a classification of uncategorized data by trained classifier. Operators that were used previously should be deactivated. Then, we add new operator called *Process Documents from Files*. In settings window, we choose the folder with documents to be classified. We need also the operator named *Apply Model* and two operators *Retrieve* (*Repository Access - Retrieve*). The first one we link to the input *wor* of the operator *Process Documents from Files* and in its settings, we choose a path to the saved wordlist that was saved during classifier training. We link the second operator *Retrieve* to the input *mod* of the operator *Apply model* and, in its setting, we set the path to the model that has been saved during the training process. We can see the whole process in Fig. 8. After execution of the process, we can choose the tab named *ExampleSet - Data View* and see the list of classified files.

2.6 Classification of data into logical units

In the GATE framework, we used *Annotation schema* to describe groups of tokens, and we would like to ensure that this activity has been gradually automated by rules and grammar JAPE (Fig. 9) [7]. This point will help future generations in their next work.

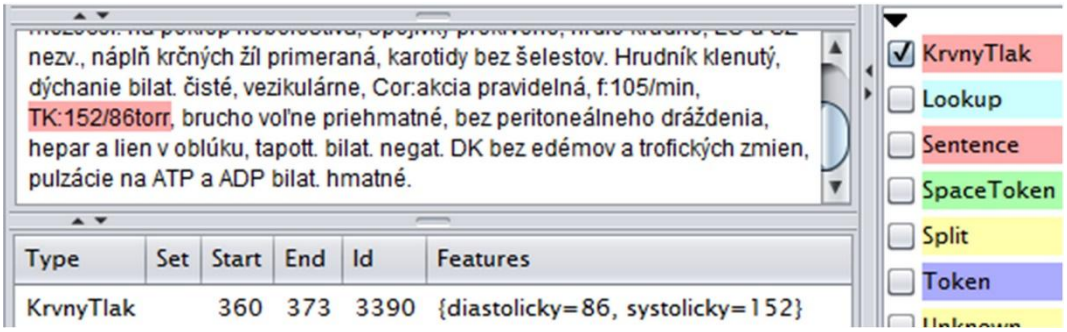

Fig. 9 Describing of group of tokens – blood pressure

3 RESULTS OF CLASSIFICATION

In this section, we briefly describe the results of classification of paragraphs from medical records. We randomly chose 25 medical records that were divided into paragraphs using our application created with Apache POI library. We have manually categorized these paragraphs into 7 categories: epicrisis, code of the medical facility, medicine (or therapy), names (of doctors, etc.), subjective problems, examination, and conclusion.

We describe the results of classification with a supervisor. It was necessary to divide the data (25 medical records divided into paragraphs) into training and testing set. The amount of data may seem small, but for this project, it is fully sufficient because the goal is to find a suitable methodology and not to test large amounts of data. We afford to say that, despite this, the amount of our data is sufficient also for practice, since it is not possible to create a versatile classifier for any medical facility (at least at this stage of the project). It is, therefore, necessary that a particular medical facility should prepare its own training data, the quantity

of which need not to be much larger than in our case. Consequently, these data will be used for the creation of the classifier for the facility.

Training data:

1) 13 paragraphs of class names (of doctors, etc.)
2) 15 paragraphs of class examination
3) 13 paragraphs of class medicine (or therapy)
4) 12 paragraphs of class conclusion
5) 7 paragraphs of class epicrisis
6) 5 paragraphs of class code of the medical facility
7) 7 paragraphs of class subjective problems

Testing data:

1) 39 paragraphs of class names (of doctors, etc.)
2) 39 paragraphs of class examination
3) 29 paragraphs of class medicine (or therapy)
4) 15 paragraphs of class conclusion
5) 10 paragraphs of class epicrisis
6) 8 paragraphs of class code of the medical facility
7) 12 paragraphs of class subjective problems

	names (REAL)	exam. (REAL)	therapy (REAL)	concl. (REAL)	epicrisis (REAL)	codes (REAL)	subj. (REAL)	PREDICTION PRECISION
names (PREDICT.)	37	0	1	1	0	0	0	94,87%
exam. (PREDICT.)	2	37	0	0	0	0	2	90,24%
therapy (PREDICT.)	0	0	24	1	0	0	0	96,00%
conclusion (PREDICT.)	0	0	2	10	0	0	0	83,33%
epicrisis (PREDICT.)	0	0	0	3	10	0	0	76,92%
codes (PREDICT.)	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	100,00%
subj. prob. (PREDICT.)	0	2	2	0	0	0	10	71,43%
RECALL	94,87%	94,87%	82,76%	66,67%	100,00%	100,00%	83,33%	

Fig. 10 Results of Naive Bayes classifier

We achieved the best results with Naive Bayes classifier.

The results of Naive Bayes classifier are very good (Fig. 10). There is a certain error in categorizing of paragraphs of type *conclusion* but in practice this class is interchangeable with epicrisis or therapy. We can see that this is where the classifier categorized the remaining entries, so this is not a serious error.

4 CONCLUSION

This paper deals with the methods of pre-processing of medical data, namely Slovak medical records written in natural language, and their subsequent analysis, especially classification of their parts into classes. We tried to achieve progress in the field of text / data mining in health records. We researched a successful method of paragraphs classification using RapidMiner. The best results were achieved using Naive Bayes classifier. It will be a challenge to try this method for medical records from different health facilities.

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CONCENTRIC CIRCLES METHOD CONCEPT IN IT GOVERNANCE

František Simetinger

Abstract

This article introduces the concept of the new method – Concentric Circles, which is designed as an alternative to commonly used methods for economic and financial management in IT. This method perceives the IT resources and services as assets. Concentric Circles method acts as possible maturity model of economic and financial management in IT, but its parts can be also used as price-generating models for IT services.

Key words: *IT Governance, ITIL, TOGAF, COBIT, economic management, financial management, strategic management, business-IT alignment*

1 INTRODUCTION

This article is focused on the actual conception of economic and financial management in IT which is still insufficient. There are complex IT Management and IT Governance frameworks, but the economic and financial dimension is not elaborated enough and they, in fact, rely on corporate finances and their methods and approaches [1, p. 1].

It is needed to develop and introduce new approaches how to treat the economic and financial dimension of IT. It is not needed only improved the precision of estimations, but new models and method should ensure the better understanding between the perspective of business (IT will be able to "speak" in the same language) and needs of IT (IT will be able to explain the costs and describe the benefits). The introduction of such method concept is one of the main goals of this article.

This article consists of the following goals:

- Identification of existing gaps in financial and economic management in IT
- Description of the concept of Concentric Circles method and new development of this method
- Discussion of possible effects of application Concentric Circles method

2 GAPS IN THE FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT IN IT

Economic and financial management is an important part of corporate finances and accordingly strategic management of the organization. These disciplines have a long history of development and delivered various methods which help with decision making and problem-solving. On the other hand, the application the methods of the economic and financial management require a multi-disciplined approach.

2.1 Economic and Financial Management in IT Management and IT Governance Frameworks

The comprehensive research of the relevant frameworks from the market point of view was done in the diploma thesis [2]. This thesis elaborates the relevancy from the IT service management perspective and highlights the ITIL (v3), COBIT, and TOGAF frameworks. It also considers the compliance with ISO norms like ISO 20 000, ISO 27 001, or ISO/EIC 38 500, and the compatibility with the following and more technically, development, and implementation oriented enterprise methodologies for the creation of IT services.

This thesis also discusses the relationship between ITIL, COBIT, and TOGAF on the IT Management and IT Governance levels. It is important, that the TOGAF framework recommends the ITIL framework and COBIT framework as possible substitutes of its own processes in IT service management area [2], [3]. The relevance of this consideration restriction to these three frameworks is confirmed by publications [4]–[6]. In these applications, the mentioned three frameworks are described as the main IT Management and IT Governance frameworks.

All three frameworks mention the importance of economic and financial management in IT. On the other hand, their general recommendation is using of common methods of economic and financial management which are used in the financial department of their organization or directly ask for help the financial department [3], [7]–[9]. Except for these recommendations, there are at least mentioned some useful methods in these frameworks for evaluation of IT investments. Generally, there is a repeated method group of ROI (Return on Investment), ROE (Return on Equity), and NPV (Net Present Value). The same approach/method group is mentioned in MBI (Management of Business Informatics) framework [5].
COBIT itself then introduces two processes focused on the economic and financial management: APO06 Manage Budget and Costs and BAI09 Manage Assets. Both of them are under the responsibility of specialists in the financial department. The process APO06 even recommends ITIL v3 2011 and its part Financial Management as reference [10]. It supports previously described conclusions.

Considering the facts mentioned in the text above, ITIL has a dominant position in the area of economic and financial management in IT. At least, it adds the processes which describe activities related to the economic and financial management in IT. Also, it describes which other processes are affected and how the economic and financial management is related to the IT service life-cycle [1]. Considering the facts, that ITIL is recommended as the replacement of some parts in other mentioned frameworks and it has more advanced economic and financial management than other frameworks, in the following text will be discussed the approach of ITIL more deeply.

2.2 Economic and Financial Management in ITIL

In the previous part, ITIL v3 (third version) is mentioned and recommended. But the financial management is also described in the ITIL v2 (second version). The second version describes the financial management within the phase of “Service Delivery” [1], [8]. The third version moved the financial management into the phase “Service Strategy” [1], [7], [11].
This change indicates the shift in the perception for a financial management role within the framework. The comparison of both approaches is discussed in the article [1]. It is concluded that it is not possible to indicate better approach in this article. Both approaches can be perceived as complements because the third version is focused on services and their benefits and the second version is focused on the process which identify and analyze operation costs and prancing in short and medium-term period [1]. The second version introduces three processes [8]: Budgeting, IT Accounting, and Charging.

Processes are connected to the other parts of the second version like Capacity Management and Service Level Management. Budgeting process involves negotiations, budget planning, and cost monitoring. IT Accounting process involves financial reporting and cost classification. Charging process uses the outputs of the two previous processes, determines costs, and manages the invoicing according to business strategy [1].

The third version adds the perspective of the strategic planning. Concepts from the second version are put in the business context via assignment to business cases, mapping to business objectives and goals, or using the impact analysis. As a significant advance is possible to mention the consideration of indirect, intangible, and incalculable benefits to the customers [1].
The article [1] also mention main disadvantage. The approach of the third version which is focused on business benefits requires knowledge of corporate finance, its methods, and its procedures. The article also summarizes the conclusion that the common methods of financial management is not possible to simply apply in IT and it is needed to use modified methods.

2.3 New Research in the Economic and Financial Management in IT

According to previously described analysis, there is a development in economic and financial management in IT, but it is not in the shape of a comprehensive approach. There are still required specific skills and specialist who are not commonly available. On the other hand, there are research initiatives which develop understanding and knowledge in this area.

For instance, in the study [12], [13] are mentioned new methods as BSC (Balanced Scorecard) and EVA (economic value added) beside the common methods like ROI, ROE, and NPV. They are highlighted as enhancement of financial, planning, and investing perspectives [14].

The shift in understanding of assets tied to the IT is described in [15]. There are introduced "IT-related" intangible assets. It is a significant change because these types of asset require different valuation methods and their impact on cost models and overall economic performance of the organization is different.

Based on these inputs, it is possible to identify new trend when economic and financial management in IT is getting closer to the modern corporate finances but in the IT-specific shape. IT management frameworks must be enhanced or extended by new procedures which make economic and financial management more flexible and precise.

3 BUSINESS-IT ALIGNMENT VIA CASH-FLOW BASED METHOD

The new approach to the advanced methods of economic and financial management used in IT management is described in the article [14]. This article discusses possibilities of business-IT alignment improvement using the cash-flow based price-generating model for IT services.

3.1 Business Models and IT

The article [14] uses strategic literature [16] as a base for analysis of strategic management principles. It describes business model, value chain, and organization structure as main components of the strategizing process. The connection between business model and IT services is described as an effective approach to the definition of business-IT alignment. The approach to the business models described in [16] is same to the approach in the publication [17] with more intensive elaboration and definition of the main business model components: Key Partners, Key Activities, Key Resources, Value proposition, Customer Relationship, Channels, Customer Segments, Cost Structure, and Revenue Streams.

According to [14], from the IT services assets perspective, the most important are components Key Activities, Key Resources, and Value Proposition. The article rationalizes the analogical approach in the context of IT services when the IT services can be perceived as elements of key resources and/or value proposition with their economic and financial traits and they must reflect the strategic development of the business models.

3.2 Shortages of Commonly Used Methods

The article [14] also discusses the suitability of financial methods in the context of sustainable profitability. There is referenced important theorem from [16]: "*But, at the same time, pressure on high profitability brings negative side effects. In the context of business models, the significant negative side effect is a reluctance to accepting long-term and resource demanding projects and investments. It is simpler to focus on short or mid-term targeted goals and investments without or with limited negative effect on the profitability*" [14].

The elaboration based on this presumption results into the conclusion that using of methods like ROE, ROI, ROA (Return on Assets), and NPV supports only initial phases of planning and supports focusing on short-term thinking only [14]. As following negative effects is deepening of mismatch between dynamic business and static IT because this approach does not consider the variability of the future and phases of IT service development and operation stay decoupled [14].

3.3 Business-IT Alignment and Business Models

As the possible solution is proposed: "*using of valuation or price-generating models which consider dynamic nature of the business and which can define economical parameters as other business model components*" [14]. In this article is then introduced "Composite EVA Model" based on cash-flow.

The "Composite EVA Model" is introduced in the form of pyramidal decomposition and the components NOPAT (Net Operation Profits After Tax) and WACC (Weighted Average Cost Of Capital) are replaced by newly defined component "Service CF" (service cash-flow) and CROGA (Cash Return On Gross Assets) [14]. The model is shown in Figure 1.

As it is described in [14], the inputs of the model are unit costs "c", unit price "p", and quantity "q". They are inputs for component Service CF which represents cash-flow generated by IT service and for component CROGA which represents assets performance. There are also mentioned two main functions of this model. When EVA = 0, then the unit price covers costs and used assets are not debased. When EVA > 0, then the unit price is economically reasonable in terms of required additional profits.

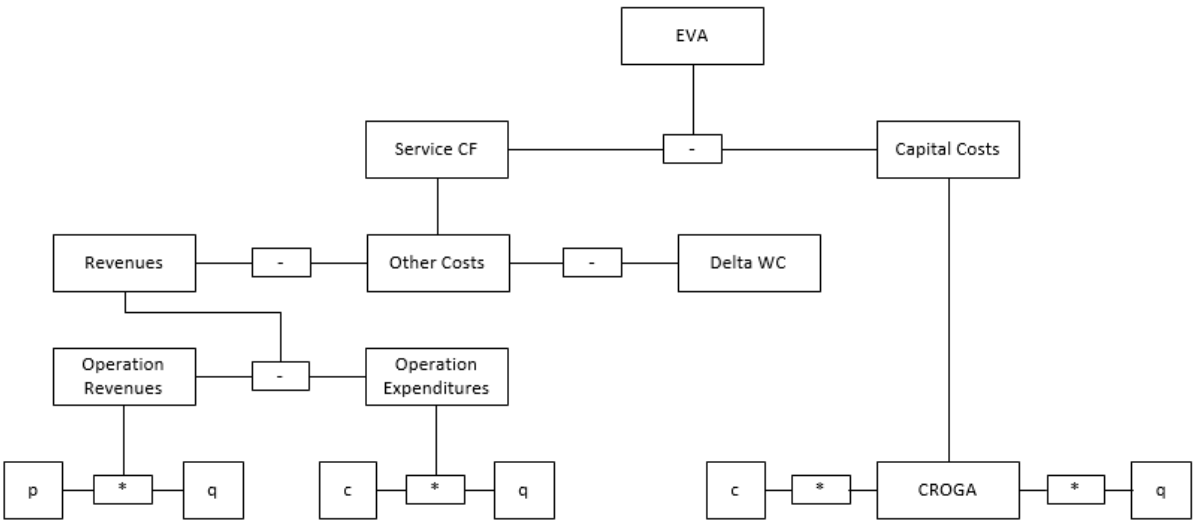

Figure 1 - Simplified scenario of "Composite EVA Model" [14]

This model enables calculations of unit prices based on utilization (q) and costs (c) of IT services and put them into the comparison with the planned business model. The whole situation is shown in Figure 2 with the model situation.

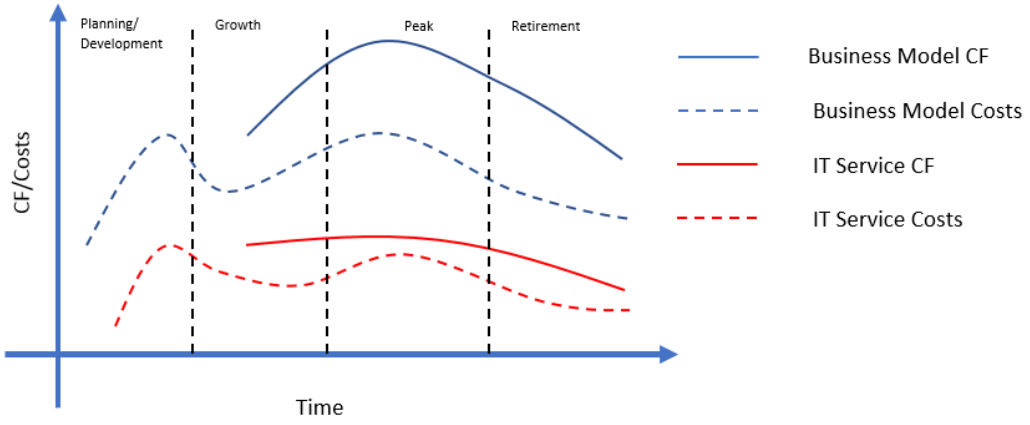

Figure 2 - Connection between IT Service and Business Model [14]

The figure shows the relation between cash-flow of business model, IT Service CF, and costs. It is visible that the IT Service CF is part of overall business model costs. As it is the connection rationalized: "*IT service provider acts as a real partner of business in this scenario. Both sides are connected via payments for IT services and they are equal participants of the business model. The risk is shared by both sides but at the same time, the profits are distributed according to defined prices with targeted rentability. IT service provider (or IT department) is not only entity involved at the beginning of the business project*" [14].

4 CONCENTRIC CIRCLES METHOD CONCEPT

The "Composite EVA Model" is the cornerstone of the "Concentric Circles Method" concept. This concept was introduced in [18] and it develops the paradigms used in the "Composite EVA Model".

4.1 Introduction of Concentric Circles Method Concept

The concept is introduced as financial management in IT maturity model and a framework for financial management in IT [18]. The concept of maturity level is then shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3 - Maturity Levels of Financial Management in IT [18]

As it is mentioned in [18], from the framework perspective, there is expected the application of "tailoring" which is a common procedure in IT as well in corporate finance. In other words, common methods should be adjusted and modified according to the situation and/or requirements. The article also mentions additional two rules:

- Understanding of the internal structure of the organization
- Understanding of the relationship between IT services and their consumers

The brief characteristics of every maturity level are provided in [18]:

- Base level – it is expected description of the IT organization actual state, it involves evidence of available assets (HW, SW, network and infrastructure elements, etc.), organizational structure, specialists, and operational costs of these assets
- The second level – is focused on deeper knowledge about the available resources (or assets), this level analyses suitability of the available resources to the actual operational demands
- The third level – is focused on the relationship between business strategy and IT strategy from a financial perspective, it means especially the assessment of investments into IT and using of "Composite EVA Model" and its metrics derived from the pyramidal decomposition

4.2 Actual Developments of Concentric Circles Method Concept

The article [18] is restricted to the introduction of the concept. The concept itself and Composite EVA Model are still under ongoing development [14]. It is designed as an enabling interface between IT management and financial specialists (or responsible persons, decision makers, project sponsors, etc.) on the side of the business.

The first level – Base Level – already requires particular steps in IT management which are often mentioned as regular steps of financial and economic management in IT in IT management frameworks and standards. It means that it is expected that this concept is used in the environment where the financial and economic management is already present. This level requires detailed evidence of IT-related assets. There is not expected any strategic alignment, but the assets should be organized in a reasonable way like a simple form of

CMDB (Configuration Management Database) is it is introduced in ITIL. In general, it means a list of assets, their classification, and RACI matrix related to these assets.

The second level – Operational Level – is generally based on already recommended methods like ROI, ROE, or NPV as they are mentioned in the text above. This level is focused on the operational efficiency, but at the same time, it prepares IT management for the tasks related to the strategic planning. The transition from the first level through the second level is done via valuation of benefits and planning of capacities while maintaining the optimal allocation of the assets and resources. This approach corresponds to the realization of such solutions which respond to the business requirements in shorter time perspective with the main focus on realization/project phase of the solution or IT service life-cycle. All these tasks are possible to conduct with mentioned methods, but as it was described in the previous text, the focus of IT remains static.

The third level – Strategic Level – is focused on the strategic alignment with the business. It elaborates much further the concepts described in the second level and applies methods BSC (Balanced Scorecard) and Composite EVA Model. Composite EVA Model, as it was mentioned, is primarily the price-generating model, but in the context of the third level can be used in the opposite way – as evaluation of price feasibility. In this case, this model support decision making within the "make or buy" analysis and definition of the sourcing strategy. In the publication [19], simple examples of make or buy decisions are provided. But these examples are focused on procurement/realization phase. Similar approach highlighted as a drawback in the text above. They simply compare purchasing costs with project/realization costs. Composite EVA Model provides the capability for comparison the total revenues and total expenditures across the whole planned life-cycle of IT service or solution.

The second added method on the third level is BSC. BSC is mentioned in [5] as a beneficial variant for definition and planning of strategic goals in IT. An additional advantage of Composite EVA Model is providing more compatible inputs for BSC method. Both these methods are close to each other and their origin in corporate finance opens an opportunity achieving the synergic effect. BSC method can be also used for the analysis of supply chain performance [20]. Considering the conclusions about the importance of business models in the previous part, the ability to assess the performance of supply chain is beneficial. The supply chain is an important part of the business model [17] or IT service operation [2] and according to the presumptions of Composite EVA Model, it is essential for a new concept of the business-IT alignment via cash-flow based methods and financial management.

4.3 Using of New Methods in Concentric Circles Method Concept

As it was indicated in the previous text, the answers to questions of sourcing strategy and make or buy analysis can be affected by the application of the Composite EVA Model. In this way, as the main inputs are the unit prices and resulting EVA is analyzed. The interpretation of negative EVA is that the comparable IT service or solution is not economically reasonable to create/develop internally. And accordingly, the interpretation of positive EVA is that the comparable IT service or solution is possible to deliver internally in economically reasonable manner. In both cases is important to consider the quality of inputs and data used for the analysis. Large IT services vendors and providers are often achieving economies of scale including high security and performance standards. Costs related to these two areas in level appropriate to demands of business must be taken into account accordingly. This third use of the Composite EVA Model is alternative to the two primary uses.

Considering possible uses of the Composite EVA Model, in the publication [14] is mentioned "simplified scenario". This scenario describes internal providing of IT services (for instance by one department within the organization). The Composite EVA Model provides additional two scenarios when the IT services are provided within a holding company (by one company to other affiliated companies) or when the IT services are provided to the third parties as regular service. These scenarios are different from a simplified scenario by adding the taxes and more precise definition of interest rates. Depending on the conditions, it is possible to apply WACC instead of CROGA to take into account required profitability or involve taxes in the calculation of the Service CF, especially in the third-party scenario.

BSC method has high potential in strategic planning and goals definition. BSC method has four main perspectives [21]: Financial, Customer, Internal processes, and Learning and growth. In the BSC method, the value proposition is a key element for the success of the strategy and possible approaches to the superior value proposition with high added value to the customers is same in publications [17], [21]: Operational Excellence, Product Leadership, and Customer Intimacy.

From the IT management point of view, the BSC approach is a different perspective on the business model which should be supported. From the methodological point of view, the BSC method is a catalyst of the transformation of business strategy into the strategic goals using business model as a mutual language. Via BSC method is possible to provide a template how to describe areas of the interest. In combination with the Composite EVA Model, it is possible to provide an adjusted description of the BSC method perspectives:

- Financial – Composite EVA Model takes into account the required interest rate and depreciation of the involved assets. From this perspective, the interests of the stakeholders are protected because the assets are not devaluated. As it was mentioned above, this is important for an organization which has the IT services provision as the main or core business, but it can be relevant also in the providing the IT services within a holding.
- Customer – definition of the appropriate value proposition is crucial. For IT management is important to have clear idea what is expected because without this knowledge is not possible to align the activities and outputs with business goals.
- Internal processes – in this context are meant the processes behind IT services and solution which are involved in the value propositions. This focus is defined after the sourcing strategy because integration with other suppliers directly affects the overall quality of the value propositions.
- Learning and growth – in this context are meant accompanying services including other IT services, support, other advantages and offerings, and other components. Usually, they are offered together with value proposition as a package and they are important for all other perspectives. They affect total costs of the value proposition, but at the same time they are improving the attractiveness to the customers and they also require own internal or external processes. All these factors influence components in the Composite EVA Model.

The BSC method and Composite EVA Model covers the three areas on the third level. The strategy is covered by definition of the goals via BSC method. Profitability is ensured by the Composite EVA Model which takes into the account target profitability rates and/or rates which prevents the devaluation of the assets. Efficiency is represented by synergic effect of both methods, when the strategic goals are supported by IT services

purchased/realized/subscribed for the accepted price and in the required volume defined via Composite EVA Model.

4.4 Discussion of possible effects of application Concentric Circles method

The Concentric Circles method concept, which in the actual form represents the synergic combination of the Balanced Scorecard method and Composite EVA Model, provides new approach and perspective to assessment and handling the economic analysis of IT services in the cost/benefit manner. On the other hand, the Concentric Circles method has also its disadvantages and risks.

The main advantage of the application of the Concentric Circles method is the precise identification of unit costs of the internal realization of IT services and solutions. Price-generating perspective is focused on ensuring the required profitability and protection from the devaluation of the assets. Incorporated Composite EVA Model also takes into account the intangible assets which are integral parts of IT services and solutions. Cash-flow based approach also shows high potential in the make or buy analysis and following definition of the sourcing strategy.

The main disadvantage is a requirement for detailed monitoring of the assets. The Composite EVA Model requires detailed monitoring of resource consumption which is important for the right definition of the unit costs. Especially costs related to overheads and shared infrastructure. But the additional monitoring increases costs and may result into the paralysis due to over complex infrastructure and relationships between elements. It is related one risk with the resource consumption monitoring and it is the impact of overheads dissolution to the prices. They are important reliable tools for dissolution of overheads. Dynamic dissolution of overheads can help with the definition of precise prices, but at the same time, it may result in their instability. The prices are often fixed in SLA or other contract and it is needed to bind the dissolution of overheads to some period to maintain the stability of prices. This conclusion is contradictory to the nature of Composite EVA Model which attempts to determine actual costs and adequate prices at every point of the IT service or solution life-cycle.

5 CONCLUSION

Concentric Circles method concept is based on the tools which have the potential for improvement economic and financial management in IT. Combination of Balanced Scorecard and Composite EVA Model shows a synergic effect from the strategic perspective when the concept of business models is used for harmonization of activities in the business and IT and it helps to switch the role of IT from the static supplier of artifacts into the dynamic partner of business processes.

Economic and financial management perspective supported by Composite EVA Model provides new opportunities how to define the targeted profitability and asset protection in the internal IT department as well in the IT vendor environment. The origin in the corporate finance ensures the flexibility available in the common financial management and economic analysis. At the same time, it incorporates the variability needed in specific IT area.

In this case, the discussion of application the Concentric Circles method concept to the Cloud-Based Manufacturing environment helps to identify the possibilities of this concept and also the drawbacks. The application of the concept to the three scenarios, that the advantages of the concept are more visible in the complex scenarios and the concept is over-complicated for the simpler cases and its benefits are limited. The limitations are also related to the requirement for high quality of input data for proper analysis of the costs and using the model.

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EXPERIMENT MANAGER IMPLEMENTED INTO MOODLE WITH VISUALISATION USING MICROSOFT HOLOLENS

Erich Stark, Erik Kučera, Pavol Bisták, Oto Haffner

Abstract

The paper demonstrates how existing virtual laboratory can be extended with more experiments thanks to experiment manager. As a base project StarkLab was used which uses JavaScript for both client and server implementations. Based on the previous work, the aim was to propose enhancements and create new activity module for education system Moodle which allows to simulate more experiments. This module combines variety of technologies, like Angular.js and PHP. The modern approach is a visualisation of received data in mixed reality using Microsoft HoloLens headset or another compatible device with Windows Mixed Reality platform. The result of this paper is also a module for Moodle which can simulate experiments based on its configuration.

Keywords: *virtual experiment, virtual laboratory, javascript, unity3d engine, mixed reality, moodle, angular.js, node.js*

1 INTRODUCTION

The laboratory is the place where experiments are taken. The usual experimental process requires that a physical laboratory exists. It has to be accessible and equipped with the necessary accessories. In addition, a lab instructor must be also trained to monitor the progress and accuracy of the experiment. Such learning process of practical skills could be a little obsolete because of rapid development new technologies almost in all areas. The added value of new technologies allows us to create new things, but it also enables us to make old things much better, more efficient and more creative. That is why we will try to use the latest tools for creating a virtual lab in the web environment. In this way, we will try to bring the user a better experience and this improve the quality of the learning process [1].

From the students and teachers experience we know that virtual laboratory can be important part of the learning new things. Man can learn faster when he tries things several times, and after that, he understands how it works [2].
The work in this paper brings a new activity module for the education system Moodle, which will have the character of virtual laboratory. This module should be able to simulate different experiments and show the user the results of these simulations in a clear manner.

2 VIRTUAL LABORATORIES

At the time when the Internet was not yet widespread in use, the experiments were done in real laboratories. It was important to keep on with different safety regulations to the possibility of personal injury or damage to equipment. Distance and lack of financial resources make real experiments difficult to perform, especially in cases where it is necessary to have some advanced and sophisticated tools. Another encountered problem is the lack of good teachers. Although at present there are already online courses that provide instructional videos, but it solves the problem only partially. Thanks to internet experiments can be structured for visualization and control remotely. Nowadays, a lot of equipment already provides an interface to connect computer and process data from it. Experimenting over the internet allows the use of resources, knowledge, software and data when physical experiments cannot [3].

In this paper, we discuss the creation of virtual laboratory (VL). Before we describe the list of technologies to create VL, we must explain what we consider under VL. Generally, we can say that VL is a computer program, where students interact with the experiment by the computer via the Internet [2].

A typical example is the simulation experiment, where the student interacts with the web/app interface. Another possibility is a remote-controlled experiment where the student interacts with the real device via the computer interface, although he can be far away. This is the case when a virtual laboratory turns into a remote laboratory.

People often think that the main benefit of a virtual laboratory is to replace the real one. But it is not. You cannot replace the experience of the real work with the VL. Although VL is better than no experience. VL should not be seen as providing the maximum possible interaction experience.

1.1 Components of virtual laboratory

There are plenty of existing laboratories, but usually, it is not possible to guarantee compatibility between them, because there is not a solid standard. Anyway, it is always possible to identify the basic components that virtual laboratories can use. Some of them can be even used more times.

Components:

- The experiment itself.
- The device with possibility to control and acquiring data.
- Laboratory server, which provides control, monitoring and data processing of the experiment.
- Server providing connection between remote users and laboratory server, usually via the internet.
- Web camera connected to a server, which can be used for remote user as a visual and audible feedback on the actual status of the experiment.
- Tools enabling multi-user audio, video and chat communication.
- Client software controlling and representing data of the experiment [4].

It is important to realize which of these components could be used, because for a creation of a virtual laboratory it is not necessary to have them all. Alternatively, others that are perfectly suited for a role can also be used. Sometimes it is used e.g. database server if experiments will be stored and processed later. It is also important to realize what type of VL we want to create. Certainly, differences will be in the design of single-user as opposed to multi-user VL, even with multiple experiments simultaneously. It should bear in mind as properly solve the scalability, potential safety issues, multi-user access and other possible issues.

3 PROPOSAL OF ARCHITECTURE UPGRADE

At start it was needed to analyse previous work on virtual laboratory called StarkLab. Its aim was to create virtual laboratory software based on JavaScript for both client and server side [10]. According to the previous work about virtual laboratories, we have decided to update the architecture for the whole system, which will be described in the introduction of this chapter.

This updated architecture should ensure better modularity, simple extensible functionality and addition of new experiments.

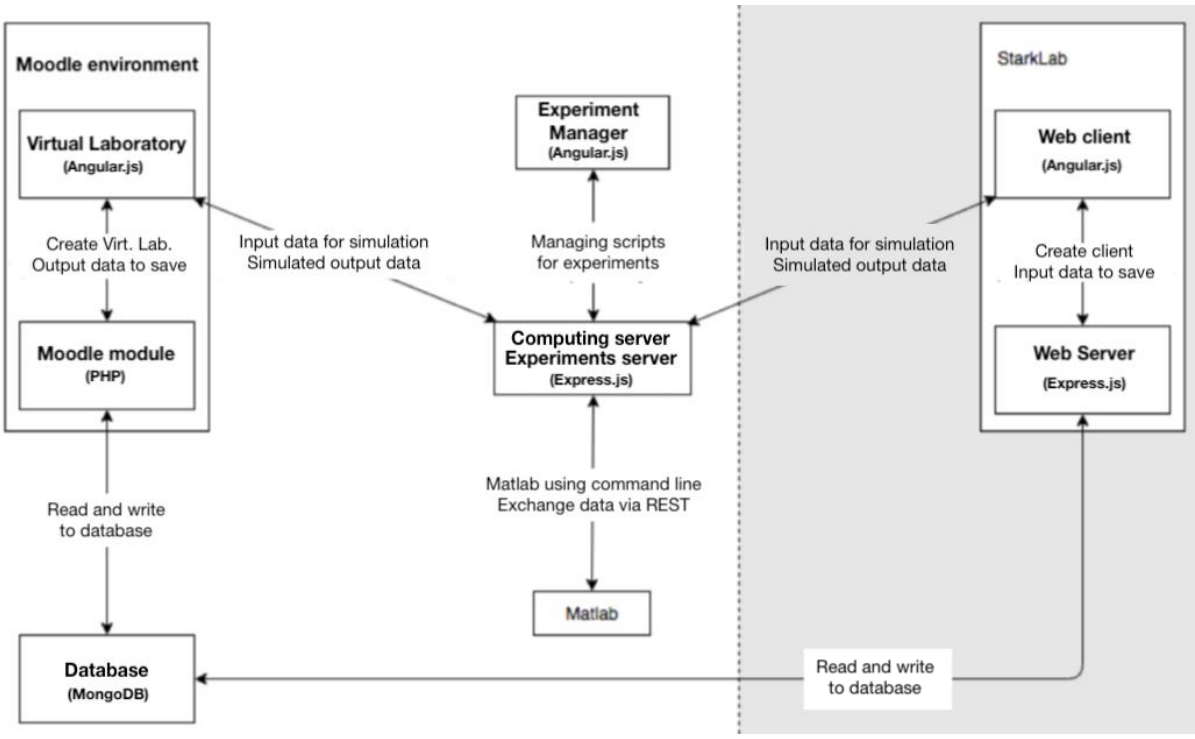


Fig. 1. Updated architecture of StarkLab virtual laboratory

3.1 Moodle environment

Because the Moodle system consists of different modules, it will allow us to create our own module of activities. This module has the role of giving participants a role, such as completing a questionnaire, solving a quiz, etc. In this case, our activity module will allow experiment simulation based on input values. It also allows viewing of simulated data. This viewing is provided by a table, animation, and charts of different dependencies.

Moodle system is based on PHP programming language, but our activity module loads JavaScript files, so an entire user interface could be created using Angular.js framework. This is a non-traditional solution, but we were trying to demonstrate another approach of use JavaScript inside Moodle system.

3.2 Experiment manager

Experiment manager is a very simple user interface designed for lector managing virtual experiments inside Moodle. It is a standalone web application that binds to a computing server and its role is to manage source codes and experiment scripts. Lector can log in with the same credentials as for Moodle. Also, it is possible to upload source codes for new experiments, browsing and searching existing experiments codes and delete old experiment files if needed. The character of this application is SPA (single page application).

3.3 Computation server

The task of the computing server is to mediate the experiment manager. In this case, it behaves a bit like a web server, but it is just marginal functionality. The main task is to accept input values and run them using the Matlab command line and insert the input value into the interface and run the simulation itself. This server is waiting while Matlab starts to return the data from simulation and after that it is sending to the client which requested the simulation. The server communicates with the REST web services, Matlab and clients request the simulation with Socket.io.

3.4 Matlab

Matlab in our architecture represents the computing power. Computation is performed using the command line on server side. Simulated data is forwarded to the specified IP address with the appropriate port using REST services. The simulations run in the Matlab section called Simulink.

3.5 MongoDB database

The role of the selected database is to keep records of the simulated data. These records will be saved in the JSON format. Selected parts of the application that communicate with the database are done using the software drivers. These drivers provide database manipulation tools such as search, storing and deleting items according to the criteria needed.

3.6 Starklab

The full specification and documentation of this virtual laboratory is in the work [2]. Our interventions in our application are minimal and their importance is to achieve compatibility with our computing server, thereby making the StarkLab web server easier. In Fig. 1 StarkLab is highlighted because of compatibility with updated architecture.

4 IMPLEMENTATION

After the design of the new architecture, the implementation phase of the project started, which included the following steps:

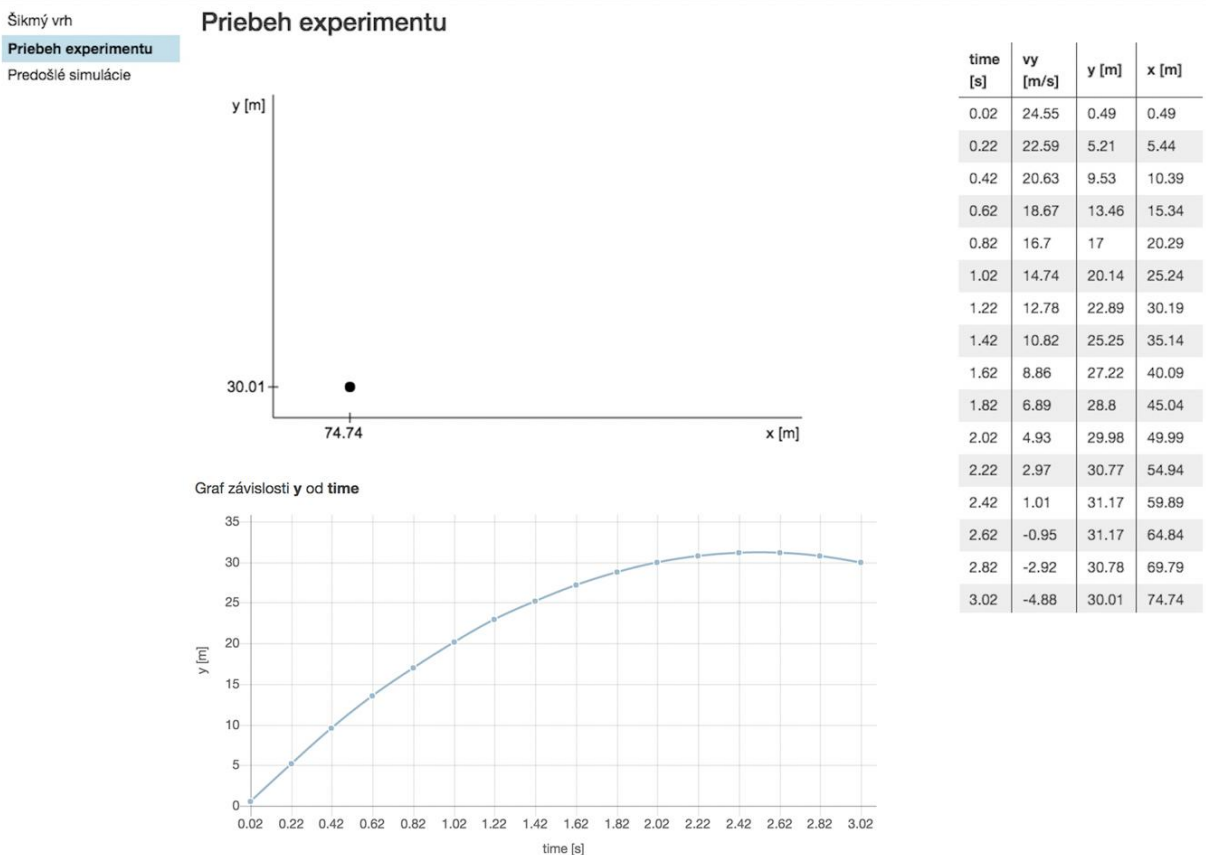
- Create a Moodle activity module called Virtuallab.
- Create a web interface for Virtuallab using Angular.js.
- Create a computing server.
- Create an experiment manager.

4.1 Moodle activity module

Each module for Moodle is stored in its directory. This directory contains a mandatory file structure. This initial structure was obtained from the moodlehq github respository, which contained skeleton to create a new module of activity [7].

4.2 Web interface of Virtuallab

To create a web interface, the JavaScript framework Angular.js was chosen. Interface has input form, real-time data in table component, chart and animation component. It is possible also to show previously data from simulation. The data from this table can be viewed, downloaded or deleted. After submitting the input parameters to the computing server, the web application switches to the progress section, where is waiting to get data. As soon as the web application receives the data from the computing server, the graphs plotting the data and the table is showed as in Fig. 2.



time [s]	vy [m/s]	y [m]	x [m]
0.02	24.55	0.49	0.49
0.22	22.59	5.21	5.44
0.42	20.63	9.53	10.39
0.62	18.67	13.46	15.34
0.82	16.7	17	20.29
1.02	14.74	20.14	25.24
1.22	12.78	22.89	30.19
1.42	10.82	25.25	35.14
1.62	8.86	27.22	40.09
1.82	6.89	28.8	45.04
2.02	4.93	29.98	49.99
2.22	2.97	30.77	54.94
2.42	1.01	31.17	59.89
2.62	-0.95	31.17	64.84
2.82	-2.92	30.78	69.79
3.02	-4.88	30.01	74.74

Fig. 2. Progress of the experiment

After successfully completing the simulation, the data is automatically stored in the MongoDB database and is available in the Previous simulations section. The web fragment of this section can be seen on Fig. 3.

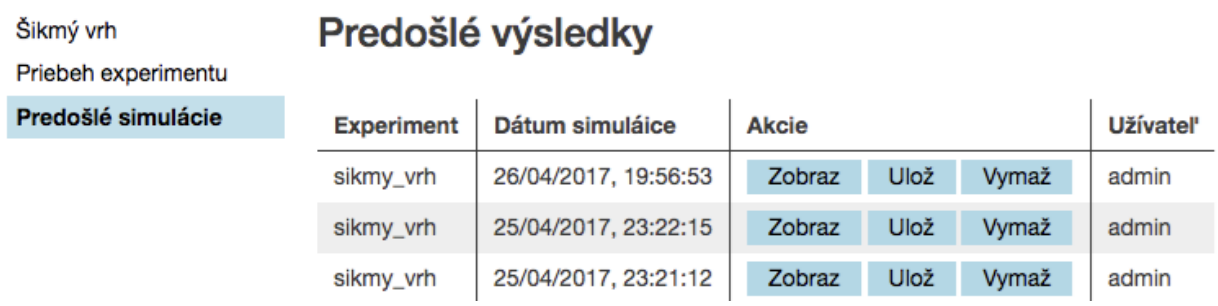


Fig. 3. Previous results section

4.3 Computing server

The main task of the computing server is to receive input parameters from the Virtuallab module for simulations, run these simulations, and return simulated data in real time. Another minor role of this server is to act as a web server for an experiment manager. The server was implemented using the Express.js framework for Node.js technology.

4.4 Experiment manager

Experiment manager is a client web application created using Angular.js framework. The options of this app are:

- Upload a new experiment to the server.
- Viewing already uploaded experiments.
- Option of downloading of an experiment.
- Ability to delete the experiment.
- Search experiment by name.

Fig. 4 shows a simple user interface for this application. The purpose of the green button on the left is to upload new experiments as zip file to the server. If there is already an experiment with the same name, this upload will fail. A list of existing experiments is in the middle. Each experiment contains two buttons, the left is for download and the second one for deletion.

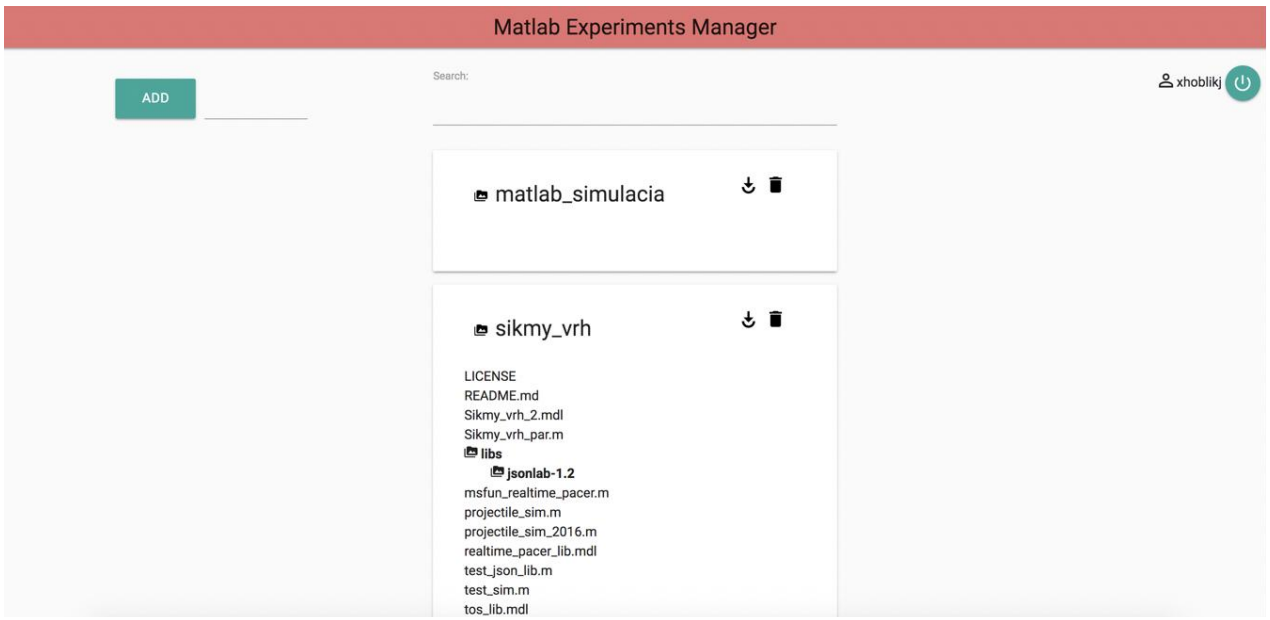


Fig. 4. Experiment manager.

5 VISUALISATION OF VIRTUAL EXPERIMENT IN MIXED REALITY

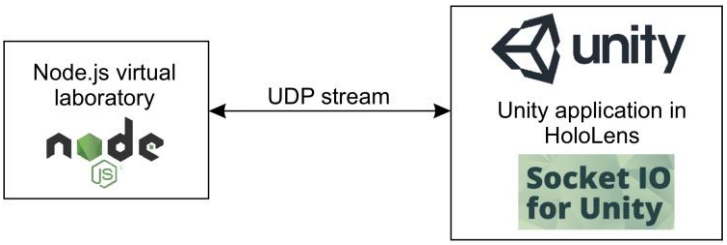
Modern forms of education are now realized on the basis of the development of new ICT technologies (e.g. interactive applications made in 3D engine [11], virtual reality or mixed reality [13]). Visualization of process modelling, identification and control of complex mechatronic systems, elements and drives using virtual and mixed reality allows students to get a much better and quicker understanding of the studied subject compared to conventional teaching methods.

5.1 Concepts of mixed reality

The key characteristic of mixed reality (MR) is that the synthetic content and the real-world content are able to react to each other in real time. Technologies for mixed reality are Microsoft HoloLens (Windows Mixed Reality platform), Android ARCore and Apple ARKit.

Fig. 5. Example of mixed reality – Microsoft HoloLens

5.2 Virtual experiment in mixed reality



For development Unity3D engine was used. Proposed Unity application for Microsoft HoloLens brings a visualization of results from described Node.js virtual laboratory in mixed reality.

Fig. 6. Scheme – visualization of virtual laboratory in mixed reality developed in Unity3D

By this application, students get better insight into the results of the experiment. It was needed to connect Unity application with Node.js laboratory. There is a free library for Unity called Socket.IO for Unity [12] which was used in the proposed application.

In Fig. 8, it is possible to see the results from the virtual laboratory in Unity engine. The application was deployed on Microsoft HoloLens. The results in mixed reality, you can see in Fig. 7.

Fig. 7. Results from virtual laboratory in mixed reality (Microsoft HoloLens)

Fig. 8. Results from virtual laboratory in Unity3D engine

6 EXTENSIBILITY WITH A NEW EXPERIMENT

In this section it will be described the necessary conditions the experiment must meet, so that its simulation can be executed in our system:

- Stored on a computing server in a folder with a unique name.
- M-file for initialization of input parameters to the Moodle environment.
- M-file to run the Simulink schema and return output values.
- Simulink scheme.

The above steps will be described in one of the working experiments that can be simulated in the activity module. It is an experiment called free fall.

6.1 Initial parameters of experiment to m-file

```
1   function [] = volny_pad_par(map_input)
2       % parameters for the free fall model
3       % height [m] - initial height
4
5       height = map_input('height');
6       userFromWeb = map_input('logged_user');
7       ipadrs = map_input('ipadrs');
8       port = map_input('port');
9       from = map_input('from');
10      % [m/s^2] gravitational acceleration
11      g = 9.81;
12
13      % [s] time until impact
14      td = sqrt((2*height)/g);
15
16      % copy variables to the scope
17      A = who;
18      for i = 1:length(A)
19          assignin('base', A{i}, eval(A{i}));
20      end
21  end
```

On rows 5-9 it reads the input values that were sent from the client. In this case, height represents the initial height of the body. The height string must be the same as the string used to configure the activity module inputs. The variable from determines whether this is a request from StarkLab or Virtuallab. Next, we define the necessary values, in this case the time of impact. The impact time determines the length of the simulation duration. The last step is to copy the values to the Matlab workspace, so that they remain in it even when the process is complete.

Fig. 9. M-file script to get parameters.

6.2 Simulation handling m-file

That file has the code needed to load the simulation scheme, run the simulation, communicate between Matlab and the computing server, and complete the simulation. It is about the scope of this paper, so for more details, check the page 53 [1].

6.3 Simulink scheme

In Fig. 10, it can be seen a simple scheme for simulating free fall. The necessary simulation components are:

- The *Clock* controls the time of the simulation.
- Block for a function where a simulation function is defined.
- *Scope* displays simulated data.
- *Real-time pacer* ensures soft real-time simulation [9].

All Scopes has to be setup for saving data to Matlab workspace in the proper format.

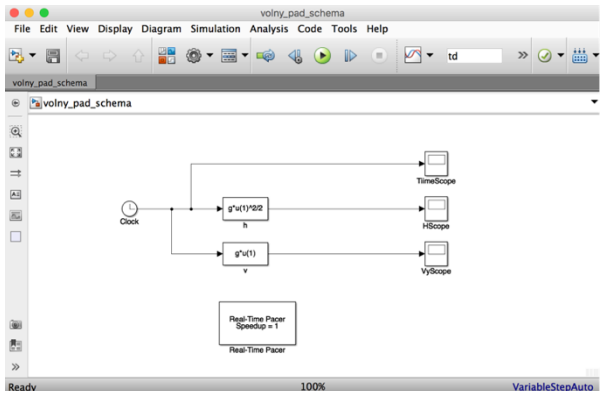


Fig. 10. Simulink scheme of free fall experiment.

7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this paper was to demonstrate updated architecture of StarkLab especially with the activity module for educational information system Moodle. The purpose of this module is to simulate experiments in such a way that lector can configure instance of this module. Linking this module with any experiment which source code and scripts are available is very simple. Lector just has to fill configuration form correctly. Additionally, this module can store the simulated data for later processing, and allows you to view it in a web browser again in a form of a table, chart and animation.

In the later part of the work, there was a requirement to create an experiment manager for easier access. Its role is to manage source codes and experiment scripts. This manager simplifies work for users of the activity module and gives the application a modern look.

The most used technology in project is JavaScript. This modern programming language has an unbelievable amount of use today. Whether on the client side where the Angular.js framework was used to create client parts of the activity module application and as well as the experiment manager. Its versatile use was demonstrated by the creation of a computer server that was responsible for managing the Matlab computing program. The Node.js JavaScript technology, expanded by Express.js web service framework, was used to create this server. JavaScript has also played a major role in real-time communications across parts of the system.

The future work will also focus on additional development for Microsoft Hololens and also find new possibilities with mobile devices for mixed reality.

Acknowledgment

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PROPOSAL OF INTERNET OF THINGS DEVICES CONTROL USING MIXED REALITY

Erich Stark, Erik Kučera, Peter Drahoš, Oto Haffner

Abstract

The Internet of Things and mixed reality are now among the most important areas in research or in practice. The aim of this paper is to propose an appropriate way of connection of these two areas, where is possible to control and monitor IoT devices using a compatible mobile device with augmented/mixed reality support. Such a way would meet the current needs of industry and practice. The main task will be to explore these options in the area and implement this solution on IoT prototyping devices. The proposed methodology for control and diagnostics of IoT devices is modern as it combines hardware management, a 3D engine for mixed reality development, and communication within the Internet of Things network – it contains all areas of mechatronics.

Keywords: *internet of things, web of things, augmented reality, virtual reality, mixed reality, device control*

1 INTRODUCTION

Currently, computer networks are no longer just for connecting conventional computers like they once were. Their purpose gained a new dimension when mobile devices and embedded systems began to connect to these networks. At present, these boundaries are shifted to the level of connection of individual sensors, various household appliances, and even autonomous cars to the network [1]. This expansion of connected devices has also happened because of the rise of microcomputers like Raspberry Pi, DragonBoard, and similar prototyping solutions. At the same time, people begin to realize the value of data that these sensors generate. They can help us streamline processes in industry and services or make life easier with smart home solutions. As a result, the emergence of new types of networks such as Internet of Things (IoT) are needed. The concept of IoT can be found at almost every conference in the field of information and communication technologies or in scientific articles[10,11,12]. The Gartner company makes regular analyzes and research into the use of various technologies. Earlier in 2017, an analysis was made that states that IoT will have up to 20.5 billion connected devices in 2020 [2]. These paradigms would not take place without the development of new networks, data transmission protocols and the necessary software equipment. At present, IoT devices are controlled by console, web, or mobile applications. Using these conventional methods of controlling IoT devices in a small room can be quite simple. Because the list of devices is on one screen, we can see and set properties almost instantly. But if there are multiple rooms or buildings, the segmentation of these devices may be totally unclear and cumbersome. Here is the opportunity to use current trends and modern technologies in the field of virtual, augmented and mixed reality. These technologies are able to put digital objects into the real world. Their convenience lies in the fact that objects from the real world are enriched with information relevant to the given object that one is looking at. This camera stream processing is real-time.

Mixed reality can now be developed and tracked with compatible headset - such as Microsoft HoloLens or compatible mobile devices (smartphones and tablets) from both leaders in the segment - Google Android and Apple iOS. The implementation of the proposed project involves the use of mobile devices for their wide availability - whether for household or industry. Compatible headsets are currently not suitable for this purpose, as businesses

(especially small and medium-sized ones) are often unwilling to invest in these headsets. The proposed methodology for controlling and diagnosing IoT devices is modern as it combines hardware management, a 3D engine for mixed reality development, and communication within the Internet of Things network - all areas of mechatronics. The proposed solution is unique and will contribute to the scientific field of mechatronics.

2 COMPUTER GENERATED REALITY

2.1 Virtual reality (VR)

Virtual reality is a term that is mentioned in various areas, not only in information and communication technologies. Films like Matrix have brought virtual reality from the sci-fi world to the human mind. Examples of virtual and extended reality are becoming more and more real-life, from military air simulators to simple smartphone applications. Everyone can have their own idea of virtual reality, so it is necessary to introduce a suitable definition.

Virtual reality consists of an interactive computer simulation that senses the state of the user and replaces or extends sensory feedback information to one or more senses in such a way that the user gets a feeling of being immersed in the simulation (virtual environment).

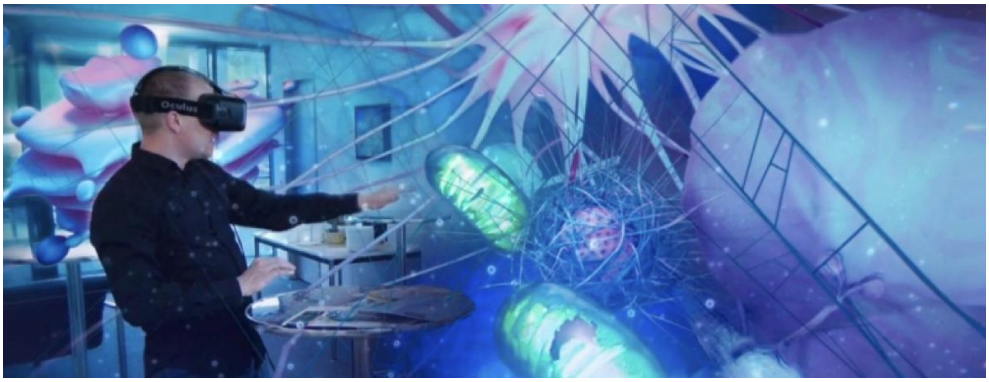

Fig. 1. Virtual reality example

2.2 Augmented reality (AR)

Augmented reality (AR) is an overlapping of content in the real world, but this content is not embedded or part of it. The content of the real world is not capable of responding to computer-generated content [3]. Augmented reality is therefore a live, direct or indirect view of a real world that is complemented by computer generated (CG) elements such as audio, video, graphics, or GPS data. Augmented reality is a layer of content above the real world, and this content is not anchored to this world or its part. As has been said, elements of the real world and CG content can not react with each other.

The purpose of Augmented reality is to improve user perception and improve its effectiveness through additional information. The user retains awareness of the real world, but in an ideal extended reality it would not be able to recognize the difference between information from the real world and the virtual world.

Fig. 2. Augumented reality example

2.3 Mixed reality (MR)

Mixed reality (MR) is an overlap of the real world with synthetic content that is embedded in it and interacts with the real world. The key feature of MR is that real-world synthetic content and content can respond in real time to one another. Mixed reality is thus a combination of the real world and the virtual world, creating a new environment and visualization where physical and digital objects coexist and interact with each other in real time. Mixed reality is the layer of artificial (digital) content in a real world that is anchored and interacts with the real world. An important fact is that, in the case of mixed reality, advanced mapping of the environment is required for the placement of additional CG elements.

If information is to be successfully combined, virtual objects must act physically in a suitable way. If a real and virtual object collision occurs, both must respond appropriately. In addition, virtual objects must overlay the view of real objects and also shadow on them. All this can only be achieved by a precise model of real and virtual environments.

Fig. 3. Mixed reality example of globe placed on the table

The first hardware for mixed reality, currently the most advanced device of the segment, is Microsoft HoloLens. The problem is still a relatively high price, but there is also an emulator for development.

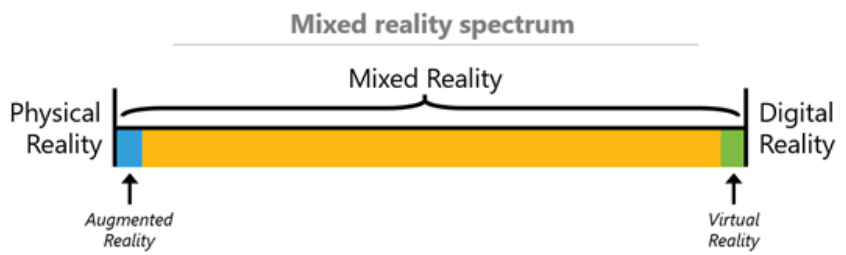

Fig. 4. Mixed reality spectrum

Based on the information we have mentioned, mixed reality seems to be the most exciting. However, it is possible to imagine the future in which synthetic content will be able to react in some way and even communicate with the real world [3].

3 INTERNET OF THINGS

Internet of Things (IoT) - The Internet of Things is currently a very widespread term in the field of modern information and communication technologies. This issue is the subject of various debates as its deployment in industry and services brings about more effective action, but it also raises various issues, such as safety. Thus, IoT concerns almost all fields of human activity [4].

In general, IoT can be defined as a set of physical objects (or things) embedded in electronics, software, sensors and connected devices that are connected together in the network to allow data exchange with other interconnected devices to achieve higher value and more services for users. These IoT devices create a linked network in which each is uniquely identifiable with a unique IP address and capable of communicating with existing network infrastructures.

3.1 IoT requirements

The main IoT requirements are based on the above objectives. An IOT architecture must enable:

- data / information / knowledge collection,
- data / information / knowledge storage,
- data / information / knowledge analysis,
- results sharing,
- safety.

Important requirements include interoperable and efficient data transfer and sharing, and therefore the choice of a suitable communication standard and data model. Another requirement for IoT systems is the processing of large volumes of data generated by IoT devices. From the point of view of user, it is also important that the solution is simple to deploy, easy to integrate with other applications and systems, and to achieve a clear organization and presentation of the processed data.

4 RELATED WORK

In the paper [5], the authors presented the Augmented Things concept, where computer objects contain all the information needed to track and expand the information required by AR applications. This allows the user to connect to them, retrieve information using their mobile device, and get expanding information like, for example, maintenance, device, or usage information. The authors have created also a simple 3D framework that allows you to track objects using high quality 3D high resolution scans.

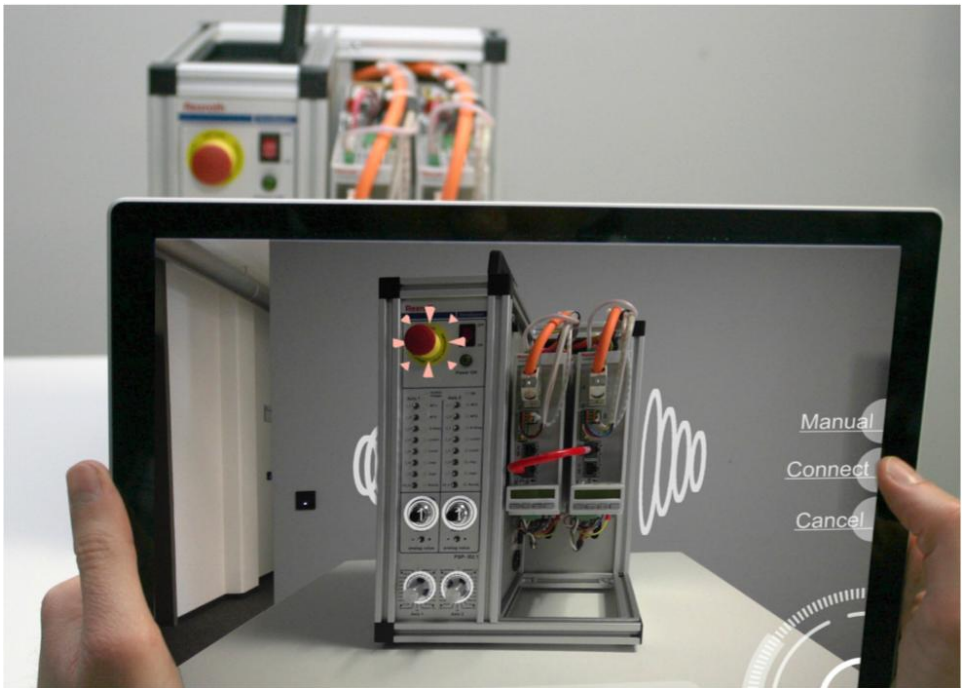

Fig. 5. Augmented Things objects contain and share their AR information

Phillipe Lewicki has attempted to create a demonstration program to help control the Philips Hue light bulb using the Microsoft HoloLens device as seen in Fig. 6. He realized that today's solutions allow you to control the bulbs using the mobile application they need to open, to find a particular room, and then a particular bulb. Often, such applications are limited because smart bulbs contain more features than just turn on / off.

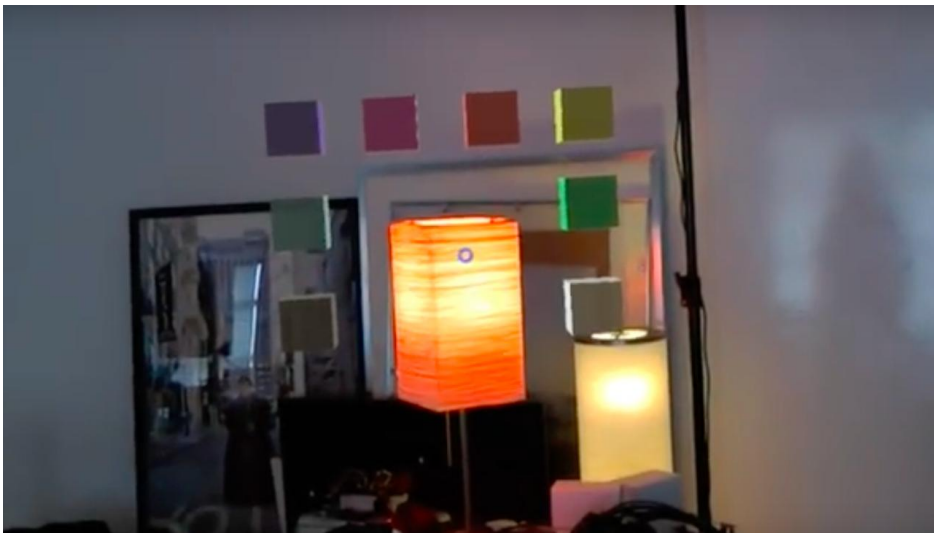
Fig. 6. Application for HoloLens, enabling color adjustment of light

Thanks to the HoloLens on the head, it was only possible to look at the light and turn it into a simple gesture or change the color of the light. It was faster than a wall switch [6].
Figure 7 shows Proof of Concept (PoC) by designer Ian Sterling and software engineer Swaroop Pala. Their concept shows how smart devices could be controlled by gestures. The task of this project was to provide a 3D user interface with Android Music Player and Arduino light fan [7].

Fig. 7. Light control using HoloLens and Arduino devices

5 SYSTEM PROPOSAL

The diagram of the proposed system can be seen in the Fig. 9.

System description:

1. At the beginning of the system is mixed reality device which is able to analyze data stream from camera and detects physical objects.
2. Application can connect to identical object in the cloud.
3. Data from the device sensors are sent to the cloud.
4. Mixed reality application gets information about device and shows tailored user interface.
5. The user can interact with that device using mixed reality experience.
6. It is possible to send some control commands to the cloud.

There will be some challenges with localization and identification devices:

1. Environment recognition with exact list of IoT devices.
2. Recognize specific devices using mixed reality SDK's.
3. Detection of device signals in the room or environment.

This system can be decoupled into several components described in subsections below.

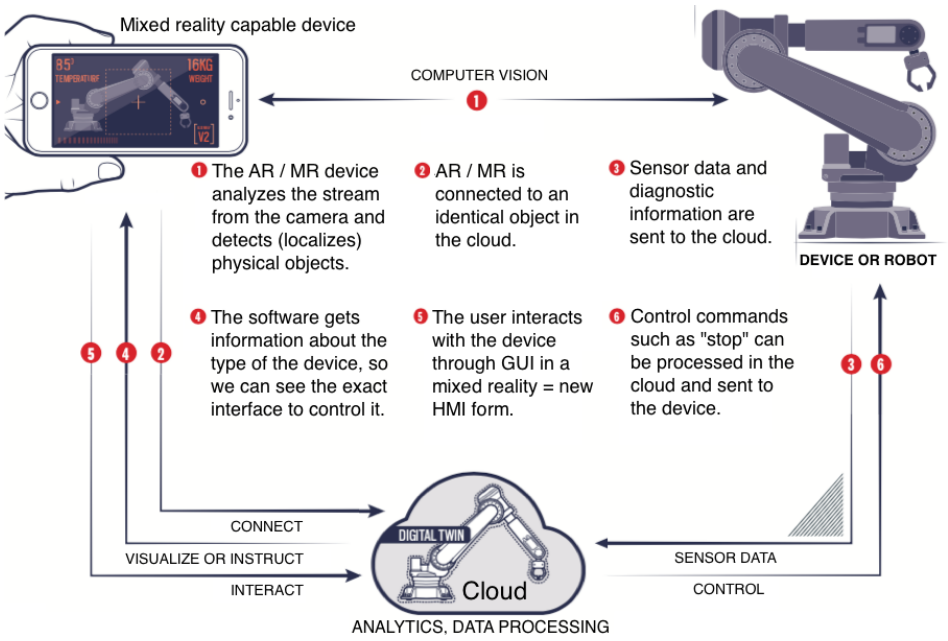

Fig. 8. Diagram of system proposal

5.1 Camera device with mixed reality support and computer vision tools

The best option for mixed reality experiences nowadays is smartphone when comes to price or availability for masses. Basically there are two options: Android system with ARCore SDK or iOS with ARKit SDK support. ARKit SDK was chosen because of greater support of functions needed for this project. For example like persistent content or 3D object recognition in recently announced ARKit 2.

At first it has to be created software which can analyze video stream from smartphone camera and detects physical objects. ARKit will be used with support of framework Vuforia inside Unity 3D editor which helps a lot with software development. The main features of Vuforia SDK is *Multi Target* detection, *User Defined Targets* or *Cloud Recognition*.

5.2 Software platform for IoT

OPC is currently the most advanced standardized data exchange process for automation technology. It allows the collection and transmission of data in a unified form from various devices, control systems and applications throughout the organization. The design of this standard allows mapping almost all industrial data into the OPC data structure. OPC UA is an enhanced version of the OPC standard that has a unified architecture that makes it a platform-independent protocol. In addition, it has built-in security mechanisms and applications are fully scalable from microcontrollers to corporate servers.

5.3 IoT prototyping hardware kit

There were many options for prototyping devices from single hardware to complex IoT kits. It was not easy to find IoT kit which meet system requirements the most.

BigClown is a modular hardware and software system that allows to prototype and build real-world telemetry, automation and other applications including IoT. BigClown can be imagined as a set of components with a single interface that can be connected together depends on application needs.

The core of each device is the so-called Core Module. It is powered by a single core CPU with the Cortex-M0+, specifically STM32L083CZ. This chip was chosen for a number of reasons: it is proven and used ARM CPU from STM32 series, has a very low consumption (which is important for powering the nodes from battery), has integrated USB with ROM bootloader, enough number of interfaces, (Flash, RAM and EEPROM), and above all, it has two cryptographic components: TRNG (True Random Number Generator) and AES-128 computing accelerator.

Fig. 9. Whole BigClown ecosystem [8]

6 CONCLUSION

The upcoming trend Internet of Things has an impact not only on applications for various services, households and intelligent buildings, but also significant impact on industry and industrial production. The application of IoT principles in industry is called Industrial Internet of Things (IIoT), where in this case instead of interconnected devices is used individual machine parts or their sensors and actuators, as well as sensors and actuators for HVAC (Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning) security. Device interconnection should be wireless in particular, and should bring new interaction capabilities not only between systems, but also bring new capabilities to control, track and secure advanced services.

This proposal of interconnection IoT and mixed reality can bring new form of Human Machine Interface which can save time for users or companies.

The future work will focus on developing such a solution with technologies mentioned before.

Acknowledgment

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LEARNING-BY-DOING - A MICROCONTROLLER BASED MOBILE PLATFORM FOR A TEACHING IMPROVEMENT

Izabela Perenc, Tomasz Jaworski, Piotr Duch

Abstract

The challenge of contemporary teaching is to interest students and present the knowledge in efficient and appealing manner. Among many approaches to the problem one of the most adequate in Computer Science course is introduction of a microcontroller-based teaching platform. A mobile platform equipped with Arduino microcontroller was introduced during classes on Intelligent Autonomous Systems. The participants could implement intelligent behaviour of a vehicle and observe results in a real world. After course completion, students were questioned to present opinions on the use of Arduino and the mobile platform during the course. The questionnaire was electronic and anonymous. The attitude was positive, majority of participants liked the classes and opportunity to program tangible device. The approach of enriching the course through a programmable device facilitated learning and increased interest and engagement of students.

Keywords: *learning-by-doing, programming, Arduino*

1 INTRODUCTION

Nowadays employees have to change or improve their qualifications almost permanently. We live in the age of information which implies constant learning process in order to catch up with changes in the World. On the other hand people are always busy and do not have time to waste. Those conditions encourage searching for the most efficient methods of learning. The problem of inadequate learning process is well visible at universities, where presented knowledge is theoretical, sometimes outdated and far from industrial standards.

Moreover, the present generation of students demands different methods of learning than those applied in the previous century. Neither the knowledge is presented to students in the same way nor the requirements of learning anything by heart is valid, but it is rather demanded to understand and solve posed problems. Apart from it students have different motivation, while choosing field and direction of studies. They are more willing to learn if the knowledge is presented in interesting manner and they can see a practical application of theoretical principles.

The responsibility of adequate approach to students rests on teacher's shoulders. They should apply methods that allow students to understand presented material and what is more, engage students in active participation in classes.

In order to foster students' interest additional supporting materials are more and more often introduced during lectures and laboratories. This concerns also the courses related to programming where microcontrollers are used so as to give students additional means of interaction with environment. Driven by this approach a mobile platform equipped with Arduino board was introduced on the classes of Intelligent Autonomous Systems, run at Institute of Applied Computer Science, Lodz University of Technology.

During the course of Intelligent Autonomous Systems (lasting for one academic year) students had to make a project of an autonomous vehicle. They were given a programmable mobile platform with which they could communicate with via Bluetooth and Wi-Fi. The first task was to make a vehicle follow a specific object, the second was to implement an algorithm for autonomous driving to a given destination avoiding collisions.

The students' perception of the proposed approach was assessed basing on a questionnaire, which consisted of 14 questions, 13 of which in the form of statements with answers in the Likert scale and one question concerning the academic year in which they were attending the course.

2 RELATED WORKS

The issue of students' perception of the course, belief in usefulness of material and interests is a foundation of a successful course. Each domain has own specific methods of learning, e.g. different teaching methods are applied during mathematics and biology courses. Also Computer Science has proper methods of teaching (Hazzan et al.) that result in different outcomes.

The attitude of students to Computer Science as a factor of learning process was investigated (Hoegh and Moskal; Martín-Ramos et al.) in order to improve the quality of classes. Authors point out that engagement and motivation to learn helped to acquire new skills.

Additional resources and systems that keeps motivation and encourage competition can also improve attendance and final grades (Fotaris et al.). Such tools can not only increase quality of classes but also facilitate teachers' work (Duch and Jaworski, *Dante – Automated Assessments Tool for Students' Programming Assignments*). As universities have two main functions, research and teaching, innovations in the latter are important for academic values.

The idea of taking an advantage out of existing equipment for enthusiast was presented in many articles (Martín-Ramos et al.; Jang et al.; Mokrosiński and Jaworski; Duch and Jaworski, *Enriching Computer Science Programming Classes with Arduino Game Development*). Arduino is easy in programming and has a vast documentation, what is more important this is an open source project and anyone has an access to it. Middle school students are able to complete simple projects on Arduino (Jang et al.) during one week course.

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

The course of Intelligent Autonomous Systems was introduced to the pole of elective courses in 2017. Students could independently choose them, making the best match to their interests. During the discussed course a basics of Arduino were presented, as well as essentials of electronics necessary to operate basic equipment (e. g. DC drivers). This knowledge enabled to drive a mobile platform and collect signals from a variety of sensors (ultrasonic, accelerometer, encoders, magnetometers). Students were divided into working groups and each was handled a prepared mobile platform equipped with two drivers, set of sensors and Arduino Due board.

The goal for the project during the first semester was to implement a simple object recognition system. In second semester students should implement fuzzy logic controller in order to find an exit from a maze (by driving through it). During lectures and laboratories the essential knowledge was presented, but implementation was completely left for the students within groups.

At the end of the second edition (2018) of the course a survey was prepared and given to students in an electronic form. The number of 21students, out of 46 who had taken part in the course, have submitted their opinion so far. The survey was distributed through the university mail system.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Among submitted fulfilled questionnaires 23.8% of participants attended the course during the first edition of the course in 2017 while the rest (76.2%) attended the second edition.

The outcomes from the survey are presented in Table 1. Each question can be individually graded via responses list (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree,

strongly agree). Each response has a numerical mark assigned: 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree etc. The three last columns presented the: average, variance and median value of answers for each question separately.

The questions 1 and 3 were introduced to the questionnaire in order to assess the attitude of students to their studies. The students stated clearly that they are interested in programming that indicates that they choice of studies was driven by their interests. In opposite situation the students would be in advance prejudiced against the domain. Answers for the third question confirm that students are willing to gain knowledge, and did not come to university only to get the diploma.

Overall students are quite neutral towards electronics, but opinions differ significantly within the groups. There were students who were very interested in electronics as well as those who have no interest in it at all. It suggests that the course should not be focused on electronics, what is in compliance with study program on Computer Science.

The use of Arduino during classes was well appreciated as well as the use of mobile platforms what can be derived from questions 5, 6 and 7. The use of additional equipment that helps in understanding of theoretical material is essential for students. They have found the classes interesting and engaging, hence the courses involving Arduino could be broaden during the entire Computer Science study program.

The outcomes of question 8 indicate that Arduino programming was slightly easier for students than the standard assignments requiring console programming.

Taking into considerations question 9 and 10 it can be concluded that enhancing classes through use of Arduino and mobile platforms was the right solution. The students could learn more thanks to the use of additional equipment. What is more, they consider the time spent on additional equipment programming as worthwhile and fruitful. The possibility to observe an immediate effect of written programs in real world allowed them to better understand the material they were taught.

The overall knowledge acquired during the course was considered useful. Furthermore the participants would recommend the course to other students, what means the course have met their expectations.

Table 1 Questionnaire results. Values of mean, variance and median are calculated for marks 1 … 5 based on Likert scale.

#	Question	Disagree			Agree		Mean	Var.	Median
1	I'm interested in programming.	0	0	2	2	17	4,71	0,64	5
2	I'm interested in electronics.	2	3	6	7	3	3,29	1,19	3
3	The knowledge gained during studies is more important than the diploma.	0	0	4	5	12	4,38	0,80	4
4	The course encouraged me to obtain more knowledge in the field.	0	2	4	11	4	3,81	0,87	4
5	I would like to take part in another course involving Arduino.	1	2	2	8	8	3,95	1,16	4
6	I would prefer other courses involved additional equipment, enabling practical use of presented material.	0	0	4	7	10	4,29	0,78	4
7	The classes involving mobile platforms programming were more interesting and engaging than previous ones.	1	0	5	6	9	4,05	1,07	4
8	Arduino programming was easier than previous programming in console.	1	1	8	6	5	3,62	1,07	4
9	If the classes were conducted in standard manner (without use of additions equipment among others Arduino), I would have learned	10	6	3	0	2	1,95	1,24	2

	more about intelligent autonomous systems.								
10	Programming of additional equipment involved too much time in comparison to acquired benefits.	4	8	5	3	1	2,48	1,12	2
11	Thanks to possibility of watching how the program works on the tangible mobile platform I have learned more.	0	0	3	8	10	4,33	0,73	4
12	The knowledge gained during course was useful.	1	1	4	7	8	3,95	1,12	4
13	I would recommend the course to other students.	1	1	4	7	8	3,95	1,12	4

5 CONCLUSIONS

The assessment of course success is not a trivial task. Some students can be interested only in course completion and do not focus on gaining knowledge, other might be focused mainly on grades. The final marks are not determinant if the course meets students' expectations and broaden their horizons.

The use of additional equipment – Arduino and mobile platforms – helped to raise interest and engaged students. What is more, in spite of higher workload they were still satisfied with obtained outcomes. It was claimed that they have learned more thanks to additional equipment that allowed them to understand the theory.

The survey results have indicated that the introduction of the enhanced course was an adequate way of development of Computer Science study program. Furthermore the success of the classes can be supported by doubling the amount of students that are willing to participate in it during the second edition in comparison to its premiere.

The concept of practical application of theoretical knowledge is beneficial for students and helps teachers to illustrate the course content by tangible examples. The approach could also be advantageous to other Computer Science courses, what is being planned in near future.

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NETWORK MODELING OF INFORMATION SYSTEM IN CONDITIONS OF CERTAINTY

Andrey Semakhin

Abstract

Effectiveness increase of information system design is a relevant objective. To solve the problem determinate network model of information system organization in the conditions of certainty has been developed. The determinate network model of information system organization is network diagram. The network diagram consists of nodes and arrows. The method of network planning and control is used for decision of problem. The decision of a problem is defined by critical path method. The timing performances of events and activities are calculated. The critical path is defined. The activity stack times are calculated. The results of the study allow increasing effectiveness of information system design, lessening financial and time expenses, improving reasonability of the decisions made.

Keywords: *determinate network model, activity network, activity, event, early start time, early finish time, late start time, late finish time, critical path, activity stack time*

1 INTRODUCTION

The use of information resources increases the quality of system management. Effective technologies of information system design ensure the speedup of creation, introduction and development of information system design, increase reliability. Information system design requires fulfillment of a great amount of work, compliance with delivery dates of realization and clear coordination of performers' interaction. Methods of network planning and control are an effective way of presentation and management of a complex of related work. Determinate network models are used for network planning in the conditions of certainty. The time of work completion is a deterministic variable. Effectiveness increase of information system design is a relevant objective.

2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To develop a determinate network model of the information system of the territory fund of compulsory health insurance of Kurgan region in the conditions of certainty, to count time parameters of events and activities of the network diagram, to define the critical path of the network diagram and activity stack times.

3 DEVELOPMENT OF NETWORK MODEL

The solution of a problem includes stages: creation of a table of stages of work completion, development of determinate network model, counting time parameters of events and activities of the network diagram, counting of activity stack times of the network diagram and tension coefficients [1].

The list of performed activities is given in table 1.

Table 1. List of performed activities

Item number	Activity code	Statement of activity
1	1-2	Development of technical specification
2	1-3	Development of technical design

Item number	Activity code	Statement of activity
3	2-3	Coordination of technical specification with technical design
4	2-4	Adoption of technical specification
5	3-4	Adoption of technical design
6	4-5	Inspection and analysis of administrative buildings of management in Kurgan
7	4-6	Inspection and analysis of administrative buildings of management in regional departments
8	5-7	Realization of groundwork in management in Kurgan
9	6-7	Realization of groundwork in regional departments
10	7-8	Development of structure of computer network
11	8-9	Choice and justification of network architecture of computer network
12	9-10	Choice of satellite Internet provider
13	10-11	Purchase of computation, network equipment
14	10-12	Purchase of satellite equipment
15	10-13	Purchase of software
16	11-14	Delivery of computation, network equipment into management
17	11-15	Delivery of equipment into regional departments
18	12-14	Delivery of satellite equipment into management in Kurgan
19	12-15	Delivery of satellite equipment into regional departments
20	13-14	Delivery of software into management
21	13-15	Delivery of software into regional departments
22	14-16	Installation of computer network in management
23	14-17	Installation of satellite equipment in management
24	15-18	Installation of computer network in regional departments
25	15-19	Installation of satellite equipment in regional departments
26	16-20	Connection of network equipment in management in Kurgan
27	17-20	Connection of satellite equipment in management in Kurgan
28	18-21	Connection of computer network in regional departments
29	19-21	Connection of satellite equipment in regional departments
30	20-22	Software installation in management in Kurgan
31	21-23	Software installation in regional departments
32	22-24	Hardware setup in management in Kurgan
33	23-24	Hardware setup in regional departments
34	24-25	Personnel training
35	24-26	Computer system testing
36	25-27	Personnel examining
37	26-27	Acceptance of information system into service

Time and cost characteristics of activities of network diagram are given in table 2.

Table 2. Time and cost characteristics of activities

Item number	Activity code	Normal duration of work, day	Minimum duration of work, day	Maximum duration of work	Minimal volume of resources, man day	Maximal volume of resources, man day
1	1-2	2	1	5	5	4
2	1-3	5	3	7	6	5
3	2-3	2	1	3	2	1
4	2-4	2	1	3	2	1
5	3-4	2	1	4	3	2
6	4-5	7	5	8	10	8
7	4-6	12	10	15	26	24
8	5-7	4	3	5	8	7
9	6-7	6	4	8	16	13
10	7-8	2	1	3	4	2
11	8-9	2	1	3	5	3
12	9-10	3	2	5	4	3
13	10-11	3	1	4	12	10
14	10-12	2	1	3	10	8
15	10-13	2	1	3	5	4
16	11-14	4	3	5	11	10
17	11-15	4	3	6	7	6
18	12-14	2	1	3	6	5
19	12-15	6	4	7	5	4
20	13-14	2	1	3	3	2
21	13-15	3	2	4	4	3
22	14-16	22	20	28	26	21
23	14-17	2	1	3	8	7
24	15-18	26	23	30	35	32
25	15-19	2	1	3	19	15
26	16-20	2	1	3	15	12
27	17-20	2	1	3	13	11
28	18-21	4	2	5	25	22
29	19-21	2	1	3	20	18
30	20-22	2	1	3	4	2
31	21-23	3	2	4	5	3
32	22-24	4	3	5	3	2
33	23-24	6	5	7	13	11
34	24-25	8	6	10	10	9
35	24-26	2	1	3	4	3
36	25-27	2	1	3	3	2
37	26-27	3	2	4	3	2

The network model is a network diagram. The network diagram has a fragment structure. The network diagram consists of nodes and arrows. The numbers above the line of network diagram are activity durations [2]. The network path is a path from initial node to end node of network diagram. The components of the network diagram are events and activities. The event is activity completion time. The activity is a time-dependent process. There are stack paths and critical paths of the network diagram. The stack path has reserves of time. The critical path is the longest path of network diagram [3]. The critical path has no reserves of

time. The critical path consists of critical action limits. The critical path includes critical activities and critical events [4]. The network diagram is shown in figure 1.

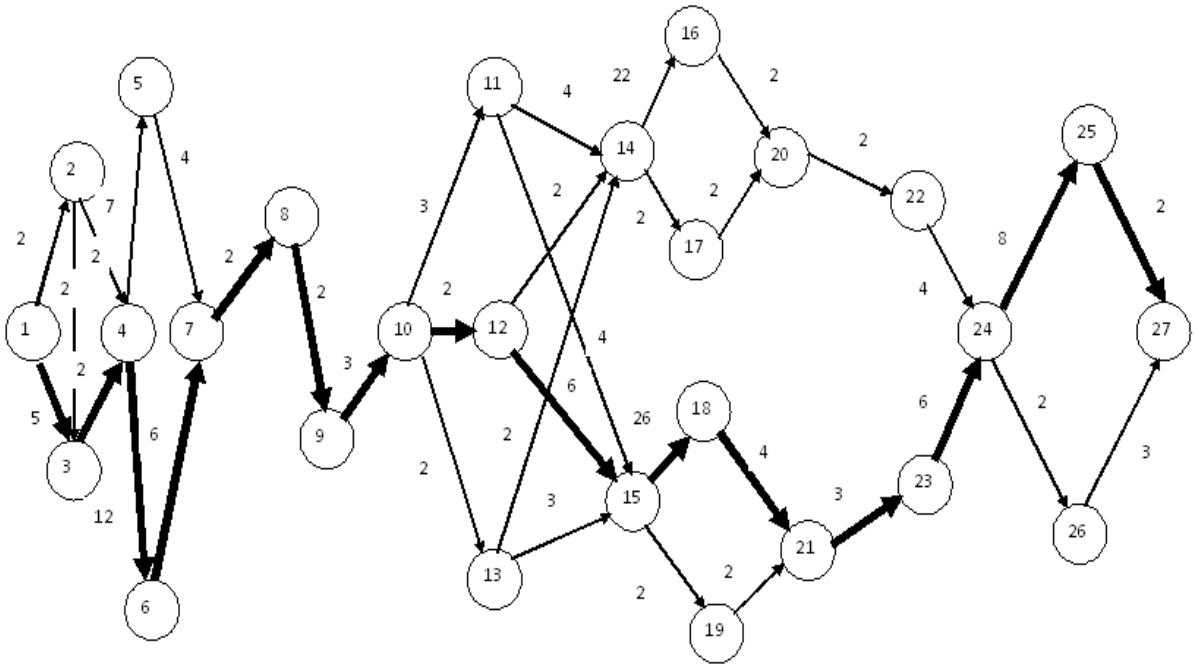

Figure 1. The network diagram

4 THE CRITICAL PATH ANALYSIS

The critical path analysis includes definition of length and topology of a critical path, counting reserves of activities and tension coefficients. The critical path method defines critical path of network diagram of information system. The critical path method includes stages: counting earliest expected event times, counting latest event time, finding critical action limits of network diagram.

Earliest expected event time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_j^e = \max_{(i,j)}\{t_i^e + t_{ij}\}, \qquad (1)$$

where t_i^e is earliest expected event time i;

t_{ij} - duration of activity $i - j$.

Latest event time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_i^l = \min_{(i,j)}\{t_j^l - t_{ij}\}, \qquad (2)$$

where t_j^l is latest event time j.

Critical action limits of network diagram satisfy conditions: $t_i^e = t_i^l$, $t_j^e = t_j^l$, $t_j^e - t_i^e = t_j^l - t_j^l = t_{ij}$.

Critical path of network diagram is shown in figure 2.

$$1 \xrightarrow{5} 3 \xrightarrow{2} 4 \xrightarrow{12} 6 \xrightarrow{6} 7 \xrightarrow{2} 8 \xrightarrow{2} 9 \xrightarrow{3} 10 \xrightarrow{2} 12 \xrightarrow{6} 15 \xrightarrow{26} 18 \xrightarrow{4} 21 \xrightarrow{3} 23 \xrightarrow{6} 24 \xrightarrow{8} 25 \xrightarrow{2} 27.$$

Figure 2. The critical path

Time of completion of activities is 89 days. Total cost of activities is 297 man days. The graph of dependence of length of critical path on volume of resources is given in figure 3.

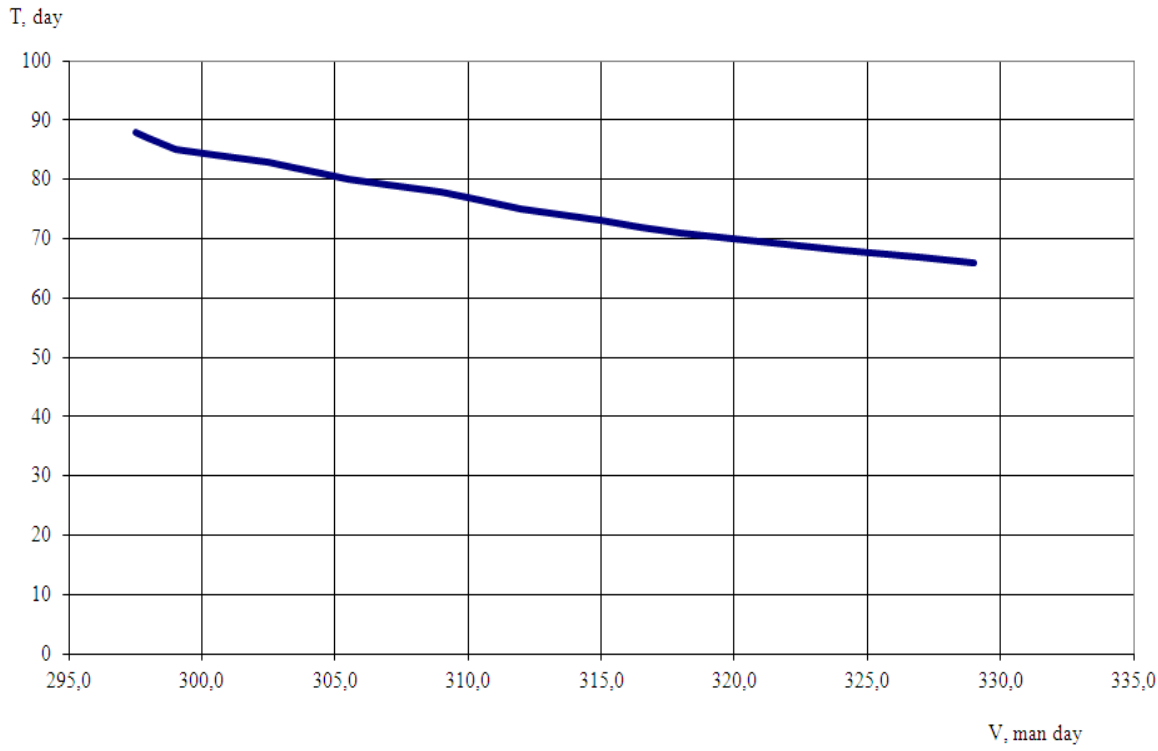

Figure 3. The graph of dependence of length of critical path on volume of resources

Time parameters of activities are early start time, early finish time, late start time, late finish time. Early start time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_{ij}^{es} = t_i^e \tag{3}$$

Early finish time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_{ij}^{ef} = t_i^e + t_{ij} \tag{4}$$

Late start time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_{ij}^{ls} = t_j^l - t_{ij} \tag{5}$$

Late finish time is calculated according to the formula

$$t_{ij}^{lf} = t_j^l \tag{6}$$

The activity of uncritical action limit of network diagram has activity stack time. There are four activity stack times.

The overall activity stack time is calculated according to the formula

$$r_{ij}^{overall} = t_j^l - t_i^e - t_{ij} \tag{7}$$

The maximum event stack time is calculated according to the formula

$$r_{ij}^{\max} = t_j^l - t_i^l - t_{ij} \quad (8)$$

The free float time is calculated according to the formula

$$r_{ij}^{free} = t_j^e - t_i^e - t_{ij} \quad (9)$$

The independent activity stack time is calculated according to the formula

$$r_{ij}^{indep} = t_j^e - t_i^l - t_{ij} \quad (10)$$

Calculated data of time parameters of events and activities, activity stack times are given in table 3.

Table 3. The time parameters of events and activities, activity stack times

Activity code	**Early start time**	**Late start time**	**Early finish time**	**Late finish time**	**Overall activity stack time**	**Maximum event stack time**	**Free float time**	**Independent activity stack time**
1-2	0	1	2	3	1	1	0	0
1-3	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0
2-3	2	3	4	5	1	0	0	-1
2-4	2	5	4	7	3	0	0	-3
3-4	5	5	7	7	0	0	0	0
4-5	7	14	14	21	7	0	0	-7
4-6	7	7	19	19	0	0	0	0
5-7	14	21	18	25	7	0	0	-7
6-7	19	19	25	25	0	0	0	0
7-8	25	25	27	27	0	0	0	0
8-9	27	27	29	29	0	0	0	0
9-10	29	29	32	32	0	0	0	0
10-11	32	33	35	36	1	0	0	-1
10-12	32	32	34	34	0	0	0	0
10-13	32	35	34	37	3	0	0	-3
11-14	35	45	39	49	10	0	0	-10
11-15	35	36	39	40	1	0	0	-1
12-14	34	47	36	49	13	0	0	-13
12-15	34	34	40	40	0	0	0	0
13-14	34	47	36	49	13	0	0	-13
13-15	34	37	37	40	3	0	0	-3
14-16	39	49	61	71	10	0	0	-10
14-17	39	69	41	71	30	0	0	-30
15-18	40	40	66	66	0	0	0	0
15-19	40	66	42	68	26	0	0	-26
16-20	61	71	63	73	10	0	0	-10
17-20	41	71	43	73	30	0	0	-30
18-21	66	66	70	70	0	0	0	0
19-21	42	68	44	70	26	0	0	-26
20-22	63	73	65	75	10	0	0	-10
21-23	70	70	73	73	0	0	0	0
22-24	65	75	69	79	10	0	0	-10

Activity code	Early start time	Late start time	Early finish time	Late finish time	Overall activity stack time	Maximum event stack time	Free float time	Independent activity stack time
23-24	73	73	79	79	0	0	0	0
24-25	79	79	87	87	0	0	0	0
24-26	79	84	81	86	5	0	0	-5
25-27	87	87	89	89	0	0	0	0
26-27	81	86	84	89	0	0	0	-5

The tension coefficient defines a degree of complexity of activity of a uncritical path. The tension coefficient is calculated according to the formula

$$k_{ij}^{tension} = 1 - \frac{r_{ij}^{overall}}{T_{cr} - t_{cr}}, \qquad (11)$$

where $r_{ij}^{overall}$ is overall activity stack time;

T_{cr} is length of critical path;

t_{cr} is duration of action limits of path matching the critical path.

Calculated data of the tension coefficients are given in table 4.

Table 4. The tension coefficients

Activity code	Duration of activity	Overall activity stack time	Tension coefficient
1-3	5	Critical	1
3-4	2	Critical	1
4-6	12	Critical	1
6-7	6	Critical	1
7-8	2	Critical	1
8-9	2	Critical	1
9-10	3	Critical	1
10-11	3	1	0,97
11-14	4	10	0,79
14-16	22	10	0,79
16-20	2	10	0,79
20-22	2	10	0,79
22-24	4	10	0,79
24-25	8	Critical	1
25-27	2	Critical	1

The factors of intensity of critical action limits are equal 1. The factors of intensity of uncritical action limits are equal 0.97 and 0.79. The tension coefficient $k_{ij}^{tension} = 0.97$ refers to the critical zone. The tension coefficient $k_{ij}^{tension} = 0.79$ refers to the sub-critical

zone. The critical zone satisfies condition $k_{ij}^{tension} \geq 0.8$. The sub-critical zone satisfies condition $0.6 \leq k_{ij}^{tension} < 0.8$.

4 RESULTS OF RESEARCH

The results of conducted study allow making the following conclusions.

1. Determinate network model of information system is developed.
2. The timing performances of events and activities of network diagram of information system are calculated.
3. The critical path of network diagram of information system is defined.
4. The activity stack times of network diagram are calculated.
5. The tension coefficients of network diagram of information system are calculated.
6. The data received may be used in further studies on this topic.
7. The results of investigation allow increasing effectiveness of information system design and reasonability of the decisions made, lessening financial and time expenses.

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TECHNOLOGIE, STROJÍRENSTVÍ A STAVEBNICTVÍ

TECHNOLOGIES, ENGINEERING, BUILDING INDUSTRY

MODELS AND METHODS FOR TECHNICAL AND ECONOMIC DECISION-MAKING WITH LINK TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL SETTLEMENTS

Darja Kubečková, Stanislav Smugala

Abstract

The model tools and methods for technical and economic decision-making may contribute to solution of a wide range of social and technical issues including, among others, the issues of sustainable development of industrial settlements. Achieving of a quality decision with elimination of an attitudinal factor is the goal of each decision-making process. The use of multi-criterion analysis is one of the options employable in the decision-making process. The issues are documented on a case study of prefab block of flats meant for rehabilitation and reconstructions, and that are located in the industrial territories.

Keywords: *industrial area, multicriterion analysis, sustainable, building-up*

1 INTRODUCTION

The fundamental task of all models and methods for technical and economic decision-making is to contribute to an unbiased decision-making without substantial impact from attitudinal influences and criteria. Not any differently it is in the construction industry with link to sustainable development of the industrial settlements.

The application of multi-criterion analysis, which is based on mathematical modelling, is one of the options. The essence of all tasks of the multi-criterion analysis is a decision, which is final, optimal, which means picking up one variant from the list of said decision-making situation of potentially feasible options.

The multi-criterion decision-making occurs where a decider evaluates consequences of their selection usually based on multiple criteria, in particular the quantitative criteria (usually expressed in natural scales; also known as the numerical criteria), or qualitative (an appropriate scale is usually involved, e.g. classification scale or very high-high-average-low-very low scale). At the same time, a direction of improved assessment is defined, i.e. whether maximum or minimum value is better. A case of a formulated task may be a request for ordering of the decision-making variants by ranking [1].

The essential motifs for employment of exact approaches in the decision-making process lie in particular in areas with the need of reducing the risks of incorrect decisions, and enabling of experimenting in the economic, technical-economic, and social areas. The economic, social, cultural, and technical area is a constituent of the fundamental pillars of the sustainable development.

We define the decision-making based on a single criterion or multiple criteria, and compile a mono-criterion or multi-criterion solution.

2 METHODOLOGY OF MULTI-CRITERION EVALUATION AS A PART OF THE TECHNICAL AND ECONOMIC DECISION-MAKING

The tasks of the multi-criterion decision-making are divided by information aspect into four basic categories. They include:

- tasks with information, which enable scalaring of the optimization criterion (the information enables summing of multiple criteria into a scalar criterion);
- tasks without information, which enable scalaring (the base is the non-dominated solution term);

- tasks with information obtained during solution (information is obtained during dealing with the task);
- parametric solutions (illustration that indicates an optimum solution as a function of input information).

A set of the decision-making variants has a finite number of elements in the tasks of the multi-criterion evaluation of variants (1). A task of multi-criterion evaluation of the variants is characterized as a criterion matrix (2), where columns and rows of the matrix correspond to the criteria and evaluated variants, respectively [2].

Should we identify the elements of the criterion matrix:

$$y_{i,j},\ i=1,2,3\ldots p;\ j=1,2,3\ldots k, \tag{1}$$

the criterion matrix may be took down generally as:

$$\begin{array}{c} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \cdot \\ a_3 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} f_1 & f_2 & \cdot & f_3 \\ y_{11} & y_{12} & \cdot & y_{1k} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & \cdot & y_{2k} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\ y_{p1} & y_{p2} & \cdot & y_{pk} \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

We assume that all criteria are defined as maximizing, which means the criteria are defined so that an option is better with higher value of the criterion. However, should the criteria in the original data input be defined as minimizing, we transform them into the maximizing ones.

We can employ Saaty's procedure, paired comparison method, utility function method, preferential relations, and more for the multi-criterion analysis. These methods, however, require more demanding transformation of data and demanding compilation of a model for data transformation.

A factor influencing comprehensibility and clarity of the evaluation and decision-making is its objective complexity. Therefore, the decision-making must include important criteria with a reference character, and apply to the purpose of the decision-making and evaluation, combined with pinpoint rules for evaluation thereof.

The ways of technical and economic decision-making and evaluation in practice shall for the purposes of each entity differ in particular in selection of criteria and how the criteria are worked with. Therefore, we should always define in the models for technical and economic decision-making related with the sustainable development of the industrial settlements the criteria that come under the essential pillars of the sustainable development and consider the territory where the building is located.

The proposed method of the technical and economic decision-making related to the sustainable development of the industrial settlements is based on the multi-criterion evaluation theory, adherence to principles of the sustainable development, and definition of criterion in this area. A simple method is used to enable evaluation of the presented variants, and no sub-criterion data are loaded on the evaluation.

3 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND THE ISSUES OF THE INDUSTRIAL SETTLEMENTS

The issues of the industrial settlements in general are greatly extended, and reaches several disciplines. An industrial settlement may be referred to as a limited territory, settlement where heavy industry's facilities were operated; following termination of the industrial activity, a brownfield remains (soil contaminated from industrial activity, drop basins due to run-down

of deep mining, increased groundwater level, methane leakage, and more). [3]. These territories often have a couple of buildings built on it, be they of industrial or residential buildings, or buildings for civic amenities of the town. An integral part of regeneration of each industrial settlement is the keeping of the buildings located in the territories hit by increased industrial activity. These buildings are meant for reconstructions and rehabilitation, and conversion, if possible, under the programme for regional and municipality development.

The territories hit by increased industrial activity stand for a significant problem across Czechia not only with respect to damage to the territory in question, but also building standing thereon. According to available expert sources, restructuralization of the industry and run-down programs in Czechia after 1990, swapping of owners of the industrial facilities and premises, also radical change to value criteria and technical development, and the need to recover the environment, have initiated the discussion "what to do with the industrial heritage" (B. Fragner, 2006). Obviously, the industrial settlements-related issues are topical, and dealing with it is called for. The issue is current not only in the Czechia, but throughout the world.

Should we get involved in the issues of the industrial settlements and the issues of the sustainable development, we come to an area of evaluation of a new construction and energy conception of buildings located in the industrial territories, be they the civic amenities buildings or residential buildings. The buildings require rehabilitation to comply with the parameters defined by the European Communities, and follow the strategy of energy conception with the outlook to 2030 and further [4, 5], [6–11].

4 CASE STUDY

An example for documenting of the issues related to the sustainable development and industrial settlements may be reconstruction and rehabilitation of prefab blocks of residential flats in the industrial territory in Ostrava, Czechia, which was hit in the past by the industrial activities, deep mining, and iron production. Ostrava is characterized by that the industrial territory crosses the residential territory (the area of the region with long-term deep black coal mining and that we can see as an industrial territory covers over 170km2). The arrangement does not come from urbanistic considerations but the black coal mining. Rich deposits of black coal were located near the city centre; the first deep mines were built near the city centre in 1842, and the mining continued uninterruptedly to roughly 1990. The run-down of the deep mining started thereafter. Historically, the residential zones are tightly interwoven with the industrial zones.

After 1990, the municipalities attempted to convert the buildings and use the industrial territories as a cultural and social background. A great and successful example is conversion of a gasholder structure in Dolní Vítkovice in Ostrava by architect J. Pleskot into a cultural and social universal hall, or conversion of a blast furnace into a lookout tower known as Botl Tower.

Another Ostrava's phenomena related to the developing post-war technologies being the prefabrication. In the last century, specifically between 1955 and 1995, most of the prefab flats were built right in Ostrava (70% of total residential buildings were in Ostrava were built with the prefab technology). Also after the World War II, Ostrava remained the main centre of heavy industry. Development and reconstruction of flats including infrastructure required were immediately needed. Just the assembled panel technologies enabled to speed up the housing development and reconstruction [12].

At this moment, the panel blocks of flats need to have a new construction and energy conception defined to extent the lifecycle of these prefab blocks of flats by at least additional fifty years. To have a prefab block of flats rehabilitated and reconstructed successfully, a goal, what, and for what capital expenditures is required to achieve this. New trends in the

development with respect to the principles of sustainable development need to be considered as well.
Should we focus on the issues of the construction and energy conception of the prefab blocks of flats as part of the principles of sustainable development, we shall be primarily interested in the construction-technical and material measures aimed at reduction of heat loss from a prefab block of flats, and energy savings [13]. The result of the actions taken shall be information about capital expenditures for improvement of the construction and energy conception, return rate, savings ratio with respect to actions taken, and effectiveness expressed by the share of total savings to expenditures.
We can apply the method of multi-criterion evaluation in the process of decision-making about what prefab blocks of flats are to be rehabilitated to this end in the location in question.

4.1 Multi-criterion evaluation

The multi-criterion evaluation tasks are based on the mathematical modelling. Using software supports it is possible to calculate a complete analytical hierarchic process from simple mathematical tasks up to the more complex ones.
Example below may convince you of suitability and applicability of the multi-criterion decision-making in the technical and economic area (K. Barták, 1998) related to the issues of the sustainable development. Methodology was established according to [14].
The subject of the evaluation is 6 existing prefab blocks of flats (3) evaluated by six criteria (4). For specification of the criteria, refer to Table 1.
For reconstruction and rehabilitation of the prefab blocks of flats, we shall focus on improvement of heat-technical parameters of cladding including glazed areas, improvement of roof function with potential construction of penthouses and green roofs with rest zones, return of investment, and more.
Possible conversions of the prefab blocks of flats can be focused on as well. Theoretically, the selected part of the prefab blocks of flats shall undergo a conversion, and shall be newly used for civic amenities of the city (e.g. unused existing utility rooms or pram rooms conforming typologically to the era of construction of the flats from the second half of the last century shall be successfully reconstructed into shops, service areas, and more; not only reconstruction of the prefab blocks of flats but contribution to improvement of urbanization of the blocks of flats is attempted).
Let's identify the blocks of flats:

$$A = \{a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6\}, \quad (3)$$

Six criteria shall be applied to evaluate the blocks of flats:

$$F = \{f1, f2, f3, f4, f5, f6\}. \quad (4)$$

Table 1. Specification and description of criteria.

Criterion	Description of criterion
f1	Number of floors to be reconstructed; number of ground floors (min).
f2	Reconstruction costs; First ground floor: thousands CZK (min).
f3	Floor area obtained after the reconstruction; m2 (max).
f4	Return on investment; years (min).
f5	Surface area obtained for green roof; m2 (max).
f6	Surface area converted obtained after the reconstruction; m2 (max).

The compiled criterion-based matrix shall be:

f	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6
a	min	min	max	min	max	max
a1	5	450	87	18	250	100
a2	8	240	57	10	200	50
a3	7	350	87	12	300	120
a4	5	320	56	15	200	150
a5	4	550	110	25	150	200
a6	4	480	95	20	100	250

(5)

The matrix (5) is then adjusted to make all criteria maximized, and the least favourable values are defined (8);

$$f1=8,\ f2=550,\ f4=25, \tag{6}$$

Transform the criteria how much the variants are better than unfavourable variants, and monitor the maximizing criterion (7); the post-transformation criterion matrix looks like:

f	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6
a	min	min	max	min	max	max
a1	3	100	87	7	250	100
a2	0	310	57	15	200	50
a3	1	200	87	13	300	120
a4	3	230	56	10	200	150
a5	4	0	110	0	150	200
a6	4	70	95	5	100	250

(7)

Assign identical weight to the criterion and define the order (8). A prefab block of flats with the least order calculated by plain addition comes best with respect to the pre-defined criteria.

f	f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	f6	–	–
a	min	min	max	min	max	max	Σ	pořadí
a1	3	3	3	3	2	5	19	3.
a2	1	6	4	6	3	6	26	5.
a3	2	4	3	5	1	4	19	3.
a4	3	5	5	4	4	3	24	4.
a5	4	1	1	1	5	2	14	1.
a6	4	2	2	2	6	1	17	2.

(8)

The decision situation is shown in (9) for single decider:

$$\begin{gathered} R = \{1, a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6, f1, f2, f3, f4, f5, f6\}, \\ F = \{f1, f2, f3, f4, f5, f6\} \rightarrow \max, \\ A\ (m, n) \text{ matrix type}, \\ (m, n \in N);\ A\ (m, n) \rightarrow \max f1 - f6. \end{gathered} \tag{9}$$

The evaluation principle is simple but it may provide first important information about suitability and purposefulness of the expenditures made in the first phase of the technical and economic decision-making.

5 DISCUSSION

Every decision influences results from the long-term point of view. Not any differently it is in case of evaluation of the prefab blocks of flats of the industrial settlements, and capital

expenditures for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of the buildings in relation to application of principles of the sustainable development.
Practical use of the theory of multi-criterion evaluation and analytical hierarchic process is irreplaceable in the capital expenditure projects, and assists us to deal with a range of specific problems from simple tasks up to complex hierarchic structures. Current economic situation requires new tools, methods, and trends to capture as much as possible factors having impact on result, acting on achieving of the goal, and consistency of conclusions and considerations for achieving of valuable conclusions [15]. However, the evaluation tools should not be complex to enable evaluation of trained persons only. This can be applied for more complex technical and economic studies and big projects [16]. The mathematical operations with a reference character for the evaluator how to proceed in the decision-making or performance of the defined strategic goals may be advantageously used in the first phase of the technical and economic evaluation and decision-making.
The technical and economic evaluation, which uses the multi-criterion analyses, must be always used in compliance with the purpose of the evaluation. The criteria must be defined clearly, and the decision-making process must not be encumbered by useless criteria that both increase laboriousness of the evaluation and decrease accuracy of the evaluation as well.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The issues of the sustainable development, industrial settlements, conversion of buildings, conversion of industrial areas is extensive and vast. Therefore, focusing on the issues of technical and economic decision-making and evaluation in a wider context is required. Determination of the mathematical models is needed following their successful bringing to practice, from the simpler models up to those more complex ones.

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EXPERIMENTÁLNÍ ZMĚNA ADHEZNÍ SÍLY U SILNIČNÍCH VOZIDEL

EXPERIMENTAL CHANGE IN ADHESION FORCE ON ROAD VEHICLE

Petr Jilek, Ivo Šefčík

Abstrakt

Článek pojednává o řízeném ovlivnění adhezní síly ve styku kola silničního vozidla s vozovkou. V první části je uveden způsob, jakým je dosaženo snížení adhezní síly. Následuje seznámení s experimentálním vozidlem, na kterém se realizovaly experimentální měření. Následuje vzájemné zhodnocení výhod a nevýhod obou metod experimentálních zkoušek. Cílem článku je zjištění, jak velký je rozdíl v chování vozidla, když se adhezní síla mění za pomoci změny radiální reakce a za změny součinitele adheze.

Klíčová slova: *silniční vozidlo, adheze, pneumatika, adhezor, experimentální vozidlo*

Abstract

The article deals with controlled adhesion force influence in the contact between a wheel of a road vehicle and a road. In the first section is presented a way to reach decrease of adhesion force. Then follows familiarization with the experimen*tal vehicle, which experimental* measurements were realized on. Next are mutual assessment of advantages and disadvantages of both experimental test methods. The purpose of the article is to discover how big difference is between vehicle's behaviour when adhesion force is changed by radial reaction force change and by adhesion coefficient change.

Key words: *road vehicle, adhesion, tyres, adhesor, car testing*

1. METODY ZMĚNY ADHEZNÍ SÍLY

1.1 Systém SkidCar

Výrobcem je společnost Cedergrens Klintehamn Sweden [3]. Jedná se o elektrohydraulický kolový rám, jenž umožňuje jedoucímu vozidlu dosáhnout různých adhezních podmínek. Rám je připevněn k automobilu a pomocí elektronicky řízeného hydraulického okruhu umožňuje dílčí odlehčení přední nápravy nebo zadní nápravy nebo obou náprav současně, a to v libovolném rozsahu. Při bližším seznámením s nabízenými rámy jsme zjistili, že je možné SkidCar použít jen s vybranými vozidly. Proto jsme přistoupili k navržení rámu pro experimentální vozidlo. Jelikož jsme provedli úpravy na rámu oproti komerčně dostupnému systému, používám název Alternativní SkidCar. Hlavní rozdílnost je v mechanickém způsobu změny radiální reakce na vozidlových kolech. Současně jsme umístili přední kola Alternativního SkidCaru za osu přední nápravy vozidla, jak je uvedeno na z *Obr. 1*. Takto jsme dosáhli toho, že karoserie vozidla se snáze kloní než u komerčního SkidCaru.

Obrázek 1 Alternativní SkidCar (autor)

Obrázek 2 Kluzný povrch (autor)

Výhody:

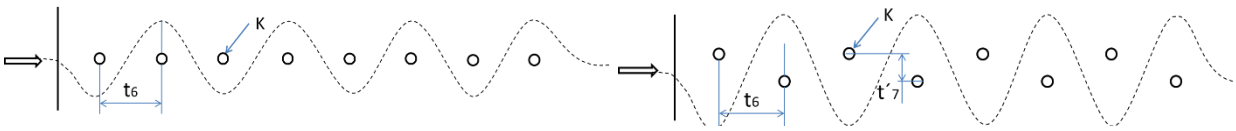
- systém je možné použít na libovolný automobil,
- spolehlivý s minimálním opotřebením,
- možnost plynule nastavitelné trakce pro libovolnou nápravu,
- možnost měnit adhezívní podmínky během jízdy,
- možnost uložení adhezívního nastavení pro opakovatelné zkoušky,
- zachovává v činnosti elektronické systémy automobilu,
- komunikace nenese žádné optické a jiné informace o změně adhezívních podmínek,
- možnost uložení adhezívního nastavení pro opakovatelné zkoušky,
- lze použít u vozidel s přední, zadní i s oběma hnacími nápravami,
- takřka nemožnost převrácení automobilu,
- možnost použít libovolné pneumatiky,
- je zajištěna opakovatelnost adhezních podmínek při různých zkouškách.

Nevýhody:

- vozidlo je po stranách doplněno pomocnými koly – větší šířka zkoušeného automobilu negativní vlastnost při jízdních manévrech,
- karoserie automobilu připevněna k rámu SkidCar – není umožněn náklon hmot odpružených vůči hmotám neodpruženým, neklopí a nepředklání se karoserie při jízdních manévrech,
- ve vozidle je slyšet činnost elektrohydraulického agregátu a elektromagnetů, řidič je upozorněn na změnu adhezívních podmínek,
- nárůst hmotnosti automobilu a snížení výškové souřadnice těžiště automobilu,
- potřeba relativně rovného povrchu o dostatečných rozměrech dle uvažovaného testování,
- změna odporu valení a směrových vlastností pneumatiky kola vlivem snížení radiální reakce přenášené kolem.

1.2 Jízdní zkouška

Jako jízdní zkoušku jsme volili slalomovou zkoušku. Podstatou zkoušky je, aby vozidlo projelo vytyčeným koridorem mezi kužely s předem definovanou rychlostí. Za tuto rychlost volím maximální rychlost, při které se dá projet vytyčený koridor na kluzném povrchu. Provedení jízdních koridorů pro experimentální zkoušku Alternativního SkidCaru a jízdní zkoušku na kluzném povrchu jsou patrné z Obr. 3. Jízdní zkoušky pro Alternativní SkidCar jsme realizovali pro velikost 50% radiální reakce na vozidlových kolech.



t_6 – vzdálenost mezi kužely, t'_7 – přesazení mezi kužely SkidCar, K – kužel
Obrázek 3 Koridor pro slalomovou zkoušku pro kluzný povrch a Alternativní SkidCar (autor)

1.3 Měřené veličiny

Rychlost v, úhel směrové úchylky φ a rychlost stáčení vozidla ω jsme měřili pomocí snímače Correvit. Úhel natočení volantu β_v jsme zjišťovali přes analogový lankový snímač polohy. Příčné a_y a podélné a_x zrychlení za pomocí snímače zrychlení a úhel klopení karoserie β_i za pomoci dvojice ultrazvukových snímačů vzdálenosti umístěných v těžištní rovině po stranách vozidla [2].

Pro měření charakteristik experimentálního automobilu jsme využili měřícího systému, který je ve vlastnictví Výukového a výzkumného centra v dopravě, který jsme doplnili o snímač úhlu natočení volantu. Za snímač pro měření rychlosti vozidla jsme použili snímač Correvit S-CE, který současně měří obě složky rychlosti. Jak dopřednou rychlost v_x, tak i boční rychlost v_y. Pro měření rychlosti stáčení automobilu jsme využili optický gyroskop VG910S, pracující na principu Sagnacova efektu. Gyroskopický snímač stáčivé rychlosti je součástí snímače rychlosti Correvit S-CE. Pro měření zrychlení experimentálního vozidla při jízdních zkouškách jsme využili tříosý snímač zrychlení iMEMS typu ADXL311. Snímač jsme za pomoci podkladové desky pevně přišroubovali ke středovému tunelu vozidla. Klonění karoserie jsme měřili za pomoci dvojice ultrazvukových snímačů *HL2* a *HP2*. Snímač *HL2* jsme umístili na držák na přídi vozidla a snímač *HP2* jsme umístili na speciálně vytvořený držák na zádi vozidla.

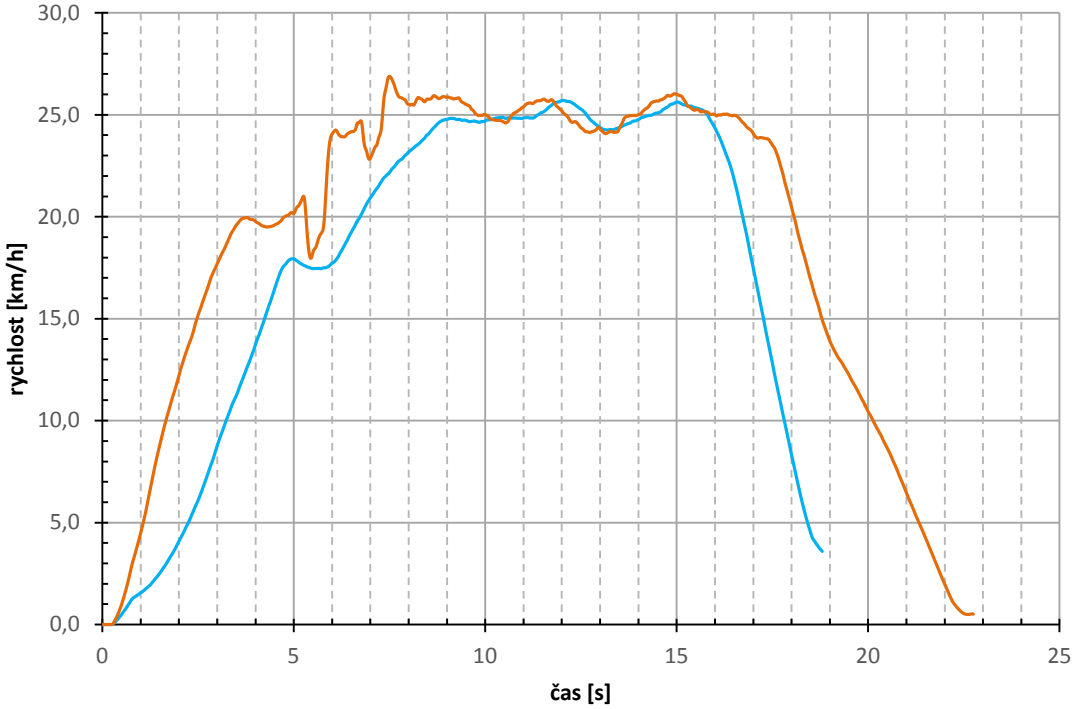
Úhel klopení karoserie jsme vypočetli dle vztahu (1), kde H_{3i} (H_{4i}) je vzdálenost měřícího místa na přídi (zádi) karoserie od vozovky v čase t_i, B_x je vzájemná vzdálenost měřících bodů v příčné rovině vozidla, H_{30} (H_{40}) je vzdálenost měřícího bodu odpovídající ustálené rychlosti pohybu vozidla [1].

$$\beta_i = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{(H_{3i} - H_{3o}) - (H_{4i} - H_{4o})}{B_x}\right) \tag{1}$$

Naměřené výsledky jsme porovnali s experimentálním měřením na kluzném povrchu.

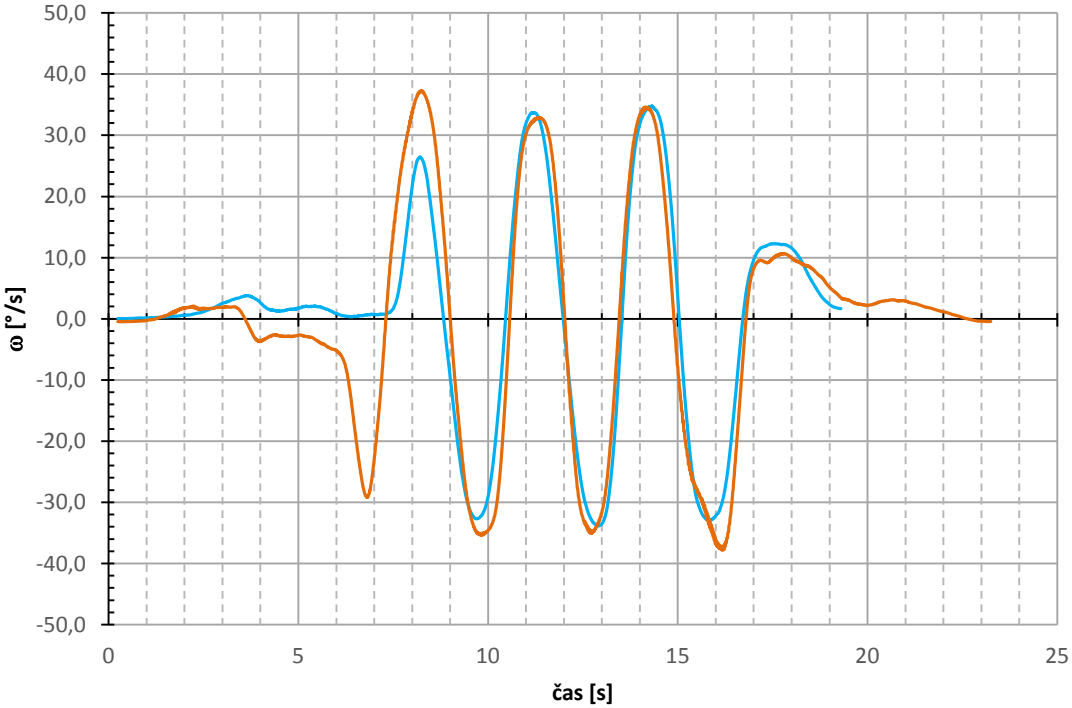
2. VYHODNOCENÍ NAMĚŘENÝCH PRŮBĚHŮ

Průběhy rychlosti v, podélného zrychlení a_x a příčného zrychlení a_y jsou v obou zkouškách srovnatelné, a to společně i s úhlem natočení volantu β_v. U průběhu výškové polohy spodního pravého ramena nápravy *HL1* je patrný rozdíl, kde zdvih u Alternativního SkidCaru je významně ovlivněn použitím rámu. Obdobné ovlivnění klopení karoserie je patrné u Alternativního SkidCaru v průbězích *HL2* i *HP2*. Rozdíl v úhlu klopení karoserie koresponduje s daty naměřenými snímači výšky, tedy platí, že klopení karoserie u Alternativního SkidCaru je v porovnání s experimentálním vozidlem zanedbatelné. Toto je nejvýznamnější odlišnost v naměřených průbězích.



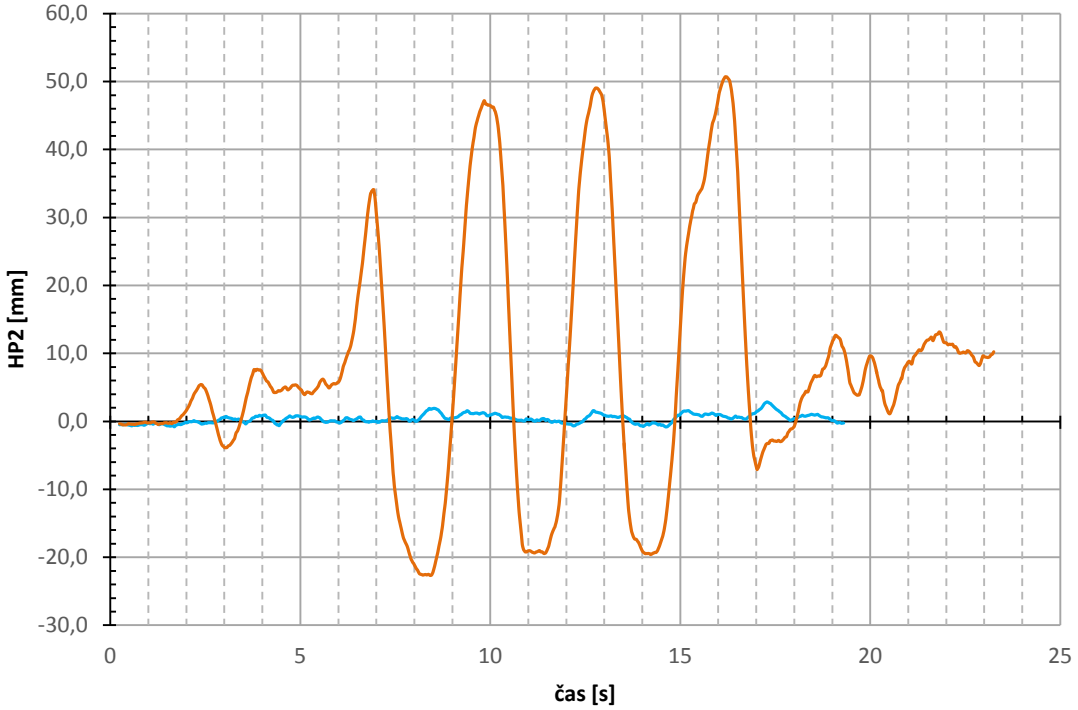
kluzný povrch, *Alternativní SkidCar 50%*

Obrázek 4 Průběh rychlosti v pro kluzný povrch a Alternativní SkidCar (autor)



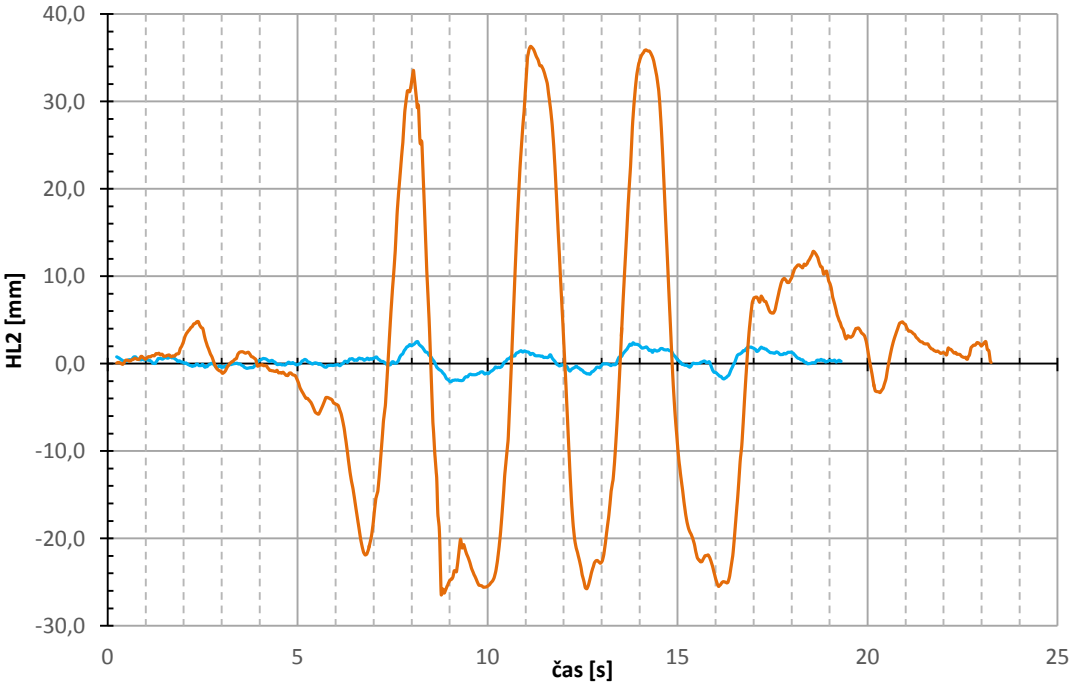
kluzný povrch, *Alternativní SkidCar 50%*

Obrázek 5 Průběh stáčivé rychlosti ω pro kluzný povrch a Alternativní SkidCar (autor)



— *kluzný povrch,* — *Alternativní SkidCar 50%*

Obrázek 6 Průběh výškové souřadnice pravé strany vozidla HP2 pro kluzný povrch a Alternativní SkidCar (autor)



— *kluzný povrch,* — *Alternativní SkidCar 50%*

Obrázek 7 Průběh výškové souřadnice levé strany vozidla HL2 pro kluzný povrch a Alternativní SkidCar (autor)

3. ZÁVĚR

Z naměřených průběhů je patrné, že systém Alternativního SkidCaru umožňuje změnu adhezní síly přenášené mezi kolem silničního vozidla a vozovkou. Průběhy stáčivé rychlosti jsou u kluzného povrchu a u Alternativního SkidCaru srovnatelné. Velký rozdíl je u polohy karoserie, kde u kluzného povrchu dochází k intenzivnějšímu klopení karoserie než je tomu u Alternativního SkidCaru. Omezení klopení karoserie je způsobeno připevněním kolových jednotek ke karoserii vozidla přes pomocný rám. Velikost klopení karoserie je u Alternativního SkidCaru dána tuhostí pneumatik podpěrných koleček.

Z naměřených dat je zřejmé, že jakýkoli zásah do konstrukce podvozkového ústrojí silničního vozidla má ve svém důsledku vliv na chování vozidla. Tedy i systém Alternativní SkidCar ovlivňuje chování automobilu a tedy záleží, za jakým účelem je třeba docílení snížení adhezní síly na kolech silničního vozidla.

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EXPERIMENTÁLNÍ ZJIŠTĚNÍ SOUŘADNICE TĚŽIŠTĚ NA PROTOTYPU VOZIDLA

EXPERIMENTAL FINDING OF THE CORRESPONDING CENTER OF GRAVITY ON THE VEHICLE PROTOTYPE

Petr Jilek, Jan Němec

Abstrakt

Článek pojednává o postupu experimentálního zjištění souřadnice těžiště u prototypu silničního vozidla. Experimentálně jsou zjištěny souřadnice podélné, příčné a výškové souřadnice automobilu. Výpočet je realizován za účelem vstupních okrajových hodnot pro simulaci jízdní zkoušky experimentálního vozidla. Jelikož je vozidlo primárně používáno jako nástroj k ověřování chování za snížených adhezních podmínek, je realizováno zjištění souřadnice těžiště pro systém změny adhezní síly v podobě alternativního SkidCaru a autory navrženým systémem SlideWheel. Cílem článku je zjištění, jak se projeví přídavný systém pro změnu adhezní síly na poloze těžiště vozidla. Podélná a příčná souřadnice těžiště je zjišťována vážením, výšková souřadnice kloněním vozidla na sklopné plošině.

Klíčová slova: *SlideWheel, adheze, těžiště, sklopná plošina, experimentální vozidlo*

Abstract

The article deals with the experimental determination of the center of gravity coordinate of a prototype road vehicle. Experimentally, they are detected longitudinal, transverse, and elevational coordinates of the car. The calculation is performed for the simulation of the test car. The Coordinate Findings for Alternative SkidCar and SlideWheel are realized. SlideWheel is a system of adhesion modification designed by authors of the article. The aim of this article is to find out how to change the position of the center of gravity of the vehicle with the use of additional systems for changing the adhesion force. The longitudinal and transverse coordinates of the center of gravity are determined by weighing, the height coordinates of the vehicle climbing on the tilting platform.

Key words: *SlideWheel, adhesion, center of Gravity, folding platform, car testing*

1. URČENÍ SOUŘADNICE TĚŽIŠTĚ EXPERIMENTÁLNÍHO VOZIDLA

V příspěvku se zabýváme určením souřadnic těžiště pro experimentální vozidlo o pohotovostní a celkové hmotnosti. Současně dále řeším výpočet souřadnice těžiště u automobilu se systémem alternativního SkidCaru a se systémem SlideWheel [2]. Systém Alternativního SkidCaru je zařízení, které umožňuje změnu radiální reakce vozidlových kol nadzvednutím karoserie přes kolové jednotky umístěné na pomocném rámu, dochází k nadzvednutí hmot odpružených. Systém SlideWheel slouží ke změně radiální reakce na vozidlových kol za pomoci čtyř kolových jednotek, které působí na spodní ramena náprav. Takto dochází k nadzvednutí hmot neodpružených. Výhodou systému SlideWheel oproti alternativnímu SkidCaru je nižší přidaná hmota k experimentálnímu automobilu.

a – vozidlo se SlideWheel

b – vozidlo s alternativním SkidCar

Obr. 1 Radiální reakce vozidla v podélném směru

V závislosti na zažitá pravidla jednotlivá kola vozidla označujeme indexy v následujícím pořadí. Levé přední kolo indexem *1*, pravé přední kolo indexem *2*, levé zadní kolo indexem 3 a pravé zadní kolo indexem *4*. Automobil vybavený měřící aparaturou, ale bez osádky, označuji jako automobil o pohotovostní hmotnosti, pokud je ve vozidle osádka (řidič a spolujezdec), označuji toto vozidlo jako vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti.

2. SOUŘADNICE TĚŽIŠTĚ EXPERIMENTÁLNÍHO VOZIDLA

Pro zpracování problematiky v této kapitole jsme jako vstupní informace použili data z Tab. 1 a z Tab. 2.

Tab. 1 Rozměrové parametry experimentálního vozidla

parametr	**označení**	**rozměr [mm]**
rozchod	B_1	1 435
rozchod zadní nápravy	B_2	1 435
vnější šíře stop přední nápravy	B_1^*	1 620
vnější šíře stop zadní nápravy	B_2^*	1 620
šíře pneumatik	B_p	185
rozvor náprav	L	2 580

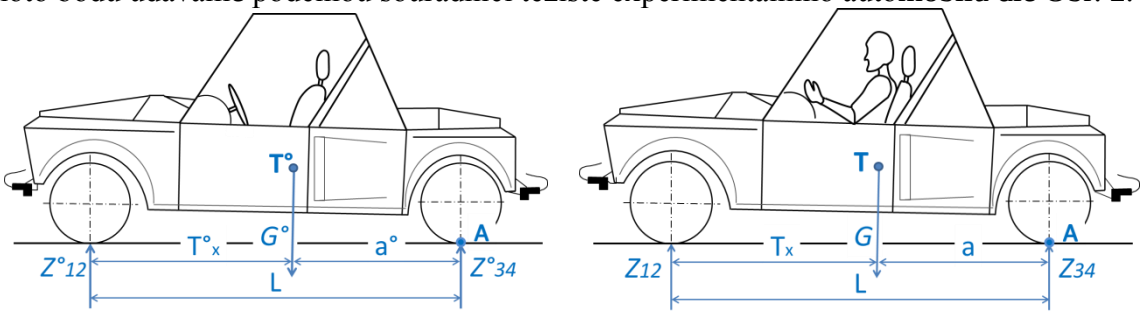
Tab. 2 Hmotnostní a tíhové parametry experimentálního vozidla

	vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti				**vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti**			
	hmotnost		radiální reakce kol [N]		hmotnost		radiální reakce kol [N]	
levé přední	$m°_1$	234	$Z°_1$	2 300	m_1	278	Z_1	2 730
pravé přední	$m°_2$	244	$Z°_2$	2 390	m_2	278	Z_2	2 730
levé zadní	$m°_3$	264	$Z°_3$	2 590	m_3	300	Z_3	2 940
pravé zadní	$m°_4$	270	$Z°_4$	2 650	m_4	296	Z_4	2 900
přední náprava	$m°_{12}$	478	$G°_{12}$	4 690	m_{12}	556	G_{12}	5 460
zadní náprava	$m°_{34}$	534	$G°_{34}$	5 240	m_{34}	596	G_{34}	5 840
Σ	$m°$	1 012	$G°$	9 930	m	1 152	G	11 300

2.1 Podélná souřadnice těžiště experimentálního vozidla

Pro zjištění podélné souřadnice těžiště vycházíme z rozměrů vozidla (Tab. 1) a současně ze známých radiálních reakcí kol $Z°_i$ pro vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností a Z_i pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti. Pro určení souřadnice těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní hmotnosti $T°_x$ a o celkové hmotnosti T_x volíme za referenční bod působiště radiální reakce levého předního

kola $Z°_1$ pro vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti, resp. Z_1 pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti. Od tohoto bodu udáváme podélnou souřadnici těžiště experimentálního automobilu dle Obr. 2.



a – vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností *b – vozidlo s celkovou hmotností*

Obr. 2 Radiální reakce vozidla v podélném směru

Silovou (1) a momentovou (2) rovnici rovnováhy vztažené k bodu *A* (kontakt kol zadní nápravy s vozovkou) jsme sestavili dle Obr. 2 a mají tvar:

$$Z°_{12} + Z°_{34} - G° = 0, \quad Z_{12} + Z_{34} - G = 0, \tag{1}$$

$$Z°_{12} \cdot L - G° \cdot a° = 0, \quad Z_{12} \cdot L - G \cdot a = 0, \tag{2}$$

kde:

- $a°$ – momentové rameno – poloha těžiště vozidla od zadní nápravy u vozidla s pohotovostní hmotností [m],
- a – momentové rameno – poloha těžiště od zadní nápravy u vozidla o celkové hmotnosti [m],
- $Z°_{12}$ – radiální reakce přední nápravy pro vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti [N],
- Z_{12} – radiální reakce přední nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N],
- $Z°_{34}$ – radiální reakce zadní nápravy pro vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti [N],
- Z_{34} – radiální reakce zadní nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N],
- $G°$ – tíha vozidla o pohotovostní hmotnosti [N],
- G – tíha vozidla o celkové hmotnosti [N].

Souřadnice těžiště automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností a s celkovou hmotností určíme od zadní nápravy dle vztahu (3), resp. (4).

$$a° = \frac{(Z°_1 + Z°_2) \cdot L}{G°} \doteq 1\,219\ mm \tag{3}$$

$$a = \frac{(Z_1 + Z_2) \cdot L}{G} \doteq 1\,245\ mm \tag{4}$$

Podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla $T°_x$, resp. T_x je dána rozdílem mezi rozvorem náprav vozidla L a momentovým ramenem $a°$ (5), resp. a (6) od referenčního kola ve směru k zadní nápravě.

$$T°_x = L - a° \doteq 1\,361\ mm \tag{5}$$

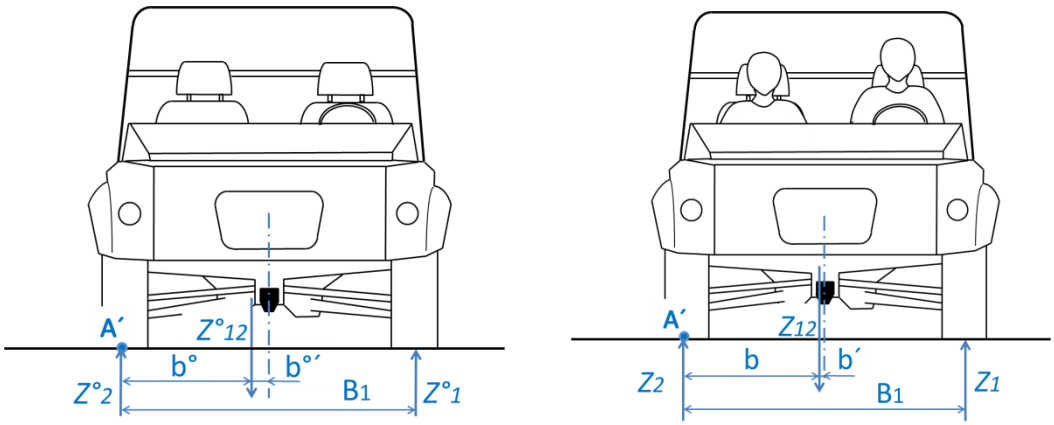
$$T_x = L - a \doteq 1\,335\ mm \tag{6}$$

2.2 Příčná souřadnice těžiště experimentálního vozidla

Při vlastním zjišťování těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní a celkové hmotnosti jsme úlohu rozdělili na tři dílčí části. V prvním kroku jsme určili polohu těžiště automobilu v ose přední nápravy a ve druhém kroku jsme vypočetli polohu těžiště automobilu v ose zadní nápravy. V posledním kroku jsme zjistili příčnou souřadnici těžiště automobilu v těžištní rovině. Za referenční bod pro výpočet souřadnice těžiště T_y, resp. $T°_y$ jsme volili bod působení radiální reakce Z_1, resp. $Z°_1$, tedy opět kontakt levého předního kola s vozovkou v místě svislé polohy osy kola a středu šířky pneumatiky.

a) Příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla v ose přední nápravy

Pro sestavení momentové rovnice (7) jsme vyšli z Obr. 3. Za vztažný bod při sestavení momentové rovnice bereme bod *A´*, což je kontakt pravého předního kola s vozovkou u vozidla o pohotovostní hmotnosti, resp. u vozidla s celkovou hmotností.



Obr. 3 Příčná poloha těžiště experimentálního vozidla v ose přední nápravy

Momentová rovnice rovnováhy vztažená k bodu *A´* (kontakt pravého předního kola s vozovkou) má tvar:

$$Z°_1 \cdot B_1 - (Z°_1 + Z°_2) \cdot b° = 0\,, \quad Z_1 \cdot B_1 - (Z_1 + Z_2) \cdot b = 0, \tag{7}$$

kde:

- *b°* – poloha těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní hmotnosti od pravého předního kola v ose přední nápravy [m],
- *b* – poloha těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti od pravého předního kola v ose přední nápravy [m],
- *b°´* – vzdálenost těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní hmotnosti od podélné osy souměrnosti automobilu v ose přední nápravy [m],
- *b´* – vzdálenost těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti od podélné osy souměrnosti automobilu v ose přední nápravy [m].

Úpravou vztahu (7) získáme vztah (8), který udává souřadnici polohy těžiště v ose přední nápravy od pravého předního kola *b°* pro vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti a *b* pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti.

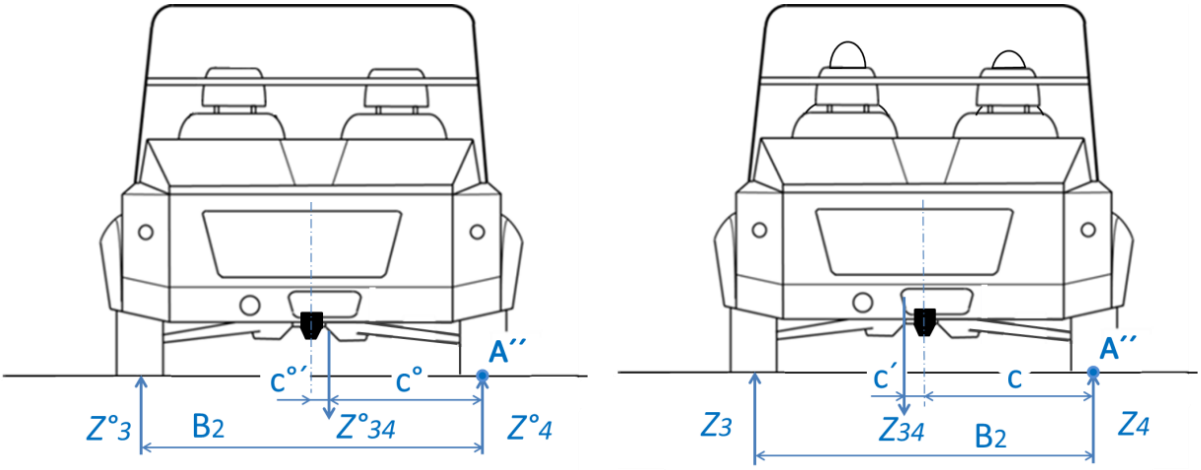
$$b^\circ = \frac{Z^\circ{}_1 \cdot B_1}{Z^\circ{}_{12}} \doteq 703\ mm\ , \quad b = \frac{Z_1 \cdot B_1}{Z_{12}} \doteq 718\ mm \tag{8}$$

Jelikož je b° menší jak polovina rozchodu přední nápravy, tak je souřadnice těžiště posunuta od podélné osy vozidla blíže k radiální reakci $Z^\circ{}_2$, tedy na pravou stranu vozidla, a to o hodnotu $b^{\circ\prime} = \left(\frac{B_1}{2} - b^\circ\right) \doteq 15\ mm$. Posun těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti od podélné osy je $b' = \left(\frac{B_1}{2} - b\right) \doteq 0\ mm$, tedy se nachází v ose souměrnosti automobilu.
Příčná vzdálenost těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní hmotnosti v ose přední nápravy $T^\circ{}_{1y}$ je: $T^\circ{}_{1y} = \frac{B_1}{2} + b^{\circ\prime} \doteq 733\ mm$ od levého předního kola.

Příčná poloha těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti v ose přední nápravy T_{1y} je $T_{1y} = B_1 - b \doteq 718\ mm$ od levého předního kola.

b) Příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu v ose zadní nápravy

Pro sestavení momentové rovnice (9) vycházíme z Obr. 4, kdy za vztažný bod při sestavení momentové rovnice považujeme bod A'', což je kontakt pravého zadního kola s vozovkou.



Obr. 4 Poloha těžiště vozidla v ose zadní nápravy

Momentová rovnice rovnováhy vztažená k bodu A'' (kontakt pravého zadního kola s vozovkou) má tvar:

$$Z^\circ{}_3 \cdot B_2 - Z^\circ{}_{34} \cdot c^\circ = 0\ , \qquad Z_3 \cdot B_2 - Z_{34} \cdot c = 0\ , \tag{9}$$

kde:

- c° – poloha těžiště automobilu v ose zadní nápravy od pravého zadního kola u vozidla s pohotovostní hmotností [m],
- c – poloha těžiště automobilu v ose zadní nápravy od pravého zadního kola u vozidla s celkovou hmotností [m].

Úpravou vztahu (9) získáme vztah (10), který udává souřadnici polohy těžiště v ose zadní nápravy od pravého zadního kola c pro vozidlo s celkovou hmotností a c° pro vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností.

$$c^\circ = \frac{Z^\circ{}_3 \cdot B_2}{Z^\circ{}_{34}} \doteq 710\ mm \quad , \qquad c = \frac{Z_3 \cdot B_2}{Z_{34}} \doteq 722\ mm \tag{10}$$

Protože hodnota c° je menší než polovina rozchodu zadní nápravy, je příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla $T^\circ{}_h$ posunuta od podélné osy souměrnosti vozidla blíže k radiální reakci $Z^\circ{}_4$, tedy na pravou stranu vozidla o hodnotu $c^{\circ\prime}$.
Pro vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností je příčná pozice těžiště automobilu $T^\circ{}_h$ posunuta o hodnotu $c^{\circ\prime}$ na pravou stranu.

$$c^{\circ\prime} = \frac{B_2}{2} - c^\circ \doteq 8\ mm.$$

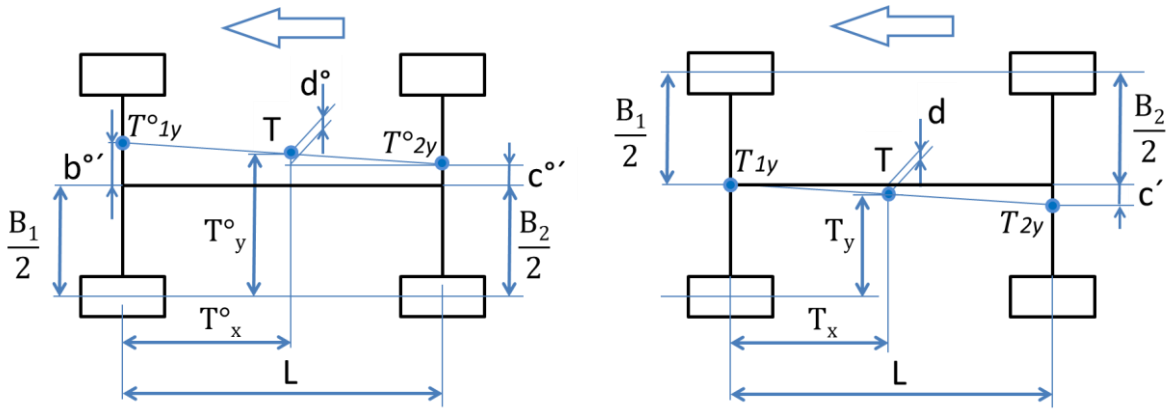
Protože hodnota c je větší než polovina rozchodu zadní nápravy, je souřadnice těžiště vozidla T_h o celkové hmotnosti posunuta od podélné osy souměrnosti vozidla blíže k radiální reakci Z_3, tedy na levou stranu vozidla od podélné osy souměrnosti.
Pro vozidlo s celkovou hmotností je pozice těžiště automobilu $T^\circ{}_h$ posunuta o hodnotu c' na levou stranu. Levá strana je reprezentována zápornou hodnotou.

$$c' = \frac{B_2}{2} - c \doteq -5\ \mathrm{mm}.$$

Souřadnice těžiště automobilu v ose zadní nápravy je $T^\circ{}_{2y} = \frac{B_2}{2} + c^{\circ\prime} \doteq 726\ mm$ od levého zadního kola pro vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností a pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti $T_{2y} = \frac{B_2}{2} + c' \doteq 713\ mm$.

c) Příčná souřadnice těžiště v místě daném podélnou souřadnicí

Protože experimentální vozidlo nemá na téže nápravě radiální reakce stejné, proto těžiště vozidla leží mimo podélnou osu vozidla. Přesné určení příčné souřadnice polohy těžiště T_y při různých radiálních reakcích vypočtu podle Obr. 5.



Obr. 5 Určení příčné souřadnice těžiště automobilu v těžištní rovině

Dílčí příčnou souřadnici těžiště d pro automobil o celkové hmotnosti určíme dle vztahu (11) a d° pro vozidlo o pohotovostní hmotnosti určíme dle vztahu (12).

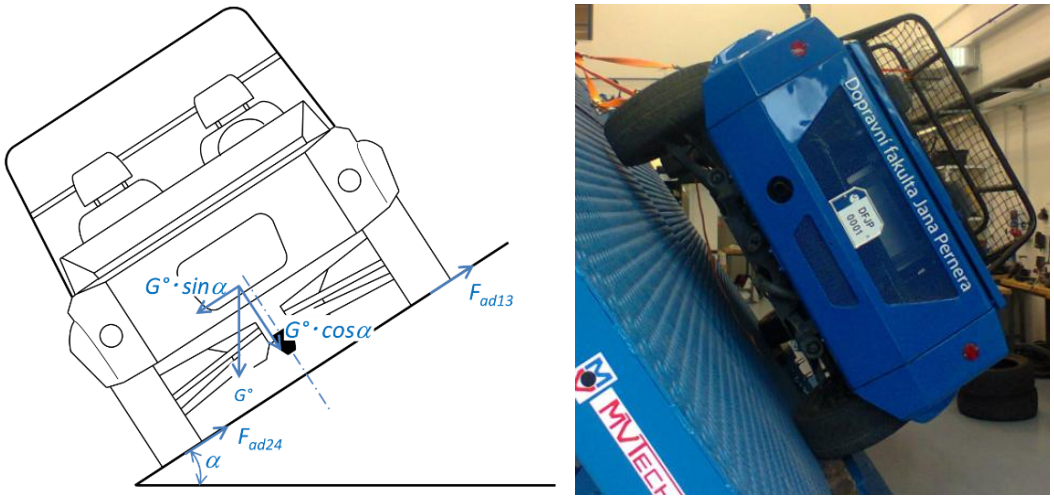
$$d^\circ = (L - T^\circ{}_x) \cdot \frac{(b^{\circ\prime} - c^{\circ\prime})}{L} \doteq 3\ mm, \tag{11}$$

$$d = T_x \cdot \frac{c'}{L} \doteq 3\ mm \tag{12}$$

Dle vztahu (11) a Obr. 5 se těžiště vozidla s pohotovostní hmotností nachází vpravo od podélné osy souměrnosti vozidla. Těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti je dle vztahu (12) vlevo od podélné osy automobilu. Skutečná příčná souřadnice těžiště $T°_y$ pro vozidlo s pohotovostní hmotností od levého předního kola je v příčné rovině dané podélnou souřadnicí těžiště $T°_x$ rovna součtu $T°_y = \frac{B_1}{2} + c°' + d° \doteq 729\ mm$.
U vozidla o celkové hmotnosti je příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu T_y v rovině podélné souřadnice těžiště T_x rovna $T_y = \frac{B_1}{2} - d \doteq 715\ mm$.

2.3 Výšková souřadnice těžiště experimentálního vozidla

Pro zjištění výškové souřadnice těžiště jsme zvolili sklopnou plošinu postupem určení nulové radiální reakce horních kol. Pro sklápění na sklopné plošině je možné z pohledu bezpečnosti práce použít pouze prázdné vozidlo, tedy bez lidské osádky. Výslednou polohu výškové souřadnice automobilu o celkové hmotnosti T_z určíme výpočtovou metodou při rozdělení celkového objektu na dvě, resp. 4 části – automobil, sedadlo, řidič a sedadlo, spolujezdec a sedadlo.
Pro úhel naklopení plochy sklopné plošiny $\alpha = 52{,}3°$ došlo k příčnému posunu kola automobilu $H'_3 = 44$ mm.



Obr. 6 Experimentální automobil na sklopné plošině

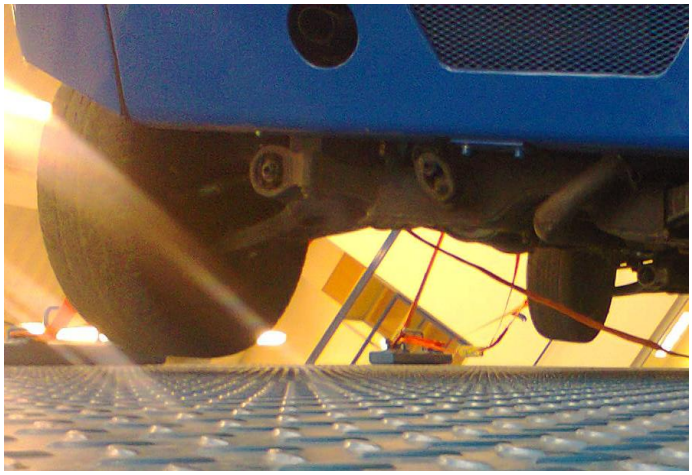
Dle Obr. 6 a vztahu (14) je velikost statického součinitele adheze φ mezi koly vozidla a plochou sklopné plošiny právě $\varphi = 0{,}65$. Pro úhel naklopení plošiny $\alpha = 33°$.

$$G° \cdot \sin\alpha = F_{ad24} + F_{ad13} = \varphi \cdot G° \cdot \cos\alpha \tag{13}$$

$$\varphi = \frac{G° \cdot \sin\alpha}{G° \cdot \cos\alpha} \doteq 0{,}65 \tag{14}$$

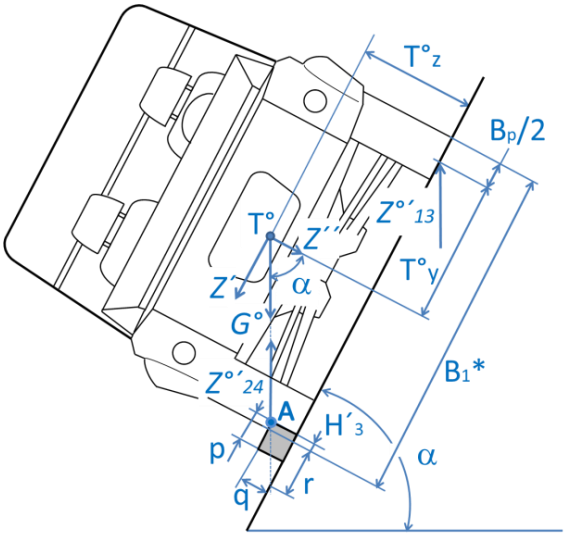
2.3.1 *Výšková souřadnice automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností*

Výškovou souřadnici těžiště automobilu jsme zjišťovali na sklopné plošině, kdy principem měření je postupné a plynulé naklápění plošiny, na které je umístěno zkoušené vozidlo. Ve výchozí poloze se jedná o vodorovnou základnu a v závislosti na potřebě se sklopná plošina pozvolna a plynule naklápí (rovnoběžně s podélnou rovinou vozidla) a sleduje se okamžik ztráty kontaktu horních (v našem případě levých) kol s povrchem sklopné plošiny. Okamžik ztráty kontaktu horních kol byl sledován za pomoci reakčních podložek. Nulové radiální reakce byly signalizovány optickou závorou daného kola.



Obr. 7 Sklopná plošina, ztráta kontaktu kola s podložkou (zdvih je ilustrační)

Zobrazený stav na Obr. 7 je ilustrační, aby byla graficky zobrazitelná ztráta kontaktu kola s plošinou. Při měření jsme zjišťovali hodnotu úhlu naklopení plošiny, při kterém horní kola automobilu právě dosáhly nulové radiální reakce ($Z°_1$, $Z°_3$) a vektor tíhy experimentálního vozidla $G°$ prochází osou překlápění vozidla. Takto jsme zjistili statický práh překlopení automobilu.
Výškovou souřadnici těžiště vozidla s pohotovostní hmotností $T°_z$ určíme z Obr. 8 za pomoci sestavené rovnice rovnováhy (15) ke spodním kolům – kola pravé strany vozidla.



Obr. 8 Určení výškové souřadnice těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní hmotnosti

Pří úhlu naklopení sklopné plošiny $\alpha = 51°$ se radiální reakce levé strany vozidla rovnají nule ($Z°'_{13} = 0\ N$) a tím tíhová složka vozidla prochází bodem A ležícím na ose, kolem které se klopí automobil.

$$Z' \cdot (T°_z - q) - Z'' \cdot \left(B_1^* - \frac{B_p}{2} - T°_y - H'_3\right) = 0 \tag{15}$$

$$Z' = G° \cdot \sin\alpha \doteq 7720\ N \tag{16}$$

$$Z'' = G° \cdot \cos\alpha \doteq 6250\ N \tag{17}$$

kde:

- Z' – složka tíhové síly rovnoběžná s povrchem plošiny při naklápění vozidla na sklopné plošině [N],
- Z'' – složka tíhové síly kolmá na plošinu při naklápění vozidla na plošině [N].

Silová rovnice je dána vztahem (18), kde $Z°'_{24}$ je radiální reakce pravé strany vozidla při jeho naklonění na sklopné plošině.

$$G° - Z°'_{24} - Z°'_{13} = 0 \tag{18}$$

Úpravou vztahu (15) získáme vztah (19) pro výpočet výškové souřadnice $T°_z$.

$$T°_z = \mathrm{q} + \frac{Z'' \cdot \left(B_1^* - \frac{B_p}{2} - T°_y - H'_3\right)}{Z'} \doteq 674\ mm \tag{19}$$

Jelikož experimentální vozidlo má stejný rozchod přední i zadní nápravy, je osa překlápění rovnoběžná s podélnou osou experimentálního vozidla. Proto výslednou hodnotu $T°_z = 674$ mm považujeme za skutečnou výškovou souřadnici těžiště automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností.

2.3.2 Výšková souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla

Před vlastním určením výškové souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla jsme určili podélnou souřadnici těžiště obsazeného sedadla řidičem T_{sox} a sedadla obsazeného spolujezdcem T_{ssox}. Za výchozí bod pro určení podélné souřadnice těžiště považujeme přední kotvící bod ližin sedáku A. Před vlastním měřením jsme upravili polohu sedadla (délkovou a výškovou polohu sedáku společně se sklonem opěradla), jaká bude použita při jízdních zkouškách (Obr. 9). Výška sedáku je volena do nejnižší možné polohy, a to pro sedadlo řidiče i spolujezdce. Sklon opěradel obou sedadel jsme taktéž nastavili shodně na hodnotu $\gamma = 110°$. Při vážení jsme při nulovém úhlu naklonění sedadla zjistili hmotnost řidiče společně se sedadlem $m_{so}* = 91$ kg (pro případ spolujezdce $m_{sso}* = 71$ kg) připadající na referenční bod vážení. Při nulovém úhlu naklonění sedadla určíme podílnou souřadnici těžiště řidiče sedícího na sedadle.
Tíhovou složku zatíženého sedadla řidičem vypočteme podle vztahu (20). Pro sedadlo obsazené spolujezdcem platí vztah (21).

$$F_{so} = m^*_{so} \cdot g \doteq 890\ N \tag{20}$$

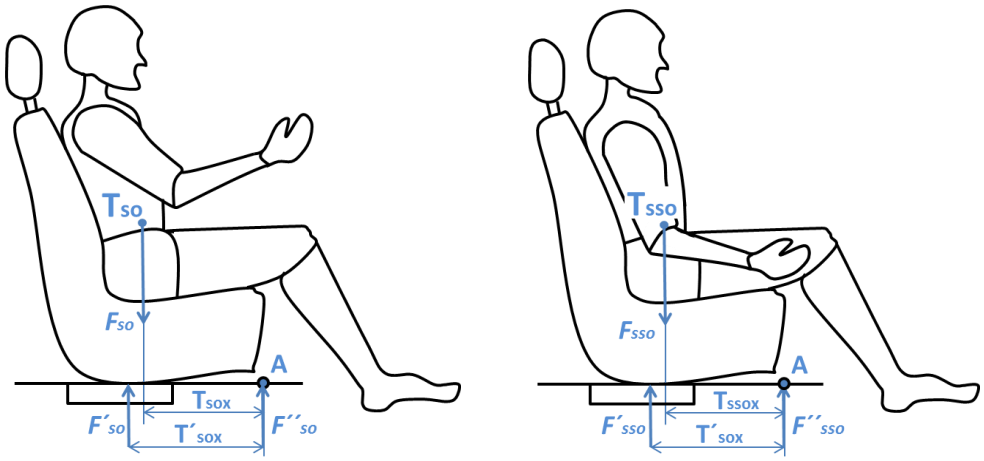
$$F_{sso} = m^*_{sso} \cdot g \doteq 700\ N \tag{21}$$

Zatížení připadající na vážný bod F'_{so} (pro sedadlo s řidičem), resp. F'_{sso} (pro sedadlo se spolujezdcem), který je ve vzdálenosti $T'_{sox} = 500$ mm od referenčního kotvícího bodu A,

vypočteme dle vztahu (22), kde hmotnost připadající na vážný bod m^{**}_{so} = 68,00 kg pro sedadlo obsazené řidičem a dále dle vztahu (23) m^{**}_{sso} = 53 kg pro sedadlo obsazené spolujezdcem.

$$F'_{so} = m^{**}_{so} \cdot g \doteq 670\ N \tag{22}$$

$$F'_{sso} = m^{**}_{sso} \cdot g \doteq 520\ N \tag{23}$$



Obr. 9 Podélná souřadnice sedadla obsazeného řidičem a spolujezdcem

Podélná souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla řidičem T_{sox}, resp. T_{ssox} spolujezdcem určíme z rovnice (28), resp. (29), která vznikne úpravou silové (24), resp. (25) a momentové (26), resp. (27) rovnice rovnováhy vztažené ke kotvícímu bodu sedadla *A*. Tyto mají následující tvary:

$$F'_{so} + F''_{so} = F_{so} \tag{24}$$

$$F'_{sso} + F''_{sso} = F_{sso} \tag{25}$$

$$F'_{so} \cdot T'_{sox} - F_{so} \cdot T_{sox} = 0 \tag{26}$$

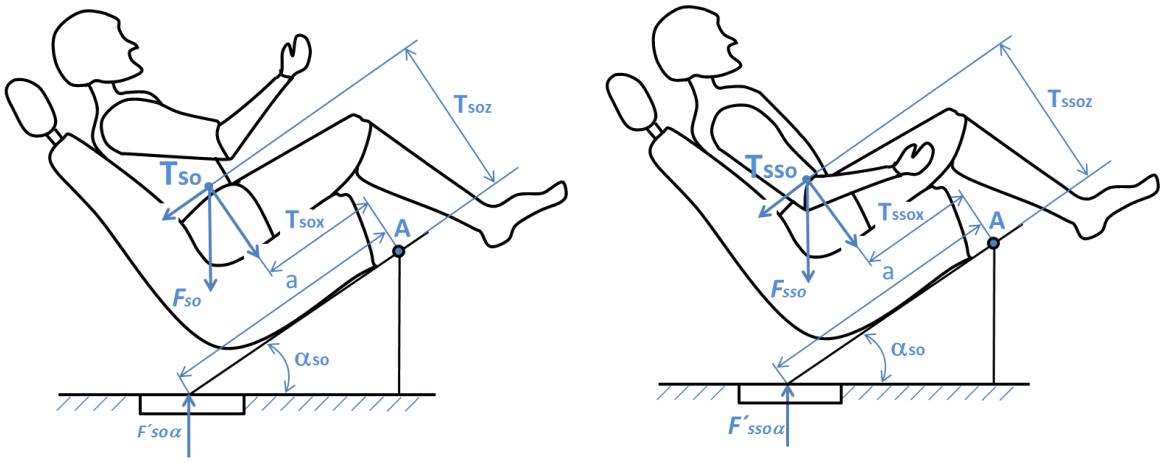
$$F'_{sso} \cdot T'_{sox} - F_{sso} \cdot T_{ssox} = 0 \tag{27}$$

$$T_{sox} = \frac{T'_{sox} \cdot F'_{so}}{F_{so}} \doteq 374\ mm \tag{28}$$

$$T_{ssox} = \frac{T'_{sox} \cdot F'_{sso}}{F_{sso}} \doteq 373\ mm \tag{29}$$

Podélná souřadnice obsazeného sedadla řidičem je shodná s podélnou souřadnicí obsazeného sedadla spolujezdcem.

Výškovou souřadnici těžiště sedadla osazeného řidičem T_{soz}, resp. spolujezdcem T_{ssoz}, určíme metodou vážení při jeho současném naklánění. Sedadlo s nastaveným sklonem opěradla a se sedícím řidičem, resp. spolujezdcem (posed musí být co nejbližší posedu ve vozidle) jsme naklonili o úhel α_{so} = 30° (Obr. 10) a určili jsme hodnotu svislé složky síly připadající na vážný bod $F'_{so\alpha} \doteq$ 780 N, resp. $F'_{sso\alpha} \doteq$ 600 N. Vzdálenost mezi vážným bodem a referenčním bodem *A* je $a \doteq$ 700 mm.



Obr. 10 Výšková souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla řidičem a spolujezdcem

Podle Obr. 10 má rovnice statické rovnováhy momentů ke kotvícímu bodu sedadla *A* tvar (30), resp. (31):

$$F'_{soα} \cdot a \cdot cosα_{so} - F_{so} \cdot T_{soz} \cdot sinα_{so} - F_{so} \cdot T_{sox} \cdot cosα_{so} = 0 \tag{30}$$

$$F'_{ssoα} \cdot a \cdot cosα_{so} - F_{sso} \cdot T_{ssoz} \cdot sinα_{so} - F_{sso} \cdot T_{ssox} \cdot cosα_{so} = 0 \tag{31}$$

Úpravou vztahů (30) a (31) získáme vztah pro výškovou souřadnici těžiště sedadla obsazeného řidičem (32), resp. pro výškovou souřadnici těžiště sedadla obsazeného spolujezdcem (33).

$$T_{soz} = \frac{F'_{soα} \cdot a - F_{so} \cdot T_{sox}}{F_{so} \cdot sin\, α_{so}} \cdot cos\, α_{so} \doteq 413\, mm \tag{32}$$

$$T_{ssoz} = \frac{F'_{ssoα} \cdot a - F_{sso} \cdot T_{ssox}}{F_{sso} \cdot sin\, α_{so}} \cdot cos\, α_{so} \doteq 394\, mm \tag{33}$$

2.3.3 Výšková souřadnice těžiště sedadla

Protože jsme výškovou souřadnici těžiště automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností zjišťovali na sklopné plošině a ve vozidle byly použity sedadla, a současně jsme sedadla použili i při zjišťování výškové souřadnice těžiště osádky, proto jsme museli vypočítat těžiště samostatného sedadla. Postup byl obdobný jako při zjišťování výškové souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla.

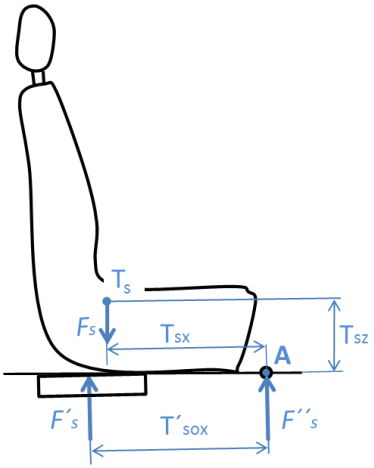
Před vlastním určením výškové souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla jsme určili podélnou souřadnici těžiště sedadla T_{sx}. Za výchozí bod pro určení podélné souřadnice těžiště považujeme opět přední kotvící bod ližin sedáku *A*. Poloha sedadla odpovídá poloze, která byla použita při zjišťování výškové souřadnice obsazeného sedadla. Vážením jsme zjistili celkovou hmotnost sedadla m_s* = 11 kg připadající na referenční bod vážení.

Tíhovou složku samostatného sedadla F_s vypočteme podle vztahu (34).

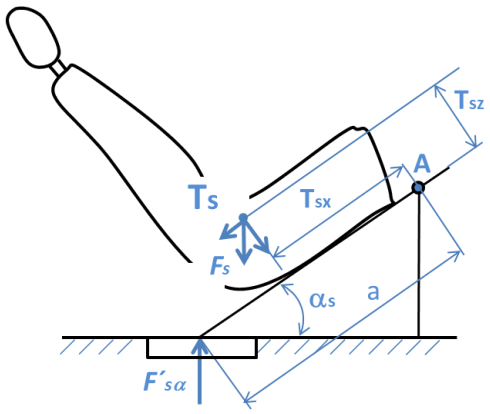
$$F_s = m^*{}_s \cdot g \doteq 110\, N \tag{34}$$

Zatížení připadající na vážný bod F'_s, který je ve vzdálenosti T'_{sox} = 500 mm od referenčního kotvícího bodu *A*, vypočteme dle vztahu (35), kde je hmotnost samostatného sedadla připadající na vážný bod $m^{**}{}_s \doteq$ 4,4 kg.

$$F'_s = m_s^{**} \cdot g \doteq 40\ N \tag{35}$$



Obr. 11 Určení podélné souřadnice těžiště sedadla



Obr. 12 Výšková souřadnice těžiště sedadla

Podélnou souřadnici těžiště prázdného sedadla T_{sx} určíme z rovnice (38), kterou jsme získali úpravou silové (36) a momentové (37) rovnice rovnováhy vztažené ke kotvícímu bodu sedadla *A*. Tyto mají následující tvary:

$$F'_s + F''_s = F_s \tag{36}$$

$$F'_s \cdot T'_{sox} - F_s \cdot T_{sx} = 0 \tag{37}$$

$$T_{sx} = \frac{F'_s \cdot T'_{sox}}{F_s} \doteq 200\ mm \tag{38}$$

Výškovou souřadnici těžiště sedadla T_{sz} určíme metodou vážení při jeho současném naklánění. Sedadlo s nastaveným sklonem opěradla jsme pro zvýšení přesnosti měření při vážení volili α_s = 45° (Obr. 12). Následně jsme určili hodnotu svislé složky síly připadající na vážný bod $F'_{s\alpha} \doteq 50$ N. Vzdálenost mezi vážným bodem a referenčním bodem *A* je *a* = 700 mm.

Podle Obr. 12 má rovnice statické rovnováhy momentů ke kotvícímu bodu sedadla *A* tvar (39).

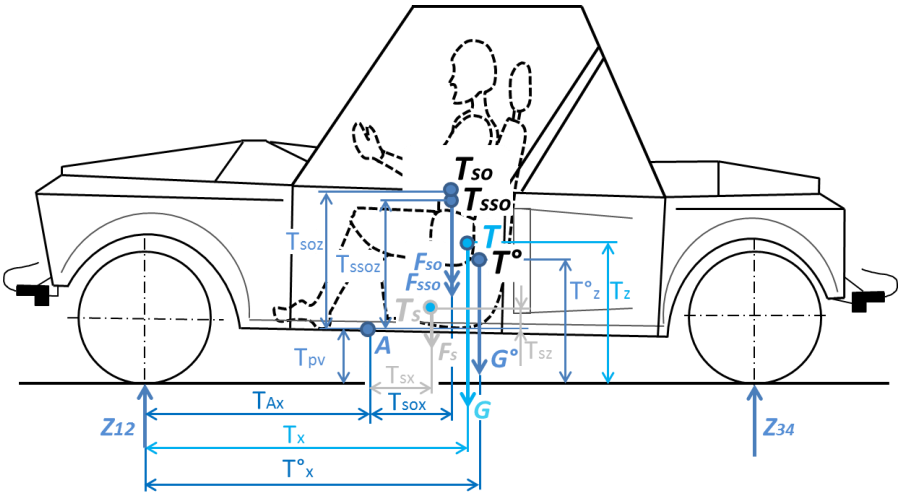
$$F'_{s\alpha} \cdot a \cdot cos\alpha_s - F_s \cdot T_{sz} \cdot sin\alpha_s - F_s \cdot T_{sx} \cdot cos\alpha_s = 0 \tag{39}$$

Úpravou vztahu (39) získáme vztah pro výškovou souřadnici těžiště sedadla (40).

$$T_{sz} = \frac{F'_{s\alpha} \cdot a - F_s \cdot T_{sx}}{F_s \cdot sin\,\alpha_s} \cdot cos\,\alpha_s \doteq 142\ mm \tag{40}$$

2.3.4 Výšková souřadnice těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti

Výslednou výškovou souřadnici automobilu o celkové hmotnosti určíme dle Obr. 13 a to ze vztahu (42), který jsme získali úpravou momentové rovnice (41). Výška podvozku experimentálního vozidla od vozovky v místě kotvícího bodu sedadla je T_{pv} = 290 mm.



Obr. 13 Určení výškové souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti

Jelikož výšková souřadnice těžiště sedadla T_{sz} je zahrnuta jak ve výpočtu výškové souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla řidičem T_{soz}, tak i při výpočtu výškové souřadnice těžiště obsazeného sedadla spolujezdcem T_{ssoz} a současně i při určování výškové souřadnice těžiště automobilu, tak musíme její dvojnásobek při sestavování pohybové rovnice odečíst. Z tohoto pohledu je také na Obr. 13 zobrazena šedou barvou.

$$F_{so} \cdot (T_{soz} + T_{pv}) + F_{sso} \cdot (T_{ssoz} + T_{pv}) + G^{\circ} \cdot T^{\circ}{}_{z} - 2 \cdot F_{s} \cdot (T_{sz} + T_{pv}) = G \cdot T_{z} \tag{41}$$

$$T_{z} = \frac{F_{so} \cdot (T_{soz} + T_{pv}) + F_{sso} \cdot (T_{ssoz} + T_{pv}) + G^{\circ} \cdot T^{\circ}{}_{z} - 2 \cdot F_{s} \cdot (T_{sz} + T_{pv})}{G} \tag{42}$$

$$\doteq 682\ mm$$

Tab. 3 Souřadnice těžiště automobilu – vypočtené hodnoty

parametr	**označení**	**rozměr [mm]**
podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o pohotovostní hmotnosti	$T^{\circ}{}_{x}$	1 361
příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o pohotovostní hmotnosti	$T^{\circ}{}_{y}$	729
výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla o pohotovostní hmotnosti	$T^{\circ}{}_{z}$	674
podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{x}	1 335
příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{y}	715
výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{z}	682

3. VÝPOČET POLOHY TĚŽIŠTĚ EXPERIMENTÁLNÍHO VOZIDLA SE SYSTÉMEM ALTERNATIVNÍHO SKIDCARU

Jelikož již známe výškovou souřadnici těžiště experimentálního automobilu *Výšková souřadnice automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností*) a při experimentech realizujeme jízdní zkoušky pouze s vozidlem o celkové hmotnosti, proto nemusíme zjišťovat souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem o pohotovostní hmotnosti. Souřadnice těžiště experimentálního automobilu se systémem alternativního SkidCaru jsme zjišťovali pro případ, kdy radiální reakce kolových jednotek $Z^{*}{}_{SCj}$ jsou rovny 0 N.

Tab. 4 - Vstupní parametry alternativního SkidCaru

parametr	označení	rozměr [mm]
rozchod předních jednotek	B_{SC1}	2 280
rozchod zadních jednotek	B_{SC2}	2 280
rozvor	L_{SC}	1 635
rozměr Z_{SC1} <–> Z^*_{SC1}	b_{SC}	757
výšková souřadnice těžiště	T^*_{SCz}	190
šířka rámu SkidCaru	B^*_{SC}	2 420
hmotnost SkidCaru	m^*_{sc}	216 kg
hmotnost hydrauliky	m_H	48 kg

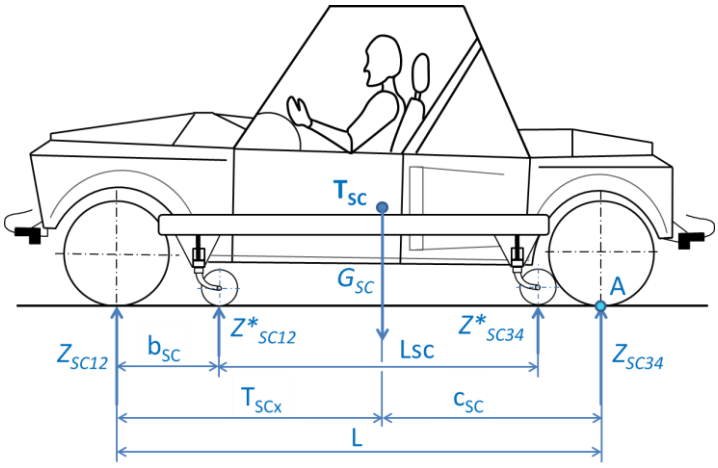
Z důvodu minimalizace nákladů na výrobu rámu alternativního SkidCaru jsme použili kolové jednotky s mechanickým nastavováním zdvihu, je na experimentálním automobilu realizováno usazení všech hydraulických prvků. Polohu těžiště jsme realizovali již pro případ experimentálního vozidla osazeného hydraulickými prvky. Za vstupní parametry výpočtu jsme použili hodnoty z tabulky Tab. 4 a Tab. 5.

Tab. 5 - Hmotnostní parametry experimentálního vozidla se systémem alternativního SkidCaru

	vozidlo s alternativním SkidCarem o pohotovostní hmotnosti				vozidlo s alternativním SkidCarem o celkové hmotnosti			
	hmotnost [kg]		radiální reakce kol [N]		hmotnost [kg]		radiální reakce kol [N]	
levé přední	$m°_{SC1}$	286	$Z°_{SC\,1}$	2 800	$m_{SC\,1}$	330	Z_{SC1}	3 240
pravé přední	$m°_{SC\,2}$	277	$Z°_{SC\,2}$	2 720	$m_{SC\,2}$	311	Z_{SC2}	3 050
levé zadní	$m°_{SC\,3}$	300	$Z°_{SC\,3}$	2 940	$m_{SC\,3}$	336	Z_{SC3}	3 300
pravé zadní	$m°_{SC\,4}$	317	$Z°_{SC\,4}$	3 110	$m_{SC\,4}$	343	Z_{SC4}	3 370
přední náprava	$m°_{SC\,12}$	563	$G°_{SC\,12}$	5 520	$m_{SC\,12}$	641	G_{SC12}	6 290
zadní náprava	$m°_{SC\,34}$	617	$G°_{SC\,34}$	6 050	$m_{SC\,34}$	679	G_{SC34}	6 670
Σ	$m°_{SC}$	1 180	$G°_{SC}$	11 580	m_{SC}	1 320	G_{SC}	12 960

3.1 Podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem o celkové hmotnosti

Podélnou souřadnici těžiště automobilu o pohotovostní a celkové hmotnosti se systémem alternativního SkidCaru stanovíme obdobným způsobem, jak jsme popsali v kapitole *Souřadnice těžiště experimentálního vozidla*.



Obr. 14 Radiální reakce vozidla o celkové hmotnosti se systémem alternativního SkidCaru v podélném směru

Silovou rovnici (43) a momentovou rovnici (44) rovnováhy vztaženou k bodu A (kontakt kol zadní nápravy s vozovkou) jsme sestavili dle Obr. 14:

$$Z_{\mathrm{SC12}} + Z_{\mathrm{SC34}} + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC12}} + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC34}} - G_{sc} = 0, \tag{43}$$

$$Z_{\mathrm{SC12}} \cdot L + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC12}} \cdot (\mathrm{L} - b_{sc}) - G_{sc} \cdot c_{SC} + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC34}} \cdot (\mathrm{L} - b_{sc} - L_{SC}) = 0, \tag{44}$$

kde:

- c_{SC} – momentové rameno – poloha těžiště vozidla T_{SC} s celkovou hmotností a alternativním SkidCarem od zadní nápravy [m]
- b_{SC} – vzdálenost osy předních kol alternativního SkidCaru od osy předních kol experimentálního vozidla [m]
- Z^*_{SC12} – radiální reakce předních kolových jednotek alternativního SkidCaru pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N]
- Z_{SC12} – radiální reakce přední nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [N]
- Z_{SC34} – radiální reakce zadní nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [N]
- Z^*_{SC34} – radiální reakce zadních kolových jednotek alternativního SkidCaru pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N]
- G_{SC} – tíha vozidla o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [N].

Souřadnice těžiště automobilu s alternativním SkidCarem s celkovou hmotností od zadní nápravy c_{SC} určíme dle vztahu (45).

$$c_{SC} = \frac{Z_{\mathrm{SC12}} \cdot L + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC12}} \cdot (L - b_{SC}) + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC34}} \cdot (L - b_{SC} - L_{SC})}{G_{SC}} \doteq 1\,252\ mm \tag{45}$$

Podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem o celkové hmotnosti T_{SCx} je dána rozdílem mezi rozvorem náprav vozidla L a momentovým ramenem a od referenčního kola ve směru k zadní nápravě, jak je dáno vztahem (46).

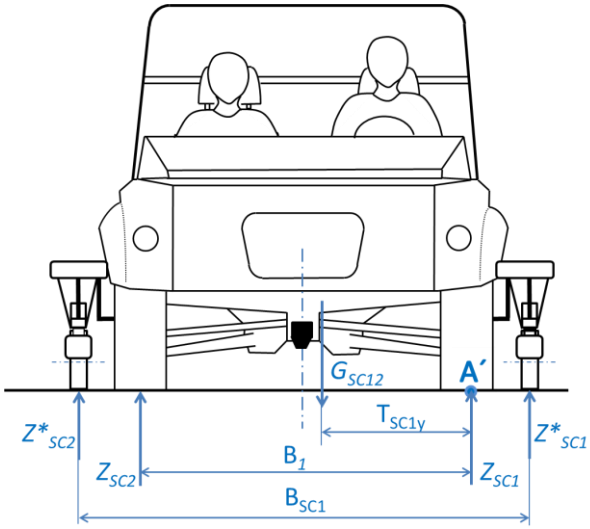
$$T_{SCx} = L - c_{SC} \doteq 1\,328\ mm \tag{46}$$

3.2 Příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem o celkové hmotnosti

Při řešení jsme opět úlohu rozdělili na tři dílčí části. V prvním kroku jsme vypočetli polohu těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem v ose přední nápravy T_{SC1y} a ve druhém kroku jsme vypočetli souřadnici těžiště automobilu s alternativním SkidCarem v ose zadní nápravy T_{SC2y}. V posledním kroku jsme vypočetli příčnou souřadnici těžiště automobilu v těžištní rovině T_{SCy}. Za referenční bod pro výpočet souřadnice těžiště T_{SCy} jsme volili bod působení radiální reakce Z_{SC1}, tedy opět levé přední kolo v kontaktu s vozovkou v místě svislé osy kola a středu šířky pneumatiky. Pro určení příčné souřadnice těžiště uvažujeme polohu SkidCaru se zvednutými kolovými jednotkami, tedy kolové jednotky nepřenáší na vozovku žádnou radiální sílu.

3.2.1 Příčná souřadnice těžiště v ose přední nápravy

Pro sestavení momentové rovnice (48) jsme vyšli z rovnice sil (47) a z Obr. 15. Za vztažný bod při sestavení momentové rovnice bereme bod *A´*, což je kontakt levého předního kola s vozovkou.



Obr. 15 Příčná poloha těžiště experimentálního vozidla s ASC v ose přední nápravy

$$Z_{SC1} + Z_{SC2} + Z^*_{SC2} + Z^*_{SC2} - G_{sc12} = 0 \tag{47}$$

$$-Z^*_{\mathrm{SC1}} \cdot \frac{B_{SC1} - B_1}{2} - G_{\mathrm{SC12}} \cdot T_{SC1y} + Z_{SC2} \cdot B_1 + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC2}} \cdot \left(\frac{B_{SC1} - B_1}{2} + B_1\right) = 0 \tag{48}$$

kde:

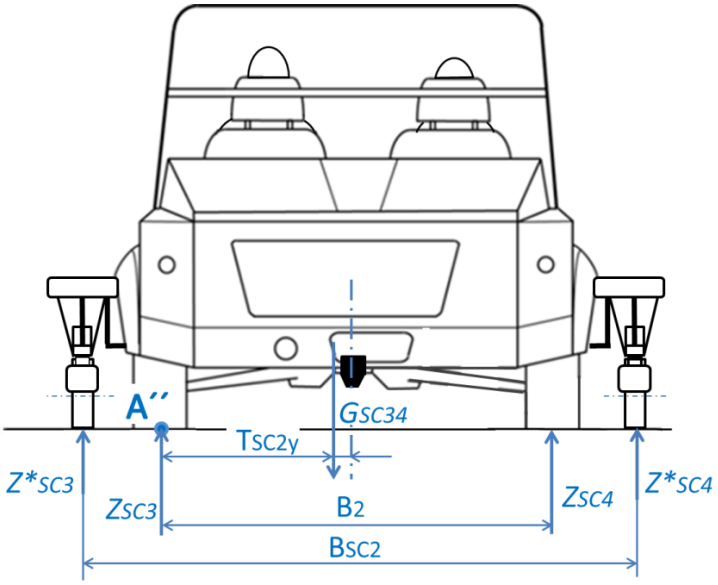
- Z_{SC1} – radiální reakce levého předního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [m],
- Z_{SC2} – radiální reakce pravého předního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [m],
- Z^*_{SC1} – radiální reakce levé přední kolové jednotky alternativního SkidCaru [m],
- Z^*_{SC2} – radiální reakce pravé přední kolové jednotky alternativního SkidCaru [m],
- G_{SC12} – tíha automobilu s celkovou hmotností a alternativním SkidCarem připadající na přední nápravu [N],
- B_{SC1} – rozchod předních kolových jednotek alternativního SkidCaru [m],
- T_{SC1y} – příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem v ose přední nápravy [m].

Po úpravě vztahu (48) získáme rovnici udávající souřadnici polohy těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem T_{SC1y} v ose přední nápravy od levého předního vozidlového kola.

$$T_{SC1y} = \frac{-Z^*_{\mathrm{SC1}} \cdot \frac{B_{SC1} - B_1}{2} + Z_{SC2} \cdot B_1 + Z^*_{\mathrm{SC2}} \cdot \left(\frac{B_{SC1} - B_1}{2} + B_1\right)}{G_{\mathrm{SC12}}} \doteq 696\ mm \tag{49}$$

a) Příčná souřadnice těžiště v ose zadní nápravy

Pro sestavení silové (50) a momentové (51) rovnice vycházím z Obr. 16, kdy za vztažný bod při sestavení momentové rovnice uvažujeme bod A´´, což je kontakt levého zadního vozidlového kola s vozovkou.



Obr. 16 Příčná poloha těžiště experimentálního vozidla s ASC v ose zadní nápravy

$$Z_{SC3} + Z_{SC4} + Z^*_{SC3} + Z^*_{SC4} - G_{sc34} = 0 \tag{50}$$

$$Z^*_{SC3} \cdot \frac{B_{SC2} - B_2}{2} + G_{SC34} \cdot T_{SC2y} - Z_{SC4} \cdot B_2 - Z^*_{SC4} \cdot \left(\frac{B_{SC2} - B_2}{2} + B_2\right) = 0 \tag{51}$$

kde:

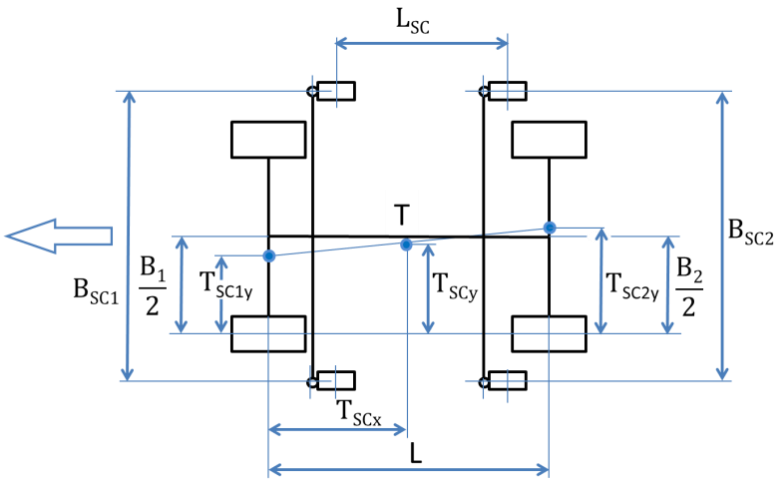
Z_{SC3} – radiální reakce levého zadního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [m],
Z_{SC4} – radiální reakce pravého zadního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [m],
Z^*_{SC3} – radiální reakce levé zadní kolové jednotky alternativního SkidCaru [m],
Z^*_{SC4} – radiální reakce pravé zadní kolové jednotky alternativního SkidCaru [m],
G_{SC34} – tíha automobilu s celkovou hmotností a alternativním SkidCarem připadající na zadní nápravu [N],
B_{SC2} – rozchod zadních kolových jednotek alternativního SkidCaru [m],
T_{SC2y} – příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem v ose zadní nápravy [m].

Úpravou vztahu (51) získáme rovnici (52) udávající souřadnici polohy těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s ASC T_{SC1y} v ose zadní nápravy od levého zadního vozidlového kola.

$$T_{SC2y} = \frac{-Z^*_{SC3} \cdot \frac{B_{SC2} - B_2}{2} + Z_{SC4} \cdot B_2 + Z^*_{SC4} \cdot \left(\frac{B_{SC2} - B_2}{2} + B_2\right)}{G_{SC34}} \doteq 726\ mm \tag{52}$$

3.2.2 Příčná souřadnice těžiště v příčné těžištní rovině

Dle výše získaných hodnot je patrné, že těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti s ASC leží mimo podélnou osu. Příčnou souřadnici těžiště T_{SCy} při výchozích radiálních reakcích vypočtu podle rovnice (54) sestavené na základě Obr. 17.



Obr. 17 Příčná souřadnice těžiště experimentálního vozidla s ASC v příčné těžištní rovině automobilu

$$\frac{T_{SC2y} - T_{SC1y}}{L} = \frac{T_{SCy} - T_{SC1y}}{T_{SCx}} \tag{53}$$

$$T_{SCy} = T_{SC1y} + T_{SCx} \cdot \frac{T_{SC2y} - T_{SC1y}}{L} \doteq 711\ mm \tag{54}$$

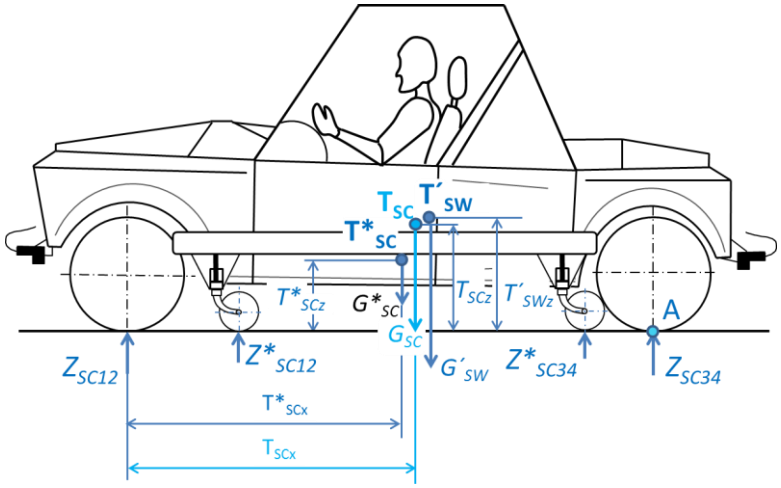
3.3 Výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem o celkové hmotnosti

Výslednou výškovou souřadnici automobilu o celkové hmotnosti určíme dle Obr. 18 (kreslen pro obecnou polohu sytému) a to ze vztahu (57), který jsme získali úpravou momentové rovnice (56) sestavené k bodu *A*. Výškovou souřadnici těžiště jsme zjišťovali pro případ, kdy kolové jednotky alternativního SkidCaru jsou v kontaktu s vozovkou a přenáší nulovou radiální reakci. Protože uvažujeme do budoucna, kdy automobil se systémem alternativního SkidCaru bude používán při výuce, již jsme při konstrukci mechanického nastavení zdvihu kolových jednotek vozidlo osadili hydraulickými komponenty, které jsou až na kolové jednotky shodné i pro systém SlideWheel. Proto při určení výškové souřadnice experimentálního vozidla s alternativním SkidCarem, jako základní poloha výškové souřadnice těžiště, použijeme výškovou souřadnici vozidla se systémem SlideWheel bez kolových jednotek. Výsledná poloha těžiště automobilu se systémem SlideWheel bez kolových jednotek T'_{SWz} je dle upraveného Obr. 23 a dle vztahu (55) rovna 681 mm.

$$T'_{SWz} = \frac{G^*_{SWr} \cdot T^*_{SWrz} + G \cdot T_z + G^*_{SWč} \cdot T^*_{SWčz}}{G_{SW} - G^*_{SW12} - G^*_{SW34}} \doteq 681\ mm \tag{55}$$

kde:

G'_{SW} – tíha vozidla se SlideWheel bez kolových jednotek [N],
G^*_{SWr} – tíha hydraulického rozvaděče [N],
T^*_{SWrz} – výšková souřadnice těžiště hydraulického rozvaděče [mm],
$G^*_{SWč}$ – tíha hydraulického čerpadla [N],
$T^*_{SWčz}$ – výšková souřadnice těžiště hydraulického čerpadla [mm],
G_{SW} – tíha automobilu se systémem SlideWheel [N],
G^*_{SW12} – tíha předních kolových jednotek SlideWheel [N],
G^*_{SW34} – tíha zadních kolových jednotek SlideWheel [N].



Obr. 18 Určení výškové souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti se systémem alternativního SkidCaru

Výšková souřadnice těžiště rámu alternativního SkidCaru je T^*_{SCz} je rovna 190 mm od povrchu vozovky.

$$G^*_{SC} \cdot T^*_{SCz} + G'_{SW} \cdot T'_{SWz} = G_{SC} \cdot T_{SCz} \tag{56}$$

$$T_{SCz} = \frac{G^*_{SC} \cdot T^*_{SCz} + G'_{SW} \cdot T'_{SWz}}{G_{SC}} \doteq 636\ mm \tag{57}$$

Tab. 6 Souřadnice těžiště automobilu se systémem alternativního SkidCaru – vypočtené hodnoty

souřadnice těžiště vozidla s alternativním SkidCar	**označení**	**rozměr [mm]**
podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SCx}	1 328
příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SCy}	711
výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SCz}	636

4. VÝPOČET POLOHY TĚŽIŠTĚ EXPERIMENTÁLNÍHO VOZIDLA SE SYSTÉMEM SLIDEWHEEL

Pro potřebu dalšího zkoumání experimentálního vozidla se systémem SlideWheel při následném vývoji (je zamýšlen na školícím pracovišti dále rozvíjet) jsme určili souřadnice

těžiště celé sestavy automobilu. Při zjištění souřadnic těžiště automobilu se SlideWheel jsme vyšli z aktuálně naměřených hodnot polohy těžiště automobilu a to z *Výšková souřadnice automobilu s pohotovostní hmotností*. Souřadnice těžiště zjišťujeme pro případ, kdy radiální reakce kolových jednotek SlideWheelu Z^*_{SWj} jsou rovny 0 N. Za vstupní parametry výpočtu jsme použili hodnoty z tabulky Tab. 4 a Tab. 7.

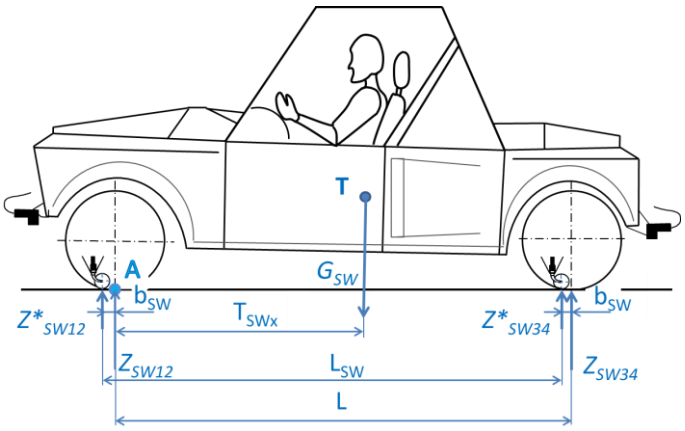
Tab. 7 Rozměrové a dílčí hmotnostní parametry experimentálního vozidla se systémem SlideWheel

parametr	**označení**	**rozměr**
rozchod předních kolových jednotek	B_{SW1}	960 mm
rozchod zadních kolových jednotek	B_{SW2}	960 mm
rozvor kolových jednotek	L_{SW}	2 580 mm
rozdíl podélný $Z^*_{SC1} \leftrightarrow Z_{SC1}$	b_{SW}	20 mm
hmotnost hydraulické jednotky čerpadla	$m^*_{SWč}$	24 kg
hmotnost hydraulického rozvaděče a zámků s hadicemi	m^*_{SWr}	14 kg
hmotnost kolových jednotek s držákem	m^*_{SWij}	8 kg
celková hmotnost prvků systému SlideWheel	m^*_{SW}	70 kg
hmotnost hydrauliky	m_H	48 kg

Tab. 8 Hmotnostní parametry experimentálního vozidla se systémem SlideWheel

	vozidlo se SlideWheel o pohotovostní hmotnosti				**vozidlo se SlideWheel o celkové hmotnosti**			
	hmotnost [kg]		**radiální reakce kol [N]**		**hmotnost [kg]**		**radiální reakce kol [N]**	
levé přední	$m°_{SW1}$	262	$Z°_{SW\,1}$	2 570	$m_{SW\,1}$	306	$Z_{SW\,1}$	3 000
pravé přední	$m°_{SW\,2}$	254	$Z°_{SW\,2}$	2 490	$m_{SW\,2}$	288	$Z_{SW\,2}$	2 830
levé zadní	$m°_{SW\,3}$	276	$Z°_{SW\,3}$	2 710	$m_{SW\,3}$	312	$Z_{SW\,3}$	3 060
pravé zadní	$m°_{SW\,4}$	290	$Z°_{SW\,4}$	2 840	$m_{SW\,4}$	316	$Z_{SW\,4}$	3 100
přední náprava	$m°_{SW\,12}$	516	$G°_{SW\,12}$	5 060	$m_{SW\,12}$	594	$G_{SW\,12}$	5 830
zadní náprava	$m°_{SW\,34}$	566	$G°_{SW\,34}$	5 550	$m_{SW\,34}$	628	$G_{SW\,34}$	6 160
Σ	m_{SW} °	1 082	$G°_{SW}$	10 610	m_{SW}	1 222	G_{SW}	11 990

4.1 Podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti



Obr. 19 Radiální reakce vozidla vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti se systémem SlideWheel

Silovou (58) a momentovou (59) rovnici rovnováhy vztažené k bodu *A* (kontakt kol zadní nápravy s vozovkou) jsme sestavili dle Obr. 19:

$$Z_{\mathrm{SW12}} + Z_{\mathrm{SW34}} + Z^*_{\mathrm{SW12}} + Z^*_{\mathrm{SW34}} - G_{SW} = 0, \tag{58}$$

$$Z^*_{\mathrm{SW12}} \cdot b_{SW} + G_{SW} \cdot T_{SWx} - Z^*_{\mathrm{SW34}} \cdot (L_{SW} - b_{SW}) - Z_{SW34} \cdot L = 0, \tag{59}$$

kde:

- b_{SW} – vzdálenost osy předních kol SlideWheel od osy předních kol experimentálního vozidla [m],
- Z^*_{SW12} – radiální reakce předních kolových jednotek SlideWheel pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N],
- Z_{SW12} – radiální reakce přední nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [N],
- Z_{SW34} – radiální reakce zadní nápravy pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel [N],
- Z^*_{SW34} – radiální reakce zadních kolových jednotek SlideWheel pro vozidlo o celkové hmotnosti [N],
- G_{SW} – tíha vozidla o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem [N].

Souřadnice těžiště automobilu se SlideWheel a s celkovou hmotností od osy přední nápravy T_{SWx} určíme dle vztahu (60).

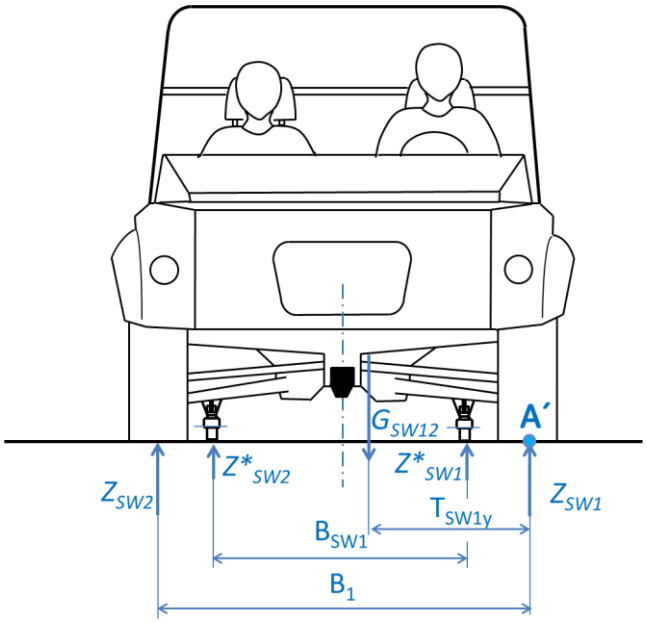
$$T_{SWx} = \frac{Z^*_{\mathrm{SW34}} \cdot (L_{SW} - b_{SW}) - Z^*_{\mathrm{SW12}} \cdot b_{SW} + Z_{SW34} \cdot L}{G_{SW}} \doteq 1326\, mm \tag{60}$$

4.2 Příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti se systémem SlideWheel

Při řešení jsme úlohu rozdělili na tři dílčí části, kdy jsme v prvním kroku zjistili souřadnici těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti T_{SW1y} se systémem SlideWheel v ose přední nápravy, ve druhém kroku jsme vypočetli souřadnici těžiště automobilu s alternativním SkidCar v ose zadní nápravy T_{SW2y}. Ve třetím kroku jsme vypočetli příčnou souřadnici těžiště automobilu v těžištní rovině T_{SCy}. Za referenční bod pro výpočet souřadnice těžiště T_{SCy} volíme bod působení radiální reakce Z_{SW1}, tedy levé přední vozidlové kolo v kontaktu s vozovkou v místě svislé osy kola a středu šířky pneumatiky. Pro určení příčné souřadnice těžiště uvažujeme polohu alternativního SkidCaru se zvednutými kolovými jednotkami.

4.3 Příčná souřadnice těžiště v ose přední nápravy

Pro sestavení momentové rovnice (61) jsme vyšli ze silové rovnice (47) a z Obr. 15. Za vztažný bod při sestavení momentové rovnice bereme bod A', což je kontakt levého předního kola s vozovkou.



Obr. 20 Příčná poloha těžiště experimentálního vozidla se SlideWheel v ose přední nápravy

$$Z_{SW1} + Z_{SW2} + Z^*_{SW2} + Z^*_{SW2} - G_{SW12} = 0 \tag{61}$$

$$Z_{SW2} \cdot B_1 + Z^*_{SW2} \cdot \left(\frac{B_1 - B_{SW1}}{2} + B_{SW1}\right) - G_{SW12} \cdot T_{SW1y} + \\ + Z^*_{SW1} \cdot \left(\frac{B_1 - B_{SW1}}{2}\right) = 0 \tag{62}$$

kde:

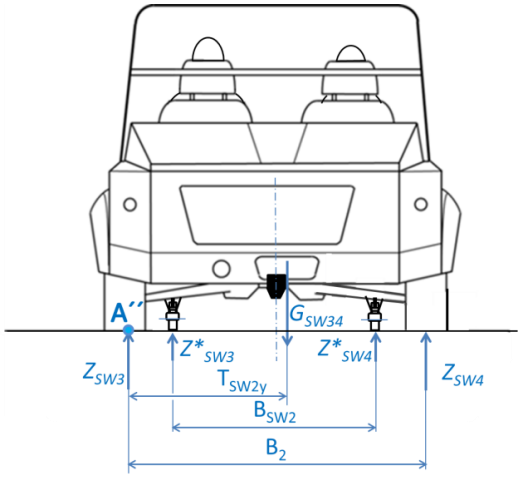
Z_{SW1} – radiální reakce levého předního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel [m],
Z_{SW2} – radiální reakce pravého předního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel [m],
Z^*_{SW1} – radiální reakce levé přední kolové jednotky SlideWheel [m],
Z^*_{SW2} – radiální reakce pravé přední kolové jednotky SlideWheel [m],
G_{SW12} – tíha automobilu s celkovou hmotností a SlideWheelem připadající na přední nápravu [N],
B_{SW1} – rozchod předních kolových jednotek SlideWheel [m],
T_{SW1y} – příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel v ose přední nápravy [m].

Úpravou vztahu (63) získáme rovnici udávající souřadnici polohy těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel T_{SW1y} v ose přední nápravy od levého předního vozidlového kola.

$$T_{SW1y} = \frac{Z_{SW2} \cdot B_1 + Z^*_{SW2} \cdot \left(\frac{B_1 - B_{SW1}}{2} + B_{SW1}\right) + Z^*_{SW1} \cdot \left(\frac{B_1 - B_{SC1}}{2}\right)}{G_{SW12}} \doteq 696\ mm \tag{63}$$

4.4 Příčná souřadnice těžiště v ose zadní nápravy

Silovou (64) a momentovou (65) rovnici sestavíme dle Obr. 21, kdy za vztažný bod momentové rovnice uvažujeme bod *A´´*, což je kontakt levého zadního vozidlového kola s vozovkou.



Obr. 21 Příčná poloha těžiště experimentálního vozidla se SlideWheel v ose zadní nápravy

$$Z_{SW3} + Z_{SW4} + Z^*_{SW3} + Z^*_{SW4} - G_{SW34} = 0 \tag{64}$$

$$-Z^*_{SW3} \cdot \frac{B_2 - B_{SW2}}{2} + G_{SW34} \cdot T_{SW2y} - Z^*_{SW4} \cdot \left(\frac{B_2 - B_{SW2}}{2} + B_{SW2}\right) - Z_{SW4} \cdot B_2 = 0 \tag{65}$$

kde:

- Z_{SW3} – radiální reakce levého zadního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel [m],
- Z_{SW4} – radiální reakce pravého zadního kola automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel [m],
- Z^*_{SW3} – radiální reakce levé zadní kolové jednotky SlideWheel [m],
- Z^*_{SW4} – radiální reakce pravé zadní kolové jednotky SlideWheel [m],
- G_{SW34} – tíha automobilu s celkovou hmotností a SlideWheel připadající na zadní nápravu [N],
- B_{SW2} – rozchod zadních kolových jednotek SlideWheel [m],
- T_{SW2y} – příčná souřadnice těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel v ose zadní nápravy [m].

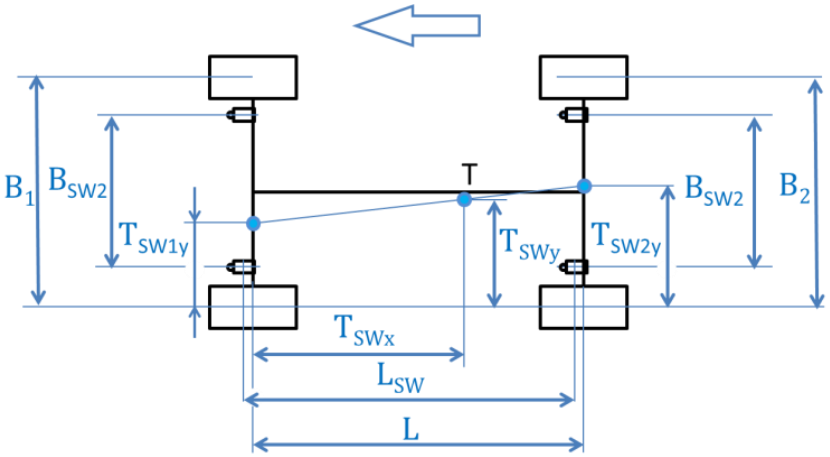
Úpravou vztahu (65) získáme rovnici (66) udávající souřadnici polohy těžiště automobilu o celkové hmotnosti s alternativním SkidCarem T_{SC1y} v ose zadní nápravy od levého zadního vozidlového kola.

$$T_{SW2y} = \frac{Z^*_{SW3} \cdot \frac{B_2 - B_{SW2}}{2} + Z^*_{SW4} \cdot \left(\frac{B_2 - B_{SW2}}{2} + B_{SW2}\right) + Z_{SW4} \cdot B_2}{G_{SW34}} \doteq \tag{66}$$

$$\doteq 722\ mm$$

4.5 Příčná souřadnice těžiště v příčné těžištní rovině

Podle výše získaných hodnot je těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti se SlideWheel mimo podélnou osu vozidla. Příčnou souřadnici těžiště T_{SWy} při výchozích radiálních reakcích vypočteme podle rovnice (67) sestavené na základě Obr. 22.



Obr. 22 Příčná souřadnice těžiště experimentálního se SlideWheel v příčné těžištní rovině automobilu

$$\frac{T_{SW2y} - T_{SW1y}}{L} = \frac{T_{SWy} - T_{SW1y}}{T_{SWx}} \tag{67}$$

$$T_{SWy} = T_{SW1y} + T_{SWx} \cdot \frac{T_{SW2y} - T_{SW1y}}{L} \doteq 709\ mm \tag{68}$$

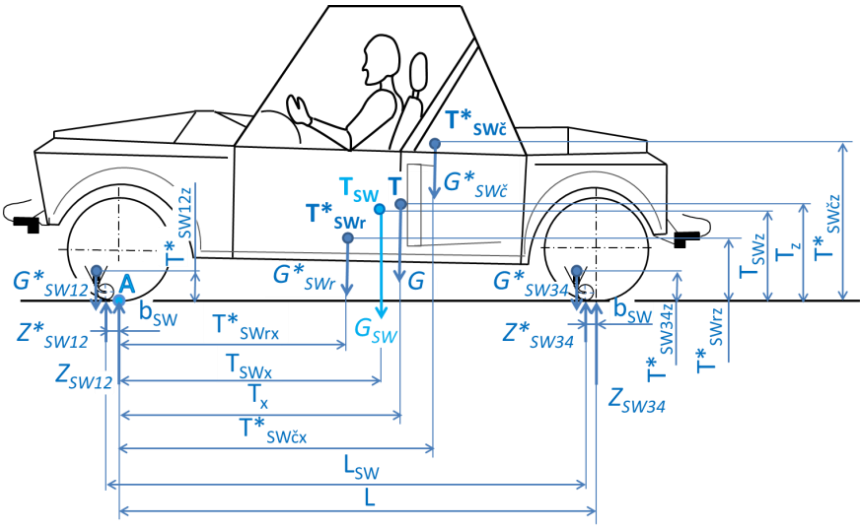
4.6 Výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla se SlideWheel o celkové hmotnosti

Na rozdíl od systému ASC systém SlideWheel není jako jeden kompaktní rám, proto jsme pro výpočet výškové souřadnice vyšli z těžištních výškových souřadnic hlavních komponent systému, jak je uvedeno v Tab. 9.

Tab. 9 Parametry hlavních komponent systému SlideWheel – měřené hodnoty

parametr vozidla se SlideWheel	**označení**	**rozměr**
výšková souřadnice hydraulického agregátu	$T^*_{SWčz}$	1 013 mm
výšková souřadnice hydraulického rozvaděče s hydraulickými zámky	T^*_{SWrz}	480 mm
výšková souřadnice těžiště předních hydraulických jednotek s držáky	T^*_{SW12z}	120 mm
výšková souřadnice těžiště zadních hydraulických jednotek s držáky	T^*_{SW34z}	120 mm
tíhová složka předních hydraulických jednotek s držáky	G^*_{SW12}	80 N
tíhová složka zadních hydraulických jednotek s držáky	G^*_{SW34}	80 N

Výslednou výškovou souřadnici automobilu se SlideWheel o celkové hmotnosti určíme dle Obr. 23 (kreslen pro obecnou polohu sytému SlideWheel) a za pomoci vztahu (71), který jsme získali úpravou momentové rovnice (70). Výškovou souřadnici těžiště jsme zjišťovali pro případ, kdy kolové jednotky systému SlideWheel jsou v kontaktu s vozovkou a přenáší nulovou radiální reakci.



Obr. 23 Určení výškové souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti se systémem SlideWheel

Silová rovnice má podobu danou vztahem (69).

$$-G^*_{SW12} + Z^*_{SW12} + Z_{SW12} - G^*_{SWr} - G - G^*_{SWč} - G^*_{SW34} + Z^*_{SW34} + Z_{SW34} == G_{SW} \tag{69}$$

$$G^*_{SW12} \cdot T^*_{SW12z} + G^*_{SWr} \cdot T^*_{SWrz} + G \cdot T_z + G^*_{SWč} \cdot T^*_{SWčz} + G^*_{SW34} \cdot T^*_{SW34z} = \\ = G_{SW} \cdot T_{SWz} \tag{70}$$

$$T_{SWz} = \frac{G^*_{SW12} \cdot T^*_{SW12z} + G^*_{SWr} \cdot T^*_{SWrz} + G \cdot T_z + G^*_{SWč} \cdot T^*_{SWčz} + G^*_{SW34} \cdot T^*_{SW34z}}{G_{SW}} \\ = 670\ mm \tag{71}$$

Tab. 10 Souřadnice těžiště automobilu se systémem SlideWheel – vypočtené hodnoty

souřadnice těžiště vozidla se SlideWheel	**označení**	**rozměr [mm]**
podélná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SWx}	1 326
příčná souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SWy}	709
výšková souřadnice těžiště vozidla o celkové hmotnosti	T_{SWz}	670

5. ZÁVĚR

Pro potřeby Katedry dopravních prostředků a diagnostiky bylo experimentální vozidlo doplněno dvěma systémy pro vyvození smyku vozidla při bezpečné rychlosti. Cílem příspěvku je zmapování do jaké míry se přádané zařízení projeví na změně polohy těžiště. Souřadnice polohy těžiště se u systému alternativního SkidCaru se vůči experimentálnímu vozidlu posunulo o 7 mm vpřed, o 4 mm více vlevo a o 46 mm blíže k vozovce. Při porovnání polohy těžiště vozidla se systémem SlideWheel vůči experimentálnímu automobilu se těžiště posunulo o 9 mm vpřed, o 6 mm více vlevo a o 12 mm blíže k vozovce.
Z naměřených hodnot je patrné, že jakékoli přídavné zařízení připojené k experimentálnímu vozidlo změní polohu těžiště. I přes na první pohled minimální změnu je tato změna podstatné a to jak při jízdních zkouškách, tak i při realizaci SW similací.

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VYUŽITELNOST ELEKTRONICKÝCH NEHODOVÝCH DAT V BEZPEČNOSTNÍ PRAXI

USABILITY OF ELECTRONIC ACCIDENT DATA IN SAFETY PRACTICE

Jindřich Komárek

Abstrakt

Člověk není dokonalý a dopouští se chyb. Proto automobilky vyvíjejí stále bezpečnější vozy, vybavené stále modernějšími a sofistikovanějšími bezpečnostními systémy, které jsou schopné včas chybu, či případné selhání jednotlivce odhalit a předejít vzniku krizové situace, zabránit střetu a pokud není vyhnutí, snížit následky střetu na minimum. Současné automobily jsou schopné (oproti minulosti) informace o kolizi nebo dopravní nehodě zaznamenat, pokud jsou vybaveny jednotkou EDR. Jednotkou EDR (Event Data Recorder), rozumíme paměťový modul uchovávající data z kolize nebo nehody. Jedná se o cenný zdroj informací, využitelný pro celou řadu subjektů.

Klíčová slova: *automobilismus, bezpečnostní systémy, lidské chyby, dopravní nehody, jednotka EDR, data z kolize, nehodová data*

Abstract

Man is not perfect and makes mistakes. As a result, carmakers are developing increasingly safer cars equipped with ever more modern and sophisticated security systems that are capable of detecting in time a person's failure to detect and prevent the emergence of a crisis situation, avoiding conflict and, if not avoided, minimizing the consequences of the collision. Contemporary cars are able (against the past) to record collisions or traffic accidents if they are equipped with an EDR. An Event Data Recorder (EDR) means a memory module that stores data from a collision or an accident. It is a valuable source of information that can be used by a number of entities.

Key words: *automobilism, security systems, human errors, traffic accidents, EDR Event Data Recorder, collision data, accident data*

1 ÚVODEM

Automobilismus, se stal fenoménem naší doby. Jedná se o důležitý prvek společenské konektivity. Nejde pouze o množství automobilů, které zaplavují ulice měst a obcí, ale také o negativní průvodní jevy s ním spojené. Vznik automobilu je spojen s nadšením z jízdy a cestování. Automobil v době svého vzniku umožnil překonávat nevídané vzdálenosti, a tím poskytoval lidem svobodu cestování. Právě možnost řídit vozidlo směrem, který si zvolím sám, vedla k masovému rozšíření tohoto dopravního prostředku. Mobilita prostřednictvím automobilu, zajišťuje každodenní fungování jednotlivců, rodin a společnosti. Jedná se o důležitý prvek společenské konektivity. Automobil je také považován za sociálně statusový předmět, kterým jeho majitel dává navenek najevo celou řadu informací. Automobil v rukou nezodpovědného jednotlivce trestní zákoník považuje za zbraň. Zbraní rozumíme cokoliv, čím je možné učinit útok vůči tělu důraznějším. Automobil v rukou jednotlivce, který neumí hospodařit s množstvím kinetické energie ve svých rukou, představuje hrozbu. O člověku je známé, že je tvor nedokonalý a dopouští se chyb. Také proto automobilky vyvíjejí stále

bezpečnější vozy se stále modernějšími a sofistikovanějšími bezpečnostními systémy, které jsou schopné včas chybu, či případné selhání jednotlivce odhalit a předejít vzniku krizové situace, zabránit střetu a pokud není vyhnutí, snížit následky střetu na minimum. Právě potřeba poznání zákonitostí lidského chování a informací o vozidle v určitých situacích, vede výrobce automobilů k potřebě zodpovězení celé řady otázek. V zásadě se jedná o otázky, používané v kriminalistické praxi (kdo, co, kdy, kde, jak, proč, čím?) Pouze zodpovězení těchto základních otázek poskytuje výrobcům vozidel informace o lidských vzorech chování a tím umožňuje nalézat inovativní způsoby ochrany lidského života a zdraví. Také automobilky při vývoji svých vozidel vytvářejí hypotézy, které experimentálně potvrzují či vyvracejí. V tom jim stále častěji pomáhají počítačové simulace, ovšem poté vzniká potřeba jejich ověření (evaluace). K ověření funkčnosti navržených řešení provádějí automobilky nárazové testy (crash testy). Nárazové testy prováděné v optimálních podmínkách jsou zatíženy určitou mírou nepřesnosti, ve vztahu k předem definovaným situacím, neboť nikdy nejsou schopné obsáhnout proměnné v podobě odrazu odchylek reálných situací. Tyto situace a nejen dopravní nehody jsou tvořeny mnohočetnými faktory, které v experimentálních podmínkách podléhají určitým omezením. V zásadě jde o fakt, že automobilky nikdy nebudou schopné komplexně experimentálně ověřit (simulovat) všechny situace, které jsou v reálném světě možné. Je možné konstatovat, že existuje potřeba automobilového průmyslu získávat objektivní data z reálného světa, která umožní ověřovat funkčnost navržených řešení. Nástrojem umožňujícím sběr dat v předem definovaných situacích se staly v USA záznamníky nehod, tzv. jednotky EDR. Tyto jednotky jsou zde úspěšně využívány při řešení dopravních nehod a jiných událostí. Analýzou současné dopravně bezpečnostní situace (počet vozidel, stav pozemních komunikací, následky dopravních nehod) v České republice, ale také v ostatních evropských zemích lze dospět k závěru, že existuje společenská potřeba využívání těchto jednotek zejména v případech objasňování dopravních nehod s následky na životě a zdraví, a také při objasňování trestných činů souvisejících s chováním ostatních účastníků silničního provozu. Celá řada případů vyšetřování dopravních nehod je spojena s obtížně překonatelnými překážkami v podobě nedostatku informací relevantních pro zjištění zavinění nehody a její míry. Určitý počet dopravních nehod, objasňovaných orgány činnými v trestním řízení, trpí vážnými nedostatky, které mají zásadní vliv na dokazování skutku před soudem. Informace, které jsou po nehodě uložené v řídící jednotce airbagu vozidel, mají značný potenciál výrazně přispět ke zvýšení objektivity procesu dokazování, a tím naplnit základní zásady trestního řízení s důrazem na zásadu materiální pravdy. Tím budou naplněny základní cíle projektu VIMOT4U, realizovaného Českým vysokým učením technickým v Praze, Ústavem súdneho inžinierstva Žilinskej univerzity v Žiline, Dopravní fakultou Jana Pernera Univerzity v Pardubicích a Policejní akademií České republiky v Praze. Za jeden ze základních cílů projektu, vytyčených jeho autory, patří poskytnout veřejnosti transparentní informace o jednotkách EDR, neboť je jisté, že v blízké budoucnosti dojde k jejich masivnímu rozšíření v silničních motorových vozidlech.

2 USA - ZAHRANIČNÍ ZKUŠENOSTI S JEDNOTKAMI EDR

Jednotky EDR (Event Data Recorder – záznamník údajů o nehodě), jsou s úspěchem využívány zejména v USA. Z dostupných údajů lze počátek výzkumu jejich využitelnosti datovat od roku 1997. Od roku 1998 byla vytvořena pracovní skupina složená ze zástupců automobilového průmyslu, akademické obce a dalších organizací. Cílem skupiny bylo shromáždit údaje o možnostech a využitelnosti jednotek EDR. V roce 2000 NHTSA (The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration - Národní správa bezpečnosti silničního provozu) zřídila pracovní skupinu, která se zabývala EDR jednotkami v automobilech, školních autobusech a autokarech. Bylo zjištěno, že jednotky EDR, jsou schopny zachytit celou řadu údajů, týkajících se dynamiky vozidla, jako je rychlost vozidla; bočních a

podélných časových zrychlení; hlavní směr síly ve vozidle; stav brzdění; řízení; používání bezpečnostních pásů a rozvinutí airbagu; a další cenné informace o deformaci. Bylo zjištěno, že jednotky EDR mají potenciál zachytit značné množství dat souvisejících s dopravními nehodami a jiných datových údajů pro širokou škálu uživatelů. Je zde také řečeno, že získaná data je možné využívat při analýze chování řidiče a výzkumu dopravní bezpečnosti. Cílem výzkumu NHTSA bylo obdobně jako v případě výzkumu VIMOT4U (výzkum čtyř vysokých škol zaměřený na využitelnost a možnosti jednotek EDR v bezpečnostní praxi) identifikovat možnosti jednotek EDR týkající se metod získávání, ukládání a přístupu údajů v nich umístěných.

Z dostupných údajů také vyplynulo, že výrobci motorových vozidel v USA instalovali jednotky EDR jako standardní vybavení osobních automobilů dobrovolně. V současnosti jsou tato zařízení povinně instalována do převážné části nových vozidel. Z dostupných zdrojů vyplývá, že informace shromážděné jednotkami EDR pomáhají vyšetřovat příčiny havárií a zranění a umožňují lépe definovat a řešit různé bezpečnostní problémy. Jak se ukazuje, získané informace mohou být využívány k vylepšení stávajících bezpečnostních systémů a standardů motorových vozidel. Čímž se potvrzuje jejich značný potenciál. Jednotky EDR nelze zaměnit se systémem E-call, zavedeným v EU v roce 2018, který slouží primárně jako nezávislý systém oznámení dopravní nehody za účelem záchrany lidských životů.

Od počátků dobrovolného využití jednotek EDR automobilkami v USA byly zaznamenávány minimální soubory specifikovaných dat, které byly vyhodnocovány jako vhodné pro vyšetřování nárazů, analýzu různých bezpečnostních systémů, například zádržných systémů a výše zmíněného systémů automatického oznamování kolize (obdoba E-cal). Přitom postupně docházelo ke specifikaci požadavků na rozsah a formát dat, zejména za účelem zjednodušení metodiky jejich využitelnosti. V průběhu dalšího vývoje byly kladeny požadavky na konstrukční odolnost systému vůči nárazu. Vývoj ukázal, že je třeba zajistit funkčnost/spolehlivost jednotek EDR po nárazu do přední, boční a zadní části vozidel za současné spolupráce s automobilkami. Na výrobce vozidel byl veřejností postupně vyvíjen tlak, aby bylo možné využívat informace z jednotek EDR při šetření dopravních nehod a zejména, aby výrobce majitele vozidel seznámil s faktem, že je jejich vozidlo vybaveno jednotkou EDR a stručně popsal jeho význam a účel.

Právě informovanost řidičů o faktu, že mají ve vozidle umístěnu jednotku EDR ve Spojených státech ukázala na značný preventivní potenciál jednotek při vyhodnocení jejich vlivu na chování řidičů. Zároveň se ukázala potřeba vyvíjet jednotky EDR pro různé kategorie vozidel. Vývoj ukázal, že jednotky je vhodné propojit se systémy jako například GPS, ale také s mobilními operátory zejména právě při určení místa nehody.

Následný výzkum ukázal, že získaná data je třeba roztřídit na prvky obligatorní a fakultativní. Využitelnost vedlejších charakteristik byla spojena s citlivostí senzorů, resp. dostupností těchto senzorů v závislosti na technologickém vývoji. Dále bylo zjištěno, že typické charakteristiky havárií silničních vozidel se značně liší od jiných podobných havárií, například letadel či vlaků. Tím byla potvrzena potřeba vyvíjet speciální verzi EDR jednotek pro silniční vozidla. Další otázka shromažďování dat či spíše lépe řečeno iniciace jednotek EDR byla spojena s otázkou od kterého okamžiku sbírat data o dopravní nehodě. Bylo doporučeno, aby k iniciaci jednotky EDR došlo až v okamžiku kdy zpomalení vozidla překročí mez 2 až 4 G. Mezi základní otázky, se kterými se museli výzkumníci vypořádat, patřila otázka priorit, tedy kterým oblastem je třeba věnovat oproti jiným vyšší pozornost. Závěry byly založeny na limitech lidského organismu v závislosti na rychlosti a deformaci vozidla v době nárazu. V závislosti na potřebách bezpečnostní praxe byla zvýšená pozornost věnována čelním a zadním nárazům s důrazem na zranění krční páteře. Výsledky analýz ukázaly, že údaje v jednotkách EDR jsou schopné objektivně poskytovat data z havárií v reálném světě a stát účinným nástrojem pro vyšetřování nehod. Nicméně NHTSA také uvádí,

že využitelnost dat z jednotek EDR je spojena s určitými omezeními (předmět výzkumu VIMOT4U) a tato data je třeba vždy používat ve spojení s jinými zdroji dat. Závěrem této kapitoly lze konstatovat, že také v současnosti, je jednotkám EDR v USA stále věnována značná pozornost. O tomto faktu svědčí zákonná úprava problematiky jednotek EDR v USA pod číslem 49 CFR Part 563.

3 CHARAKTERISTIKA A SOUČASNÉ MOŽNOSTI DIAGNOSTIKY JEDNOTEK EDR V EVROPĚ

Záznamníky nehod navrhují automobilky (pokud je používají) dle vlastních představ od jednoduchých nebo složitých co do rozsahu a využitelnosti (nejen pro osobní, ale také pro nákladní vozidla). Na území Evropské unie je těmito jednotkami vybavena převážná většina nově prodaných osobních motorových vozidel. Výrobci vozidel nemají za současného legislativního stavu povinnost tuto jednotku aktivovat pro případ vyčtení nehodových dat. Ovšem i přes tento fakt někteří výrobci poskytují tuto možnost svým zákazníkům na základě dobrovolnosti.

Za účelem jejího praktického využití, rozumíme jednotkou EDR paměťový modul uchovávající data z nehody, který je obsažen v airbagové řídicí jednotce ACM (Airbag Control Module), ta obsahuje paměť EDR, lidově tzv. „černou skříňku“. Pod termínem jednotka EDR se tedy skrývá zařízení, instalované výrobcem v motorovém vozidle, které zaznamenává technické informace o vozidle a cestujících na krátkou dobu před, během a po kolizi.

Rozdíl mezi jednotkami a tzv. černými skříňkami (black box) spočívá právě v rozdílné době záznamu. Jednotky EDR zaznamenávají data krátce před, při a po nehodě a tzv. „černé skříňky“ umístněné v letadlech zaznamenávají data nepřetržitě po celou dobu provozu. Tachografy v nákladních vozidlech zaznamenávají rychlost jízdy v závislosti na čase a ujeté dráze.

Aby bylo možné data uložená v jednotce EDR diagnostikovat, „vyčíst“ je potřeba vyvíjet tzv. jednotky CDR (Crash Data Retrieval). Jedná se o technologii pro získávání nehodových dat. V zásadě jde o postup, který umožňuje vyčtení a dekódování uložených dat z airbagového řídicího modulu. Problematika posouzení kompatibility technických zařízení umožňujících čtení a dekódování elektronických dat z řídících jednotek motorových vozidel s našimi technickými normami je svázána s povinnostmi uloženými výrobcům těchto jednotek, tedy automobilovému průmyslu.

Výzkum VIMOT4U zaměřený na problematiku diagnostiky dat přinesl celou řadu pozoruhodných poznatků. Například nelze vyčíst nehodová data (EDR data) z modulu ACM. Z vozidel vybavených jednotkami EDR, je v současnosti získání dat možné pouze speciálním nástrojem. Existuje pouze několik výrobců těchto nástrojů. Nejrozšířenějším nástrojem je BOSCH CDR Kit, který dokáže vyčíst EDR data většiny výrobců automobilů. Dalším příkladem je nástroj od společnosti GIT (Global Information technology), který slouží pro vyčtení dat z automobilů Hyundai a KIA. Protokol z těchto nástrojů je dále použitelný pro zpětnou analýzu nehody.

4 VYUŽITELNOST ELEKTRONICKÝCH NEHODOVÝCH DAT V BEZPEČNOSTNÍ PRAXI

Jak bylo řečeno v předchozí kapitole, zařízení EDR zaznamenává celou řadu údajů, například: dynamiku vozidla (akceleraci, deceleraci) stav systému, společně s chováním řidiče (úhel natočení volantu, ukazatel směru jízdy, zataženou ruční brzdu, zařazený rychlostní stupeň, zapnuté bezpečnostní pásy…).

Za zásadní informace považujeme:

1. Dynamiku vozidla a stav systému.

2. Chování řidiče.
3. Stav vozidla.
4. Stav používání a umístění zádržného systému.
5. Data po nehodě resp. deformaci.

Tato data je možné díky jejich specifickému charakteru využít nejen při konstrukci bezpečnějších vozidel, ale také ke zvýšení bezpečnosti silničního provozu, vymahatelnosti práva a do důsledku k poznání zákonitostí dopravních nehod a dalších kolizních událostí.

V závislosti na charakteru získaných informací se nabízí zodpovězení otázky: „Je možné informace/data obsažená v jednotce EDR před nárazem, v době nárazu a po nárazu považovat za kriminalistickou stopu?“

Kriminalistická praxe považuje za kriminalistickou stopu změnu v materiálním prostředí nebo ve vědomí člověka, která je v příčinné nebo jiné souvislosti s kriminalisticky relevantní událostí, existuje nejméně od svého vzniku do doby jejího zajištění a je vyhodnotitelná a využitelná současnými kriminalistickými metodami a prostředky orgány činnými v trestním řízení.

Jak bylo řečeno v předešlých kapitolách, jednotku EDR je potřeba vzhledem ke značnému množství informací o vozidle, ale také o chování řidiče považovat za cenný zdroj informací. Jedná se tedy o stopu, kterou zanechal řidič vozidla nebo vozidlo v materiálním prostředí (nosiči informací), jednotce EDR, prostřednictvím technických zařízení (čidel, snímačů), po či těsně před vznikem, a v průběhu kriminalisticky relevantní události (například dopravní nehody). Tato data jsou zde uložena v technické podobě specifikované výrobcem vozidla a za účelem jejich vyhodnocení vzniká potřeba jejich dekódování. Z pohledu základního dělení kriminalistických stop ji můžeme zařadit mezi tzv. stopy odrážející dynamické vlastnosti objektu, který je vytvořil, ovšem spíše lze hovořit o speciálním druhu počítačové resp. digitální stopy, neboť disponuje oproti typickým nosičům, například pevným diskům v počítačích charakteristickými rysy.

Za kriminalisticky relevantní událost v tomto případě můžeme považovat například dopravní nehodu resp. její definici: Pojem dopravní nehoda je definován v zákoně č. 361/2000 Sb. o provozu na pozemních komunikacích, § 47, odstavec č. 1, kde se říká, že „dopravní nehoda je událost v provozu na pozemních komunikacích, například havárie nebo srážka, která se stala nebo byla započata na pozemní komunikaci a při níž dojde k usmrcení nebo zranění osoby nebo ke škodě na majetku v přímé souvislosti s provozem vozidla v pohybu.“

Stejně jako v případě jiných kriminalisticky relevantních událostí (škodní události, podvodného jednání…), které zakládají vznik, a průběh děje nejen silniční dopravní nehody (pojem dopravní nehoda je vymezen zákonnou definicí), je její vznik popsán dvěma faktory, které jsou pro každou dopravní nehodu (kriminalisticko relevantní událost) specifické a neopakovatelné. Hovoříme o nehodovém jednání, konání nebo opomenutí účastníka silniční dopravy, kterým je zapříčiněn vznik nehodové události. Nehodové jednání může přejít, ale také nemusí v nehodovou událost, skutečný projev (průběh) silniční dopravní nehody, včetně jejich následků (např. srážky, havárie atd.). Na tomto místě je třeba připomenout, že se jedná o děje, které se udály v minulosti. Proto je jejich objasnění vždy zatíženo určitou mírou nepřesnosti, ale existuje společenská potřeba snížení těchto nepřesností definovaná zásadou materiální pravdy na únosnou úroveň, vyvážená zásadou in dubio pro reo. Z výše uvedených zahraničních pramenů (a také průběžných výsledků výzkumu VIMOT4U) vyplývá, že data o nehodovém jednání a nehodové události zapisovaná jednotkou EDR před /v době nehody/a po nehodě lze s úspěchem využít při její rekonstrukci.

Jednoduchou analýzou a aplikací definice „kriminalistické stopy“ lze dospět k závěru, že data zapisovaná do jednotek EDR umístěných ve vozidlech je třeba považovat za kriminalistickou stopu. Stejně tak, lze dospět k závěru, že největší problémy mohou v současnosti nastat v souvislosti s jejím zajištěním, vyhodnocením a využitelností současnými kriminalistickými

metodami a prostředky orgány činnými v trestním řízení. Právě touto problematikou se zabývá projekt VIMOT4U.
Neméně důležitou část tvoří procesní využitelnost údajů zapisovaných do jednotek EDR. Nabízí se otázka: „Lze údaje zapisované záznamníkem o nehodě (jednotkou EDR) využít jako důkaz v trestním řízení?“ Trestní právo procesní zákon č. 161/1961 Sb. trestní řád v hlavě páté, dokazování § 89, upravující obecná ustanovení říká, že v trestním stíhání je v nezbytném rozsahu třeba dokazovat zejména:

a) zda se stal skutek, v němž je spatřován trestný čin,
b) zda tento skutek spáchal obviněný, případně z jakých pohnutek,
c) podstatné okolnosti mající vliv na posouzení povahy a závažnosti činu,
d) podstatné okolnosti k posouzení osobních poměrů pachatele,
e) podstatné okolnosti umožňující stanovení následku, výše škody způsobené trestným činem a bezdůvodného obohacení,
f) okolnosti, které vedly k trestné činnosti nebo umožnily její spáchání.

V odstavci druhém je řečeno: *„Za důkaz může sloužit vše, co může přispět k objasnění věci, zejména výpovědi obviněného a svědků, znalecké posudky, věci a listiny důležité pro trestní řízení a ohledání. Každá ze stran může důkaz vyhledat, předložit nebo jeho provedení navrhnout. Skutečnost, že důkaz nevyhledal nebo nevyžádal orgán činný v trestním řízení, není důvodem k odmítnutí takového důkazu.“*
Jestliže pro složitost posuzované otázky takový postup není postačující, přibere orgán činný v trestním řízení znalce. Ve výjimečných, zvlášť obtížných případech, vyžadujících zvláštního vědeckého posouzení, může policejní orgán nebo státní zástupce a v řízení před soudem předseda senátu přibrat státní orgán, vědecký ústav, vysokou školu nebo instituci specializovanou na znaleckou činnost k podání znaleckého posudku nebo přezkoumání posudku podaného znalcem. Z výše uvedeného je zřejmé, že orgány činné v trestním řízení disponují možností využít nehodová data ve vozidlech. Ovšem bude mít tuto možnost také například majitel vozu? A co když osoba, která má na věci osobní zájem bude bránit stažení dat?
Problematiku předložení nebo vydání věci upravuje §78 trestního řádu. Kdo má u sebe věc, která může sloužit pro důkazní účely, je povinen ji na vyzvání předložit soudu, státnímu zástupci nebo policejnímu orgánu; je-li ji nutno pro účely náležitého zjištění skutečností důležitých pro trestní řízení zajistit, je povinen takovou věc na vyzvání těmto orgánům vydat. Při vyzvání je třeba ho upozornit na to, že nevyhoví-li výzvě, může mu být věc odňata, jakož i na jiné následky nevyhovění (§ 66). Vyzvat k předložení nebo vydání věci je oprávněn předseda senátu, v přípravném řízení státní zástupce nebo policejní orgán…
Na tomto místě je třeba položit otázky: Jsou data obsažená v jednotkách EDR využívána v bezpečnostní praxi? Případně: Proč nejsou jednotky EDR využívány soudní praxí? Odpověď je jednoduchá: Orgány činné v trestním řízení a nezávislé soudy nemají informace o jednotkách EDR včetně možností jejich využitelnosti. V praxi existují jednotlivé případy využití jednotek EDR pojišťovnami při šetření pojistných událostí v souvislosti s vyvrácením podezření podvodného jednání. Proto nejsou data ve vozidlech vybavených jednotkami EDR využívána jako důkaz.

5 ZÁVĚR

Ze zahraničních zkušeností a průběžných výsledků projektu VIMOT4U vyplývá, že data obsažená v jednotkách EDR mají značný potenciál. Interpretací výsledků výzkumu projektu VIMOT4U lze dojít k závěru, že data uložená v jednotce EDR po čtyřech různých nárazových testech jsou odpovídající (komparací dat získaných po nárazu z EDR a standardních metod měření během nárazu). Pokud je touto jednotkou vozidlo vybaveno, lze je úspěšně použít nejen při šetření dopravních nehod, ale také při odhalování pojistných podvodů v souvislosti s fingováním dopravních nehod. Výsledky také ukázaly, že data uložená v jednotkách EDR lze

již v současnosti s úspěchem použít jako důkaz před soudem. Aplikační praxi brání nedostatek informací o předmětné problematice. Z pohledu kriminalistické praxe je třeba tato data považovat za digitální stopu, uloženou na nosiči, umístěném ve vozidle. Jedná se tedy o důkaz obdobně jako data uložená v počítači, resp. jeho paměti. Problém může nastat při vyčtení dat po nárazu, kdy je třeba data vyčíst prostřednictvím speciálního zařízení. Obyčejné diagnostické nástroje využívané servisy k vyčtení dat není možné využít. Dalším výzkumem projektu VIMOT4U bude třeba zodpovědět celou řadu dalších otázek, týkajících se využitelnosti dat, jejich využití při dokazování agresivního způsobu řízení, například vybržďování. Dále se jedná o problematiku právní úpravy celé oblasti. Zejména kdo bude zajišťovat data pro orgány činné v trestním řízení? Bude to odborná firma, stejně jako pro potřeby pojišťoven, případně znalec, který data zajistí, neboť jejich „rozšifrování" bude předmětem znaleckého zkoumání? Bude třeba existenci jednotek EDR a jejich využitelnost upravit legislativně? V jaké podobě? Ve kterých právních předpisech? Je jisté, že dříve než začnou být jednotky EDR umístěné ve vozidlech na území Evropy masivně využívány k dokazování jednání/chování řidiče, bude jej třeba informovat, že má toto zařízení instalované ve vozidle. Po vzoru USA v informacích, které uživatel obdrží při koupi vozidla. Závěrem lze konstatovat, že výsledky výzkumu přinesly zajímavé poznatky, ale také otevřely nové otázky.

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[1] Seznam zkratek:
EDR (Event Data Recorder) - záznamník údajů o nehodě
ACM (Airbag Control Module) - jednotka airbagu
CDR (Crash Data Retrieval) - nástroj určení k vyčtení nehodových dat
NHTSA (The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration) - USA: Národní správa bezpečnosti silničního provozu
VIMOT4U - Zkratka společného projektu čtyř vysokých škol: České vysoké učení technické v Praze Fakulta dopravní, Policejní akademie České republiky v Praze, Dopravní fakulta Jana Pernera Univerzita Pardubice, Ústav súdneho inžinierstva Žilinskej univerzity v Žiline
crash test - nárazový test

STATE-OF-THE-ART REVIEW OF MODELS FOR PREDICTING MODULUS OF ELASTICITY OF FLY ASH GEOPOLYMER CONCRETE

Vadzim Parkhats

Abstract

Portland cement is an essential component of Portland cement concrete. Its manufacture is highly energy-intensive, emits a great amount of carbon dioxide to the atmosphere, and requires a large amount of natural resources. In an attempt to replace Portland cement in concrete, alternative binders were found. Geopolymers are produced by mixing aluminosilicate materials with an alkali activating solution. Geopolymers can consist of both industrial wastes and natural resources and are characterised by a lower carbon dioxide emission in comparison with that of Portland cement. This paper focuses on fly ash-based geopolymer concrete and presents a review of empirical formulae for predicting its modulus of elasticity. It is established that the formulae found in literature generally predict the lower values of the elastic modulus than those obtained using models for Portland cement concrete.

Keywords: *concrete, fly ash, geopolymer, modulus of elasticity*

1 INTRODUCTION

Fly ash geopolymer concrete (FAGC) is regarded as an environment friendly substitute for ordinary Portland cement concrete (OPCC). This "green" concrete has good mechanical properties and a lower carbon dioxide emission. This is particularly important in view of the fact that the making of Portland cement could produce nearly 10% of total anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions in the near future (Habert et al., 2011).

Modulus of elasticity of concrete is a significant parameter in design that characterises the resistance of the material to deformation. Modulus of elasticity is defined as the ratio of the stress to the strain in the elastic range. Since the stress-strain diagram for elastoplastic materials is not linear, the value of the modulus of elasticity is not constant. In design, the secant modulus of elasticity is used. According to ACI 318-14, the secant modulus of elasticity for OPCC is described by the slope of a line drawn from the zero point to the stress point of 0.45 f_c' and its corresponding strain on the stress-strain diagram (where f_c' – specified compressive strength of concrete, MPa). It should be noted that EN 1992-1-1:2004 and fib Model Code 2010 use another stress point (viz. 0.4 f_{cm}, where f_{cm} – mean value of compressive strength of concrete, MPa) for definition of the secant modulus of elasticity.

Modulus of elasticity varies for concretes with different compressive strength and aggregates. ACI 318-14 provides an approximate equation for modulus of elasticity of concrete, E_c, for the unit weight, w_c, between 1440 and 2560 kg/m^3 (ACI 318-14, Equation 19.2.2.1.a):

$$E_c = {w_c}^{1,5} 0.043\sqrt{f_c'} \tag{1}$$

For normal-weight concrete (ACI 318-14, Equation 19.2.2.1.b):

$$E_c = 4700\sqrt{f_c'} \tag{2}$$

AS 3600-2009 presents the following Eqs. (3), (4) for the mean modulus of elasticity of concrete, E_{cj} (AS 3600-2009, Clause 3.1.2). It should be noted that E_{cj} has a range of ±20%.

- when $f_{cmi} \leq 40$ MPa:

$$E_{cj} = \rho^{1,5} 0.043 \sqrt{f_{cmi}} \tag{3}$$

- when $f_{cmi} > 40$ MPa:

$$E_{cj} = \rho^{1,5} \left(0.024 \sqrt{f_{cmi}} + 0.12\right) \tag{4}$$

where: f_{cmi} – mean in-situ compressive strength which is taken as 90% of mean cylinder strength (f_{cm}), MPa, ρ – density of concrete, kg/m^3.

CEB-FIP Model Code 1990 defines modulus of elasticity, E_c, for concretes with quartzite aggregates as follows (CEB-FIP Model Code 1990, Equations 2.1-16, 2.1-17):

$$E_c = 0.85 \cdot 2.15 \cdot 10^4 (f_{cm}/10)^{1/3} \tag{5}$$

In fib Model Code 2010, the above-mentioned equation is slightly modified by introduction of the factor α_i (fib Model Code 2010, Equations 5.1-21, 5.1-23, 5.1-24):

$$E_c = \alpha_i \cdot 2.15 \cdot 10^4 (f_{cm}/10)^{1/3} \tag{6}$$

$$\alpha_i = 0.8 + 0.2 f_{cm}/88 \leq 1.0 \tag{7}$$

In EN 1992-1-1:2004, the resembling equation for modulus of elasticity, E_{cm}, for concretes with quartzite aggregates is presented (EN 1992-1-1:2004, Table 3.1):

$$E_{cm} = 22 \cdot 10^3 (f_{cm}/10)^{0.3} \tag{8}$$

All these equations given in different design standards are meant for determination of modulus of elasticity of OPCC. There is still small number of studies dedicated to definition of modulus of elasticity of FAGC. The aim of this paper is to summarize the prediction formulae of the modulus of elasticity reported in previous studies on FAGC. This information is essential for good understanding of mechanical behaviour of this "green" concrete and, moreover, may be used for comparison purposes in future studies on this topic.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, a review of empirical models for predicting modulus of elasticity of FAGC is presented. The findings of the previous studies on this topic are summarized. It should be noted that this review is focused on the results of tests of FAGC and does not consider the empirical formulae for other geopolymer concretes including fly ash-slag geopolymer concrete (however, some exceptions are made).

Hardjito et al. (2005) found the following equation for determination of modulus of elasticity of heat cured FAGC:

$$E_c = 2707\sqrt{f_{cm}} + 5300 \tag{9}$$

Hardjito and Rangan (2005) compared the values of modulus of elasticity of FAGC from their tests with the values calculated by Eq. (4) of AS 3600-2009 and Eq. (10) of ACI Committee 363 (1992). They established that the values found using Eqs. (4), (10) are higher than those from their tests. According to the researchers, the possible cause is granite-type coarse aggregate used in the tested FAGC.

$$E_c = 3320\sqrt{f_{cm}} + 6900 \tag{10}$$

Sofi et al. (2007) studied engineering properties of geopolymers made from fly ash and granulated blast furnace slag. Compressive strength of all the tested mixes were higher than 45 MPa. The values of the modulus of elasticity were compared with models for high strength Portland cement concrete and Eqs. (3), (4) of AS 3600-2009. It was found that Eqs. (3), (4) and the models of Carrasquillo et al. (1981), Ahmad and Shah (1985), and Mendis (2003) predict the higher values than those from the tests of Sofi et al. (2007). However, the value of modulus of elasticity of the only mix that contained coarse aggregate (crushed rock) fitted the model of Mendis (2003). Moreover, the test results for this mix and the only mix without granulated blast furnace slag were between limits provided by the model of AS 3600-2009.

Ng and Foster (2008) stated that modulus of elasticity of OPCC is higher than that of geopolymer concrete. Moreover, they claimed that Eq. (11) of Setunge (1993) may be used to predict modulus of elasticity of geopolymer concrete. In this model, modulus of elasticity of concrete is a function of moduli of elasticity of its mortar and coarse aggregate. Besides, the researchers developed Eq. (12) to calculate modulus of elasticity of geopolymer mortar, E_m. Their findings later were published in Concrete Institute of Australia (2011).

$$\frac{1}{E_c} = \frac{0.45}{V_a E_a + (1 - V_a) E_m} + 0.55\left(\frac{V_a}{E_a} + \frac{1 - V_a}{E_m}\right) \tag{11}$$

$$E_m = 3710\sqrt{f_{mm}} - 1280 \tag{12}$$

where: V_a – volume proportion of coarse aggregate, E_a – modulus of elasticity of coarse aggregate, MPa, f_{mm} – mortar peak stress, MPa.

Tempest (2010) developed the following model to estimate modulus of elasticity of FAGC:

$$E_c = 3421\sqrt{f_c'} \tag{13}$$

Diaz-Loya et al. (2011, 2013) investigated mechanical properties of high and low calcium FAGCs and stated that the ACI 318-14 model could be applied for determination of modulus of elasticity of FAGC. Moreover, they proposed Eq. (14) to find modulus of elasticity of heat cured FAGC:

$$E_c = \rho^{1,5} 0.037\sqrt{f_{c.3}} \tag{14}$$

where $f_{c.3}$ – compressive strength of geopolymer concrete after 3 days curing in elevated temperature, MPa. However, the value of $f_{c.3}$ may be considered as the concrete ultimate

strength, because the heat cured concrete reaches strength close to ultimate strength straight after curing.

Ryu et al. (2013) compared the values of the modulus of elasticity from their tests of FAGC with those calculated using models of ACI 318-14 and KCI Code 2012. Since these models did not fit their experimental results, the researchers developed Eq. (15) and (16) with R^2 of 0.960 and 0.976, respectively.

$$E_c = {w_c}^{1.5} 0.055 \sqrt[3]{f_c'} \tag{15}$$

$$E_c = {w_c}^{1.5} 0.031 \sqrt{f_c'} \tag{16}$$

Prachasaree et al. (2014) stated that the values of the modulus of elasticity found by Eq. (9) of Hardjito et al. (2005), Eq. (2) of ACI 318-14, and Eq. (10) of ACI Committee 363 (1992) do not fit their test results. The researchers proposed their empirical equation for determination of modulus of elasticity of FAGC that has coefficient of correlation R^2 of 0.90:

$$E = 840 - 886\sqrt{f_c} + 647 f_c \tag{17}$$

where f_c – compressive strength of concrete, MPa.

Thomas and Peethamparan (2015) developed Eqs. (18), (19) to describe variability of modulus of elasticity of high-calcium FAGC. They noted that the variability has no considerable difference with that of OPCC and is almost the same as defined by Eq. (2) of ACI 318-14. Coefficients of determination R^2 for Eqs. (2), (18), and (19) are 0.54, 0.58, and 0.60, respectively. However, the researchers stated that Eqs. (2), (18), and (19) are truly good in definition of the trend and have low coefficients of determination only because of outliers and great variation in data.

$$E = 2900 {f_c}^{3/5} \tag{18}$$

$$E = 4400\sqrt{f_c} \tag{19}$$

In the study of Wardhono (2015), the experimental values of modulus of elasticity of FAGC were lower than those predicted by the models of Ng and Foster (2008), AS 3600-2009, and Diaz-Loya et al. (2011). Wardhono (2015) proposed Eq. (20) that fits his data well.

$$E_c = {f_c}^{1.6412} 49.968 \tag{20}$$

Gunasekara et al. (2015) studied properties of geopolymer concretes prepared with five different fly ashes obtained from different power plants. Additionally, they analysed the data concerning modulus of elasticity of FAGC reported in studies by other researchers. Fig. 1 summarizes the results of Hardjito and Rangan (2005), Fernandez-Jimenez et al. (2006), Sofi et al. (2007), Diaz-Loya et al. (2011), Neupane et al. (2012), and Gunasekara et al. (2015). It was established that the model of AS 3600-2009 and Eq. (14) of Diaz-Loya et al. (2011) fit the experimental results when compressive strength of FAGC is higher than 40 MPa; otherwise these models overestimate the modulus of elasticity when applied to FAGC.

Nguyen et al. (2016) evaluated mechanical properties of heat-cured low-calcium FAGC and established that the measured values of the modulus of elasticity are lower than those found using Eq. (10) of ACI Committee 363 (1992) and Eq. (4) of AS 3600-2009. They stated that Eq. (9) of Hardjito et al. (2005) is acceptable to use for determination of modulus of elasticity of FAGC.

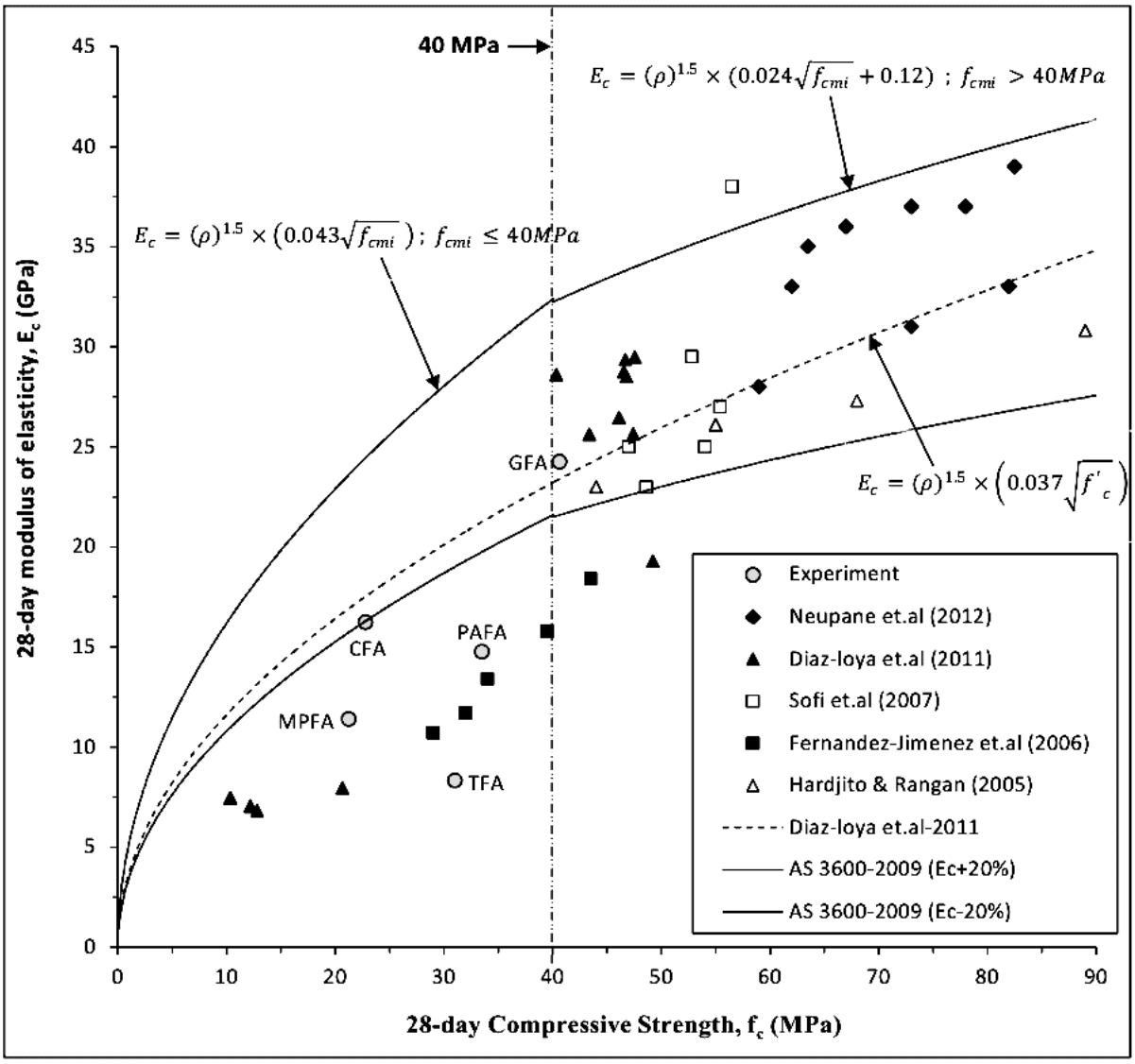

Fig. 1. Modulus of elasticity vs. compressive strength (Gunasekara et al., 2015)

Noushini et al. (2016) studied stress-strain behaviour of geopolymer concrete under uniaxial compression. The geopolymeric binder consisted of low-calcium fly ash (wt. 70%), ultra-fine fly ash branded as Kaolite high performance ash (wt. 20%), and ground granulated blast furnace slag (wt. 10%). The researchers created Eq. (21) for definition of modulus of elasticity of the tested geopolymer concrete (R^2 = 0.976). It should be noted that their model fits the results of Hardjito and Rangan (2005) as well. Furthermore, Noushini et al. (2016) compared their experimental data with Eq. (10) of ACI Committee 363 (1992) and Eqs. (3), (4) of AS 3600-2009 and found that these equations overestimate modulus of elasticity of the tested geopolymer concrete.

$$E = -11400 + 4712\sqrt{f_{cm}} \tag{21}$$

Gunasekara (2016) proposed Eq. (22) describing the correlation between compressive strength and modulus of elasticity of FAGC (R^2 = 0.968). This equation was created allowing for the data of Hardjito and Rangan (2005), Diaz-Loya et al. (2011), Olivia and Nikraz (2012), and Wardhono (2015). Besides, Gunasekara (2016) compared the experimental results from his study and the mentioned studies with the AS 3600-2009 model and reported that Eqs. (3), (4) of AS 3600-2009 overestimate modulus of elasticity of FAGC.

$$E_c = \rho^{1,5} 0.024 \sqrt{f_{cm}} \tag{22}$$

Nath and Sarker (2017) analysed modulus of elasticity of ambient-cured blended low-calcium FAGC. The geopolymeric binder consisted of Class F fly ash and a small amount of additives (0-15%), namely ground granulated blast furnace slag, ordinary Portland cement, and calcium hydroxide. However, the researchers established that variation of the mixture proportions do not lead to significant changes in the values of modulus of elasticity of the geopolymer concrete. Furthermore, they found that the values of the modulus of elasticity calculated using the equations of ACI 314-18, CEB-FIP Model Code 1990, AS 3600-2009, and Diaz-Loya et al. (2011) are higher than those of the tested FAGC. It was identified that Eq. (9) of Hardjito et al. (2005) fits the experimental results of Nath and Sarker (2017). However, it should be noted that Diaz-Loya et al. (2011) and Hardjito et al. (2005) tested FAGC cured in elevated temperature, whereas Nath and Sarker (2017) had in their tests ambient-cured FAGC. Nath and Sarker (2017) observed that the AS 3600-2009 Eqs. (3), (4) with a factor of 0.75 distinctly represent the values from their tests. Additionally, the researchers developed their own equation to predict modulus of elasticity of ambient-cured FAGC:

$$E_{cj.a} = 3510 \sqrt{f_c} \tag{23}$$

3 DISCUSSION

Fig. 2 displays the correlation between modulus of elasticity and compressive strength of FAGC according to the models for geopolymer concrete and OPCC presented in the previous sections of the paper. For comparison purposes, it is supposed that specified compressive strength of FAGC is equal to the mean value of its compressive strength ($f_{cm} = f_c' = f_c$). Moreover, it is assumed that the density of FAGC is 2400 kg/m^3 (the same as for normal-weight OPCC). However, it is important to note that whereas some studies report that its density is similar to that of OPCC (e.g. Hardjito and Rangan (2005), Thomas and Peethamparan (2015), Nath and Sarker (2017)), others state that the density of FAGC is lower (e.g. Diaz-Loya et al. (2011), Wardhono (2015), Gunasekara (2016)). Wardhono (2015) attributes the lower density of FAGC to the specific gravity of fly ash, which is lower than that of Portland cement.

Despite some differences in compositions of FAGCs used in the studies, most of the models have a close trend. It can be seen that the majority of the empirical models generally predict the lower values of modulus of elasticity of FAGC in comparison with those calculated by the equations from the design standards for OPCC. However, the development of the models of Prachasaree et al. (2014) and Wardhono (2015) differs strongly from that of the others. When f_c > 50 MPa, these models reach the values comparable to those for OPCC and even higher. Furthermore, it should be noted that, as opposed to the other models for FAGC, the formulae of Diaz-Loya et al. (2011) and Thomas and Peethamparan (2015) lead to results similar to those obtained using the standards for OPCC. According to Ding et al. (2016), high values of the modulus of elasticity in the study of Thomas and Peethamparan (2015) can be explained

by the class of fly ash used. The hydration products of Class C fly ash used in the tests are C-S-H and N-A-S-H gels. On the other hand, Class F fly ash used in most studies on FAGCs has in its matrix only N-A-S-H gel. Modulus of elasticity of C-S-H gel is higher than that of N-A-S-H gel, and it leads to a greater value of modulus of elasticity of Class C FAGC in comparison with that of Class F FAGC.

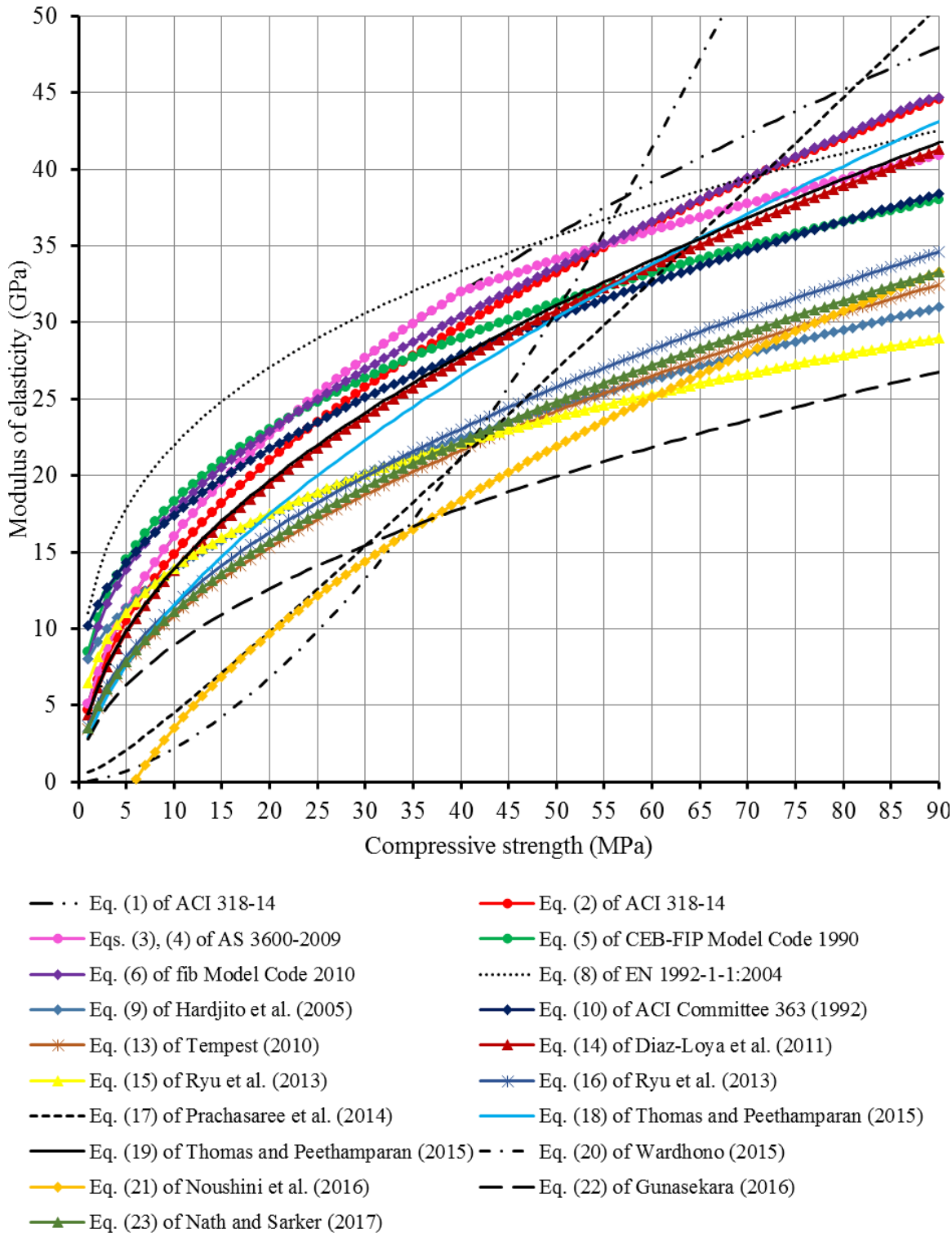

Fig. 2. Models for predicting modulus of elasticity

The scientists provide different arguments to explain why modulus of elasticity of FAGC is lower than that of OPCC. Hardjito and Rangan (2005) stated that the cause of the low value of the modulus of elasticity is granite-type coarse aggregate used in their tests of FAGC. Fernandez-Jimenez et al. (2006) supposed that it might be wrong to calculate modulus of elasticity of FAGC with the help of the different standards for OPCC, because the equations might ignore the variables that have an impact on its value (like in the case with high-performance OPCC). Nath and Sarker (2017) reported that curing conditions, the type of fly ash, and differences in mix compositions might influence deeply modulus of elasticity of FAGC.

Additionally, it is noticed that the model of Gunasekara (2016) stands apart from the others and, when f_c > 35 MPa, shows the lowest values of the modulus of elasticity among all the models. The models of Prachasaree et al. (2014), Wardhono (2015), and Noushini et al. (2016) differ from the others and display a similar trend in the range f_c = 10-35 MPa. However, when f_c > 60 MPa, Eq. (21) of Noushini et al. (2016) leads to results consistent with those obtained using Eqs. (9), (13), (15), (16), and (23). The models of Hardjito et al. (2005), Tempest (2010), Ryu et al. (2013), and Nath and Sarker (2017) reach similar values, which are generally lower than those for OPCC.

4 CONCLUSIONS

In the paper, the models for predicting modulus of elasticity of FAGC are summarized and their characteristic features are discussed.

1. It is established that most of the found empirical formulae principally predict the values of the modulus of elasticity that are lower than those obtained with the help of the equations presented in the design standards for OPCC.
2. The hydration products of fly ash influence the value of its modulus of elasticity. High-calcium fly ash has in its matrix both C-S-H and N-A-S-H gels, whereas low-calcium fly ash has only N-A-S-H gel. Modulus of elasticity of N-A-S-H gel is lower in comparison with that of C-S-H gel, so high-calcium FAGC is characterised by higher modulus of elasticity than that of low-calcium FAGC (Ding et al., 2016).
3. Ng and Foster (2008) reported that modulus of elasticity of geopolymer concrete is a function of moduli of elasticity of its mortar and coarse aggregate. However, more studies should be done to verify their statement.
4. The value of the density of FAGC varies depending on the study. Some researchers claim that its density is lower than that of normal-weight OPCC, whereas others report that the densities of FAGC and OPCC are equal.

Acknowledgements

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MATEMATICKÝ MODEL HYDRAULICKÉHO SERVOMECHANIZMU S PID REGULÁTOREM

MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF THE HYDRAULIC SERVOMECHANISM WITH A PID CONTROLLER

Vojtěch Klouček

Abstrakt

Servomechanizmy obecně slouží k zesílení řídicího signálu. V tomto článku je popsán hydraulický servomechanizmus. Jako akční člen je použit hydraulický servoventil, který řídí průtok hydraulické kapaliny výkonovým hydromotorem. Akční veličinou je výchylka šoupátka servoventilu. Výstupní veličinou je poloha výkonového hydromotoru. Mezi výstupní a akční veličinu je zařazen PID regulátor, který ovládá výchylku šoupátka servoventilu. V článku je sestaven matematický model tohoto dynamického systému. Systém je popsán soustavou obyčejných diferenciálních rovnic. Řešení těchto rovnic při různých provozních podmínkách popisuje celkové chování servomechanizmu v čase. Rovnice jsou numericky řešeny v prostředí Maple a získané výsledky jsou zakresleny v přehledných grafech.

Klíčová slova: *servomechanizmus, servoventil, zpětná vazba, PID regulátor*

Abstract

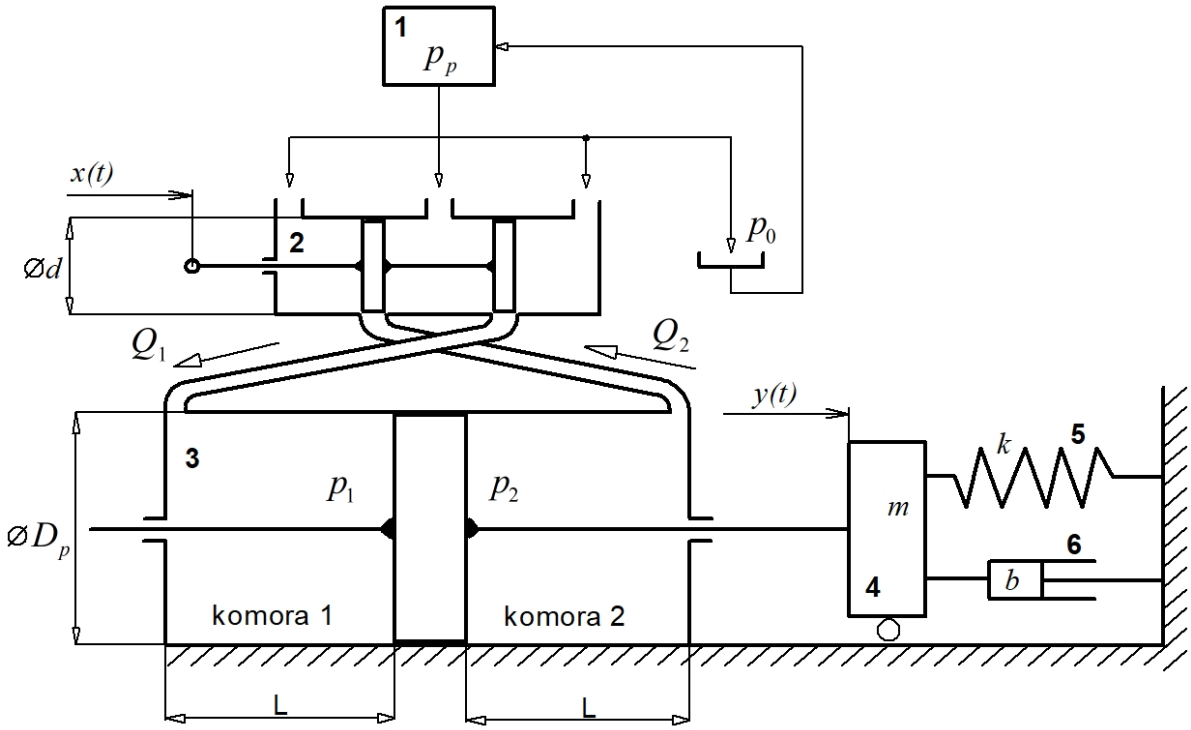
Servomechanisms in general are used to amplify the control signal. This article describes a hydraulic servomechanism. As an action member, a hydraulic servo valve is used to control of the hydraulic fluid flow through a power hydraulic motor. The action variable is the position of the servo valve spool. The output variable is the position of the power hydraulic motor. The PID controller is used to control of the position of the spool. A mathematical model of this dynamic system is compiled in the paper. The system is described by a set of common differential equations. Solving these equations under different operating conditions describes the overall behavior of servomechanism in time dependency. The equations are numerically solved in the Maple environment and the results are described in graphs.

Key words: *servomechanism, servo valve, feedback, PID controller*

1 ÚVOD

Předmětem zkoumání je hydraulický servomechanizmus, jehož schematické znázornění je na obr. 1. Tento mechanizmus je určen pro generování předem zvoleného časového průběhu polohy $y(t)$ pístu hydromotoru 3. Může být použit například jako polohovací zařízení, zařízení pro laboratorní vytvoření kinematického buzení dynamických soustav při experimentech a podobně. Poloha $x(t)$ šoupátka servoventilu 2, a tedy průtoky Q_1 a Q_2, je řízena PID regulátorem, který vyhodnocuje aktuální odchylky okamžitých hodnot polohy $y(t)$ (a jejích časových derivací) od požadovaných.

Cílem práce je tedy sestavení matematického modelu mechanizmu, seřízení parametrů PID regulátoru a simulace provozu mechanizmu pro různé provozní podmínky.



Obr. 1: Schéma uspořádání servomechanizmu. Mechanizmus je zakreslen v poloze $y = 0$, servoventil je uzavřen ($x = 0$). 1 - zdroj tlakové kapaliny o konstantním tlaku p_p, 2 - servoventil, 3 - dvojčinný přímočarý hydromotor, 4 - hmota konající požadovaný pohyb, 5 - lineární pružina s tuhostí k, 6 - lineární tlumič s konstantou úměrnosti b, p_1, p_2 - tlaky v komorách 1 a 2.

2 POPIS ČINNOSTI MECHANIZMU

Při vychýlení šoupátka servoventilu v kladném směru osy x dojde k propojení zdroje tlakové kapaliny s komorou 1 hydromotoru a komory 2 hydromotoru s nádrží o tlaku p_0 – hydromotor se pohybuje v kladném směru osy y. Při vychýlení šoupátka servoventilu v záporném směru osy x dojde k propojení zdroje tlakové kapaliny s komorou 2 hydromotoru a komory 1 hydromotoru s nádrží o tlaku p_0 – hydromotor se pohybuje v záporném směru osy y. Na hranách šoupátka dochází ke škrcení průtoku, přičemž hydraulický odpor je závislý na otevření ventilu x.

3 STLAČITELNOST KAPALINY

Stlačitelnost kapaliny charakterizuje její schopnost měnit objem (a tím i hustotu) se změnou tlaku (za konstantní teploty). Diferenciální tvar rovnice popisující stlačitelnost je

$$\frac{dV}{V} = -\beta \cdot dp \tag{1}$$

kde $\beta\left[\mathrm{Pa}^{-1}\right]$ je součinitel stlačitelnosti. Integrací a úpravou rovnice (1) dostaneme

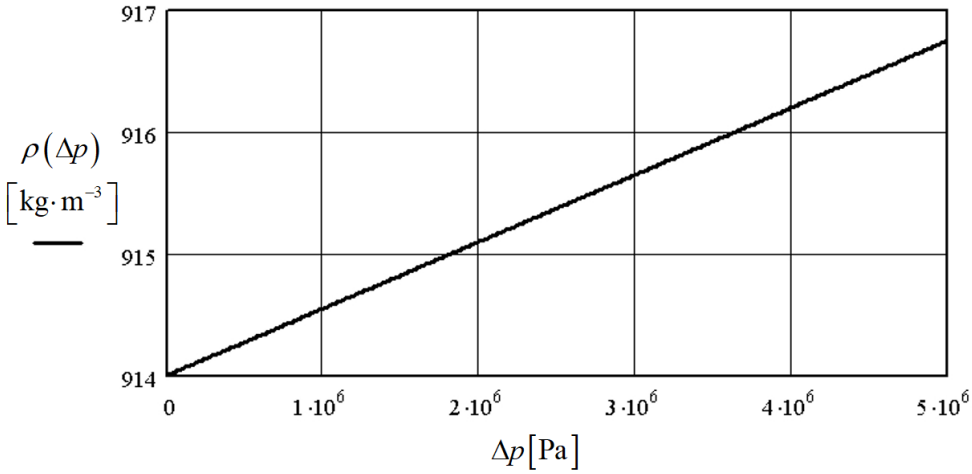
$$V = V_0 \cdot \exp\left(-\beta \cdot \Delta p\right). \tag{2}$$

Po dosazení m/ρ za V a m/ρ_0 za V_0 v rovnici (2), vyjde

$$\rho = \rho_0 \cdot \exp(\beta \cdot \Delta p), \tag{3}$$

kde ρ je hustota kapaliny po stlačení, ρ_0 počáteční hustota, m hmotnost stlačované kapaliny a Δp přírůstek tlaku.

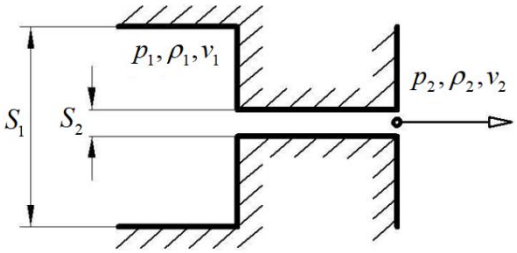
Jako nositel energie v hydraulických mechanizmech může být použita například kapalina na bázi rostlinných olejů. (Pro rostlinný (olivový) olej: $\beta = 6 \cdot 10^{-10} \left[\mathrm{Pa}^{-1}\right], \rho_0 = 914 \left[\mathrm{kg \cdot m^{-3}}\right]$ při atmosférickém tlaku $p_0 = 0{,}1 \left[\mathrm{MPa}\right]$ [3]).



Obr. 2: Graf závislosti hustoty na přírůstku tlaku pro rostlinný olej dle rovnice (3).

Z obr. 2 je vidět, že při tlakovém spádu $5 \left[\mathrm{MPa}\right]$ je přírůstek hustoty oleje necelé $3 \left[\mathrm{kg \cdot m^{-3}}\right]$, což je zhruba 0.33%. V takovémto rozsahu tlaků je možno olej považovat za ideálně nestlačitelný.

4 PRŮTOK KAPALINY ŠTĚRBINOU, BERNOULLIHO ROVNICE



Obr. 3: Průtok kapaliny štěrbinou. S_1, S_2 - průtočné průřezy, p_1, ρ_1, v_1 - tlak kapaliny, hustota kapaliny a rychlost proudu před štěrbinou, p_2, ρ_2, v_2 - tlak kapaliny, hustota kapaliny a rychlost proudu za štěrbinou.

Energetická bilance při proudění je vyjádřena Bernoulliho rovnicí

$$\frac{p_1}{\rho_1} + \frac{v_1^2}{2} = \frac{p_2}{\rho_2} + \frac{v_2^2}{2}. \tag{4}$$

(Rovnice (4) je zapsána ve tvaru, kdy je zanedbán přírůstek potenciální energie kapaliny v tíhovém poli Země.)

Pokud předpokládáme, že $S_1 >> S_2$ a $v_1 \approx 0$, lze rovnici (4) přepsat ve tvaru

$$\frac{v_2^{\,2}}{2} = \frac{p_1}{\rho_1} - \frac{p_2}{\rho_2}. \tag{5}$$

Pro nestlačitelnou kapalinu ($\rho_1 = \rho_2 = \rho = konst$) rovnice (5) přejde do tvaru

$$v_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho}} \cdot \sqrt{p_1 - p_2}. \tag{6}$$

Objemový průtok kapaliny štěrbinou je pak

$$Q = A \cdot S_2 \cdot \sqrt{p_1 - p_2}, \tag{7}$$

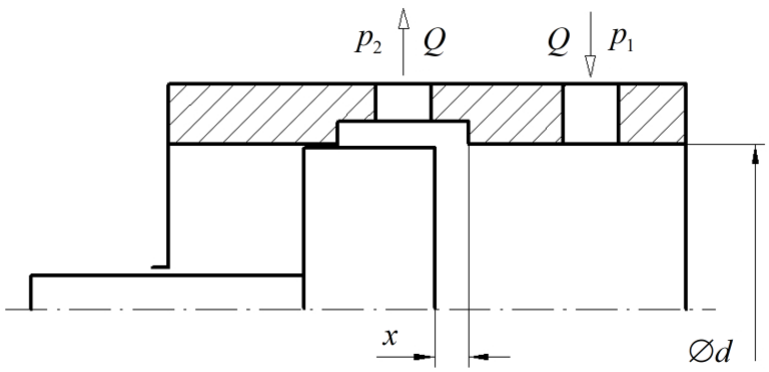
kde $A = c \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho}}$ je součinitel průtoku a $c \in (0,1)$ je ztrátový součinitel (zohledňuje disipaci energie).

Aby bylo možno pracovat i se zápornými tlakovými spády, lze rovnici (7) upravit na tvar

$$Q = A \cdot S_2 \cdot \sqrt{|p_1 - p_2|} \cdot \mathrm{sgn}(p_1 - p_2). \tag{8}$$

5 VENTIL PRO PLYNULOU REGULACI PRŮTOKU

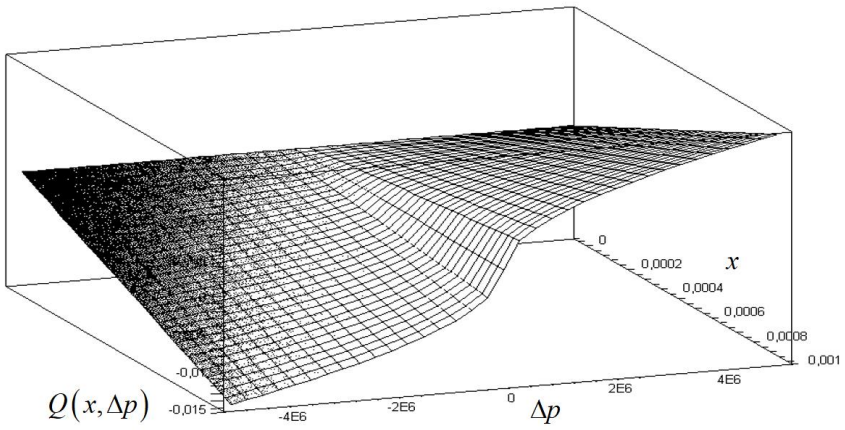
Ventil pro plynulou regulaci průtoku umožňuje měnit průtok v obvodu změnou průtočného průřezu, a tedy změnou hydraulického odporu na hraně šoupátka.



Obr. 4: Schematické znázornění ventilu pro plynulou regulaci průtoku. Šoupátko ventilu je pootevřeno o výchylku *x*, smysl průtoku kapaliny je naznačen šipkami.

Z obr. 4 je patrno, že závislost průtočného průřezu na otevření šoupátka je $s(x) = \pi \cdot d \cdot x$. Použitím rovnice (8) dostaneme průtok ventilem jako funkci tlakového spádu Δp a otevření ventilu x

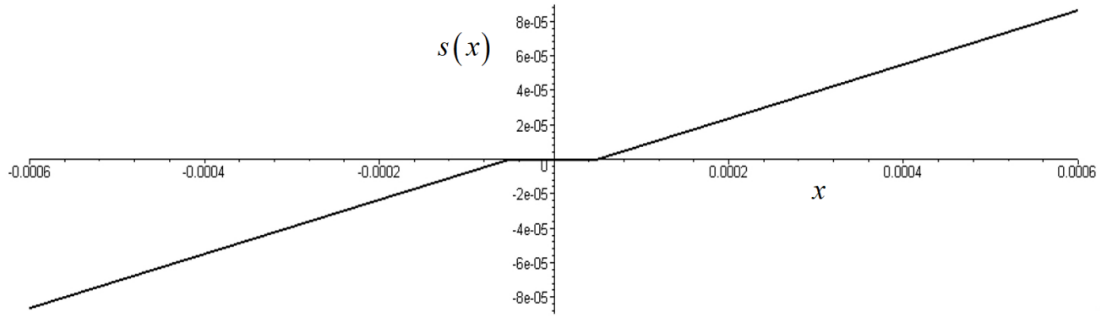
$$Q(x, \Delta p) = A \cdot \pi \cdot d \cdot x \cdot \sqrt{|\Delta p|} \cdot \mathrm{sgn}(\Delta p), \quad \Delta p = p_1 - p_2. \tag{9}$$



Obr. 5: Grafické znázornění průtoku kapaliny ventilem podle rovnice (9). ($[x]=\mathrm{m}$, $[\Delta p]=\mathrm{Pa}$, $[Q]=\mathrm{m}^3\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$, průměr šoupátka $d=50\,\mathrm{mm}$, ztrátový součinitel $c=0.9$)

Jelikož servoventil vyšetřovaného mechanizmu pracuje jak s kladnými, tak i se zápornými výchylkami šoupátka *x* a hrana šoupátka je tak obtékána z obou stran, objevuje se u něho typická nelinearita - krytí servoventilu. Průtočný průřez *s* jako funkce otevření *x* pak je

$$s(x)=\begin{cases}\pi\cdot d\cdot(x+x_0) & pro \quad x<-x_0\\ 0 \quad pro \quad -x_0\le x\le x_0 & \\ \pi\cdot d\cdot(x-x_0) & pro \quad x>x_0\end{cases}. \tag{10}$$



Obr. 6: Grafické znázornění závislosti průtočného průřezu s na otevření ventilu x. (překrytí servoventilu je $x_0=0.05[\mathrm{mm}]$, $[x]=\mathrm{m}$, $[s]=\mathrm{m}^2$)

6 PRŮTOK KAPALINY SERVOMECHANIZMEM

Pro nestlačitelnou kapalinu musí pro objemové průtoky platit $Q_1=Q_2=Q$ (obr. 1). Užitím rovnice (8) obdržíme

$$\left.\begin{aligned}Q&=A\cdot s(x)\cdot\sqrt{|p_p-p_1|}\cdot\mathrm{sgn}(p_p-p_1)\\ Q&=A\cdot s(x)\cdot\sqrt{|p_2-p_0|}\cdot\mathrm{sgn}(p_2-p_0)\end{aligned}\right\}x>0, \tag{11}$$

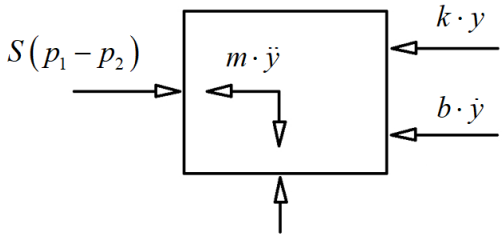
$$\left.\begin{aligned}Q&=A\cdot s(x)\cdot\sqrt{|p_1-p_0|}\cdot\mathrm{sgn}(p_1-p_0)\\ Q&=A\cdot s(x)\cdot\sqrt{|p_p-p_2|}\cdot\mathrm{sgn}(p_p-p_2)\end{aligned}\right\}x<0. \tag{12}$$

Z rovnice kontinuity plyne, že

$$Q = S \cdot \dot{y}, \tag{13}$$

přičemž S je plocha pístu hydromotoru.

7 POHYBOVÁ ROVNICE



Obr. 7: Uvolnění hmoty m

Podle obr. 7 je pohybová rovnice

$$m \cdot \ddot{y} + b \cdot \dot{y} + k \cdot y = S \cdot (p_1 - p_2). \tag{14}$$

Úpravami rovnic (11), (12), (13) a (14) vyjde obyčejná nelineární diferenciální rovnice 2. řádu

$$\left.\begin{aligned} &\frac{m}{S} \cdot \ddot{y} + \frac{b}{S} \cdot \dot{y} + \frac{k}{S} \cdot y + \left\{ 2 \cdot \left[\frac{S}{A} \cdot \frac{\dot{y}}{s(x)} \right]^2 - p_p + p_0 \right\} = 0 \quad pro \quad x \geq 0 \\ &\frac{m}{S} \cdot \ddot{y} + \frac{b}{S} \cdot \dot{y} + \frac{k}{S} \cdot y + \left\{ -2 \cdot \left[\frac{S}{A} \cdot \frac{\dot{y}}{s(x)} \right]^2 + p_p - p_0 \right\} = 0 \quad pro \quad x < 0 \end{aligned}\right\}, \tag{15}$$

která popisuje dynamické vlastnosti servomechanizmu. Pro zvolený časový průběh otevření ventilu $x(t)$ by bylo možno řešením rovnice (15) simulovat odezvu $y(t)$. V technické praxi ovšem téměř výhradně potřebujeme docílit požadovaného průběhu $y(t)$ a k němu vyšetřit potřebný průběh $x(t)$.

8 PID REGULÁTOR

Aby bylo možno regulovat časový průběh výchylky $y(t)$, je nutné zavést do obvodu zpětnou vazbu. Ta je realizována PID regulátorem, který řídí otevření ventilu $x(t)$. Regulace je popsána rovnicí

$$x(t) = k_p \cdot (y - y_p) + k_d \cdot (\dot{y} - \dot{y}_p) + k_i \cdot \int_0^t (y - y_p)\, dt, \tag{16}$$

kde $y_p(t)$ je požadovaný časový průběh skutečné výchylky $y(t)$ a k_p, k_d, k_i parametry proporcionální, derivační a integrační složky regulátoru. Derivací rovnice (16) podle času dostaneme

$$\dot{x} = k_p \cdot (\dot{y} - \dot{y}_p) + k_d \cdot (\ddot{y} - \ddot{y}_p) + k_i \cdot (y - y_p). \tag{17}$$

Rovnice (15) a (17) tvoří soustavu diferenciálních rovnic řádu $n = 3$ s neznámými funkcemi času $x(t)$ a $y(t)$. Její řešení bude provedeno v prostředí Maple.

9 PARAMETRY MODELU

hmotnost hmoty na pružině	$m = 25$	$[\mathrm{kg}]$
tuhost pružiny	$k = 80$	$[\mathrm{kN \cdot m^{-1}}]$
poměrný útlum tlumiče	$\zeta = 0.1$	$[-]$
průměr šoupátka	$d = 50$	$[\mathrm{mm}]$
průměr pístu hydromotoru	$D_p = 50$	$[\mathrm{mm}]$
tlak zdroje kapaliny	$p_p = 5$	$[\mathrm{MPa}]$
tlak v nádrži	$p_0 = 0.1$	$[\mathrm{MPa}]$
hustota hydraulického oleje	$\rho = 914$	$[\mathrm{kg \cdot m^{-3}}]$
ztrátový součinitel	$c = 0.9$	$[-]$
překrytí servoventilu	$x_0 = 0.05$	$[\mathrm{mm}]$
konstanta proporcionální složky regulátoru	$k_p = 0.005$	$[-]$
konstanta derivační složky regulátoru	$k_d = 0.1$	$[\mathrm{s}]$
konstanta integrační složky regulátoru	$k_i = 0.005$	$[\mathrm{s^{-1}}]$

10 SIMULAČNÍ PROGRAM V MAPLE 9.5

```
> restart; with(plots): with(DEtools): Digits:=20:
`Warning, the name changecoords has been redefined`
```

Deklarace parametrů simulačního modelu (v základních jednotkách SI)

```
> m:=25: k:=8e4: zeta:=0.1: Dp:=0.15: pp:=5*10^6: p0:=10^5:
c:=0.9: rho:=914: d:=0.05: x0:=0.00005: s0:=Pi*d*1e-9: f:=0.5:
omega:=2*Pi*f: T:=1/f: S:=evalf(Pi*(Dp^2)/4):
b:=evalf(2*zeta*sqrt(k*m)): A:=c*sqrt(2/rho):
```

Závislost průtočného průřezu na poloze šoupátka

```
> s(x):=piecewise(x(t)<-
x0,evalf(Pi*d*(x(t)+x0)+s0),x(t)>x0,evalf(Pi*d*(x(t)-
x0)+s0),x(t)>=-x0 and x(t)<=x0,s0):
plot(s(x),x=-
0.0006..0.0006,thickness=2,numpoints=1000,color=black):
```

Parametry PID regulátoru

```
> kp:=0.005: kd:=0.1: ki:=0.01:
```

Požadovaný časový průběh polohy hmoty m

```
> yp(t):=piecewise(t>=-1 and t<T/2,-0.1*cos(omega*t)+0.1,t>=T/2
and t<2.5*T,0.2,t>=2.5*T and t<3.5*T,-0.1*cos(omega*(t-
3*T))+0.1,0.2):
```

Soustava diferenciálních rovnic popisujících výpočtový model servomechanizmu a počáteční podmínky simulace

```
> fce:=piecewise(s(x)<0,evalf(-
2*((S*diff(y(t),t))/(A*s(x)))^2+pp-p0),
evalf(2*((S*diff(y(t),t))/(A*s(x)))^2-pp+p0)):
dr1:=evalf(m/S*diff(y(t),t,t)+b/S*diff(y(t),t)+k/S*y(t)+fce=0)
:
dr2:=evalf(diff(x(t),t)=kp*(diff(yp(t),t)-
diff(y(t),t))+kd*(diff(yp(t),t,t)-diff(y(t),t,t))+ki*(yp(t)-
y(t))):
IC:=y(0)=0,D(y)(0)=0,x(0)=0:
```

Řešení soustavy implicitní Rungovou - Kuttovou metodou 4. řádu

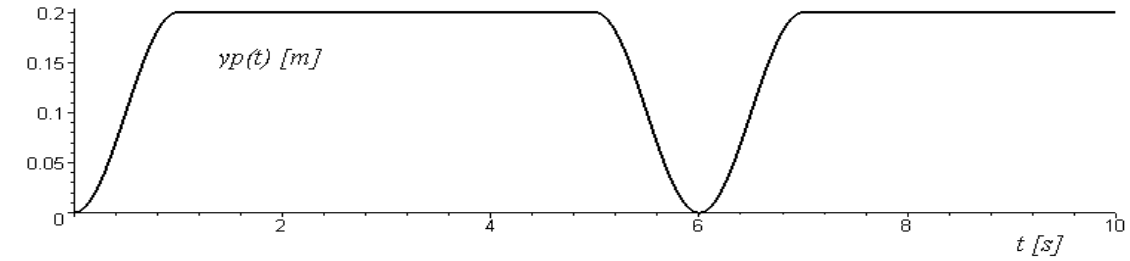
```
>
res:=dsolve({dr1,dr2,IC},{x(t),y(t)},numeric,range=0..5*T,stif
f=true,maxfun=100000,abserr=1e-10);
```

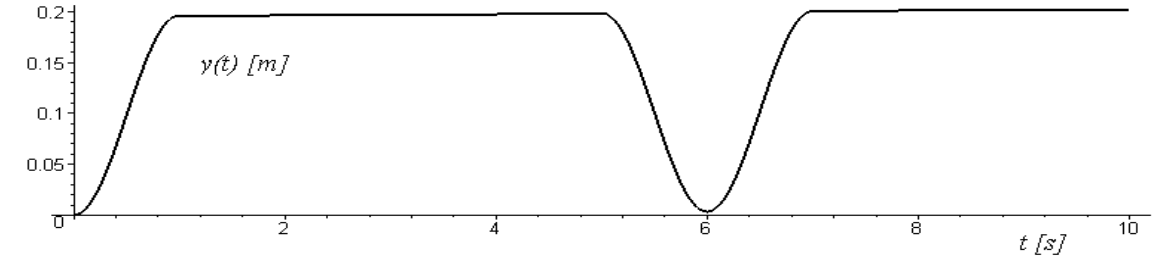
res := **proc**(*x_rosenbrock*) ... **end proc**

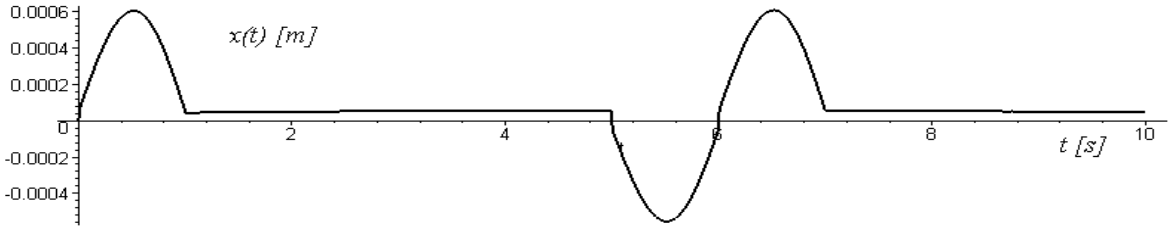
Grafické znázornění výsledků simulace

```
> plot(yp(t),t=0..5*T,thickness=2,numpoints=1000,color=black):
odeplot(res,[t,y(t)],thickness=2,numpoints=1000,color=black):
odeplot(res,[t,x(t)],thickness=2,numpoints=1000,color=black):
```

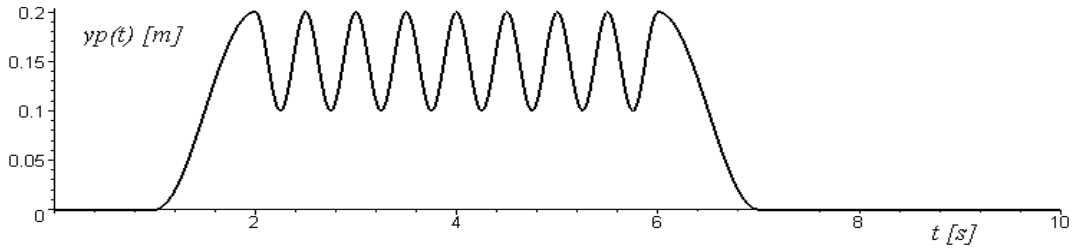
11 VÝSLEDKY SIMULACE 1 - POLOHOVACÍ ZAŘÍZENÍ

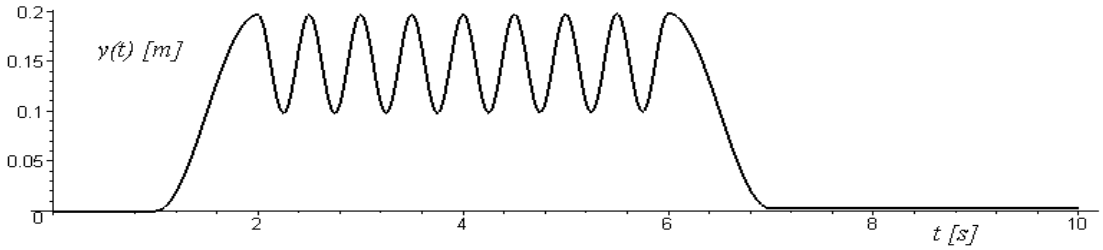


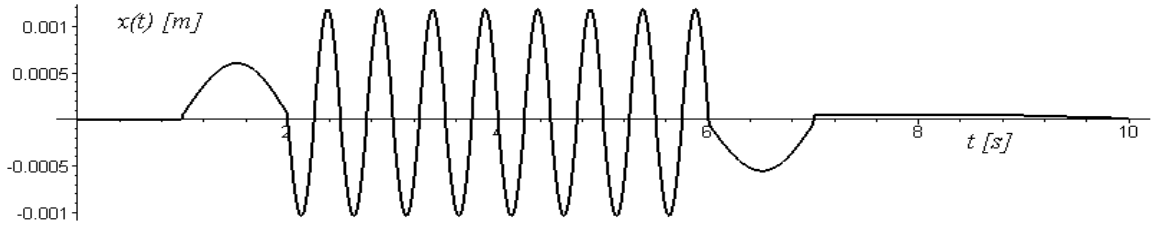




12 VÝSLEDKY SIMULACE 2 - SINUSOVÝ PRŮBĚH







13 DALŠÍ MOŽNOSTI ŘEŠENÍ

Konstanty regulátoru k_p, k_d, k_i byly určeny odhadem. Optimalizaci hodnot těchto konstant by bylo možno provést například pomocí pravidel Zieglera a Nicholse [2]. Výpočtový model je zjednodušený, technická realita je mnohem složitější. Při modelování vysokotlakých mechanizmů (70 MPa) by bylo nutno počítat i se stlačitelností kapaliny - hydraulickou kapacitou. Model hydromotoru je možno rozšířit o třecí sílu konstantní velikosti a podobně.

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DESIGN OF GEAR MECHANISMS USING DESIGN ACCELERATOR

Anna Šmeringaiová

Abstract
This article describes a system approach to designing gears using Autodesk Inventor Professional's special "Design Accelerator" tool.

Keywords: *Mechanism, Functional Design, Design Accelerator, Dynamic Simulation*

1 INTRODUCTION

The introduction of CA technology into all areas of engineering has created the need for new forms and design methods. When designing and constructing transmission mechanisms, the design engineer, in addition to general technical know-how, also anticipates an understanding of the basic principles of 3D CAD systems and an overview of the possibilities of using different software applications. While the basic principle of work in different applications is the same, the offer of individual CAD systems differs in their extended modules. Autodesk's Inventor Professional application includes a special Design Accelerator tool designed to design drive gear. In the design process, it is also possible to use a computer simulation enabling stress analysis and functional analysis of motion of mechanical systems.

2 COMPUTER AIDED DESIGN OF MECHANISMS

2.1 Transmission mechanisms as components assemblies

When computer modeling, each transmission mechanism is a set of oriented and reciprocally connected components. It is created by gradually folding individual components and sub-assemblies into the final state (Fig. 1).

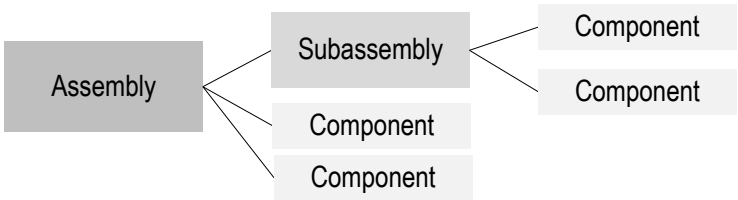


Figure 1: Graphic view of the components assembly

By assembling the involvement there were assigned conditions of the placements and alignment of each component with the consideration of the coordinate system of virtual space. The first component of the assembly (main component) is usually fixed to the basic coordinate system of the virtual space. All other components and sub-assemblies are attached to the base component respectively to the auxiliary elements by means of links. The bonds are defined by the mutual position of the individual components and by the removed degrees of mobility. The body in the space has 6 degrees of mobility (three shifts in x, y, z axes - three rotation axes x, y, z). In computer modeling, are usually made static assemblies that are created by removing all degrees of freedom. When designing mechanisms - moving systems of bodies, it is possible to use functional simulation of the mechanism, offered by several 3D CAD systems. Using the "Connections" conditions (a set of predefined kinematic bonds with a specified number of degrees of mobility of movement), the kinematic pair are left with the corresponding motion options. [5]

2.2 Computer aided kinematic and dynamic analysis of mechanisms

Offers a comprehensive view of the behavior of simple and complex mechanical systems. Determining the dependencies of kinematic and dynamic variables of functional parts of mechanisms in a virtual environment is a preferred test and simulation tool before the creation of the prototype mechanism itself.

The following tools are designed to design the basic types of gears using the software Autodesk Inventor Professional:

"**Design Accelerator**"

Design Accelerator allows you to create models of standard types of engineering components based on technical calculations. Designs and calculations of functional parts of gears (shafts, bearings, gear wheels, belts, screw connections, etc.) are made using component generators. The use of Design Accelerator in the design process simplifies the design process, automates design and geometry creation, improves the quality of the initial design by comparing design requirements, increases the standardization rate by selecting the same components for the same tasks.[1]

"**Stress analysis**"

„A stress analysis can help you find the best design alternatives for a part or assembly. Early in design development, you can ensure that a design performs satisfactorily under expected use without breaking or deforming“. [1]

"**Dynamic simulation**"

„With the dynamic simulation or the assembly environment, the intent is to build a functional mechanism. Dynamic simulation adds to that functional mechanism the dynamic, real-world influences of various kinds of loads to create a true kinematic chain“. [1]

The advantage of designing with the help of kinematic and dynamic analysis is the ability to monitor kinematic variables of all members of the mechanism at any point in time and in any position. The depiction of the monitored quantities can be displayed in graphical tabular or in vector form. From kinematic analysis, it is possible to go directly to dynamic simulation and strength analysis. The data obtained is also usable for other applications.

2.3 Methodics of designing mechanisms in Autodesk Inventor Professional

a) *Calculation* of input parameters needed for solution.

b) *Design and modeling* of the components of the mechanism directly in the assembly model environment using the Design Accelerator

c) *Constructing* the model of the mechanism assembly.

d) *Setting conditions* for kinematic analysis in "Dynamic Analysis" environment - defining kinematic links, drive, extreme positions, monitored variables.

e) *Start of the simulation*, record and results processing - output in tabular and graphical form (functional dependencies of output variables over time, values of monitored variables for defined position of the mechanism).

f) *Evaluation of results*, verification of results by another solution method.

3 EXAMPLE OF A DESIGN OF A TRANSMISSION MECHANISM IN THE AUTODESK INVENTOR PROFESSIONAL APPLICATION

Design the transmission part of the drive station that is powered by a three-phase asynchronous motor (given P_I, n_I, M_I – Tab. 1). The combined transmission consists of a belt drive, a spur gearing wheel and bevel gearing wheel with helical gearing – Fig. 2.

3.1 Calculation of input parameters needed for solution

For the calculations of the input parameters and control values which are necessary for verification of the correctness of the simulation were in accordance to [3] and [8] used relationships listed below. The kinematic values of the individual shafts were determined for two different motion alternatives (ω_{21} = const.; α_{21} = const.).

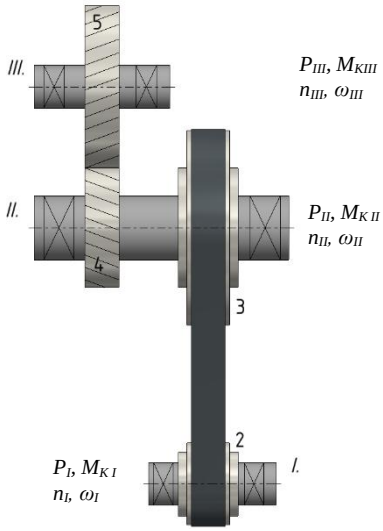


Figure 2: Kinematic scheme of the transmission mechanism

Calculation of velocity ratios, speed (rpm) and angular velocity

$$i_c = \frac{n_{vstup}}{n_{výstup}} = \frac{n_I}{n_{III}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad n_{III} = \frac{n_I}{i_c}, \tag{1}$$

$$i_{RP} = \frac{i_c}{u_{ČOP}} \tag{2}$$

$$n_{II} = \frac{n_I}{i_{RP}} \quad ; \quad n_{III} = \frac{n_{II}}{u_{ČOP}} \tag{3}$$

$$\omega_i = 2\pi \cdot n_i \quad ; \quad i = I, II, III \tag{4}$$

n_i ; $i = I, II, III$ are speed the shafts I, II, III,
ω_i ; $i = I, II, III$ is the angular velocity of the shaft I, II, III,
i_c - overall velocity ratio,
i_{RP} - velocity ratio of the belt transmission,
$u_{ČOP}$ - gear ratio of helical gears.

Total drive efficiency

$$\eta_c = \eta_S \cdot \eta_{ČOP} \cdot \eta_L^2 \cdot \eta_{RP} \tag{5}$$

η_S is coupling efficiency,
$\eta_{ČOP}$ - spur gear efficiency,
η_L - the effectiveness of one pair of rolling bearings,
η_{RP} - the efficiency of the belt transmission.

Calculation of Power

$$P_I = P_M \cdot \eta_{SP}$$
$$P_{II} = P_I \cdot \eta_{L1}.\eta_{RP} \qquad (6)$$
$$P_{III} = P_{II} \cdot \eta_{ČOP} \cdot \eta_{L2}$$

P_i ; $i = I, II, III$ are power of the shafts *I, II, III.*

Calculation of Torques

$$P_i = M_{ki} \cdot \omega_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad M_{k\,i} = \frac{P_i}{\omega_i} \quad ; \quad kde \quad i = I, II, III \qquad (7)$$

M_{ki} ; $i = I, II, III$ are the torques acting on the shafts *I, II, III.*

Calculation of angular acceleration

$$\alpha_i = \frac{\mathrm{d}\omega_i}{\mathrm{d}t} = konšt. \qquad (8)$$

$$\alpha_i \int_0^t \mathrm{d}t = \int_{\omega_0}^{\omega_i} \mathrm{d}\omega$$

$$\alpha_i\, t = \omega_i - \omega_{i0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_i = \frac{\omega_i - \omega_{i0}}{t} \quad ; \quad kde\, i = I, II, III \qquad (9)$$

$$i_{RP} = \frac{\alpha_I}{\alpha_{II}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_{II} = \frac{\alpha_I}{i_{RP}} \quad ; \quad u_{ČOP} = \frac{\alpha_{II}}{\alpha_{III}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_{III} = \frac{\alpha_{II}}{u_{ČOP}} \qquad (10)$$

α_i ; $i = I, II, III$ is the angular acceleration of the shaft *I, II, III,*
t - the acceleration time.

Calculation of shaft diameter

$$d_i \geq \sqrt[3]{\frac{16 M_{ki}}{\pi\, \tau_D}} \; ; \qquad (11)$$

τ_D *is* permitted the shaft torsional stress,
d_i ; $i = I, II, III$ - the diameter of the shaft *I, II, III.*

Design Calculation of Spur Gear Module by Bach [3]

$$m_n = \sqrt[3]{\frac{2 M_k \cos\beta}{\pi c \psi_m z_1}} \qquad (12)$$

m_n is normal module,
Ψ_m - gear width coefficient,
z_1 - number of teeth (pinion),
β - reference cylinder helix angle,
c - permitted flexural stress coefficient for the material.

3.2 Design and modeling of mechanism components

In the modeling process, three basic working methods can be applied:

Top-down modelling

Top Down is a method where you start defining the end result and build in all of the known design criteria. The thus-created functional skeleton of the assembly model becomes the basis for modeling lower sub-assemblies and components.

Down-top modelling

This method is applicable for modelling of the simple assemblies. In the first step the simple components are modelled and assembly is created in the second step.

Middle-out modelling

The Middle out combines aspects of both top-down and bottom-up methods. Some components exist, others are modeled separately or in-context.

It is common to mix techniques to fit your products and design intent. This is also true for the case described below, where the model of the mechanism assembly was based on the principle "*from the functional basis to the details*". The actual transmission station was implemented directly in the model assembly environment where Design Accelerator tools are available. As the starting point for the design of the shafts, the belt transmission and the gearwheels has been given and calculated values of the input parameters. Using the Design Accelerator commands, the major functional parts of the gear mechanism were designed and modeled in a simplified form containing the basic functional shapes. The bindings were precisely defined by their mutual position, the positioning of the mechanism with respect to the fixed base and the kinematic pair. The design and dimensioning of functional parts of the mechanism were realized using engineering calculators. Engineering calculators use standard mathematical formulas and physical theories in design and validation of mechanical systems.

The current design of the components modeled in the assembly environment were continuously verified in the design process, modified as needed and simultaneously defined in kinematic analysis conditions in the dynamic simulation environment.

„With the dynamic simulation and the assembly environment, the intent is to build a functional mechanism. Dynamic simulation adds to that functional mechanism the dynamic, real-world influences of various kinds of loads to create a true kinematic chain. Though both have to do with creating mechanisms, there are some critical differences between the dynamic simulation and the assembly environment. The most basic and important difference has to do with degrees of freedom. By default, components in Autodesk Inventor Simulation have zero degrees of freedom. Unconstrained and ungrounded components in the assembly environment have six degrees of freedom.“ [1]

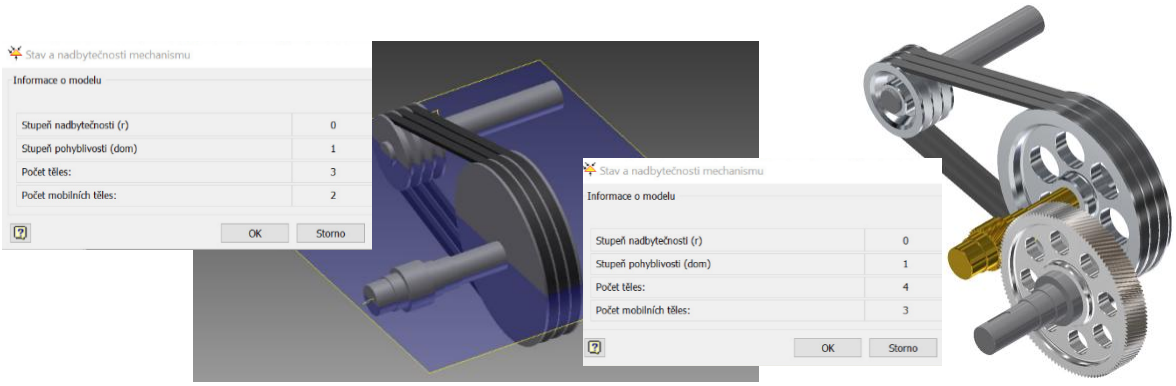
Required kinematic parameters of the proposed power station were verified using a functional simulation. After verification of the correct operation, the mechanism was supplemented by other shapes and components.

3.3 Working procedure

Modeling of the functional model of the gear mechanism

- "*Assembly environment*" - The base is in the virtual space defined by the basic coordinate system. With respect to this base, the position of the gear mechanism was set.
- "*Shaft Component Generator*" - Input shaft I modeling. The shaft was anchored to the basic coordinate system with one degree of mobility - rotation around the axis. Using engineering calculators, shaft I was dimensioned with respect to the assumed load.

▪ "*V-Belts Component Generator*" - Belt transmission modelling. The belt transmission consists of 2 belt pulleys and the appropriate number of belts according to the program calculation. In the "Design" tab, it is selected the type of pulley, type and number of belts. Belt pulley II was mounted and fixed to the shaft I. Interconnections of the functional parts of the belt drive have been defined automatically. After entering the rated values for power and angular velocity of the engine and other transmission parameters, a control calculation was made - the "Calculation" tab. Depending on the result, we will make changes to the parameters and repeat the control calculation, respectively the design will be confirmed. In terms of dynamic simulation, it is necessary to change "iProperties" from "Grounded" to "Flexible".



a) b)

Figure 3: „Mechanism Status“

▪ "*Environments tab / Dynamic simulation*"- Define the kinematic dependencies of the belt transmission by "Automatically Convert Constraints to Standard Joints" and "Insert Joint / Rolling: "Belt" command - Fig. 4a. By "Mechanism Status" command, it is checked that the created model corresponds to the mechanical system with one degree of mobility - Fig. 3a.

▪ "*Shaft Component Generator*" – Design of the shaft II. The initial value of shaft diameter is calculated from the equation (11). The design and check calculation of shaft II were realised.

▪ "*Environments tab / Dynamic simulation*" - With command "Mechanism Status" was verified number of degree of mobility again - Fig. 3a.

a) „Rolling: Belt“ b) „Rolling: Cylinder on cylinder“

Figure 4: Command „Insert Joint“

▪ "*Spur Gears Component Generator*" - Design of spur gears through Spur Gears Component Generator dialog box. The design scenario is based on the specified distance of

the axes, the calculated transmission and the module. For the module calculation, the recommended procedure was chosen [3], [8]. Through the dialog box, it is possible to repeat thegear assembly design and stress calculations. Several methods of strength calculation are available. In the case described, the "Strength calculation method" according to ISO 6336:1996 was used. Generated was spur gear wheel with helical gearing was generated. The drive gear 3 has been modeled as a fixed member of shaft II. The correct position and movement restriction were defined by the links only in the case of the toothed wheel 4. For the reciprocal rolling movement is from a functional point of view, necessary to define the bond "Motion" in the assembly environment.

- "*Environments tab / Dynamic simulation*" - By command "Automatically Convert Constraints to Standard Joints" and by command "Insert Joint" / Rolling: Cylinder on cylinder" were defined kinematic dependencies of gear transmission components – Fig. 4b. Command "Mechanism Status" checked, if the mechanism mobility was delimited to one degree of mobility by chosen bonds – Fig. 3b.
- "*Shaft Component Generator*" - Design and strength calculation of shaft III.
- "*Environments tab / Dynamic simulation*" Already in the design process, the basic functional part of the transmission mechanism was defined as a mechanical assembly with one degree of mobility – Fig. 3b. The next step is defining the external loads - in our case, it is the driving moment acting on the input shaft I. Its point of action, direction and size were determined. In next step were defined properties of actuating shaft drive, the conditions for starting the simulation of motion and the conditions of the simulation course were defined. The results of the functional simulation were generated in tabular and graphical form (Fig. 6, Fig. 7). By the standard calculation of the monitored variables it was verified, if the gearbox functional simulation was set correctly. Table 1 lists the values of monitored parameters obtained by calculation and simulation. Differences in numeric values are caused by the fact that Inventor uses multiple factors for the design. For example, in the standard efficiency calculation, the clutch and bearing efficiency were neglected. Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 shows the progress of monitored parameters. Numerical angular velocity and acceleration values obtained from the simulation, expressed in [°.s^{-1}], resp. [°.s^{-2}] were in accordance to (13) converted to [rad.s^{-1}], resp. [rad.s^{-2}].

$$\omega_i \left[rad \cdot s^{-1} \right] \cdot \frac{180}{\pi} = \omega_i^{\circ} \left[\circ \cdot s^{-1} \right] \tag{13}$$

Table 1: Values of monitored variables

	ω_i [rad.s^{-1}]	α_i [rad.s^{-2}]	n_i [ot.min^{-1}]	P_i [kW]	M_{ki} [Nm]
SHAFT I	306,83	30,68	2930	7,50	24,4
	306,83	30,68	2930	7,50	24,4
SHAFT II	122,73	12,27	1172	7,20	58,67
	126,54	12,65	1208	7,18	56,90
SHAFT III	30,68	3,07	293	7,06	229,97
	31,63	3,16	302	7,02	223,05

Finishing the modeling of the elements

- "*Shaft Component Generator*" - is linked to the "Content Center", that enables efficient modeling - generating standardized structural and technological shape elements and

automatically loading standardized parts (key, gaskets, retaining rings, etc.) from content center.

- *Gear and shaft design modifications* - the standard modeling of shape gears was used.
- "*Bearing Component Generator*" – allows bearing design for required durability. Selects the bearing from the "Content Center" bearing list that matches all criteria specified in the "Design" and "Calculation" tabs and its calculated Adjusted Bearing Life value is equal or close to Bearing Required Life value. Through the bonds, the exact position of the bearings in the assembly and the number of degrees of mobility were defined directly in the design process.
- *Gearbox design* - It is the designer's job to choose the procedure. In our case, we used standard modeling procedures. In the assembly model, the positioning of the gearbox is correct with respect to the shafts, respectively gear bearings. At the same time, the gearbox was fixed to the basic coordinate system.
- *Design of an electric motor* - The model of the electric motor used in the assembly is taken from [2].
- "*Bolted Connection Component Generator*" – Enables efficient design procedure, modeling and calculation control of screw connections. After design confirmation, the link components of the proposed screw connections were retrieved from the content center. Screw connections have been created automatically. Similarly, the shape of the jointed components was automatically supplemented with standardized screw holes at the joint point.

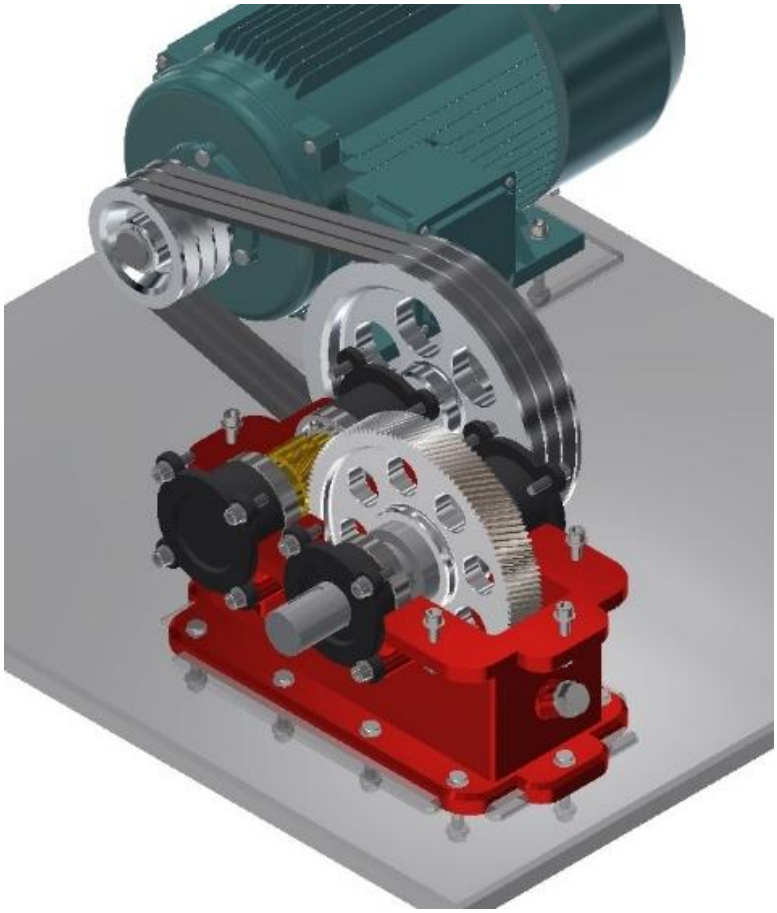


Figure 5: Design of the transmission mechanism

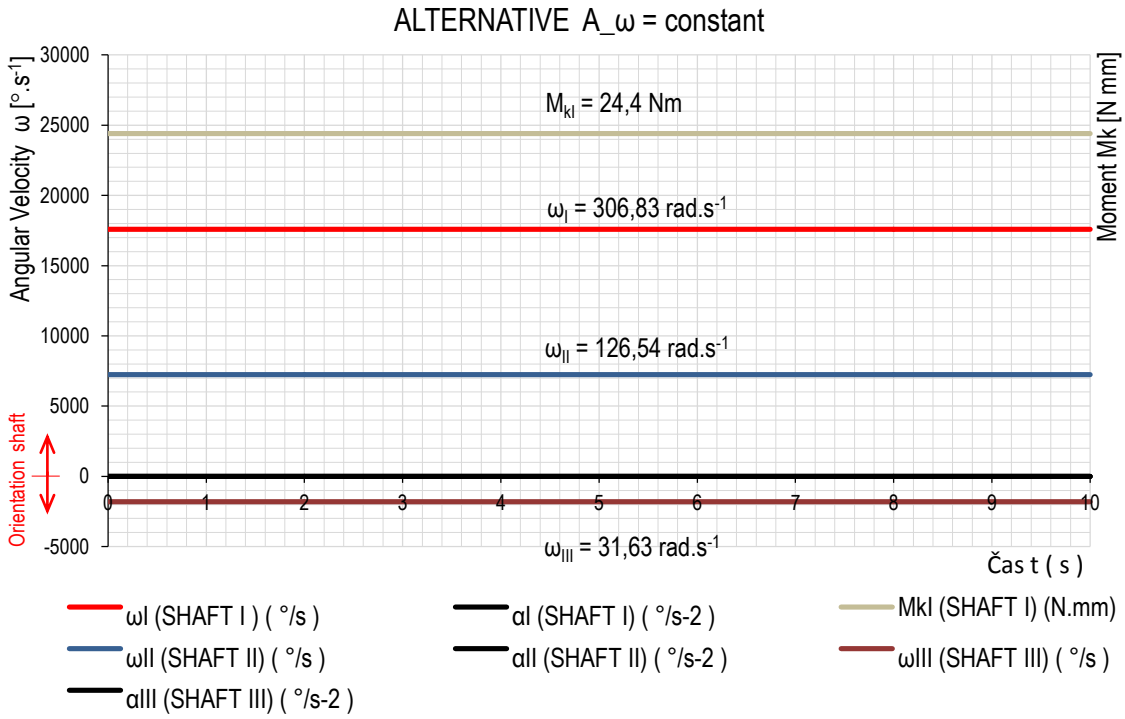


Figure 6: Simulation results – alternative A

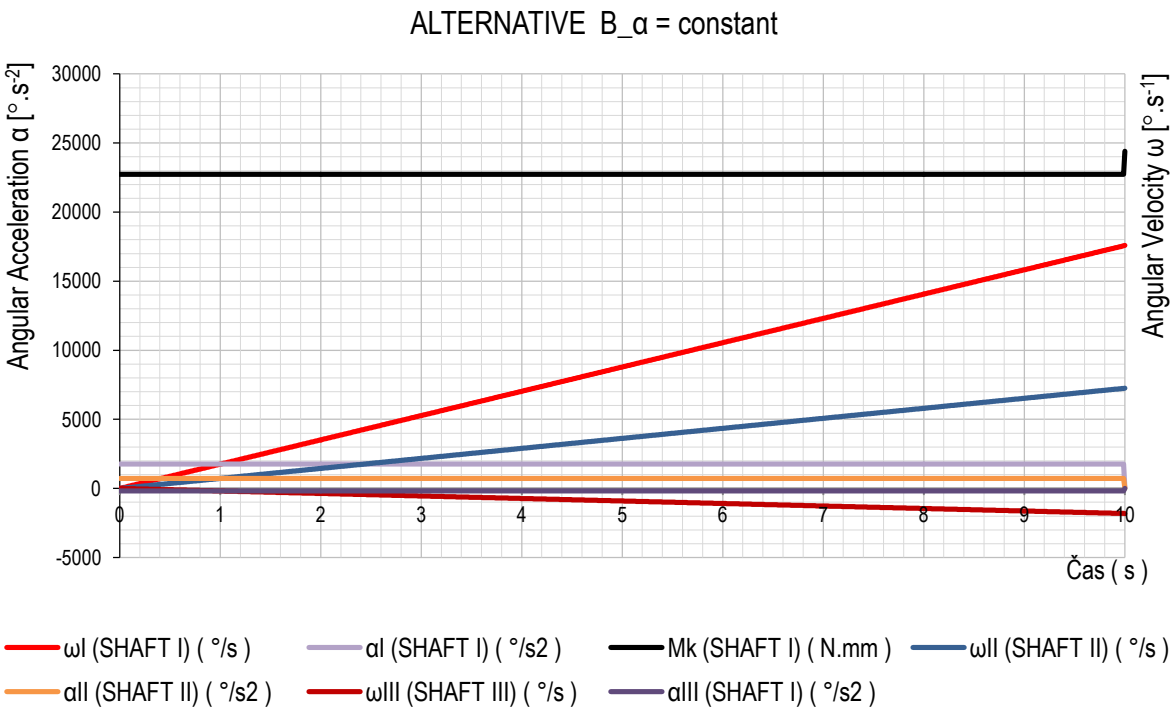


Figure 7: Simulation results – alternative B

4 CONCLUSION

Designing drives is a creative mental activity. The solution of the gearing must be focused primarily on the fulfillment of the requirements for the transmissions given in the assignment.

At the same time, a number of requirements have to be met, ranging from functional reliability, operational efficiency, the choice of suitable construction materials, design with the lowest possible demands on production technology, low financial costs to environmentally sound disposal. All design activities in designing different types of mechanisms (calculations, 3D model, drawing documentation) are now supported by various CA systems. However, their use still requires control of the computational practices that the SW products contain. Based on these theoretical knowledge and practical experience, computer-generated solutions need to be critically evaluated. In the design process, each designer chooses his own work procedure. If we want to make the most of the CAD software really effective, you need to know and follow certain Best Practices. The various techniques and approaches that are available to model parts and create assemblies can affect performance.

The ambition of this contribution was to highlight the possibilities of efficiently using Design Accelerator tools, which are designed precisely for designing transmission mechanisms.

Acknowledgments
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NEDESTRUKTIVNÍ TESTOVÁNÍ RÁMU VOZU FORMULA STUDENT

NDT TESTING OF FORMULA STUDENT CAR'S FRAME

Kristýna Kutiová, Jakub Měsíček

Abstrakt

Tato publikace se zabývá nedestruktivními zkouškami použitými při testování rámu vozu kategorie Formula Student. Testování bylo provedeno na vozidle Vector 03, třetím vozu týmu Formula TU Ostrava z VŠB – Technické univerzity Ostrava. Kontrolovanými částmi byly svarové spoje bezpečnostního rámu. Tato publikace se zabývá popisem použitých zkoušek, kterými byly: vizuální, kapilární, magnetická a radiografické. Všechny zkoušky byly provedeny samotnými studenty, členy týmu, na zcela hotovém rámu formule a proběhly na dílně týmu Formula TU Ostrava v areálu VŠB-TU Ostrava. Dále se soustředí na vyhodnocení testů (všechny testy a jejich vyhodnocení bylo provedeno podle platných norem) a také na doporučení pro tým a jejich budoucí vozy.

Klíčová slova: *Nedestruktivní testování, Formula Student, nedestruktivní testování formule student, Formula TU Ostrava*

Abstract

This publication focuses on non-destructive testing methods used at testing of Formula Student car's frame. Testing were made on Vector 03, third car of Formula TU Ostrava, team from VSB – Technical University of Ostrava. Controlled parts at this frame were welded joints. This publication concerns of description of used methods, which were: visual, penetration, magnetic and radiation. All of these tests were done by students, members of team, at completed frame and it took place at Formula TU Ostrava's workshop at VSB-TU Ostrava's campus. It also focuses on evaluation of the results (all tests and evaluation of their results were done according to current standards) and also to recommendations for the team to the future cars.

Key words: *NDT testing, Formula Student, Formula Student NDT Testing, Formula TU Ostrava*

1 FORMULA STUDENT

Formula Student je mezinárodní studentská soutěž technických vysokých škol pod záštitou organizace SAE. Studenti mají za úkol každoročně navrhnout nový závodní monopost formulového typu, se kterým následně na závodech porovnávají síly s ostatními týmy z celého světa. Vozidlo musí být výkonné, dobře ovladatelné, spolehlivé a bezpečné, dále estetické, ekologické, za co nejnižší cenu a to vše v souladu s pravidly. Bodované disciplíny jsou dynamické, kdy se hodnotí jízdní projev, a statické, kdy je hodnocena celková koncepce vozidla, použité materiály, provedené testy apod.

Tým VŠB – TU Ostrava, Formula TU Ostrava v roce 2017 postavil v řadě již třetí vozidlo s názvem Vector 03, jehož základ tvoří trubkový ocelový rám s karbonovou karosérií. Rámy předchozích dvou vozidel se lišily použitou technologií svařování, kdy bylo použito CO2, přičemž Vector 03 byl svařován metodou TIG. Další novinkou bylo, že rám byl svařen ve firmě ARMATURY Group.

Rám formule je zatěžován statickým (samotné zatížení vozidla), ale také dynamickým (síly od zavěšení kol) zatížením. Rám je tvořen prostorovou konstrukcí z trubek o různých průměrech a tloušťkách stěny a je namáhán tahem a tlakem. Použité nedestruktivní metody kontroly svarů měly za úkol najít případné vady svarů.

2 NEDESTRUKTIVNÍ TESTOVÁNÍ

Nedestruktivní testování je souhrnný název pro testovací metody, při nichž nevzniká nevratné poškození zkoušeného vzorku. Vzhledem k tomu, že součástí soutěže jsou také statické disciplíny, kdy tým získává body za návrh vozidla, simulace, výpočty a testy, dokazující bezpečnost a výkonnost vozidla, rozhodl se tým Formula TU Ostrava prokázat kvalitu svého bezpečnostního rámu pomocí nedestruktivního testování. Jelikož se jedná o studentský projekt, všechny níže zmíněné testy a vyhodnocení provedli studenti pod odborným dohledem pedagogů a zástupců firem. Všechny testy proběhly před finální povrchovou úpravou rámu.

2.1 Vizuální zkoušení

Vizuální kontrola se provádí okem, nebo pomocí speciálních přístrojů. Je možné tuto kontrolu rozdělit na přímou a nepřímou. Při přímé kontrole není přerušena optická dráha mezi okem a kontrolovanou plochou (je však možné použít optické pomůcky, jako např. lupu). Při nepřímé kontrole je optická dráha mezi okem a kontrolovanou plochou přerušena (např. endoskopy či videoskopy). Nepřímá kontrola se požívá z důvodu nepřístupnosti, jako jsou různá potrubí či tlakové nádoby.[10][12]

Vizuální kontrola svarových spojů se obvykle provádí přímo a i zde byla kontrola provedena takto. Posuzovaly se vady na povrchu svarů a na oblasti okolo nich, které byly ovlivněny teplem vzniklým při svařování. Hodnocení zkoušky proběhlo podle normy ČSN EN ISO 5817 (svary oceli, niklu, titanu a jejich slitin) a podle normy ČSN ISO 10042 (svary hliníku a jeho slitin).[2][3]

Vizuální kontrola proběhla v těchto podmínkách:

- intenzita osvětlení 350 – 500 lx
- vzdálenost pozorování menší než 600 mm
- úhel pozorování ne menší než 30°
- lupy zvětšení 2x – 5x

2.2 Kapilární zkoušení

Toto zkoušení se využívá ke zjišťování povrchových vad (jako jsou trhliny, nebo studené spoje), jehož princip spočívá ve využití vzlínavosti a smáčivosti penetrantů – využívá se jejich barevnost či fluorescence. Kapilární metody jsou vhodné jak pro kovové (ocel, lehké kovy, slitiny,…) tak i nekovové (keramika, plasty) materiály, není však možné testovat pórovité materiály.

Podstatou zkoušek je využití kapilárních jevů a to především: povrchové napětí, viskozita, kapilární elevace, kapilární tlak a krajový úhel. Pro zkoušení je důležitá také jednoduchá odstranitelnost použitých penetrantů, proto musí mít nízkou viskozitu, vyšší povrchové napětí a malý krajový úhel.

Výhodou kapilárního zkoušení je její jednoduchost, vysoká univerzálnost, nízká náročnost na vybavení a rychlé vyhodnocení.

Nejčastějšími vadami odhalenými kapilární metodou jsou indikace rozptýlené, okrouhlé, tečkovité, souvislé liniové, přerušované liniové, a falešné (indikace způsobené nesprávným očištěním).

Průběh zkoušky a její hodnocení bylo provedeno dle normy ČSN EN ISO 23277, kdy šířka zkoušeného povrchu musí obsahovat také svarový kov a přilehlou oblast základního kovu a to až do vzdálenosti 10 mm na každou stranu.[8]

2.3 Magnetické zkoušení

Magnetická a elektrická indukce využívaná u těchto zkoušek se používají ke zjišťování vad nebo trhlin na povrchu nebo v blízkosti pod povrchem, přičemž maximální hloubka vady zjistitelné touto metodou je 5 – 10 mm. Magnetická metoda prášková má výhody jako jsou jednoduchost a detekční citlivost. Její použití je však možné pouze na feromagnetické materiály.

Principiálně funguje metoda tak, že nad povrchovou, nebo podpovrchovou vadou dojde ke zviditelnění rozptylového magnetického toku. Po zmagnetizování zkoušeného vzorku se v místě vady podstatně zvýší magnetický odpor materiálu, jenž má za následek zakřivování a zhušťování siločar. Část těchto siločar nad povrchem materiálu vytváří rozptylový tok, který se indikuje pomocí suchého feromagnetického prášku (jsou buď barevné, nebo fluorescenční), nebo pomocí detekční suspenze (feromagnetický prášek ve vhodné kapalině). Tam, kde vystupuje rozptylový tok nad povrch materiálu, se nahromadí prášek a vykreslí tak obrys vady. V jiných místech se prášek nezachycuje.

Při testování rámu formule Vector 03 byla použita metoda podélné magnetizace pomocí ručního elektromagnetického jha. Při magnetizaci pomocí jha tvoří zkoušený předmět a jho uzavřený magnetický obvod, jenž se magnetuje cívkou. Není možná regulace proudu, který cívkou protéká. Výsledné magnetické pole má tvar podélně deformované čočky.

2.4 Radiografické zkoušení

Radiografie se používá pro zjištění vnitřních vad. Princip této metody spočívá v umístění zkoušeného předmětu, nebo vzorku, mezi zdroj záření (RTG nebo gama záření) a stínítko. Tím na stínítku vzniká obraz (radiografický film), na němž je zachycena vnitřní struktura zkoušené předmětu a to včetně jeho vad. Jedná se o objemovou metodu NDT, která umožňuje odhalit vady v celém objektu bez jeho poškození.

Výhodami je široké spektrum použitelnosti bez ohledu na materiál, tvar a povrch. Nevýhodou jsou nebezpečné radiační prostředí a nutná zkušenost pracovníků při vyhodnocování vad.

Pro zkoušku rámu Vectoru 03 bylo použito gama záření se zdrojem ze Selenu (označení Se 75), jehož poločas rozpadu je 120 dní, konstanta dávkovaného příkonu byla 0,055/0,203.

3 ZKOUŠENÍ RÁMU FORMULE VECTOR 03

O Samotná zkouška byla provedena na rámu tvořený trubkami:

- E235 + N; Ø25x2,5 mm
- E355 + N; Ø25x2 mm
- ČSN 15130.1; Ø25x1,5 mm

Trubky jsou vyrobeny z materiálu dle techhnicko-dodacího listu předpisu ČSN EN 10305-1 ->ocelové trubky pro přesné použití – Technické podmínky – Část 1: Bezešvé trubky tažené za studena a ČSN 42 0260 -> Trubky bezešvé přesné z ocelí tříd 10 – 16 tvářené za studena – technické dodací předpisy. Po konečném tažení za studena jsou trubky normalizačně žíhány v ochranné atmosféře.[4][11]

3.1 Vizuální zkouška rámu Vector 03

Na Přímou vizuální zkouškou bylo zkontrolováno celkem 52 svarů. Kontrola byla provedena podle normy ČSN EN ISO 17637 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Vizuální kontrola

tavných svarů.[7]Ke zkoušce byly použity: Luxmetr, svarové měrky, zrcátko, lupa, posuvné měřítko.

Postup zkoušky:

1. kontrola intenzity osvětlení – použití luxmetru LX-101. Naměřená hodnota byla 650 lx, osvětlení místnosti bylo pro vizuální zkoušku vhodné
2. pozorování – pozorovací vzdálenosti 400 – 500 mm, minimální pozorovací úhel 30°. Pro dodržení pozorovací vzdálenosti bylo použito zrcátko.
3. kontrola svarů – pro měření indikací a převýšení svarů byla použita víceúčelová měrka

Obrázek 1: Kontrola zadní strany svaru [11]

Vyhodnocení této zkoušky se řídilo normou ČSN EN ISO 5817 -> Svařování – Svarové spoje oceli, niklu, titanu a jejich slitin zhotovené tavným svařováním – Určování stupňů kvality.[2]

Hodnocení – Všechny svary splňují podmínky uvedené v normě.

3.2 Magnetická zkouška rámu Vector 03

Magnetickou zkouškou bylo zkontrolováno celkem 10 náhodně vybraných svarů. Byla použita metoda podélné magnetizace pomocí ručního elektromagnetického jha. Kontrola byla provedena podle normy ČSN EN ISO 17638 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Zkoušení magnetickou metodou práškovou.
Ke zkoušce byly použity: elektromagnetické jho (Tiede Magnaflux Y-1), fluorescenční sprej (PFINDER FLUXO 150), UV lampa (GKN-11), luxmetr (LX-101), bertholdova měrka.
Postup zkoušky:

1. kontrola osvětlení – použití luxmetru LX-101. Naměřená hodnota byla 20 lx, osvětlení místnosti bylo pro magnetickou zkoušku vhodné, 21°C.
2. magnetování a pozorování – jho přiloženo ke svaru po dobu 5 s při současném nanášení fluorescenční suspenze ve spreji, následovalo vyvolání fluorescence pomocí UV lampy.
3. čištění – svary byly očištěny odmašťovačem PFINDER 895.

Vyhodnocení této zkoušky se řídilo normou ČSN EN ISO 23278 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Zkoušení svarů magnetickou metodou práškovou – Stupně přípustnosti.[9]

Hodnocení – Vady byly hledány především v napojení, dále studené spoje a trhliny, které by byly díky vlastnostem suspenze v kombinaci s nasvětlením UV lampou viditelné. Nebyly nalezeny žádné indikace.

Obrázek 2: Kontrola svaru UV světlem [11]

3.3 Magnetická zkouška rámu Vector 03

Penetrační zkouškou bylo zkontrolováno celkem 10 náhodně vybraných svarů. Metoda byla použita z důvodu špatné dostupnosti některých míst na svarech. Zkouška byla provedena podle normy ČSN EN ISO 3452 – 1 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení – Kapilární zkouška – Část 1: Obecné zásady.[1] Ke zkoušce byly použity: penetrant (PFINDER 860), čistič (PFINDER 895), vývojka (PFINDER 870).

Obrázek 3: Nanesený penetrant vlevo, nanesená vývojka vpravo [11]

Postup zkoušky:

1. kontrola osvětlení – použití luxmetru LX-101. Naměřená hodnota byla 650 lx, osvětlení místnosti bylo pro magnetickou zkoušku vhodné, 21°, očištění svarů.

2. penetrace – očištěno odmašťovačem, nanesení penetrantu pomocí štětečku na svar a tepelně ovlivněnou oblast, doba prolínání penetrantu – 10 min. Po uplynutí této doby setření penetrantu a dočištění odmašťovačem.
3. Vyvolávání – aplikace vývojky, vyvolávací doba 2 – 20 min.
4. čištění - odmaštění

Vyhodnocení této zkoušky se řídilo normou ČSN EN ISO 23277 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Zkoušení kapilární metodou – Stupně přípustnosti.[8]

Hodnocení – Byly hledány hlavně okrouhlé indikace a vady v napojení ve špatně přístupných místech. Při zkoušení se neobjevily žádné indikace – všechny svary vyhovují.

3.4 Radiografická zkouška rámu Vector 03

Radiografickou zkouškou byly zkontrolovány 4 náhodně vybrané svary. Ke kontrole byl vybrán jako zdroj záření Selen 75, podle Atomového zákona č. 263/2016 Sb. bylo vymezeno kontrolované pásmo, kde se mohli pohybovat jen pracovníci kategorie A. Zkouška byla prováděna za plného provozu dílny a tak bylo na odstínění záření použito kolimátoru. Radiační dávka nepřekročila 6mSv/rok, což bylo po celou dobu zkoušky měřeno přístrojem FAG FH – 40 F2. Díky použití kolimátoru bylo vymezeno kontrolované pásmo pouze na dílnu Formula Student, kde se v dané době nikdo nepohyboval.
Zkouška byla provedena podle normy ČSN EN ISO 17636-1 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení – Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Radiografické zkoušení – Část 1: Metody rentgenového a gama záření využívající film.[6]
Ke zkoušce byly použity: film AGFA D5, měřič záření, zářič Se 75, kolimátor, negatoskop, denzitometr, příslušenství (měrky, písmena).

Obrázek 4: Kolimátor přichystaný směrem k filmu [11]

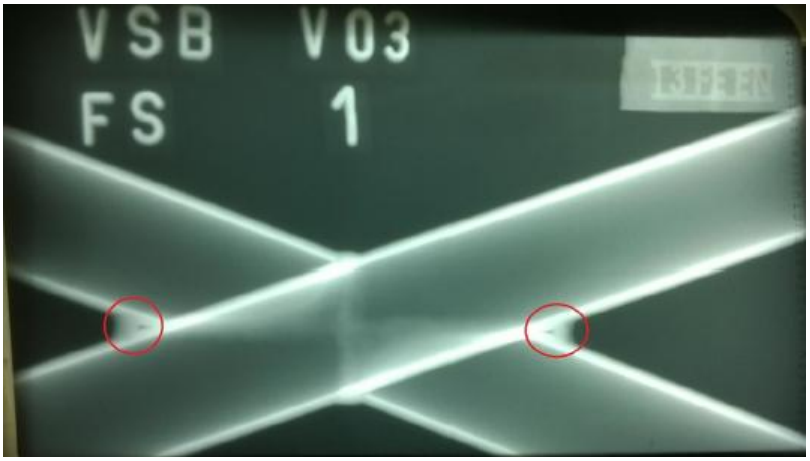
Postup zkoušky:
1. příprava – vymezení kontrolovaného pásma, zajištění vstupních dveří a označení zákazem vstupu – RTG záření, příprava olověných písmen pro označení filmů, drátková měrka a upevňovací svěrky
2. expozice – prozařování přes dvě stěny kolmo na film, obraz obou stěn pro hodnocení obou stěn, pro prozařování byl použit Se 75 kvůli tloušťky trubek, použitý filmový

systém AGFA D5 má přední i zadní olověnou zesilovací fólii o tloušťce 0,2 mm. Pro správné směřování paprsku a minimalizaci záření do okolí byl použit kolimátor. Pro kontrolu zpětného záření bylo na zadní stranu radiogramu umístěno písmeno B.

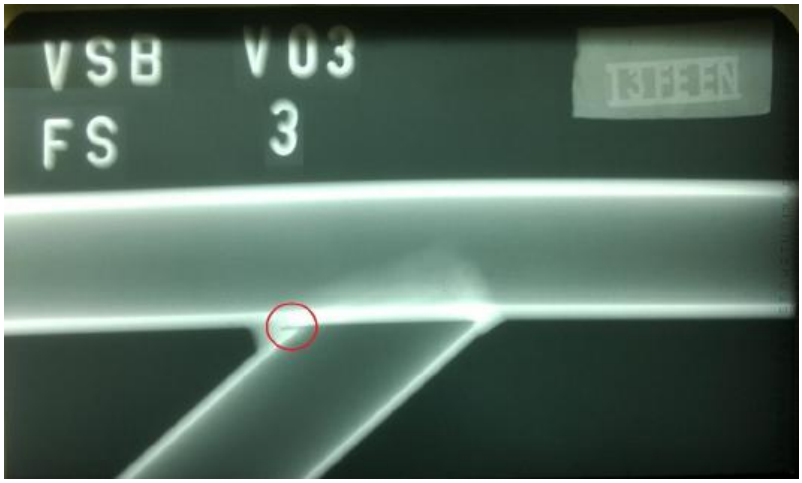
3. určení vzdálenosti zdroj – objekt – odečteno z nomogramu, d = velikost ohniska, b = vzdálenost objekt – film (dáno vnějším průměrem trubky).
4. expoziční čas – pro stanovení doby expozičního času při výpočtu je nutno znát vzdálenost mezi zdrojem a filmem, délku expozice z expozičního diagramu, aktivitu zářiče, optickou hustotu a filmový faktor. V případě použití kalkulačního pravítka je potřeba znát požadované zčernání, typ filmu, typ použitého zdroje záření včetně jeho aktivity, vzdálenost zdroj – film, tloušťka prozařovaného předmětu.
5. zpracování radiogramu – zpracování proběhlo v temné komoře ručním zpracováním
    - vyvolávání – rozpouštění bromu z ionizovaných zrn bromidu stříbrného
    - první přerušovací lázeň s vodou – odstranění zbytku vyvolávacího roztoku
    - ustalování – odstranění neexponovaných zrn AgBr
    - konečné praní ve vodě – odstranění ustalovacího rozkroku
    - sušení – odstranění vody

    Po vyvolání se radiogramy prohlížejí na negatoskopu.

Vyhodnocení této zkoušky se řídilo normou ČSN EN ISO 10675 – 1 -> Nedestruktivní zkoušení svarů – Kritéria přípustnosti pro radiografické zkoušení – Část 1: Ocel, nikl, titan a jejich slitiny.[5][11]



Obrázek 5: technické neprůvary [11]



Obrázek 6: technické neprůvary [11]

Hodnocení – Snímky byly po vyvolání prohlíženy na negaskopu. Nebyly zde nalezeny žádné závažné indikace – byly objeveny pouze technické neprůvary, jenž byly očekávány. Nejedná se o vady, které mají vliv na pevnost svarového spoje. Obvykle se tyto průvary objevují v místech, kde není dostatek místa pro svařovací hlavici, vznikají u trubek svírajících ostrý úhel. Velikost těchto technických neprůvarů je zde nahrazena objemem svarových spojů. Jelikož se nejedná o vady, nebyly zapsány do protokolu o zkoušce. Hodnota zčernání byla zjištěna pomocí denzitometru. Radiogram odpovídal požadavkům normy, jakost vzorku byla zjištěna pomocí drátkové měrky.

4 ZÁVĚR

Použitelnost výsledků testování je pro soutěž Formula Student dostačující. Použitelnost závěru pro odbornou veřejnost je ovšem diskutabilní, jelikož testování prováděli studenti a ne odborní pracovníci, a záleží na každém čtenáři, zda si z tohoto článku vezme nějaké ponaučení, či nikoliv.

Na testovaných svarech nebyly zjištěny žádné vady a indikace, které by ovlivnily pevnost rámu při zatížení. Doporučení pro tým je zopakovat testování svarů po sezóně. Tyto výsledky následně porovnat s prvním testováním, čímž tým získá konkrétní představu o tom, zda nebyly některé vady přehlédnuty, nebo zda se neprojevily vady ve svarech, které testovány nebyly. Na základě těchto výsledků je pak možné upravit návrh vozidla pro novou sezónu a výsledky je zároveň možné použít jako podklady pro statické disciplíny.

Návrhem je pokračovat ve výrobě rámů technologií TIG i do budoucna a také pokračování spolupráce s firmou ARMATURY Group a.s. Dále jsou týmu Formula TU Ostrava doporučeny NDT zkoušky rámu na všech svarech a také na dalších částech vozidla, např. podvozkových dílech.

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THE CONTRIBUTION TO VIBRATION REDUCTION PROBLEMS IN THE PISTON COMPRESSOR DRIVE

Robert Grega, Matej Urbanský, Peter Kaššay

Abstract

Mechanical systems are complex dynamic systems where each part is a potential vibration exciter. In many countries of the world, standards, laws and guidelines are set to establish the permissible vibration values for different types of machinery and equipment. It is essential that the concrete steps leading to the reduction of vibrations are a combination of several requirements, the fulfillment of which is assured by a systematic process and a combination of disciplines dealing with the theory of vibration, diagnostics, mechatronics, machine parts, environment, hygiene, maintenance.

Key words: *pneumatic coupling, vibrations, compressor drive*

1 INTRODUCTION

The mechanical systems are part of the process of changing, transmitting and dissipation energy. In each such process, a certain amount of energy is converted into oscillating motion - vibration, machinery or individual parts of the machinery [1]. The resulting vibrations have a negative impact on the reliability, durability and safety of mechanical systems [2, 3, 4]. Issues of origin, reduction, elimination of vibrations can not only be a dynamic problem, but it extends to environmental, hygiene, maintenance and technical diagnostics area. The design of vibration limits and the measures to achieve them must be done in such a way as to be feasible. Especially in the field of vibration, zero status can not be achieved in view of the knowledge that is available in the given issue and at the time available [5, 6, 7]. Therefore, in many countries of the world, standards, laws, and guidelines governing the acceptable vibration values of mechanical systems are applied. The limit values defined by the standards do not serve as acceptable technical conditions which must be agreed between the machine manufacturer and the customer. These values, however, can serve as guides to ensuring that there is a gross shortage or unrealistic demands. In certain cases, significant machine-specific properties may be specified where other values of the boundaries of the permissible bands (grows or decreases) should be used. In such cases, it is usually necessary to explain the cause of the change of boundaries and, in this special case, to confirm that a machine with higher oscillation values will not be exposed to the danger of operation [8, 9].

Vibration identification can be used for many purposes, including routine operational monitoring, screening tests, and diagnostic analysis. Based on experience, measurements made on non-rotating parts have been found to be sufficient for many machines to adequately characterize their operating conditions with regard to trouble-free operation. [10, 11]

The vibration of the mechanical system depends on the size of its individual parts, the characteristics of the oscillating body, the structure of machines or the purpose for which the machine was constructed. Necessary parts of each mechanical system are bearings. Almost all machines, irrespective of the type of bearings used, will measure the effective value of the broadband vibration velocity on components such as bearings, in general, adequately characterize the operating conditions with respect to trouble-free operation.

Decreasing vibrations to permissible levels can be effectively ensured by tuning the mechanical system. Mechanical system tuning should be understood as a combination of such

interventions into the mechanical system, which will change its dynamic parameters, in particular to change stiffness and damping [12,13]. On the basis of experimental research and practical realizations, it can be stated that in the area of suitable tuning of torsionally-oscillating mechanical systems, it is now best to use especially flexible shaft couplings. Based on the known facts about the characteristics of the currently used flexible couplings, the volatility of their dynamic properties due to the load, fatigue and aging of their rubber flexible elements, it is preferable to tune the torsionally-oscillating mechanical systems by our pneumatic couplings [14, 15, 16].
The aim of the article is to present some results of the use of a pneumatic flexible coupling in a mechanical compressor drive with an emphasis on the identification of its impact on the vibration value assessed in accordance with ISO 10816 standard.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

The mechanical compressor drive (Fig. 1), on which the influence of the pneumatic flexible coupling on the vibration value was made, consists of a driven electric motor (1), a pneumatic flexible coupling (3), a bearing housing (4) and a three cylinders piston compressor (2).

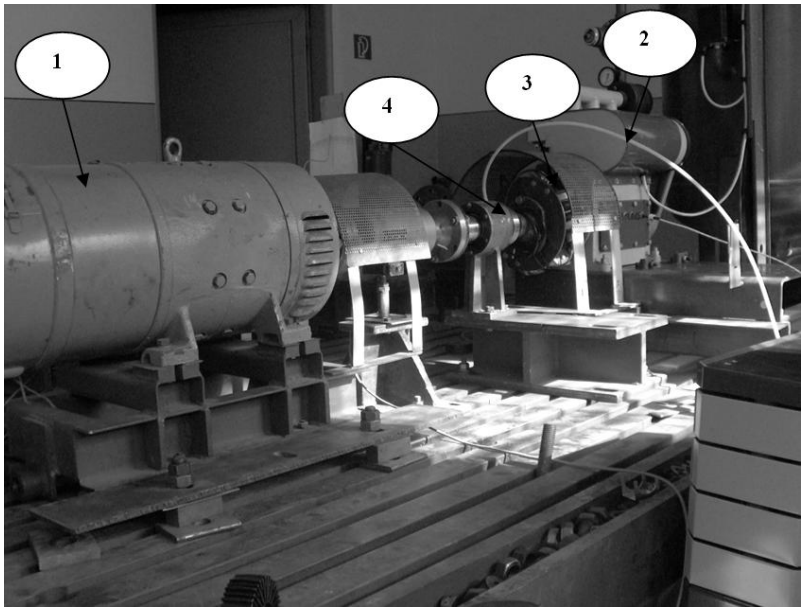

Fig.1. The mechanical compressor drive for experimental measurements

A pneumatic flexible coupling type 4-2 / 70-T-C (Figure 2b) was used in the mechanical compressor drive. The coupling used consisted of four tangentially arranged and interconnected double air spring elements with a diameter of 70mm.

Fig.2. Pneumatic flexible coupling 4-2/70 T-C

Adash's tracking monitoring system with the DDS 2000 analyzer was used in monitoring vibration values. The effective value (RMS) of the vibrations of the mechanical system on the bearing house (4) was monitored.

3 LABORATORY EXPERIMENT

The vibration measurements were performed at 600 rpm mechanical revolutions. In the pneumatic coupling was changed the air pressure from 100 to 600 kPa, still at 100 kPa. The results of the values of the effective vibration values on the bearing house are shown in Table 1.

Table.1. Effective value of vibrations

	The revolve of compressor drive (min^{-1})	**The pressure in coupling (kPa)**	**Effective value of vibrations (mm/s)**
1	600	100	1,62
2	600	200	1,68
3	600	300	1,92
4	600	400	1,90
5	600	500	1,32
6	600	600	1,35

Based on the values of Table 1, we can state that there is a maximum and minimum vibration value in the given mode. This change of vibration and thus the maximum or the minimum value has caused another pressure value in the coupling. Thus, the pneumatic flexible coupling is significantly involved in changing the dynamic properties of the mechanical system.

4 RESULTS AND DISCUTIONS OF EXPERIMENTS

ISO 10816 standard defines general criteria and principles for the evaluation of machine vibrations. The rating criteria apply to operational monitoring and sampling and apply only to oscillation caused by the machine itself and not to the oscillation transmitted from the environment.

When evaluating the oscillation power of different classes of machines, two evaluation criteria are used. The first criterion takes into account the magnitude of the observed

broadband vibrations, the second variation of the oscillation size, regardless of whether it grows or decreases.

In our case, we considered the mechanical compressor drive according to the first criterion. This criterion defines permissible (boundary) absolute vibration values that correspond to acceptable dynamic loadings of bearings and acceptable transmission of oscillation to the bearing structure and the base. The maximum vibration value monitored on each bearing or stand shall be assessed using the four assessment category established on the basis of international experience. The maximum value of the measured vibration is defined as the oscillation power.

The standard defines the following typical rating category that allow a qualitative assessment of the oscillation of the machine and provide guidance on possible measures.

Category A: The oscillation values of new machines can be incorporated into this category.

Category B: Machines whose vibration values are included in this category are commonly intended for unlimited long-term operation.

Category C: Machine with vibration value in this category is considered unsuitable for long-term continuous operation under normal circumstances. These machines can generally be operated within a limited time to a suitable repair opportunity.

Category D: Vibration values in this category are commonly considered to be unacceptable causing damage to the machine.

Individual machines are also included in classes. The investigated mechanical compressor drive falls in Class I. Class I covers single parts of motors and machines integrally connected to the whole machine under normal operating conditions [17]. The vibration values of the investigated mechanical compressor drive with the limits specified in the standard and the assignment of individual bands are in Table 2.

Table.2. Assigning category to the investigated mechanical compressor drive

	The pressure in coupling (kPa)	**Effective value of vibrations (mm/s)**	**Assignment to the category**
1	100	1,62	**B**
2	200	1,68	**B**
3	300	1,92	**C**
4	400	1,90	**C**
5	500	1,32	**B**
6	600	1,35	**B**

It can be seen from Table 2 that by changing the pressure in the pneumatic flexible coupling, its torsional stiffness will change, which is due to the tilting of the system. Such reloading of the system results in a change in vibration size. The tuning of the mechanical system may be so large that it is included in another category of vibration evaluation of the machines.

5 CONCLUSIONS

From the previous parts, the pronounced impact of the pneumatic flexible coupling on vibrations in the mechanical compressor drive is evident. As can be seen, the impact of the pneumatic flexible coupling is so great that if it is mistaken in designing, it may cause the mechanical compressor drive to roll over and the place of insertion into category B, where machines are commonly intended for unlimited long-term operation, we will have a mechanical compressor drive included in category C, under normal circumstances, are

considered to be unsuitable for long-term continuous operation and can generally be operated within a limited timeframe to a suitable repair opportunity.

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THE POSSIBILITIES OF NANOMATERIALS USE IN THE AREA OF TORSIONAL VIBRATIONS TUNING

Robert Grega, Jaroslav Homišin, Matej Urbanský, Peter Kaššay

Abstract

Vibrations arising from mechanical systems have a negative impact on reliability, lifetime and safety of the mechanical systems. Vibration reduction can be achieved also by suitable reconditioning of a mechanical system. By reconditioning of a mechanical system we understand the combination of such interventions in the mechanical system which result in the change of dynamic parameters, above all in the change of dynamic stiffness and damping. From experiments and practical experience, nowadays it can be said that the usage of flexible shaft couplings is optimal in the area of suitable reconditioning of the mechanical systems with torsional vibration.

Key words: *nanomaterials, torsional vibrations, coupling*

1 INTRODUCTION

Mechanical systems and their parts belong to vibration sources. Vibration results in the reduction of technical and environmental value of mechanical systems. In an effort, trying to ensure sustainable development, it is necessary to apply laws, standards, directives and principles also in the area of development, production and utilization of torsionally oscillating mechanical systems [1, 2].

Specific steps leading to the reduction of vibration always combine multiple requests and their task is to minimize vibration and not to damage the human health. Vibration of mechanical system is also an important source of information, especially about the operating state of individual parts of the mechanical system [3, 4].

The ability to excite vibration and the amount of vibrational energy depends primarily on the design of a mechanical system and its individual parts, the shape of the individual parts, the quality of production and the assembly of the individual parts, the wear of the individual parts and the dynamic properties of the individual parts.

In general, it is possible to say that the periodic forces which arise during the operation of a mechanical system are the source of vibration. Their magnitude is influenced by the dynamic characteristics of a transmission path, which are characterized by the mass moment of inertia, stiffness, damping in the parts of a mechanical system. Since vibration is generated by internal or external dynamic forces and varies according to the properties of the transmission path, it is possible to talk about two reasons for vibration:

1. Forced vibration – it is generated by dynamic forces from specific sources,
2. Resonances – they arise in the case that the exciting frequencies matches the system's natural frequencies of vibration. [5, 6]

It is necessary to reduce the forced vibration directly at their source by appropriate interventions. Such interventions can be for example: the change of the valves and pistons masses, the change of the ignition order of individual cylinders, the change of the crankshaft bend angle and so on [7, 8].

The resonance can be effectively avoided by suitable application of a torsional vibration tuner in a mechanical system.

The aim of this article is to introduce the application of new materials in the design of new torsional vibration tuners.

2 CONTINUOUS TUNING OF MECHANICAL SYSTEMS

From the point of view of dynamics, a mechanical system with rotating parts represents the system, which is able to vibrate torsionally.

The intensity of vibration depends mainly on the mutual ratio between the dynamic properties of the natural frequency and the excitation of the system. However, the most distinctive group of torsional vibration exciters is definitely represented by piston machines.

It is possible to minimize torsional vibration by two approaches, the so-called tuning and continuous tuning of a mechanical system [9, 10]. In the case of mechanical system tuning, the proposed parameters of a mechanical system are applied out of the operation of the mechanical system. In the case of continuous tuning of a mechanical system, the torsional vibration tuner parameters (hence the entire mechanical system parameters) are systematically and continuous changed during the operation of the mechanical system. The parameters of a mechanical system can be changed in order to minimize the torsional vibration (and the rectilinear vibration excited by the torsional vibration) as follows:

- by changing the mass moment of inertia,
- by changing the stiffness and damping properties of selected parts of the mechanical system.

At present, the most commonly used way to minimize torsional vibration is the latter. The mechanical system includes a member, the properties of which, in particular stiffness and damping, can be adjusted or influenced. Such part of the mechanical system are the pneumatic flexible shaft couplings, developed by us [11, 12, 13].

The continuous tuning of mechanical systems is the state when the dynamic properties of a mechanical system are changed during its operation so that we achieve the required vibration values. The continuous tuning of mechanical systems, developed by our workplace, is based on following principle – the natural frequency of a mechanical system is suitably adapted to the excitation frequency during the operation of the mechanical system [14, 15, 16]. The continuous tuning of a mechanical system is possible only after the following conditions have been met:

1. the mechanical system must work in a steady state,
2. an element must be applied in the mechanical system, which is able to change the natural frequency of the mechanical system during its operation, i.e. there must be a torsional vibration tuner,
3. there must be a continuous tuning system, i.e. a closed control circuit.

On condition that the mechanical system operates in a steady state, we understand that the working mode of the system does not change at a certain point in time. The second condition can be achieved by applying a pneumatic tuner to the mechanical system. The pneumatic tuner is a pneumatic flexible coupling. It is possible to change the gaseous media pressure in the pneumatic tuner and this is how its dynamic properties, characterized by torsional stiffness and damping coefficient, can be changed. The third condition of mechanical systems continuous tuning is based on the condition of the existence of a closed control circuit. The closed control circuit is a system, which ensures the continuous tuning of the mechanical system. Information about pneumatic tuners and tuning systems which have been developed at our workplace is published in many scientific outputs [17], [18], [19], [20], [21], [22], [23]

24], [25], [26], [27]. Therefore, our intention is to pay special attention to the new trend in the area of mechanical systems continuous tuning.

3 THE DESIGN OF TORSIONAL VIBRATION TUNERS WITH THE USAGE OF NANOMATERIALS

Nanotechnology is the term for design, production and utilization of structure, devices and systems, the size of which falls into the range of nanometres. Interestingly, the nanotechnology is usually associated with applications for biomedicine, telecommunications and military purposes. In the context of these applications, we do not even realize that we have been using nanomaterials such as cement in everyday practice for many decades.

The preparation methods of nanomaterials can be divided according to production method of nanomaterials into two groups:

1. Bottom-up group: The desired structure of nanomaterials is created by joining individual atoms.
2. Top-down group: Nanomaterials are synthesized by gradual separation of larger massive particles.

It is desirable to use nanomaterials in the form of nanocomposites. The nanocomposites are polymers composed of nanoparticles. The nanoparticles are particle, which have at least one dimension at the nanometric scale. Depending on dispersed particles character, 3 types of nanocomposites are known. The first group includes, for example, the spatial structure of quartz, nanoparticles of metals dispersed e.g. in the aquatic environment or clusters of their atoms immobilized on the surface of conventional adsorbents, but also fullerenes discovered in the 1980s of the 20th century. The fullerene is the third allotropic modification of carbon after graphite and diamond. It consists the most often of 60 carbon atoms in the shape of hollow soccer ball the size of 1 nm).

The second group includes nanofibers (2 dimensions in nanometric size and the third dimension creates a large longitudinal structure such as carbon tubes or cellulose fibres, which are intensively studied due to their exceptional properties used in the area of materials reinforcement).

The third type of nanocomposites is characterized by only one nanometric dimension. In this case, the materials are formed as layers with nanometric thickness (polymeric layered crystalline nanocomposites, e.g. modified zeolites) [28].

The first group of nanocomposites also includes magnetic fluid. Magnetic fluid is a stable colloidal suspension of microscopic magnetic particles uniformly dispersed throughout the volume of a liquid carrier. Magnetic fluid consists of three components:

- magnetic material: Co, Fe_2O_3, Fe_3O_4, $MnFeO_2$ ...
- carrier fluid: water, oil, ...
- surfactant, which is oleic acid, sodium oleate - (it is a humectant that reduces the surface tension of liquids. It allows easier penetration and a smaller interfacial tension between liquids).

Magnetic fluids are more and more used, especially in the field of biomedicine, but considering their properties, they can also be used in other areas. Our goal is to apply magnetic fluids in torsional vibration tuners. For this purpose, two new types of flexible shaft couplings have been designed and patented at our workplace.

The first type is „Pneumatic shaft coupling with hydraulic chambers [29] – Fig. 1“, which is made up of a driving part (1), driven part (2), compression space (3) and hydraulic chamber (5) filled with magnetic fluid. It is possible to control the density of the magnetic fluid by magnetic field, what results in the change of the coupling properties and therefore in the change of the properties of whole mechanical system.

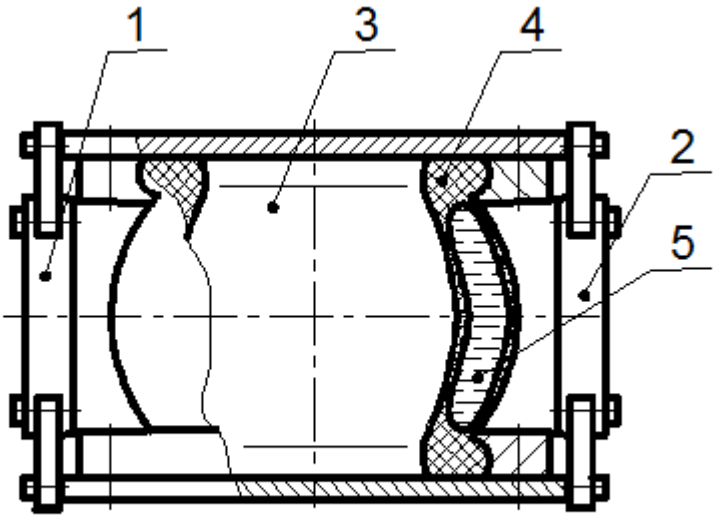

Fig. 1. Pneumatic shaft coupling with hydraulic chambers

The second type is: "Pneumatic axial coupling with damping chamber [30] - Fig. 2". Its compression space is divided into halves by a damping chamber. The damping chamber is made up of an upper rigid case (6), lower rigid case (5), movable throttle piston (3) and magnetic fluid as the filling of the chamber. By the magnetic fluid flow through the holes in the movable throttle piston and influencing properties of the magnetic fluid, the change of coupling properties, in this case particularly the change of its damping will be ensured, resulting in the change of the properties of whole mechanical system.

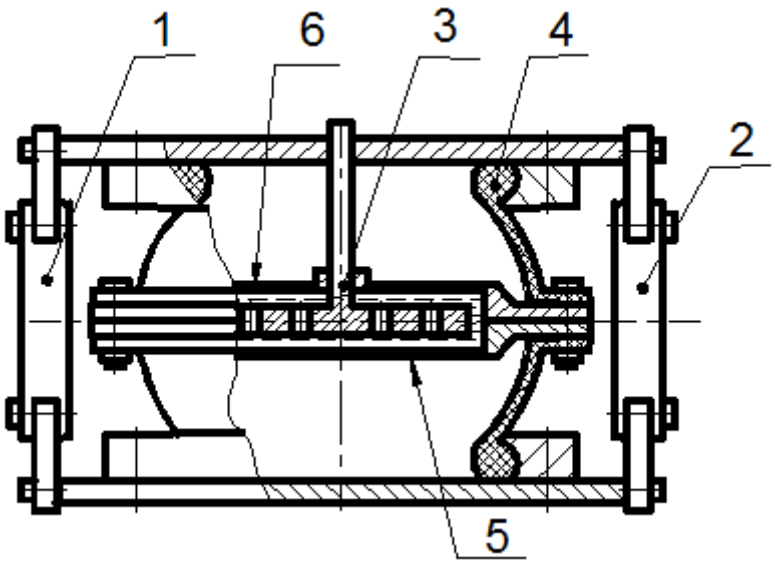

Fig. 2. Pneumatic axial coupling with damping chamber

4 CONCLUSION

At our workplace we deal in long term with development of torsional vibration tuners and mainly with pneumatic torsional vibration tuners, the tuning ability of which is ensured by changing the air pressure in their compression space. Our effort is also to develop other types of tuners, the tuning properties of which could be provided in a different way than current solutions. Therefore, we have decided to use a magnetic fluid as the tuning medium. Its properties can be influenced by the intensity of a magnetic field. For this purpose, two new types of torsional vibration tuners were designed at our workplace. Our further research will be oriented around the determination of the basic characteristic properties of given tuners and the verification of their suitability for the torsionally oscillating mechanical systems tuning.

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LOCALIZATION AND PATH PLANING IN OPEN STREET MAP

Martina Dekanová, František Duchoň, Peter Pásztó, Michal Adamík

Abstract

This paper deals with path planning algorithms used in mobile robot navigation and robot localization method is shortly described. The position of mobile robot is estimated by GNSS measurements. This position is then used for localization of mobile robot in a known map. The road map is obtained from Open Street Map. This map can be considered as a weighted graph. On this graph, two different path planning methods are applied: A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm. These algorithms are compared at the end of this paper.

Key words: *Open Street Map, Path Planning, Dijkstra's algorithm, A* algorithm, GNSS Localization, Mobile Robot*

1 INTRODUCTION

In the past decades, different conventional methods for localization and path planning in different environments have been developed. Robot path planning is an important area of research in robotics and artificial intelligence. Path planning is a task to create a collision free path that mobile robot will make between starting point and goal in known obstacles environment. [1] There exist many different path planning methods each suitable for different environments and maps. [1] In this paper we will be using road map, which consist of roads from Open Street Map. Our environment is static with known position of obstacles.

The paper is organized in three sections. First section describes theory of used algorithms. In the second section is described practical part of our work and in the last section are results and conclusion.

2 THEORETICAL BACKROUND

In the following section, theory of all used algorithms is described. This part is divided in two parts: Localization and Path Planning.

2.1. Mobile Robot Localization

For localization the GNSS measurements are used which are preprocessed by Kalman filter. Kalman filter is a recursive filter which means that all previous measurements are incorporated in the last filtered measurement. Kalman filter theory which was used in our work is described in [2][3][4][5].

When the mobile robot is moving on a certain path, algorithm determines on which road robot is located. The problem is when a robot moves through a crossroad. In this situation algorithm works with hypothesis that robot can be on multiple roads. For this reason parameter – road probability is added. This parameter asses the chance that robot is moving on a certain road. This multiple hypothesis solution is solved based on fuzzy logic. Fuzzy logic theory of our algorithm is described in [4].

In the map roads have different lengths. When the mobile robot is localized on a specific road there is no exact position. Due to this, particle filter is applied to determine probable position on road which robot is moving. Particle filter theory which was used in our work is described in [3][6].

2.2. Path Planning

Path planning finds the best path or the shortest path between two points. Many different methods of path planning exist. [7][8] In our application we use a road map, which can be considered as weighted graph. Typically for weighted graph algorithms as Dijkstra's algorithm and A* algorithm or their variations are used. [9][10][11]

Dijkstra's algorithm computes all shortest paths from a given starting node in a fully connected graph. This algorithm requires information about distance between all connected nodes in graph. [7]

Dijkstra's algorithm [7]:

- Set start distance to 0.
- Do this in Loop until all nodes are READY:
  - Select node n which shortest distance is not in READY set.
  - FOR each neighbor node m of n

IF distance[n]+edge(n,m)<distance[m] – shortest path find
THEN distance[m]=distance[n]+edge(n,m);
Predecessor[m]=n;

Necessary condition for Dijkstra's algorithm is that edge between two nodes must be a positive number. In figure 1 and in table I is solution for Dijkstra's algorithm.

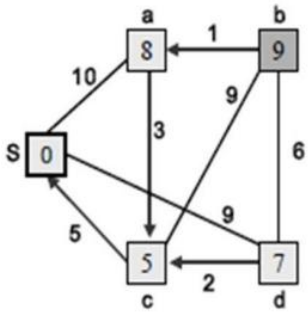

Figure 1: Dijkstra's algorithm - nodes with distance [7]

From s to:	S	a	b	c	d
Distance	0	8	9	5	7
Predecessor	-	c	a	s	c

Table I: Dijkstra's algorithm - numerical solution [7]

A* algorithm computes the shortest path from one given start node to one given goal node. This algorithm requires parameters/inputs such as distance between all connected nodes and lower bound of distance to goal from each node. Typically it is air-line or linear distance between node and goal node. [7]

A* algorithm [7]:

1. From actual node compute distance + estimate of remaining distance to goal to each connected node.
2. Choose node with shortest distance.
3. IF this is not goal node THEN go to 1.

The quality/precision of the lower bound goal distance from each node influences the computation demands of the algorithm. Shorter execution time is when the lower bound goal distance is closer to the true distance from node to goal node.
In figure 2 and table II is solution for A* algorithm in the same map as Dijkstra's algorithm.

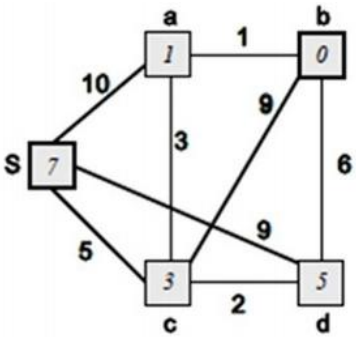

Figure 2: A* algorithm - nodes with distance and lower bound goal distance [7]

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Distance	{S,a}=10+1=11	**{S,c,a}=5+3+1=9**	{S,c,a,b}=5+3+1+0=9
	{S,c}=5+3=8	{S,c,b}=5+9+0=14	-
	{S,d}=9+5=14	{S,c,d}=5+2+5=12	-

Table II: A* algorithm - numerical solution [7]

3 ALGORITHM

In the following section, the basic principles of proposed localization algorithm and path planning algorithm are described. The map where the mobile robot is localized is created from source obtained from Open Street Map.

3.1. Mobile Robot Localization

At first probability rating for each road is determined. This value describes odds that the mobile robot is located on the road. The probability is determined as a fuzzy function of the distance between GNSS position and its projection on the road. The function is determined on the basis of experimental measurements under different conditions. Fuzzy membership function is based on [4]:

- precision of the sensor,
- shortest distance between filtered position,
- and the road and HDOP information from GGA sentence.

Secondly we use particle filter algorithm which is shown in figure 3 on roads with probability rating higher than 0.5.

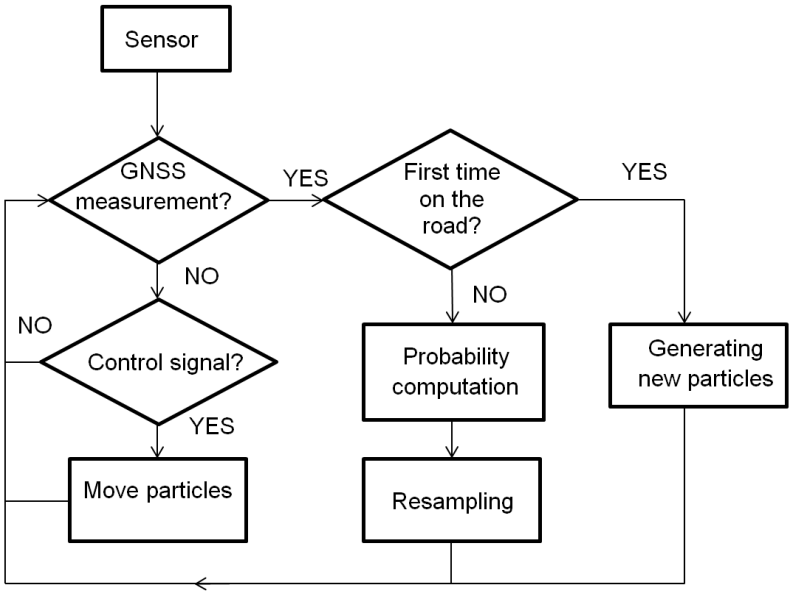

Figure 3: Particle filter algorithm [4]

The result of this algorithm is possible mobile robot location on the road. The localization algorithm is described in detail in our previous work [xx]. Verification of experimental test of localization algorithm is described in [4]. Result of this localization algorithm is in figure 4.

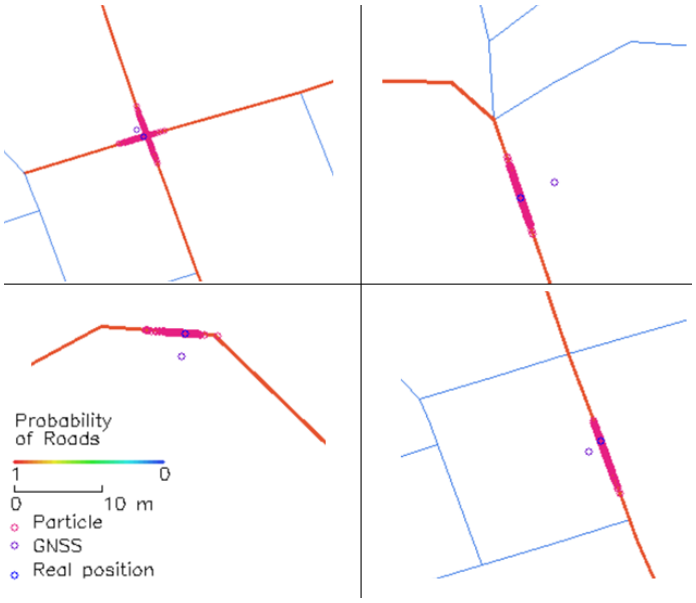

Figure 4: Results of localization algorithm [4]

The position from localization algorithm is input value to path planning algorithm. Center of gravity (CoG) of particles is taken as starting position for path planning algorithm. When this position is not in an existing node of road map, the road is split at this point. When it is not divided path planning algorithm can find longer path as is the shortest path to the goal from actual position.

3.2. Path Planning

As mention above the starting position for path planning algorithm is CoG of particles. Path planning algorithm starts in two situations:

- When the first position of mobile robot is determined.
- When mobile robot position is determined on another road than the path is calculated.

Both path planning algorithms mentioned requires input the distance between each connected node. Nodes position is in WGS84 coordinates system (longitude, latitude). Distance between nodes is calculated in kilometers by equation:

Distance (A, B) = 6378 * acos (cos (LatA) * cos (LatB) * cos (LngB - LngA) + sin (LatA) * sin (LatB))

Where latitude and longitude must be in radians, value 6378 is diameter of the Earth in kilometers according to WGS84 system.
In A* algorithm lower bound goal distance is calculated by the same equation as distance between two nodes. This distance is calculated from each node in map to the goal node.
More than 30 experiments were made on the road map. Both algorithms were used in experiments with different starting robot position like starting node, ending node and also between nodes in different distance from starting node. In 8 experiments recalculation of planned path was necessary, because robot was moving on different road as firstly localization algorithm determined. In next figure are shown some results computed by our algorithm.
In figure 5 is result for Dijkstra's algorithm and for A* algorithm. For this starting position and goal position is result same for both algorithms.

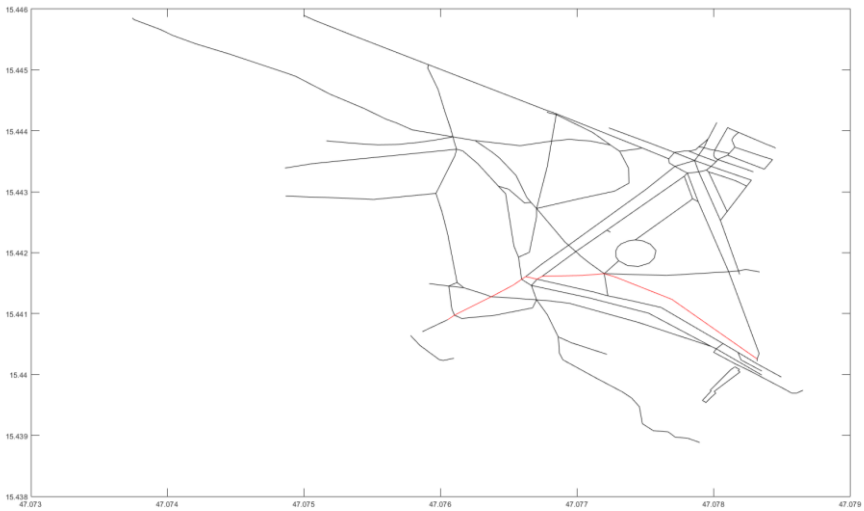

Figure 5: Result for A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm with the same results

In figure 6 are results for both algorithms. In this situation A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm has different results.

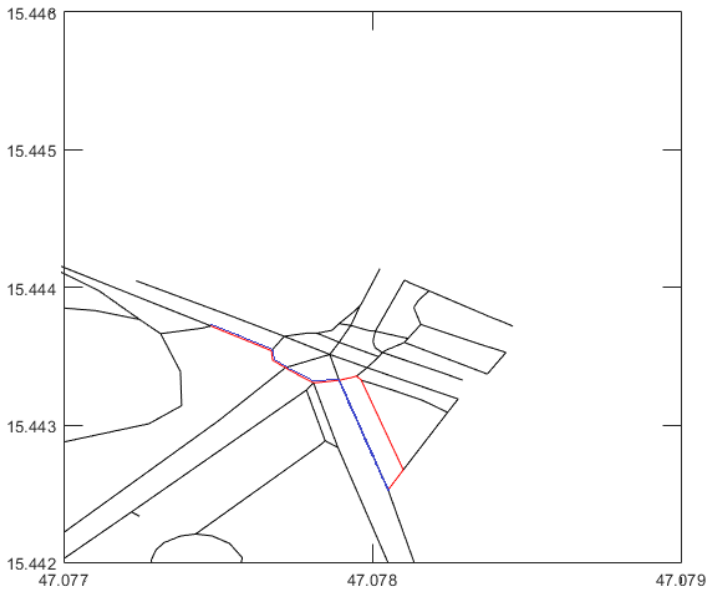

Figure 6: Result for A* algorithm (red) and Dijkstra's algorithm (blue) with different results

4 CONCLUSION

In this paper results of GNSS positioning and road identification with particle filter are used as actual mobile robot position for path planning in road map. In the introduction localization was described. Afterwards, used path planning theory was described. In the next section localization algorithm was shortly described and used path planning algorithm is described. At the end results of A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm were shown and described. In our experiments A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm have comparable time for path calculation. A* algorithm was slightly faster. 3 planned paths from actual position to goal position were different for A* algorithm and Dijkstra's algorithm. In figure 6 is one of these paths. Dijkstra's algorithm (blue) has shorter path than A* algorithm. It is caused by method of calculation. In our situation we choose Dijkstra's algorithm, because calculation speed are similar for both algorithms and Dijkstra's can find better path to the goal. When we will be navigating robot through bigger area A* algorithm can be better, because calculation will be faster than Dijkstra's algorithm.

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IMPLEMENTING ECG ON FPGA BOARD

Ivan Klimo, Peter Drahoš, Michal Kocúr

Abstract

FPGA – field programmable gate arrays are penetrating almost all industries and are subject to extensive research. Their strengths are natural parallelism, high performance and cost effectiveness. FPGA are often implemented as Systems on Chip (SoC). This paper focuses on FPGA-based processing of the ECG signal with regard to safety using natural FPGA parallelization in the design and realization of individual channels and filters. The ECG is just for monitoring purposes.

Key words: *FPGA, VHDL, Filtering, ECG, signal processing*

1 INTRODUCTION

The ECG measures electrical signal generated by the heart between different spots of a human body. The pacemaker of the heart is sinoatrial (SA), or sinus node. This sends signal to other muscles in the heart so they can contract. Electric current passes then through the atria to the atrioventricular node (AV). Through the AV node the signal continues to ventricles - the major pumping chamber. Then it passes through a tissue called Bundle of His, the Bundle then divides into the right and the left bundle branches and these are extended into the right and the left ventricles. The signal then spreads to the fibers which signal muscles of ventricles causing them to contract, which results in pumping blood into arteries. If we consider a normal, calm state of a person, this happens every second, or 60 times per minute [3, 7].

In Fig. 1, we can see the whole measuring complex where analogue and digital parts are shown. The digital part can be implemented in a Digital Signal Processor (DSP), FPGA, or as a SoC where both DSP and FPGA can take a part of the calculation. In this paper we focus purely on FPGA implementation with the emphasis of advantages of a parallel processing.

2 ECG MEASUREMENT

The analogue part begins with a differential amplifier INA128, where Driven Right Leg (DRL) is presented as well; its main purpose is to filter noises such as the ubiquitous 50 Hz frequency. At the output of the analogue part is overall gain 1025,76. Even with a gain over 1000, the signal may not be strong enough for measuring because of skin impedance, therefore ECG gel and electrodes are used. ECG can be measured and processed offline [6] which requires additional steps to process the signal, or online, where we depend on hardware and software and where the minimum delay is needed.

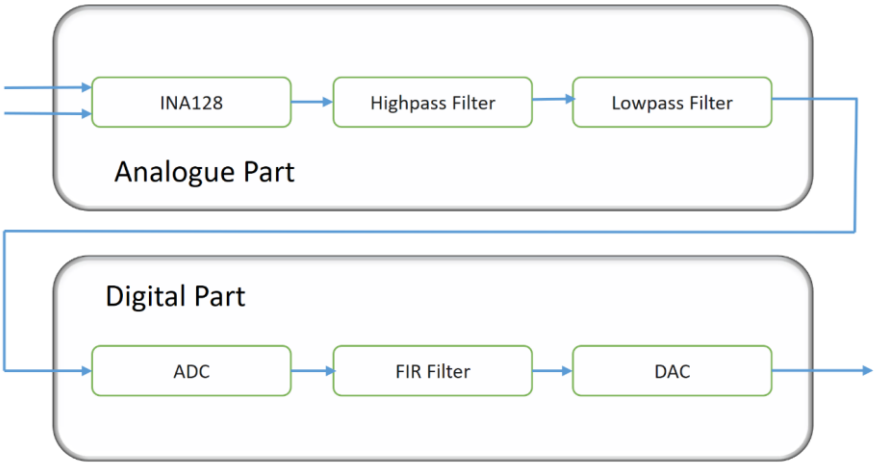

Fig. 1. Measuring path of the ECG device.

2.1 Analogue Filters

Analogue filters may be a minimal requirement for constructing ECG signal. We can design analogue filters of higher orders so that no more filtering is required. This decision might not be always the best. Analogue filters are needed in order to filter potentially dangerous offset which can be created by differential potential of two electrodes. To avoid such unwanted potential, we deploy high-pass filter with cut-off frequency 0,05 Hz. In our case, a CR passive filter has been deployed for this purpose.

The signal itself has to be amplified, so Analogue to Digital Converter (ADC) resolution will be used fully. A 3,3V 12 bit ADC will be used. With that in mind, an additional low-pass filter has been designed to avoid aliasing. This low-pass filter is an active filter with a band-pass frequency 1000 Hz and a band-stop frequency 10000 Hz and an attenuation of -40 dB [4].

2.2 Digital Filters

Digital filters can be classified into two categories: Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filters and Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) filters. FIR filters have a constant group delay and a linear phase frequency characteristics is expected. FIR filters do not have analogue equivalents and are always stable.

Unlike FIR, IIR filters have much smaller order and memory requirements for coefficients. However, their disadvantages are: they can be unstable as there is no direct feedback between their input and output, much higher necessity for quantization, and lesser usability with adaptive processing. Because a required order for IIR is much lower compared with FIR filters, they have also smaller delay [2].

2.3 ECG waveform

In Fig. 2 we can see typical representation of an ECG signal. The European norm for ECG measurement is IEC60610. The norm itself does not state specific coefficients for filters but rather a series of tests, where signal reconstruction is watched. Some authors state [1, 2, 3, 4, 7] that a bandwidth necessary for such tests is 0,05 – 500 Hz.

The QRS complex does not need to have always the same shape. It depends on how the electrodes are placed and how good is the contact between electrodes and the skin. The different shape does not need to indicate, that the patient is ill. Measurement of biosignals is considered as open system measurement, where many variables are needed to be taken into account, e.g. mental health, physical health, date, time… all these can make each

measurement unique and therefore hard to reproduce. The signal is mostly measured and can be differently filtered and displayed depending on its use.

The monitoring device per se does not require such a precise measurement. This may result in a signal being strongly filtered or having some superimposed noises. For such devices a specific IEC norm has to be used. Therefore, depending on use we can design different filters and deploy different methods for the same measured signal.

The “U” wave in Fig. 2 is not present in the normal cases and mostly indicates complications.

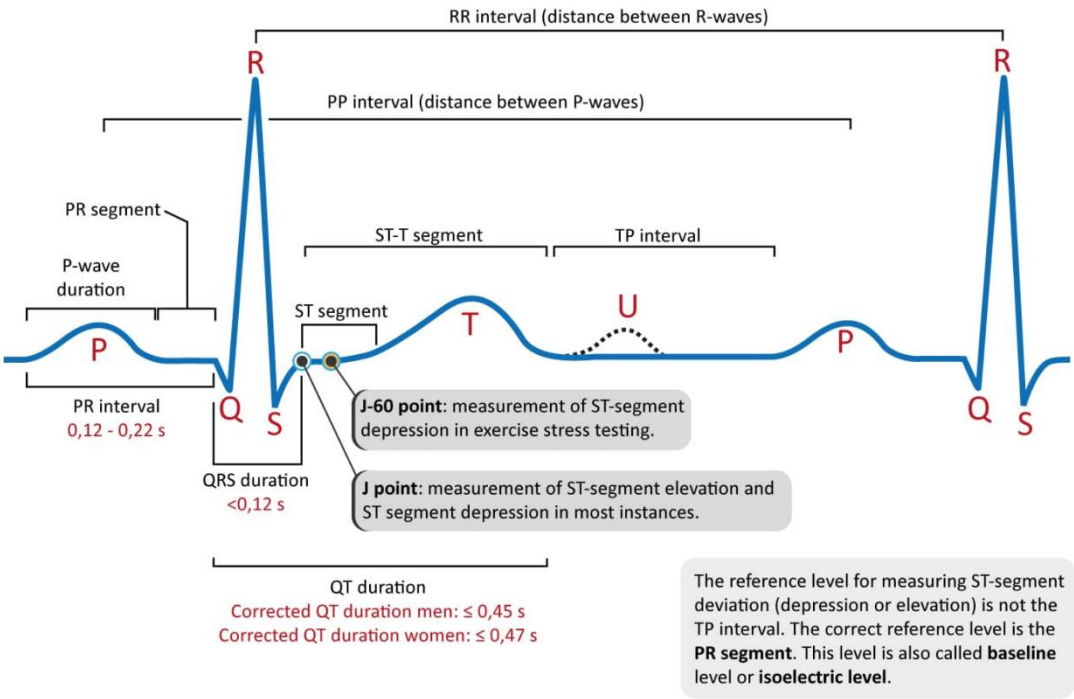

Fig. 2. The most common waveform of ECG signal [8].

3 NEXYS 4 FPGA BOARD

The FPGA use HDL (Hardware Description Language), which research was initiated by the American Ministry of Defense. Now, FPGA is part of the IEEE Std 1076-1987 and IEEE Std 1076-1993 standards. FPGA consists of logical blocks, I/O blocks and interconnections. FPGA has more layers of abstractions: Behavioral – describes logical function of a circuit, Data Flow – describes how a signal spreads throughout the circuit, and Structural – logical function is given for each input and output.

FPGA software like Vivado, LiberoIde or Quartus have their own simulation sub-systems allowing to check up your own work to some degree. There are multiple levels of simulation: 1. Simulation – the least precise, but the quickest; it checks the syntax and logical function of the circuit. 2. Simulation after Synthesis – more precise and considering delays of gates. 3.Time Simulation – the most precise, considering links, all parts have to be already distributed [9].

Unlike most program languages, like C or Assembler, VHDL is naturally parallel. This means all commands are executed simultaneously. This gives opportunity for naturally parallel systems to be implemented with ease. FPGA are implemented in many areas of automotive and automation as their high-speed parallel data processing is very competitive. Nowadays,

they can be found in car sensors, cameras or inside of bigger devices where difficult codes or multiple signals are to be quickly transmitted or received.

The Nexys 4 board is a complete, ready-to-use digital circuit development platform based on the latest Artix®-7 Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) from Xilinx®. The Artix-7 FPGA is optimized for high performance logic and offers more capacity, higher performance, and more resources than earlier designs. With its large, high-capacity FPGA (Xilinx part number XC7A100T-1CSG324C), generous external memories, and collection of USB, Ethernet, and other ports, the Nexys 4 can host designs ranging from introductory combinational circuits to powerful embedded processors. Several built-in peripherals, including an accelerometer, temperature sensor, MEMs digital microphone, speaker amplifier, and several I/O devices allow the Nexys 4 to be used for a wide range of designs without needing any other components. The board features: Xilinx Artix-7 FPGA XC7A100T-1CSG324C; 15.850 logic slices, each with four 6-input LUTs and 8 flip-flops , 4.860 Kbits of fast block RAM, Six clock management tiles, each with phase-locked loop (PLL) , 240 DSP slices, Internal clock speeds exceeding 450 MHz, On-chip analog-to-digital converter (XADC), 16Mbyte Cellular RAM, Serial flash, Digilent USB-JTAG port for FPGA programming and communication, microSD card connector, Ships with rugged plastic case and USB cable, USB-UART Bridge, 10/100 Ethernet PHY, PWM audio output, 3-axis accelerometer, 16 user switches, 16 user LEDs, Two tri-color LEDs, PDM microphone, Temperature sensor, Two 4-digit 7-segment displays, USB HID host for mice, keyboards, and memory sticks, Pmod for XADC signals, Four Pmod ports, 12-bit VGA output [5].

4 IMPLEMENTATION

ECG signal measurement is realized by sampling the analogue signal and then displaying it via medium. As stated before, Nexys 4 is a digital system, therefore an Analogue to Digital Converter is needed. The ADC has been implemented as a state machine running at 10 MHz frequency, the sampling frequency is 24 kHz. The state machine has to be slower than the input clock, hence the clock signal is set to be much quicker than the sampling frequency 10 MHz. It was experimentally proven that the state machine will not be called before it finishes processing. The Register Transfer Level (RTL) scheme of our design is shown in Fig. 3.

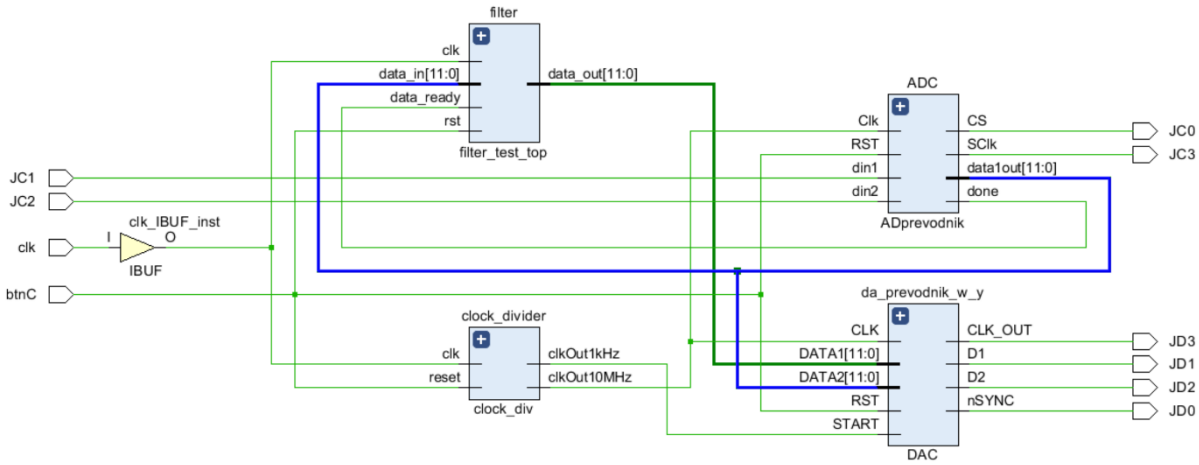

Fig. 3. RTL design done in Vivado.

4.1 Digital to Analogue Converter (DAC)

The DAC is realized differently from the ADC. The input ports are a 100 MHz clock and an asynchronous reset button along with the data to be serially shifted in the 2 DAC121S101

chips on a DA2 Pmod on each clock cycle. There is also a signal to start a conversion. The outputs of this entity are: an output clock signal, two serial output signals D1 and D2, a sync signal to synchronize the data in the DAC121S101 chip, a done signal to tell that the chip is done converting the data and another set of data can be sent.

4.2 Analogue to Digital Converter (ADC)

For ADC we are using 2 channel ADC PMod. The code itself will work with 4 channel PMod ADC as well, only the new channels have to be added. This is one of big advantages of VHDL, where adding new channels does not require additional registers and timers and therefor no work with datasheet or major intervention with code. Nexys 4 has 4 PMoD slots, and one additional PMod where XADC is being hold. With this, one can create a 16 channel ECG without any difficulty.

As seen in Fig. 3, output of the analogue part is wired on JC1 and JC2. The signal is converted and then wired to the filter and at the same time to the DAC. In this way, we can compare two signals measured at the same time by the same subject. More than one type of filter can be deployed at the same time; this is where FPGA natural parallelism takes lead compared with normal DSPs.

4.3 FIR Filter

Vivado has libraries where the FIR filter, the so called FIR compiler can be used. It provides a quick way to implement FIR filter and quickens development time. The FIR compiler provides the option of choosing filter types such as: Single Rate, Decimal, Interpolation, Hilbert or Interpolated. Each of these filters has different responses, pros and cons. For simplicity we have chosen the Single Rate filter with parameters calculated in MatLab. The magnitude response can be seen in Fig. 4.

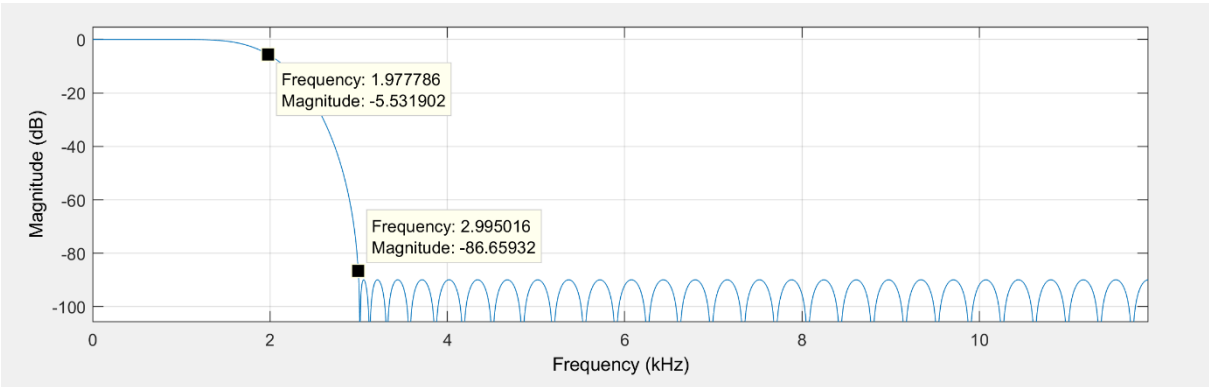

Fig. 4. Magnitude response of a FIR filter of 64th order designed via MatLab.

The following filter parameters were set: sample frequency 24 kHz, band pass 1 kHz, band stop 3 kHz, order of 64.

Then, the coefficients were generated and Vivado offered coefficients files which can be binary, decimal or hexadecimal numbers, quantized with a specified accuracy, or put as a vector of integer numbers. These coefficients were normalized and entered as the vector of coefficients.

Fig. 5 depicts the systolic multiple-accumulate architecture of a Single Rate FIR filter. Its main feature is that the input sample rate is the same as the output one.

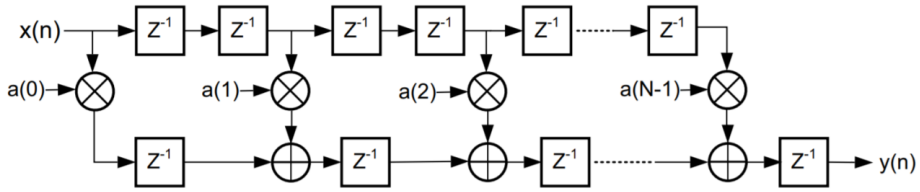

Fig. 5. Principle of direct form of FIR, pipelined.

5 RESULTS

The measured signal is shown in Fig. 6. Red plot represents the filtered signal, and the blue plot is the raw signal. Although we have implemented a FIR filter of 64th order the delay caused by our implementation is not visible, still there is some. The measured frequency of oscillations is 50 Hz (Fig. 7); although the DRL serves for filtering such frequencies, it is not completely possible to filter it out and in many applications a band stop filter has to be deployed. However, for monitoring purpose this should not be a problem and therefore no such step was taken. The last two figures show total on-board utilization and power consumption.

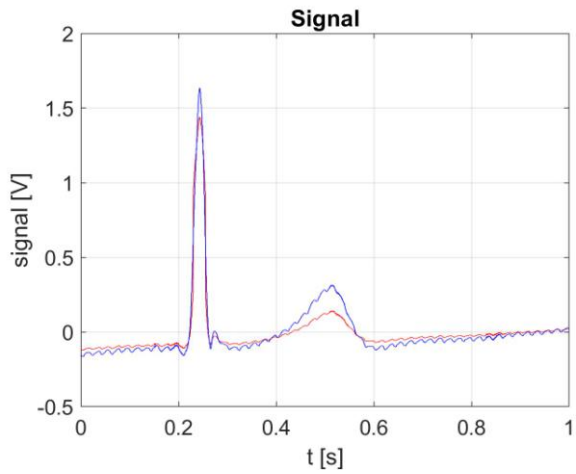

Fig. 6. Measured filtered (red) and not filtered (blue) signal.

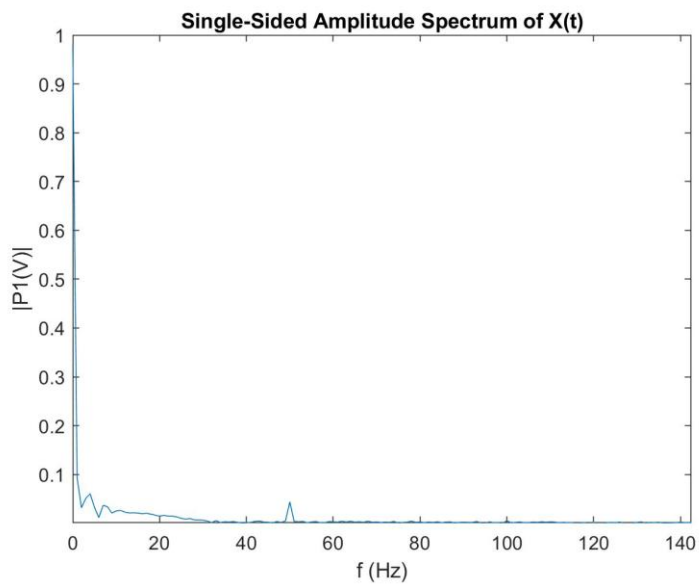

Fig. 7. Spectrum of filtered signal (zoomed on 50 Hz).

Although the device was not connected to the electrical network and the DRL was used, the 50 Hz frequency is still superimposed to our signal. The measurements were realized in a laboratory with several devices running and the subject under measurement was around 2 m away from the electrical network. The 50 Hz frequency is commonly measured by precise measuring devices.

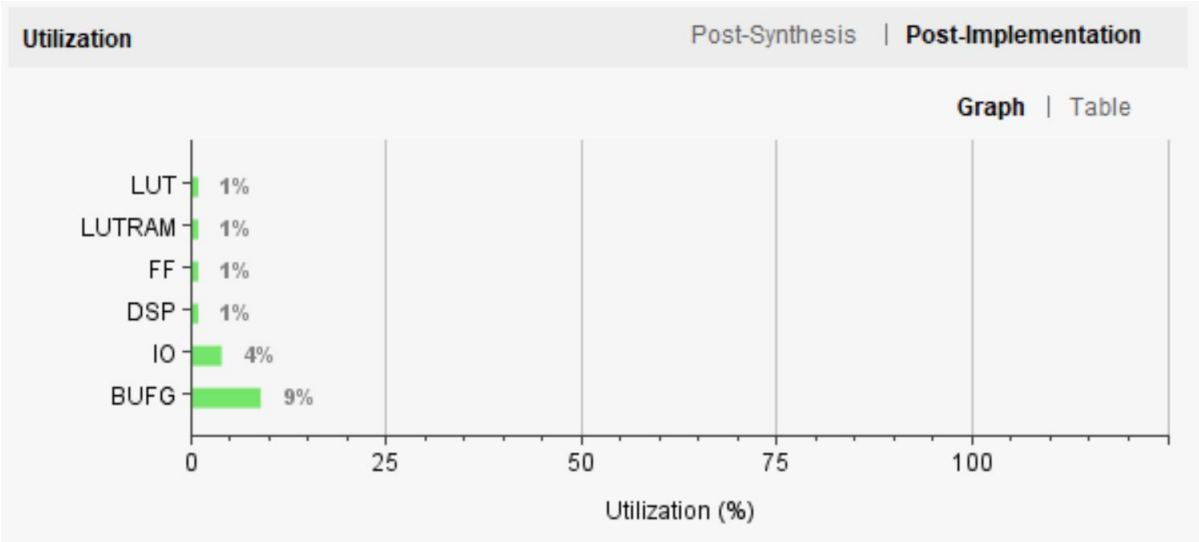

Fig. 8. Total utilization of FPGA after implementation.

The hardware components presented in Section 3 are described in Fig. 8.

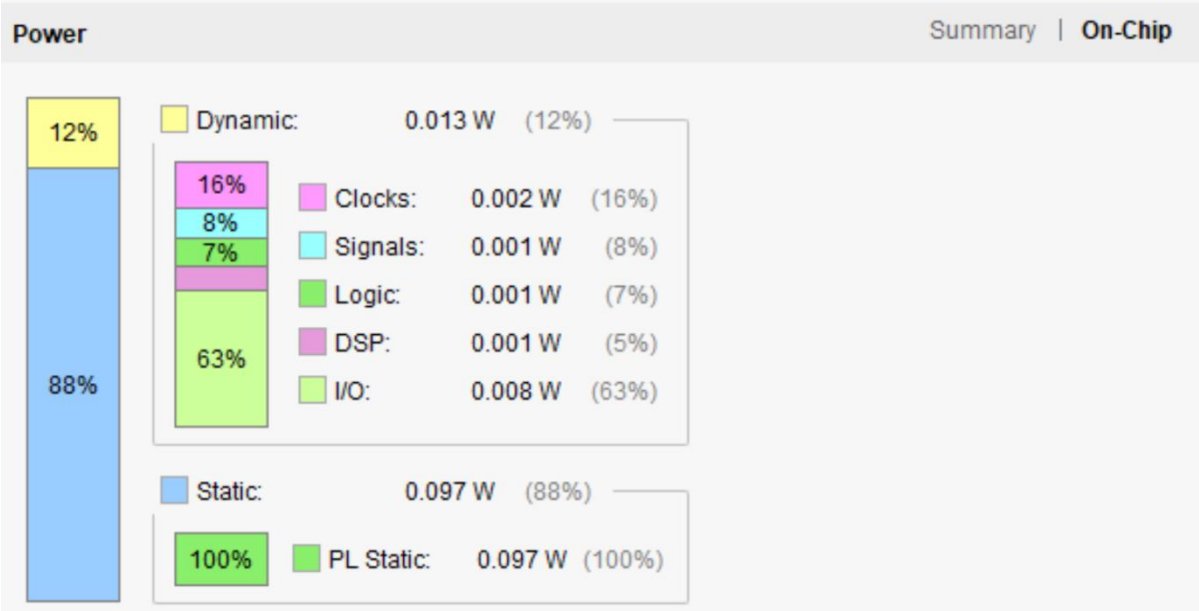

Fig. 9. Total on-chip power consumption.

6 CONCLUSION

In this paper we have implemented an ECG into a FPGA board. The whole system consisted of analogue filters and amplifiers for necessary safety. The signal was digitized and rooted to two channels, one of them with a FIR filter. Thus, the measurement was taken at the same time for a better comparison. There was a minimal (43 cycles) delay between these two channels.

The FIR filter was designed and tested in MatLab and afterwards implemented into the FPGA through catalogue. The noise presented in the measured data consisted mostly of 50 Hz frequency and its harmonic frequencies.

The result of implementation indicates that there is enough space for additional channels, as well as the fact, that implementing 2 channels does not mean increasing hardware requirements twice. Hence, by implementing more channels one can save both energy and place. It is also possible to implement two different filters simultaneously, to display filtered signals and compare their pros and cons. This can be used to design new cost-effective devices.

In the medical industry, the trend is to reduce power consumption as much as possible. Every electrical device plugged in electrical network poses a threat which has to be considered and therefore an additional safety measures are required. With low on-board consumption, FPGA are much more effective compared with DSPs. Upgrading design, keeping up with changing norms and other safety measures are the greatest advantages brought about by FPGA. With such a small power consumption as in case of our design the system can be run from a battery or a notebook, which may be important during crises, where resources and mobility are needed. Similar measurement results can be obtained also using just analogue filters, however the design is unchangeable and the power consumption will be much higher.

Acknowledgement
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FILOSOFIE, DĚJINY, PRÁVO

PHILOSOPHY, HISTORY, LAW

QUAERE

KOMPARATÍVNA ANALÝZA AUTORITATÍVNYCH REŽIMOV NA IBERSKOM POLOSTROVE

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS AUTHORITATIVE MODES OF IBERIAN PENINSULA

Rastislav Pirkovský

Abstrakt

Fašizmus ako ideológia vychádzala z antiracionalizmu, pričom práve fašisti koncipovali najradikálnejšie formy protiosvietenského myslenia. Poukazuje na prirodzené rozdiely medzi ľuďmi, čím sa vylučuje rovnosť a propaguje sa vodcovský princíp a elitárstvo. Spočiatku fašistické prvky zakotvovala najmä nacionalistická Falanga s pravicovým charakterom, tá sa však počas etablovania frankizmu pretransformovala do Národného hnutia. No napriek tomu, že Francove Španielsko obsahovalo mieru totalitarizmu, nemôžeme ho označiť za fašistické ani komunistické. Na základe tohto stanoviska dochádzame k záveru, že absencia fašistických prvkov v Salazarovom Portugalsku potvrdzuje časť hypotézy, avšak skutočnosť nemožnosti označenia Francovho Španielska za fašistické stanovenú časť hypotézy vyvracia. Oba režimy teda možno zaradiť k typológii autoritatívnych režimov. Absencia vypracovanej a vodcovskej ideológie, ale existencia typickej mentality, je druhým charakteristickým znakom autoritatívnych režimov. Ideológiu môžeme definovať ako myšlienkový obsah, pričom pri mentalite ide o myšlienkový postoj.

Kľúčové slova: *fašizmus, frankizmus, vodcovská ideológia*

Abstract

Fascism, as an ideology, was based on anti-rationalism, with fascists conceptualizing the most radical forms of anti-spiritual thinking. It points to natural differences between people, which excludes equality and promotes the leadership principle and elitism. Initially, the fascist elements were grounded by the nationalist Falanga with a right-wing character, but during the establishment of Frankish it was transformed into the National Movement. However, despite the fact that Francis Spain contained the measure of totalitarianism, we can not call it fascist or communist. On the basis of this opinion, we conclude that the absence of fascist elements in Salazar Portugal confirms part of the hypothesis, but the fact of failing to designate Franco Spain as a defunct part of the hypothesis will rebut. Both modes can therefore be classified as authoritarian modes. The absence of a developed and leadership ideology, but the existence of a typical mentality, is the second characteristic feature of authoritarian regimes. Ideology can be defined as thought content, with mentality as a thought-based attitude.

Key words: *fascism, frankism, leadership ideology*

1 TYPOLÓGIA NEDEMOKRATICKÝCH POLITICKÝCH SYSTÉMOV

Celé dejiny ľudstva sú poznačené ideológiami, ktoré číhajú v rôznych oblastech jednotlivých štruktúr. Či už ide o oblasť náboženstva, politiky alebo iných procesov. V politickom význame možno o jadre ideológie hovoriť ako o neoprávnenom premiestnení náboženského motívu do politiky, z čoho vyplýva, že je dedičným hriechom moderného poňatia politiky.[1]

[1] LEVY, D.J. 1993. *Politický řád*. Praha: Sociologickí nakladatelství, 1993. s. 124

Jej revolučný charakter spočíva v snahe oslobodenia spoločnosti od tlaku politickej moci, cieľom je nahradiť politický poriadok, pričom nepravdivo sľubuje nové podmienky a tak podkopáva potrebu politiky ako nevyhnutnosti.

Nedemokratické systémy spoločnosti môžeme označiť termínom autokracia, pričom táto vzbura proti spoločnosti má charakteristické rysy už v takých historických formách, akými boli orientálne despocie, staroveké či stredoveké tyranie, absolutistické monarchie až po vznik novodobých diktatúr a totalít. Autokracia predstavuje prirodzene opak demokracie, nakoľko demokracia predstavuje vládu ľudu a a autokracia vládu jednej osoby.[2]
Odlišnosť typu štátneho zriadenia, či spôsobu vykonávania politickej moci, aj to sú určujúce faktory, ktoré navzájom odlišujú jednotlivé politické systémy. Všeobecne môžeme povedať, že ide o demokratické a nedemokratické, pričom na základe vnútorných znakov ich delíme na ďalšie kategórie.[3] Totalitarizmus môžeme označiť za symbol toho najhoršieho, čo sa v moderných dejinách spoločnosti v rovine systému vlády vytvorilo. Totalitarizmus je spätý s ideológiami fašizmu a nacizmu od 50. rokov minulého storočia a neskôr najmä s komunizmom.[4]

Vo všeobecnosti totalitarizmus je možné označiť za moderný spoločenský jav, ktorý má súvis s rozpadom doterajšej triednej spoločnosti, či v nedostatku spoločenského štruktúrovania a taktiež v politických, ekonomických či sociálnych podmienkach, pričom ho možno analyzovať len v súvislosti s predchádzajúcim historickým procesom.[5] Charakter totalitarizmu možno vnímať aj ako „kvázi náboženský“ a to z hľadiska rozširovania ich dogiem a predstáv, na základe ktorých sa identifikujú nepriatelia a získavajú prívrženci hnutia, pričom možno pozorovať presun náboženských symbolov.[6] Za rozmachom totalitných režimov nestojí hospodársky úpadok, či materiálny nedostatok, ale najmä pocity bezvýznamnosti či bezmocnosti, straty vlastnej hodnoty súvisiace so stratou legitimity, ktoré nastali rozpadom sociálnych štruktúr a triednej spoločnosti a ktoré spôsobili pád stranickeho systému. Odcudzenie jednotlivcov produkujúce úzkosť a ich zúfale zmietanie sa v roztrieštenej spoločnosti prinieslo podklad na uplatnenie ideí totalitarizmu, ktorý by fanatickí vodcovia nikdy nemohli realizovať bez sprostredkovateľa akými boli vyburcované masy.[7]

Nedochádza k totálnemu pohlteniu všetkých jedincov či skupín obyvateľstva, ale je možné bádať snahy separácie. Úspech totalitných režimov bol v závislý na stratených väzbách izolovaných jedincov.[8] Zaujímavosťou totalitných režimov je, že veľmi rýchlo upadajú do zabudnutia a s ľahkosťou sú vystriedané inými politickými systémami, pričom nemusí ísť automatický o prechod k demokracii. Totalitné hnutie si môže svoju moc zachovať len dovtedy, kým uchováva všetko okolo seba v pohybe. Cieľom totalitného hnutia je snaha organizovať masy. Ich existencia závisí na sile počtu, čo vedie k otázke, či sa totalitný režim môže udržať v krajinách s malým počtom obyvateľstva. [9] Na rozdiel od demokracie je autoritatívny režim budovaný na základe obmedzeného pluralizmu a od totalitarizmu ho odlišuje menšia miera synchronizácie politických, sociálnych a kultúrnych štruktúr a ich kontroly. Na jednej strane:

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[2] Tamtiež , s. 126
[3] ČERMÁK, V. 1992. *Otázka demokracie*. Praha: Academia, 1992. s. 98
[4] ŘÍCHOVÁ, B. 2000. *Přehled moderních politologických teorií*. Praha: Portál, 2000. s. 158
[5] ČERMÁK, V. 1992. *Otázka demokracie*. Praha: Academia, 1992. s. 105
[6] ZÁLEŠÁK, T. 2005. *Diablova práca*. Bratislava: Kalligram, 2005. s. 85
[7] Tamtiež , s. 89
[8] ŘÍCHOVÁ, B. 2000. *Přehled moderních politologických teorií*. Praha: Portál, 2000. s. 171
[9] ARENDTOVÁ, H. 1996. *Původ totalitarismu I-III 1. vyd*. Praha: OIKOYMENH, 1996. s. 348

1. Byrokraticko-vojenský autoritatívny režim: kontrola moci vojenským a byrokratickým aparátom, pričom ostatné skupiny nemajú dosah na politickú moc. Tieto režimy môžu fungovať bez politickej ideológie, či bez prítomnosti politických strán, občas je však vládou zriadená jedná oficiálna politická strana. Historický išlo o režimy ako bolo práve Francovo Španielsko od roku 1957, alebo Argentína v rokoch 1946-1955.
2. Organicko-etatistický autoritatívny režim: kontroluje participáciu a mobilizáciu spoločnosti prostredníctvom tzv. organických štruktúr, pričom sa jedná o rôzne korporácie nahradzujúce politický pluralizmus. Historický to môžeme vidieť na príklade Portugalska za vlády Salazara a neskôr Caetana v rokoch 1926 až 1974.
3. Mobilizačný autoritatívny režim v post-demokratických spoločnostiach: vyskytuje sa v spoločnostiach s demokratickou skúsenosťou, ktorá nedostatočne reagovala na základné problémy. Pre tento typ je charakteristická snaha časti spoločnosti participovať na politickej moci. Príkladom môže byť Čile a Argentína v čase vojenských režimov v 70. a 80. rokoch 20. storočia.
4. Post-koloniálne mobilizačné autoritatívne režimy: boli reakciou na neúspešné zavedenie demokracie. Sú súčasťou cesty k nezávislosti, pričom sa v nich prejavil typický kult osloboditeľa - otca zakladateľa. Ide primárne o africké krajiny po získaní nezávislosti v druhej polovici 20. storočia.
5. Rasová a etnická demokracia: demokratické princípy sa dotýkajú len participácie jednej striktne rasovo definovanej časti spoločnosti, pričom ostatná časť je z podielu na moci vylúčená. Svoju úlohu tu zohráva príslušnosť k určitému etniku alebo rase, pričom sa táto skutočnosť odráža nadvládou jednej skupiny nad zvyškom spoločnosti. Príkladom bola Juhoafrická republika v čase vlády apartheidu (1948-1993).
6. Defektný a pred-totalitný autoritatívny režim: objavuje sa v prípade, ak niektorý z prvkov totalitného režimu nebol dostatočne etablovaný. Ide teda o neúplne zavedenie totality.
7. Posttotalitný autoritatívny režim: podiel na politickej moci majú len príslušníci konkrétnej politickej strany. Možno teda hovoriť o rôznych komunistických štátoch, v ktorých prebehol proces destabilizácie v 50. rokoch 20. storočia a predstavitelia vlád rezignovali na zachovanie princípov totalitarizmu. Sem jednoznačne patria niektoré z komunistických režimov po odstránení kultu Stalina v strednej a východnej Európe. [10]

Každý režim musí svoje nároky na vládu obhájiť a pokiaľ sa chce udržať pri moci, musí si zachovať legitimitu alebo aspoň túto požiadavku zdanlivo realizovať. Legitimita nie je súčasťou len demokratických politických systémov, ale legitimitou disponujú aj autoritatívne a totalitné režimy.

2 ANALÝZA AUTORITATÍVNYCH REŽIMOV V PORTUGALSKU A ŠPANIELSKU

Diktátorské režimy v Španielsku (Franco) a Portugalsku (Salazar) je možné označiť za nedemokratické. S týmto tvrdením súhlasí fakt, že vodcovia vylučovali akékoľvek prvky demokracie. Demokracia bola v ich vnímaní politiky chápaná ako nezmysel, kde kontrola politického pluralizmu a tým aj štátneho aparátu je vylúčená, čo vedie k chaosu, ktorý pre

[10] ŽENÍŠEK, M. 2006. *Přechody k demokracii v teórii a praxi*. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2006. s. 168

vedenie štátu nie je osvedčený, resp. efektívny. To smeruje k jedinej možnosti, a to konkrétne k budovaniu pevného politického a spoločenského pozadku s podriadenosťou jedinej osobe stojacej na čele štátu, čo oba režimy potvrdili. Oba režimy tak prostredníctvom dominantných osôb politického systému prezentovali režim tzv. štátneho paternalizmu.

Fašizmus ako historický fenomén, je veľmi zložité definovať z hľadiska princípov a hlavných pilierov. V prvom rade možno určiť, že fašizmus ako ideológia vychádzala z antiracionalizmu, pričom práve fašisti koncipovali najradikálnejšie formy protiosvietenského myslenia. Charakterizuje ho súhrn hodnôt, prostredníctvom ktorých sa odvoláva na prirodzené emócie a vytvára politický aktivizmus. Sloboda sa stáva slepou podriadenosťou, demokracia je na úrovni absolútnej diktatúry a pokrok podmieňuje neustály boj a vojenský expanzionizmus. Tým, že fašizmus popieral princípy univerzálneho myslenia, opornými bodmi mu boli dejiny, kultúra a vízia organického spoločenstva. Sila sa považuje za dobro a slabosť za zlo, čo vedie k tomu, že na jednej strane stojí uznávané víťazstvo silných a na druhej nutná eliminácia.

Štátny paternalizmus - moc sa vykonáva v prospech dobra spoločnosti, ktorá je podriadená autorite a ktorej úloha spočíva v symbolike otca. Ako príklad možno uviesť štátom poskytovanú sociálnu starostlivosť. Paternalizmus sa odvoláva na tvrdenie, že nie každý disponuje rovnakými schopnosťami, preto kto je v autoritatívnej pozícii, je vedený najlepšími vlastnosťami, ktoré formujú jeho konanie. Podľa kritikov však vedie k obmedzovaniu spoločenskej slobody. V „mäkkom“ paternalizme existuje čiastkový súhlas tých, ktorí mu podliehajú, pričom „tvrdý“ paternalizmus takúto potrebu nevyžaduje a tým sa prelína s autoritarizmom slabých v prospech dobra.[11] Koncept neustáleho boja robí z fašizmu dobyvateľskú ideológiu, kedy len vojna preukáže skutočné kvality národa.

Fašizmus poukazuje na prirodzené rozdiely medzi ľuďmi, čím sa vylučuje rovnosť a propaguje sa vodcovský princíp a elitárstvo, čo na rozdiel od tradičných diktatúr agitáciou produkuje masy k podpore režimu. V istých medziach sa fašizmus napriek existujúcej rivalite prelínal so socializmom, avšak v podobe fašistického socializmu, ktorý sa prejavoval podporou kolektivizmu proti hodnotám kapitalizmu a spoločenstvo staval nad jednotlivca. Prítomný je ultranacionalizmus prostredníctvom ktorého fašistický nacionalizmus neuznáva rozličné kultúry, ale do popredia kladie ideu nadradeného národa voči ostatným, čo môže ústiť aj do rasového nacionalizmu ako to bolo v príklade nacizmu.[12] Otázkou teda ostáva, či možno skúmané režimy označiť za totalitné. Fašizmus sa k totalitarizmu uberá silným kolektivizmom, kedy dobro národa, kolektívu či rasy je nadriadené jednotlivcovi a smeruje k vytvoreniu fašistického človeka s absolútnou poslušnosťou, kedy sa strácajú rozdiely medzi verejným a súkromným životom. Neobmedzené fašistické vodcovstvo stiera diferenciáciu medzi štátom a občianskou spoločnosťou a vedie k totálnej politizácii más, ich participácii a poslušnosti. V Salazarovom Portugalsku, no ani vo Francovom Španielsku nezaznamenávame akékoľvek pokusy, ktoré by viedli k vytvoreniu plne podriadeného človeka štátu, masovej spoločnosti či ultranacionalizmu. Poslušnosť sa vyžadovala len silnou cenzurou kritiky režimu, kolektivizmus bol vyjadrovaný na úrovni korporativizmu, ktorý spájal štát a spoločnosť, mobilizácia más sa prejavovala v rámci minima.[13]

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[11] HEYWOOD, A. 2005. *Politické ideologie*. Praha: Eurolex Bohemia, 2005. s. 58
[12] Tamtiež , s. 64
[13] BALÍK, S., KUBÁT, M. 2004. *Teorie a praxe totalitních a autoritativních režimů. 1. vyd*. Praha: Dokořán, 2004. s. 101

Na druhej strane vnímame salazarizmus ako klasický model konzervatívne orientovanej diktatúry, v ktorej sklony k totalitarizmu takmer absentovali.[14] Salazar napriek tomu, že svoju diktatúru nazval fašistickou, tak jej rozdiel sám definoval v odlišných metódach. Taktiež otvorene kritizoval princípy fašizmu, ktoré viedli k deformácii pozitívneho nacionalizmu, ktorý vrcholil v xenofóbiu a rasizmus. Napriek tomu, že v salazarizme absentoval všeobecný pojem rovnosti, neprejavili sa žiadne aspekty vedúce k popieraniu akejkoľvek ľudskej rasy. Komunizmus bol Salazarom vylúčený z hľadiska rozkladu všetkých hodnôt a modernej civilizácie.[15] Možno povedať, že politické prostriedky v Salazarovom Portugalsku necharakterizoval akýkoľvek príklon k fašizmu či komunizmu.

Nezabúdajme napríklad, že Mussolini bol talian, potomok stredovekých „condottieri", a nezabúdajme, že mal socialistické, dokonca komunistické vzdelanie. Jeho prípad je obdivuhodný, jedinečný, národný. On sám prehlásil: „fašizmus je typický taliansky výrobok, rovnako ako boľševizmus je výrobok ruský". Ani jeden nie je možné prenášať a ani jeden nemôže existovať mimo svoj prirodzený priestor. Portugalský Nový štát (Estado Novo) naopak nemôže uniknúť (ani to nemá v úmysle) istým obmedzeniam mravného poriadku, obmedzeniam, ktoré považuje za nevyhnutné pre základy obroditeľského úsilia (...) tento štát preto nie je absolutistický a my ho nepovažujeme za všemocný.[16] Vo všeobecnosti býva frankistické Španielsko označované ako fašistické. V režime síce možno zaznamenať existenciu istých fašistických prvkov, avšak len v prvotných začiatkoch, keď víťazstvo Franca v španielskej občianskej vojne bolo podmienené aj intervenciou fašistického Talianska a nacistického Nemecka. Tým, že sa Španielsko vzhľadom na ekonomickú a vojenskú vyčerpanosť z občianskej vojny nezapojilo priamo do vojnového konfliktu, totalitné tendencie boli eliminované a frankistický príklon k fašizmu bol prítomný len po porážku Nemecka v 2. svetovej vojne. Napriek tomu, že spočiatku fašistické prvky zakotvovala najmä nacionalistická Falanga s pravicovým charakterom, tá sa však počas etablovania frankizmu pretransformovala do Národného hnutia. Systém sa spočiatku oprel o programové hodnoty Falangy, ale nikdy sa s nimi ideologicky nestotožnil. Toto nás vedie ku konštatovaniu, že po stabilizovani režimu v polovici 50. rokoch 20. storočia bola pôvodná Falanga odsunutá do úzadia, a tak sa zabránilo možnosti realizácie silného straníckeho aparátu falangistov paralelného s politickým aparátom.[17] Z toho vychádza záver, že napriek tomu, že Francove Španielsko obsahovalo mieru totalitarizmu, nemôžeme ho označiť za fašistické ani komunistické. Víťazstvo Franca v občianskej vojne bolo vedené práve silným antikomunizmom, na ktorom staval základy aj samotný režim.

Salazarove Portugalsko teda charakterizuje absencia totalitných tendencií, pričom príklon Francovho Španielska k totalitarizmu bol o niečo väčší. Myšlienka vytvorenia Španielska v novej podobe s absolútnou mocou, však v skutočnosti neexistovala a Franco sa prikláňal len k reštaurácii krajiny v duchu tradičných historických pilierov, na ktorých bolo postavené Španielsko od dôb úspešnej reconquisty. Na základe tohto stanoviska dochádzame k záveru, že absencia fašistických prvkov v Salazarovom Portugalsku potvrdzuje časť hypotézy, avšak skutočnosť nemožnosti označenia Francovho Španielska za fašistické stanovenú časť hypotézy vyvracia. Oba režimy teda možno zaradiť k typológii autoritatívnych režimov. Tak ako pre Portugalsko, aj pre Španielsko je totožné, že limitovaný pluralizmus dával priestor pre

[14] CHALUPA, J. 1997. *Jak umíra diktatura. Pád Frankova režimu ve Španělsku*. Olomouc: Votobia, 1997. s. 78
[15] BALÍK, S., KUBÁT, M. 2004. *Teorie a praxe totalitních a autoritativních režimů. 1. vyd*. Praha: Dokořán, 2004. s. 109
[16] VRBATA, A. 2010. *„António Ferro: mezi Mussolinim a Salazarom"*. In Theatrum Historiae, 2010. s. 74-75
[17] BALÍK, S., KUBÁT, M. 2004. *Teorie a praxe totalitních a autoritativních režimů. 1. vyd*. Praha: Dokořán, 2004. s. 111

politické zastúpenie osobností najmä z byrokratických, armádnych, cirkevných, technokratických a úzko záujmových kruhov. V limitovanom pluralizme zohráva úlohu oficiálna politická strana, avšak nebuduje určujúcu ideológiu režimu a ani nekoncentruje všetku politickú moc, tá je v rukách vodcu. Predstavuje len akýsi nástroj moci. To potvrdzoval aj Národný zväz v Portugalsku, ktorý získal postavenie jedinej legálnej strany, avšak nikdy nenadobudol výraznejšie postavenie, nedisponoval žiadnou ideológiou a nemal ani masový charakter. Zohrával skôr úlohu občianskeho hnutia, slúžiaceho potrebám národa a na potláčanie extrémistických zložiek. Strany liberálneho, komunistického, socialistického, prohitlerovského nacionálno-socialistického a fašistického typu boli vylúčené. Spočiatku boli tolerovaní monarchisti a kresťanskí demokrati, tí sa však nakoniec zlúčili s Národným zväzom.

V Španielsku podobnú úlohu zohrávalo Národné hnutie, združujúce „politické rodiny“, avšak podobne ako v Portugalsku, nedržalo moc a ani sa nesnažilo o ideologické vízie, pričom len potvrdzovalo princípy štátu a vodcu. Volebným právom v Portugalsku disponovala len úzka skupina obyvateľstva a existencia parlamentných a prezidentských volieb mala len formálny charakter, čo opozičné skupiny napriek tomu rady využívali. Španielsky režim naproti tomu vylučoval akúkoľvek slobodnú súťaž politických strán a záujmových zoskupení. V roku 1945 bol prijatý zákon o národnom referende podmienenom vodcovi ako akýsi formálny znak istého príklonu k demokracii. Napriek tomu, že opozícia nepredstavovala nebezpečenstvo, režim vylučoval najmä komunistický, liberálny či socialistický typ strán, pred pokusom zaviesť republikanizmus a katolicizmus, ktorý mal v Španielsku hlboké korene. Reconquista prebiehala najmä v 11. a 13. storočí, pričom išlo o znovudobytie územia Pyrenejskeho polostrova kresťanskými Španielmi a Portugalcami, ktoré bolo v 8. storočí ovládnuté moslimskými Arabmi.[18] Politický pluralizmus absentoval existenciou politických strán a bol teda nahradený rôznymi korporáciami a združeniami záujmových skupín. Oba režimy zakotvovali prvky korporativizmu, štátnu kontrolu nad spoločenským a súkromným sektorom, potvrdzovali zákaz práva na štrajk a popierali slobodu zhromažďovania. Limitovaný pluralizmus povoľuje existenciu organizácií, ktoré musia byť voči režimu lojálne a nespochybňovať jeho podstatu. Likvidáciou slobodných odborov Španielsko viedlo k vytvoreniu vertikálnych odborov ako jedinej povolenej a štátom kontrolovanej organizácie, pričom v Portugalsku zavedenie Národného pracovného štatútu viedlo k štátnej kontrole odborov, spolkov, grémií, do ktorých sa všetci občania povinne združovali. Oba režimy teda potvrdzujú prítomnosť obmedzeného pluralizmu, pričom sa v mnohých bodoch stotožňujú.

Absencia vypracovanej a vodcovskej ideológie, ale existencia typickej mentality, je druhým charakteristickým znakom autoritatívnych režimov. Ideológiu môžeme definovať ako myšlienkový obsah, pričom pri mentalite ide o myšlienkový postoj. Ideológia sa vyznačuje pevnou a nemennou formou, pričom mentalita je naopak premenlivá a amorfná. Ideológia skôr vystupuje ako futuristická vízia, pričom mentalita je viazaná prítomnosťou a nadväzuje na historické súvislosti minulosti.[19] Salazarov režim napriek tomu, že nepotvrdzuje prítomnosť ideológie, vyjadril postoj k liberalizmu, fašizmu a komunizmu, pričom popritom vytvoril koncepciu „Estado Novo“, stojaceho ako protipól k demokracii aj totalitarizmu. Salazarovým cieľom bolo bytostne prepojiť štát a spoločnosť, čo sa mu podarilo prostredníctvom korporativizmu. Štát považoval za silný, ak je obmedzený morálkou, právom a Bohom (i keď katolícke náboženstvo sa na rozdiel od Španielska nestalo štátnym

[18] KRAUS, J. a kol. 2005. *Slovník cudzích slov*. Bratislava: Slovenské pedagogické nakladatelstvo – Mladé letá, 2005. s. 578

[19] BALÍK, S., KUBÁT, M. 2004. *Teorie a praxe totalitních a autoritativních režimů. 1. vyd*. Praha: Dokořán, 2004. s. 112

náboženstvom, katolicizmus bol jedným z oporných pilierov režimu) a tým zaručuje potreby celého národa a nie len jednotlivca. Salazar si nebudoval kult osobnosti, svoju vládu skôr staval na pozícii ekonomického odborníka. Zastával názor, že o vládu nikdy nemusel bojovať, bola mu zverená, a tak ako „Spasiteľ národa“ budoval korporativistický solidarizmus v zmysle nadtriedneho riešenia sociálnych a pracovných problémov na ceste k sociálnemu mieru a spoločenskému dobru.[20] Výrazné postavenie pri stabilizácii režimu taktiež zohrávala mobilizačná sila Falangy a národný syndikalizmus.[21] Mentalita režimov sa v mnohom líši, ale obe diktatúry potvrdzujú absenciu ideológie, pričom poukazujú len na všeobecné hodnoty akými sú patriotizmus, rodina, náboženstvo či ekonomický rozvoj. Salazarove Portugalsko sa s týmto tvrdením stotožňuje. Režim nevyužíval žiadne mobilizačné prostriedky, čo potvrdzuje aj skutočnosť, že Salazar sa vyhýbal popularite a verejným výstupom, pričom kritizoval okázalé prejavy a ceremónie, ktoré mali v obľube Mussollini a Hitler. Jeho cieľom nebolo mobilizovať masy, ale dosadiť za zdroj moci elitu. Mobilizácia bola aktivizovaná len v istých obdobiach, a to v prvotných fázach vlády, keď nové zásady diktatúry formoval v dlhých prejavoch a potom, čo zvíťazili Spojenci v druhej svetovej vojne, portugalská tlač vyzdvihovala prezieravosť Salazarovej stratégie neutrality, ktorá uchránila Portugalsko od negatívnych dopadov vojenského konfliktu druhej svetovej vojny.[22] Možno tiež spomenúť, že organizácia Portugalská mládež symbolicky vyjadrovala Salazarovi podporu písmenom „S“ na opaskoch. V Španielsku Franco nikdy neformoval svoje ciele k vytvoreniu nového typu človeka a lepšej spoločnosti, vychádzal z tradícií historických etáp španielskej suverenity, pričom sa orientoval na udržanie tradičnej a stabilnej spoločnosti, a tak režim charakterizovala taktiež nízka mobilizácia verejnosti na jeho podporu, čo súhlasí s Linzovou definíciou.

Mobilizačný vplyv falangistov opierajúcich sa o polofašistické prvky bol však omnoho výraznejší a dosiahol väčšie rozmery ako mobilizácia v Portugalsku. Napriek nezáujmu španielskeho ľudu o politiku, Falanga mala vlastné milície a na žiadosť vodcu boli schopné kedykoľvek zhromaždiť stúpencov. Ich mobilizačný vplyv bol však prítomný len do 50. rokoch 20. storočia, kedy Falanga bola kvôli hegemónnym snahám potlačená.[23] Moc je uplatňovaná vodcom, či úzkou skupinou osôb vo vnútri zle definovaných, ale predvídateľných hraníc. Napriek tomu, že na čele Portugalska podľa ústavy stál prezident, išlo len o formálny akt, pričom koncentrácia moci sa sústredila do rúk premiéra. Tým sa potvrdzuje kritérium, že moc uplatňuje vodca, v portugalskom prípade to bol Salazar. Je zjavné, že jeho faktická politická moc bola omnoho väčšia ako ju v skutočnosti definovala ústava a zákony. Vládne pozície a taktiež prezidentské kreslo Salazar obsadzoval stúpencami z vlastných radov. Svoju moc v istých obdobiach sústredil podľa potreby aj ako minister financií, kolónií, zahraničných vecí a národnej obrany.[24] Moc a politiku chápal ako prostriedok realizácie ekonomických cieľov. Umocňovala sa prísnou štátnou kontrolou nad spoločenským a súkromným sektorom a stupňovala sa využívaním tvrdého represívneho aparátu v podobe PIDE.

Španielsky režim túto požiadavku spĺňa v podobe vodcu krajiny generála Franca. Svoju moc koncentroval prostredníctvom štyroch najvyšších funkcií ako hlava štátu, predseda vlády, šéf jedinej politickej strany a najvyšší veliteľ ozbrojených síl. Na rozdiel od Salazara, ktorý bol podľa ústavy oficiálne len premiérom, Franco svoje postavenie maximalizoval a po

[20] CHALUPA, J. 1997. *Jak umíra diktatura. Pád Frankova režimu ve Španělsku*. Olomouc: Votobia, 1997. s. 91
[21] BALÍK, S., KUBÁT, M. 2004. *Teorie a praxe totalitních a autoritativních režimů. 1. vyd*. Praha: Dokořán, 2004. s. 113
[22] ZÁVĚŠICKY, J. 2004. *Salazarovo Portugalsko: jaké bylo? In: Listy roč. 34, č.6*, 2004. s. 46-50
[23] CHALUPA, J. 1997. *Jak umíra diktatura. Pád Frankova režimu ve Španělsku*. Olomouc: Votobia, 1997. s. 92
[24] PRESTON, P. 2001. *Franco*. Praha: BB art, 2001. s. 611

počiatočnej hre na absolutistického monarchu sa menoval regentom a doživotným vládcom s cieľom zachovania kontinuity frankizmu aj po jeho nevyhnutnej smrti formou obnovenia monarchie. Svoju moc legitimizoval víťazstvom v občianskej vojne a uplatňoval sa ako záruka proti ďalším konfliktom. Režim sa vyznačoval absenciou politického režimu, a tak jeho moc smerovala k obnove veľkosti krajiny v historickom meradle, zakotveniu stability a sociálneho mieru a udržaniu pozície diktátorského vodcu. Režim svoju moc opieral podobne ako v Portugalsku o schopnosť represií, ktoré zaručoval Tribunál pre politický poriadok a Sociálno-politická brigáda. Jedným zo zásadných rozdielov Salazarovho Portugalska a Francovho Španielska je tá skutočnosť, že obaja sa k moci dostali odlišným spôsobom. Po tom, čo v Portugalsku republikou ustanovenou v roku 1910 otriasala politická a spoločenská nestabilita podlomená častým striedaním vlád, snahami o autoritatívne uchopenie moci a štátnymi prevratmi, tento stav vyvrcholil vojenským prevratom a inštaláciou diktátorského režimu v roku 1926. Tento nekrvavý a takmer bez odporu zavedený režim dal priestor na zviditeľnenie sa Salazarovi, ktorý sa cez funkciu ministra financií ako stabilizátor zlej ekonomickej situácie prebojoval koncentráciu moci až k budovaniu „Nového štátu“ schválením ústavy v roku 1933, kde stál ako premiér s najsilnejšou pozíciou v štáte. V Španielsku „druhá“ republika vyhlásená v roku 1931 viedla k vnútropolitickým rozporom spoločnosti, ku konfliktu odlišných vízií o vývoji spoločnosti a neschopnosti vlád riešiť zlú ekonomickú krízu, ktoré vyvrcholili v roku 1936 španielskou občianskou vojnou.

Tento krvavý konflikt s devastačným morálnym a hospodárskym dopadom, zabezpečil postup na politický vrchol generálovi Francovi, ktorý koncentráciu moci zahájil už v roku 1936, keď bol menovaný za „generalissima“, šéfa štátu a vodcu a definitívne svoju legitimitu potvrdil ako víťaz „krížovej výpravy“ proti nástrahám komunizmu, čím sa mu otvorila cesta k budovaniu vlastného špecifického režimu umocňovaného pevnou rukou. Kým Salazar sa k politickej moci dostal postupným spôsobom bez výraznejšieho odporu cestou v pozícii záchrancu hospodárstva krajiny, Franco si svoju pozíciu musel krvavo vybojovať v občianskom konflikte a tým ju legitimizovať. Ďalšou diferenciáciou oboch režimov bol odlišný proces tranzície po smrti oboch diktátorských vodcov. Zmena pre Portugalsko nastáva, keď v dôsledku úmrtia Salazara v roku 1968 sa do premiérskeho kresla dostáva Marcelo Caetano, predstaviteľ reformného krídla v rámci Národného zväzu. Jeho prvé obdobie vlády smerovalo k opatrnej demokratizácii a liberalizácii. Zrušil PIDE, cenzúru, salazarovský izolacionizmus a zmodernizoval volebný poriadok. Celý proces však neviedol k požiadavke nastolenia demokracie, ale snažil sa o zachovanie akejsi kontinuity salazarizmu, čoho dôkazom boli aj slobodné parlamentné voľby v roku 1969. Po prvýkrát v nich mala zastúpenie aj opozícia rozdelená na liberálno demokratickú a socialistickú, avšak väčšinový volebný systém zaručil opätovné víťazstvo vládnej strane, Národnému zväzu. Situácia viedla k opätovnému zákazu opozičných strán a k problému koloniálnej politiky. Po tom, čo v druhých parlamentných voľbách v roku 1973 zvíťazila vládna strana kandidujúca ako Národná ľudová akcia (APN), bolo zjavné, že nový kabinet a jeho bezperspektívne reformy neprinesú požadované modernizačné zmeny. Kritika riešenia koloniálnej otázky vojenskou cestou, neúspech federalizmu ako alternatívy k unitárnemu Portugalsku a neschopnosť transformácie vládnymi elitami stavali do opozície členov armády, ktorí sa pretvárali do protivládneho „hnutia kapitánov“, neskôr premenovaného na Hnutie ozbrojených síl (MFA). Toto hnutie tvorené najmä mladými dôstojníkmi portugalskej armády 25. apríla 1974 iniciovalo štátny prevrat známy ako Karafiátova revolúcia (revolucionári mali v puškách zastrčené karafiáty), pri ktorom vládna skupina stratila armádnu podporu. Táto vskutku nenásilná udalosť viedla k pádu druhej Caetanovej vlády a odstráneniu posledných zvyškov Salazarovho autoritatívneho režimu. Zrušili sa všetky inštitúcie a piliere niekdajšieho „Estado

Novo“, zaručili sa základné politické slobody, zákazu podľahla cenzúra, vyhlásila sa amnestia a politické strany vystúpili z ilegality.

Obávanou reakciou zvrhnutého režimu bol príklon k ľavicovému prúdu predstavovaného najmä Komunistickou stranou Portugalska (PKP) ako alternatíva voči konzervatívne pravicovej minulosti, pričom situácia nebola ďaleko od nastolenia novej diktatúry. Tým, že pravicový smer bol krajne nepopulárny, dochádzalo k zvláštnemu javu, ktorý sa formoval vo vnútri straníckeho systému. Pravicové zoskupenie sa krylo sociálnodemokratickými symbolmi a viedlo k vytvoreniu Sociálno-demokratickej strany (PSD), ktorá napriek svojmu názvu sa stala súčasťou pravého politického spektra. V roku 1976 zvíťazila v prvých parlamentných voľbách od pádu režimu. Prijatím plne demokratickej ústavy v roku 1982 sa ukončuje obdobie prechodu k demokracii a nastáva fáza konsolidovanej demokracie, ktorá nasmerovala politický systém k parlamentnej republike.[25] V Španielsku po smrti Franca v roku 1975 mechanizmus predania moci zaručil, že za kráľa Španielska bol prehlásený Juan Carlos Bourbonský. Keďže spočiatku pretrvávala kontinuita autoritárskeho režimu, málokto predpokladal, že nastane zlom v podobe otvorenia cesty k demokratickej tranzícii. Predsedom vlády sa stal opätovne Arias Navarro a vo vládnom zastúpení dominovali frankisti. Reformný plán z roku 1976 znamenal pre aperturistov sklamanie, keďže došlo len k úprave trestného zákonníka, zriadeniu bikameralizmu či povoleniu niektorých politických strán (okrem komunistických a separatistických). Tieto fakty opozíciu neuspokojovali a dochádzalo k polarizácii spoločnosti, ktorá vyhrocovala početnými stávkami a demonštráciami a viedla k obavám z opätovnej občianskej vojny. Po tom, čo Navarra nesúhlasil s transformáciou Španielska smerujúcej k demokratickému štátu, kráľ menoval v roku 1976 novým premiérom Adolfa Suáreza. Nový predseda vlády spolu s Juanom Carlosom zavŕšil proces reforiem smerom k demokracii a liberalizácii, ktorý bol charakterizovaný nenásilným prechodom v podobe progresívnych reforiem. Ich taktika smerovala k uzmiereniu všetkých Španielov, a tak v roku 1977 bolo zlikvidované Národné hnutie a legalizované politické strany a odbory, vrátane Komunistickej strany Španielska. Po tom, čo v roku 1976 bola získaná podpora v ľudovom referende o politickej reforme, zákon smeroval k odstráneniu monopolu moci v prospech demokracie, premene Španielska na štandardnú konštitučnú monarchiu a viedol k odobratiu právomocí kráľa, ktoré zdedil ako Francov následník v prospech parlamentu a vlády. V roku 1977 boli vyhlásené prvé slobodné voľby a v roku 1978 prijatá nová demokratická ústava. Juanovi Carlosovi v úspešnej liberalizácii napomohlo legitímne nástupníctvo, zabezpečenie si armádnej podpory, rešpektovanie predchádzajúcich pilierov režimu a absencia uceleného programu Franca.

Napriek tomu, že komparatívna analýza oboch režimov poukazuje na mnohé podobnosti, zároveň je prítomná istá diferenciácia, ktorá neumožňuje zaradenie diktatúr do rovnakej kategórie. Režimy je možné klasifikovať ako byrokraticko-vojenský autoritatívny režim so zaradením Španielska, pričom Portugalsko je možné kategorizovať ako organicko-etatistický autoritatívny režim.[26] Španielsko svoje zaradenie potvrdzuje aspektmi akými boli kontrola vlády armádnym a byrokratickým aparátom, počiatočné odvolávanie sa na mobilizačnú silu Falangy, absencia ideológie (režim sa vyznačoval len svojráznou mentalitou), neexistencia politických strán, pričom jedinou oficiálnou stranou bolo Národné hnutie, redukujúce participáciu občanov na minimum. Portugalsko podobne ako Španielsko súhlasí so zaradením, čo je potvrdené tým, že režim odmietol liberálne predpoklady demokracie, ďalej existenciou organických štruktúr v podobe korporácií, profesijných združení a odborov

[25] KLÍMA, J. 1996. *Dějiny Portugalska*. Praha: Lidové noviny, 1996. s. 211
[26] ŽENÍŠEK, M. 2006. *Přechody k demokracii v teórii a praxi*. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2006. s. 180

nahrádzajúcich politický pluralizmus a vedúcich ku kontrole participácie spoločnosti či nízkou mobilizáciou a organickým charakterom režimu.

V súčasnosti moderné a plnohodnotné demokracie Pyrenejského polostrova akými sú Portugalsko a Španielsko viedla k dnešnému postaveniu podobná a zároveň dlhá cesta transformačného procesu, prostredníctvom ktorého sa krajiny vyprofilovali a ktorému predchádzal zánik autoritárskych režimov v podobe Salazarovho Portugalska a Francovho Španielska. Hlavným cieľom bolo zamerať sa práve na tieto svojbytné diktatúry a stanoviť ich možnú podobnosť či diferenciáciu, prostredníctvom jednotlivej analýzy a následnej komparácie oboch režimov. Salazar sa do čela portugalskej vlády dostal skôr ako Franco v Španielsku. Ministrom financií sa stal v roku 1928 a keď sa na scéne objavuje Franco, Salazar už niesol titul predsedu vlády, ministra financií, vojny a zahraničia, až sa postupne prebojoval na vrchol absolútnej moci. Franco označovaný ako „vodca Španielska z Božej milosti“ v roku 1939 vojenským prevratom proti republikánskej vláde ukončil krvavú občiansku vojnu v Španielsku a zaviedol diktatúru. Napriek tomu, že východisková situácia oboch diktátorov sa líšila, v ustanovení existujúcich pilierov možno badať isté podobnosti tým, že oba režimy spájal militarizmus, ktorý sa opieral o armádne zložky, byrokratický aparát, vplyv katolíckej cirkvi na ich podobu a organické usporiadanie moci prostredníctvom korporativizmu. K zisteniu zásadných podobností či odlišností sme sa prepracovali cez Linzovu definíciu autoritatívnych režimov, ktorá zároveň potvrdila správnosť ich zaradenia k tejto typológii režimov. Zhodné prvky oboch režimov sa prejavili v limitovanom pluralizme povoľujúcom legalitu jedinej politickej strane, cenzúrou režimu a využívaním represií voči akejkoľvek otvorenej kritike režimu. Oba režimy ďalej formovala prítomnosť typickej mentality bez existencie konkrétnej vodcovskej ideológie a absencia politickej mobilizácie či skôr jej minimálne aktivizovanie. Moc sa uskutočňovala prostredníctvom vodcu, kým Salazar zohrával úlohu premiéra s koncentráciou moci do vlastných rúk, Franco sa vyhlásil za regenta monarchie a doživotného vládcu.

Napriek tomu, že režimy fakticky ukončila smrť oboch diktátorských osobností, proces tranzície sa v mnohom líšil. Kým v Portugalsku vládna elita bola zvrhnutá opozičnými skupinami režimu, v Španielsku nastal kontinuálny prechod zabezpečený mechanizmom predania moci Juanovi Carlosovi a jeho otvorenosťou voči demokratickým princípom. Možno teda dospieť k záveru, že oba režimy sa profilovali na podobných zásadách autoritatívnych režimov.

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RADBUZA & AKADEMICKÝ KLUB STŘET MEZI „STARÝM“ A „NOVÝM“ Z DĚJIN PLZEŇSKÉHO STUDENTSKÉHO HNUTÍ

RADBUZA & ACADEMIC CLUB THE CLASH BETWEEN “OLD” AND “NEW” FROM THE HISTORY OF THE PILSEN STUDENTS’ MOVEMENT

Zdeněk Beroun

Abstrakt

S 28. říjnem 1918 nadešel čas obnovy národních společenství, jejichž činnost ochromil nebo zcela znemožnil globální vojenský konflikt a rozpínavý byrokratický tlak zaniklé monarchie: spolků profesně-stavovských, kulturních, vzdělávacích, podpůrných aj. Patřila mezi ně i plzeňská Radbuza, sdružující posluchače českých vysokých škol. Text nepřináší ucelené spolkové dějiny. Naznačuje, kterak se vlivem státoprávních změn, společenského klimatu, mladistvého entusiasmu i vžitých stereotypů vyvíjel potenciál krajinské studentské korporace.

Klíčová slova: *Radbuza, Akademický klub, studentské hnutí, socialismus, nacionalismus*

Abstract

By October 28th, 1918, the Czech national associations were re-established. Their activities were suspended by the global military conflict and by the bureaucratic oppression of the defunct monarchy. The associations were mainly founded on the social estates, the others were of the cultural, educative and supportive ilk. One of them was also the Pilsen based “Radbuza” which joined the local Czech universities students under one of the Pilsen rivers’ name. The text is focused on the capacities development of the regional students’ fraternity. On the background of the constitutional changes and of the social climate combining both the youth and the traditions, we will observe its development, rather than a mere descriptive history of the association. Neither allows the range of this collection to offer you the history of the association in its full complexity.

Key words: *Radbuza, Academic Club, Students’ Movement, Socialism, Nationalism*

1 NA KŘIŽOVATCE

„Radbuza“ – Spolek akademiků kraje plzeňského, jak zněl její oficiální název, byla založena v roce 1873. Širokou škálou svých aktivit, početnou členskou základnou i nabývající vážností v akademické obci se s léty vyprofilovala v nejvýznamnější studentský spolek jihozápadních Čech. Zpočátku upínala pozornost především k osvětové práci: zřizovala venkovské knihovny a čítárny, pořádala umělecké akademie, společenské zábavy, lidové přednášky, divadelní představení. Výtěžek z těchto podniků byl věnován na sociální účely, kupř. k podpoře nemajetných českých studentů.[1] Radbuza výrazně povzbuzovala národní vědomí v etnicky smíšených regionech a stála u vzniku obranné organizace Národní jednoty pošumavské (1884).[2] Na rozdíl od řady jiných spolků mohla působit – byť značně omezeně – i během

[1] Blíže ČADEK, Gustav. Skizza k dějinám „Radbuzy“. In: *Výroční zpráva “Radbuzy”, Spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1908–1909*. Plzeň 1909, s. 1-24.

[2] ŘEHÁČEK, Karel. Národní jednota pošumavská (1884–1951). In: *České národní aktivity v pohraničních oblastech první Československé republiky*. Olomouc 2003, s. 230.

první světové války; její tehdejší zájmová činnost zřejmě nezavdávala příčinu úředního zákazu.
Také po vzniku Československa kladla Radbuza velký důraz na vzdělávání. Vystupovala jako stavovské těleso, přičemž neustále proklamovala svoji apolitičnost. V jejím středu však probíhaly vzrušené debaty, kterým se vzhledem k překotným celospolečenským událostem ani nebylo možné vyhnout; v náladách studentstva se přirozeně odrážela aktuální politická situace. Výrazem veřejné angažovanosti Radbuzy byl zájem, který věnovala právě národnostní problematice: *„Menšinovou prací rozumíme posilování a poučování českých lidí v německých krajích, nikdy však rozdmychování nového boje, poněvadž nám jde o vyrovnání národních protiv a nikoliv o jejich prohlubování.“*[3]
Do vnitřního života studentského spolku i jeho veřejných aktivit zřetelně zasáhla poválečná revoluční atmosféra. Prohlubující se nespokojenost s neutěšenou hospodářskou a sociální situací posilovala politický vliv socialistických stran, které na přelomu let 1918/1919 sehrály na Plzeňsku stěžejní roli.[4] Levicové tendence se promítly i do úkolů, které si Radbuza předsevzala: *„Činnost vzdělávací znamená pro nás především zájem o otázky akutní, jež zajímají-li veřejnost, studenta mají zajímati dvojnásob. Nebojíce se žádné myšlenky, chceme se zabývati otázkami právě nejpalčivějšími. První z nich je idea socialistická a dělnické hnutí. Studentstvo nemůže jich nedbati. My chceme se k oběma postaviti kladně.“*[5] Rozhodnutí zacílit svůj vzdělávací program rovněž na socialisticky smýšlející dělnictvo získalo legitimní podobu usnesením mimořádné valné hromady z 1. září 1919, na které byly do spolkových stanov zapracovány příslušné úpravy.[6] Takový postup však nebyl přijímán se všeobecným souhlasem. Především konzervativní, nacionálně zaměřené křídlo Radbuzy soustředěné ve finančním odboru, tzv. plzeňském komité, odmítalo odklon od *„národnostně uvědomovací“* činnosti, jež podle představitelů levice *„mohla býti omezena naším osvobozením“*.[7] Poměry ještě vyostřila polemika nad veřejnou přednáškou *„Co jest národ“* realisty a odpůrce soudobého českého nacionalismu, univerzitního profesora Emanuela Rádla, uspořádanou v dubnu 1920 na pozvání správního výboru studentského spolku.[8] Radbuza se tak nepokrytě vydala na cestu ideového zápasu, odehrávajícího se v prvé řadě uvnitř jí samé.
Levicová orientace Radbuzy vyústila v osvětovou spolupráci s plzeňským Dělnicko-studentským výborem (DSV), v němž se setkávala s mládeží obou socialistických stran.[9] Radbuza sehrála významnou úlohu už při samotném zrodu DSV, neboť vznik výboru iniciovala: byl ustaven na sklonku července 1920 za účelem *„přiváděti školskou inteligenci a dělnictvo na cestu vzájemného porozumění a spolupráce sebevýchovou a sebevzděláváním v duchu třídně socialistických zásad* (…) *paralyzovat ve studentstvu vliv staré ideologie a probouzet je k socialismu* (…) *posilovat radikalismus dělnictva, t. j. ideově prohlubovat jeho socialismus..“*[10] Stanovy DSV vypracoval člen správního výboru Radbuzy Jaroslav Procházka, který je společně s předsedou DSV Jaroslavem Poleníkem předložil ke schválení na řádné valné hromadě 27. září 1920.[11] Radbuza tedy měla hlavní slovo, pokud šlo o

[3] Archiv Univerzity Karlovy (AUK), f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 378.
[4] Blíže ŘEHÁČEK, Karel. Sociální (socialistický) a národní radikalismus v poválečné Plzni (říjen-prosinec 1918). In: *Bolševismus, komunismus a radikální socialismus v Československu. Svazek IV*. Praha 2005, s. 11-33.
[5] AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 378.
[6] Tamtéž, karton č. B 406.
[7] Tamtéž, karton č. B 526.
[8] Tamtéž.
[9] Na DSV se vedle Radbuzy, župního výkonného výboru sociálně demokratické mládeže a krajského výkonného výboru mladých čsl. socialistů podíleli zástupci učitelského sdružení Obnova, abiturienti plzeňských středních a odborných škol ze spolku Mrštík a Výbor studujících středních a odborných škol v Plzni. Archiv města Plzně (AMP), f. Dělnicko-studentský výbor v Plzni (1920–1923), karton 177, sign. 13.360.
[10] *Výroční zpráva „Radbuzy“, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1921–1922 a v jubilejním správním roce 1922–1923*. Plzeň 1923, s. 8-9.
[11] AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 526.

koordinaci a náplň DSV, jemuž sekundovala vzdělávací komise akademického spolku. Studenti navštěvovali dělnické domy, kde přednášeli o českých dějinách, náboženství, sociální a kulturní politice, vedli pravidelné dělnicko-studentské přátelské večery, recitační a hudební pásma, později tzv. socialistický seminář.[12] Prostřednictvím delegovaných členů měla Radbuza v DSV své stálé zastoupení, propůjčila mu i spolkovou místnost. Tímto angažmá však dospěla k neodvratné roztržce.

2 „RING VOLNÝ!“

Dlouhodobé vnitřní neshody uspíšily mimořádnou valnou hromadu, svolanou na 28. prosince 1921, kde *„měla být svedena poslední a rozhodující bitva mezi oběma protivnými směry.“*[13] Dosavadní správní výbor Radbuzy[14] oznámil ústy předsedajícího Karla Motlíka svoji rezignaci a vyzval k nové volbě, která by jasně deklarovala, po jaké ideové linii se bude spolek dále ubírat. Jednání mělo – jak je patrné z dochovaného protokolu – velmi dramatický průběh, odehrávalo se za *„ohlušujícího řevu, ohromného hluku“* a verbálních útoků protistran.[15] Z volebního souboje nakonec vyšli vítězně zastánci tzv. pokrokové levice v čele s Jiřím Pleskotem, který se také stal novým předsedou Radbuzy.[16] Reakce poražených na sebe nenechala dlouho čekat. Na protest proti nově zvolenému výboru vystoupil ze spolku bývalý funkcionář plzeňského komité Karel Křepinský. K jeho rozhodnutí se vzápětí připojilo dalších 14 stoupenců konzervativního bloku.[17] Do konce roku 1921 pak počet nespokojenců, kteří reagovali na usnesení „prosincové“ valné hromady odevzdáním spolkových legitimací, vzrostl na 43 osob. Jeden z aktérů, Jiří Branžovský,[18] tehdy komentoval nastalou situaci slovy: *„Naše ‚Radbuza‘ se rozpadá na pravici a levici – tak asi my, krajní pravice, založíme vlastní ‚Klub Akademiků‘. S těmi soudruhy se vůbec nedá mluvit – jsou to buď maniakové nebo idioti – v prostředcích náramně nevybíraví (nejbližší je jim ‚argumentum ad personam‘), a pak nám se zrovna nezdá, tahat do studentského spolku politiku. Je to smutné, když člověk vidí a spolu prožívá takový pokles kvalit studentstva.“*[19]

Rokem 1922 tak do studentského života západočeské metropole energicky vstupoval nový subjekt. Už 6. ledna se v Měšťanské besedě konala schůze přípravného komitétu, který se usnesl založit „Akademický klub v Plzni“. Současně předložil návrh stanov a přikročil k

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[12] AMP, f. Dělnicko-studentský výbor v Plzni (1920–1923), karton 177, sign. 13.354.

[13] *Výroční zpráva „Radbuzy“, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1921–1922 a v jubilejním správním roce 1922–1923.* Plzeň 1923, s. 3.

[14] Zvolený teprve nedávno, na valné hromadě 12. září 1921. AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. A 300.

[15] V zápisu z mimořádné valné hromady je rovněž zaznamenán ne vždy zodpovědný přístup spolkových činovníků k svěřené agendě: *„Zprávu archiváře jako člena výboru podává kol. Regál: Funkci obdržel po kol. Radovnickém mladším 24./XI. Dodnes neobdržel však klíčův. Těchto však zapotřebí ani není, jelikož se do skříně může dostat každý, a tak možno shlédnouti tam do jejího nepořádku, který jde pod niveau slušnosti. V takovém stadiu byla ona almara, které kromě jiných nedostatků schází též noha, převzata od starého výboru kol. Radovnickým, jak konstatuje kol. Regál, který funkci po Radovnickém – který jí byl zbaven pro nečinnost – obdržel. Bylo by záhodno postarati se jak o nohu tak i zámek, aby nepovolaní činitelé nemohli tak snadno do archivu.“* Tamtéž, karton č. B 526.

[16] Konkrétní výsledek neznáme, avšak okolnosti předcházející vlastní volbě (vyrovnaný poměr hlasů při schvalování dílčích výborových zpráv) napovídají, že socialisté uspěli těsnou většinou.

[17] AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 526.

[18] Syn operního tenora a majitele pěvecké školy v Plzni Josefa Branžovského, absolvent c. k. českého vyššího gymnasia tamtéž a posluchač práv na Univerzitě Karlově. V Radbuze činný od dubna 1918, aktivní zejména v kulturně společenské sféře: člen zábavního výboru (1918) a dramatického odboru (1919). Stoupenec antilevicové frakce, posléze Akadamického klubu. Tamtéž, karton č. B 260, B 274, B 383. V Branžovského rozsáhlé pozůstalosti se k plzeňskému studentském hnutí vztahuje korespondence, kterou v roce 1922 adresoval své přítelkyni a budoucí ženě Olze Bozděchové.

[19] Soukromý archiv Jiřího Branžovského, dopis Olze Bozděchové s datem 6. 1. 1922.

volbě prozatímního výboru.[20] Zakladatelskou etapu Akademického klubu, které dominovaly přednášky pro veřejnost, uzavřela jeho první valná hromada z 12. dubna 1922.[21]
Rozštěpení Radbuzy a vznik „vzdorospolku“ vyvolaly živou mediální diskuzi – spor se záhy přenesl na stránky místních novin. Prostor poskytnutý oběma táborům v politickém tisku jasně definoval jejich ideové směřování.[22] Radbuza pochopitelně sdělovala čtenářům svá stanoviska v levicových denících: v Českém Směru čsl. strany socialistické a v Nové Době čsl. sociálně demokratické strany dělnické. Konzervativci promlouvali prostřednictvím národně demokratického listu Český Deník, jehož novoroční číslo přineslo prohlášení oněch *„čtyřiceti tří vystoupivších“*.[23] Správní výbor Radbuzy podle očekávání závěry bývalé *„buržoazně vlastenecké“* opozice obratem negoval.[24] Jako „tiskoví mluvčí“ se prezentovali už připomínaní studentští předáci: Postoje Radbuzy hájil Jaroslav Poleník, Akademický klub Karlové Motlík a Křepinský. Není třeba podotýkat, že rezoluce obou spolků strádaly podjatostí. Rozpoutaná mediální „přestřelka“, jež se neobešla bez osobních invektiv, vrcholila v polovině února 1922.

3 „POST PUGNAM“

Radbuzou členský „exodus“ otřásl. Navenek ovšem vystupovala sebevědomě a „přeběhlíkům“ adresovala jadrná vyjádření: *„Většina z těch 43 znemožnila se v ‚Radbuze‘ už dávno, třebaže formálně rozešla se s ‚Radbuzou‘ až nyní. Jsou to lidé, kteří v seriozním studentském spolku nemají co pohledávat. Byli nesnesitelně intolerantní. Tím, že odešli,*

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[20] *Český Deník*. 8. 1. 1922. 11(8), s. 5.
[21] *Český Deník*. 12. 4. 1922. 11(101), s. 3.
[22] Stojí za zmínku, že čestným hostem a řečníkem na lednové schůzi přípravného komitétu Akademického klubu byl předseda plzeňské organizace národně demokratické strany JUDr. Matouš Mandl. *Český Deník*. 8. 1. 1922. 11(8), s. 5.
[23] *„Již od dubna r. 1920 nastala v ‚Radbuze‘, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, napjatá situace mezi dvěma zcela potichůdnými směry, z nichž jeden hájil dosavadní nepolitické poslání tohoto studentského spolku, kdežto druhý zdůrazňoval nutnost práce v duchu socialistickém. Tomuto směru dostalo se přesné formulace přednáškou tehdejšího předsedy* [Jaroslava Procházky – pozn. ZB] *na téma ‚Studenská politika‘, na podzim 1921 v Měšť.*[anské] *besedě v Plzni konanou, v níž vytčena studentské práci jedině prý správná cesta: propagace ideí socialistických. Snahy o smírné řešení sporů zůstaly bezvýsledny. Situace vyvrcholila 28. prosince 1921 na mimořádné valné schůzi v Měšť.*[anské] *besedě v Plzni, kde nově zvolený výbor ústy svého předsedy vytýčil budoucí práci ‚Radbuzy‘, nový prý ‚pokrokový‘ program. Zastáncům původního spolkového směru, kteří prý ‚jsou všeho schopni‘, vmeteno ve tvář novým předsedou těžké podezření, že budou třeba lží a pomluvami znemožňovat práci výboru. Po tomto prohlášení značná část členstva, která již dříve se ocitala v rozporu mezi svým přesvědčením a vědomím studentské solidarity, nemohouc nésti dále zodpovědnost za činy nového vedení, zrušila své členství v akad.*[emickém] *spolku ‚Radbuza‘.“ Český Deník*. 1. 1. 1922. 11(1) s. 4.
[24] *„Rozkol v ‚Radbuze‘ a secesse 43 z celkového počtu 137 členů nastala tím, že vystoupivší členové nechtěli se smířiti s rozhodnutím valné schůze, konané 28. prosince 1921. Valná schůze zamítla kromě 3 výjimek zprávy všech funkcionářů, zvolených vystoupivšími členy na předešlé valné schůzi, a tím sesadila celý t. zv. dosavadní nepolitický směr, když byl projevil po dobu svého čtyřměsíčního působení úplnou a naprostou neschopnost a nezodpovědnost k práci jakéhokoliv druhu. Vystoupivší členové dokázali svoji studentskou solidaritu tím, že nesnesli vedle sebe žádného jiného směru studentské práce a že nastolení jiného směru způsobilo, že se již dávno ocitli v rozporu se svým stranickým přesvědčením. Práce v duchu socialistickém nemůže býti něčím politickým v rámci akademického spolku, neboť socialismus jako politikum (hnutí) je nesmírně více, než aby se mohl vtěsnati do omezeného obzoru krajinského studentského spolku. Je to jenom určitý směr studentské práce. Jemu však nedostalo se přesné formulace přednáškou tehdejšího předsedy* [Jaroslava Procházky – pozn. ZB] *na téma ‚Studentská politika‘, neboť přednáška jako osobní názor přednášejícího měla účel zavésti diskussi a dáti popud k přemýšlení a námět k rozvinutí programu studentské práce. Nový předseda nevmetl v tvář vystoupivším členům žádného těžkého podezření, nýbrž žádal jen členstvo, aby kritisovalo věcně a pravdivě nový výbor a aby neztěžovala se práce nového výboru lžemi a pomluvami, jak se někdy dříve stávalo. Výbor doufá, že rozkol v ‚Radbuze‘ jen vyjasnil poměry a že všichni členové dají se do práce s tím větší chutí. Na cestě kulturního a pokrokového programu byl rozkol v ‚Radbuze‘ a secesse jedné třetiny jejího členstva krátkozrakým vzdorem proti nezadržitelným proudům moderní doby, vnikajícím obrodně i do řad českého studentstva.“ Nová Doba*. 6. 1. 1922. 28(6), s. 3; *Český Směr*. 8. 1. 1922. 24(7), s. 4.

prokázali ‚Radbuze' cenné služby. Není prostě třeba brát je nějak vážně."[25] Veřejné výroky se ale rozcházely s realitou. Z interních rozprav i řeči úřadujícího předsedy Jiřího Pleskota z dubna 1922 je zjevná celková skepse: *„Převzali jsme vedení v době snad nejkritičtější pro spolek. Secesse v tak velikém rozsahu ‚Radbuza' ještě nezažila. A dříve byly vždy sympatie veřejnosti na straně ‚Radbuzy', dnes však vidíme opak. ‚Ak.*[ademický] *klub' má cele sympatie ‚Čes.*[kého] *Deníku' a jeho příznivců a my kteří jsme doufali, že snad aspoň sympatie dělnictva nám zůstanou, vidíme svůj omyl a nyní ovšem ho chápeme. Dělnictvu nejsme nezbytnými. I ten tolik vynášený D. S. V. ztrácí na své přitažlivosti."*[26]
Akademický klub zdůvodňoval svoji secesi *„zpolitizováním"* Radbuzy.[27] Otázkou zůstává, nakolik je tato výtka v celkovém kontextu opodstatněná. Zkraje svého působení totiž vystupoval obdobně „apoliticky" jako organizace, od které se odštěpil; jeho vznik byl projevem vzdoru vůči levicovým tendencím, které Radbuza následovala. Šlo o střet dvou světonázorových skupin na platformě studentského spolku, jehož původní zaměření v oblasti vzdělávání, kulturní osvěty, školství i sociálního programu bylo stále více motivováno politickými zájmy. Vlastní spolková činnost Akademického klubu se pak do jisté míry překrývala s aktivitami, které naplňovala Radbuza. Pořádal exkurze, debatní schůzky, přednášky, společenské večery ad., avšak na základě zcela odlišné ideové směrnice: *„Chceme studenstvo vrátiti kulturní práci národní a zachrániti je před moderními bolševickými hesly, které nemohou býti prospěšnými stavovské práci studentské."*[28] Připomínal elitní společenství nacionálně cítící městské inteligence, jehož zázemí tvořili převážně posluchači práv a pražské techniky.
Krátce po svém vzniku se Akademický klub začlenil – po vzoru „předprosincové" Radbuzy – do Ústředního svazu československého studentstva (ÚSČS).[29] Instituce si prostřednictvím tří oblastních kanceláří v Praze, Brně a Bratislavě vytkla za cíl vybudovat národní jednotu studentských krajinských a fakultních spolků a stát se jejich odborovou centrálou. Akademický klub i Radbuza spadaly do územní kompetence pražského ústředí, kam vysílaly delegáty k účasti na valných shromážděních svazu. Když ale na jaře 1922 ÚSČS zvažoval, zda přizvat ke spolupráci také zástupce národnostních menšin,[30] způsobil mezi studenty značný rozruch. K Akademickému klubu se informace donesla v půli dubna 1922, provázena nesouhlasnými reakcemi; alespoň tak popsal své rozhořčení opět Jiří Branžovský: *„Včera ve schůzi Ak.*[ademického] *klubu přišla tato zpráva od Ústředí na tapetu, aniž by kdo co bližšího věděl! To víš, já hned spustil huronský řev proti podobnému paktování, protože znám mentalitu našich súsedů přec trochu lépe než moji kollegové, kteří ‚za hranicemi' byli nejdále až v Praze!"*[31] ÚSČS věřil, že touto iniciativou posílí svoji prestiž u Mezinárodní studentské konfederace (CIE). Princip státní (teritoriální) příslušnosti vytvářel předpoklad pro skutečně celorepublikový svaz studentů a studentských spolků všech národností ČSR. Vize však nedošla naplnění. Narazila na odpor z řad českého nacionálního studentstva a zároveň na organizační roztříštěnost německých a maďarských akademiků, která vylučovala společný postup při vyjednávání o fúzi s ÚSČS.[32]

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[25] *Nová Doba*. 6. 1. 1922. 28(6), s. 3.
[26] AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 526.
[27] Tamtéž, karton č. B 378.
[28] Tamtéž, karton č. A 310.
[29] ÚSČS se konstituoval v únoru 1920 jako nástupce předválečného Svazu československého studentstva. Vycházel z národního principu, tzn. že jeho členy mohli být pouze Češi a Slováci. K dějinám organizace blíže: HLADÍKOVÁ, Marta. *Ústřední svaz čsl. studentstva v letech 1920–1926*. Praha 2004. Rigorózní práce. Univerzita Karlova. Pedagogická fakulta. Katedra dějin a didaktiky dějepisu.
[30] Němce, Maďary, studenty z Podkarpatské Rusi a Poláky. Tamtéž, s. 96.
[31] Soukromý archiv Jiřího Branžovského, dopis Olze Bozděchové s datem 14. 4. 1922.
[32] AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. B 355.

Napětí mezi Radbuzou a Akademickým klubem v průběhu roku 1922 slábl0, což se odrazilo nejen v periodickém tisku.[33] Oba spolky praktikovaly taktiku smírného přístupu, alespoň pokud šlo o rozhodování na bázi ÚSČS a o prosazování cílů, na kterých měly společný zájem. Také v Plzni se ovšem projevil obecný trend: s vyprcháním levicového zápalu se ve studentském spolkovém životě začali prosazovat nacionalisté tíhnoucí k politické pravici. Akademickému klubu se v nadcházejícím čase dařilo rozšiřovat okruh příznivců (úspěšný byl v tomto ohledu zvláště jeho středoškolský odbor), počtem členů dokonce předčil bývalý mateřský spolek.[34] Radbuze rok oslav padesátiletého výročí trvání naopak přichystal nejednu těžkou zkoušku; v březnu 1923 ustala – pro naprostou pasivitu dělnictva i studentů – činnost Dělnicko-studentského výboru a o dva měsíce později propukla tzv. fochiáda, aféra mající pro spolek téměř fatální důsledky.[35] Tyto události ale překračují rámec našeho výkladu.

4 ZÁVĚREM

„Radbuza“ – Spolek akademiků kraje plzeňského se od počátků své existence výrazně podílela na organizaci vysokoškolského života; nejprve v regionu, později skrze ustavující členství v ÚSČS i na úrovni celostátní. Napomáhala kultivovat studentský spolkový prostor a současně absorbovala soudobé politické tendence. Z jejího podnětu docházelo v prvních poválečných letech ke kontaktům plzeňského studentstva se sociálně diferencovanou dělnickou mládeží, což narušovalo stavovský ráz spolku, vedlo k ideové rozepři a odlivu členů. Z konzervativních tradic a nacionálních pohnutek vzešlý Akademický klub odmítal levicové myšlenky, byl veden stavovskou pospolitostí, *„praktickými otázkami studentskými“* a hodnotovými principy společenské vrstvy, k níž náležel. Rozkol přesáhl spolkové hranice v publicistických konfrontacích, pro které znesvářené tábory nalezly tribunu v místním tisku. Radbuza i Akademický klub se předháněly v účelových komuniké, ve snaze získat na svou stranu plzeňskou veřejnost. Ta však byla – podobně jako spolková scéna – politicky polarizovaná. Obě akademická tělesa se nicméně stala podhoubím nastupující plzeňské honorace. Řada bývalých vůdčích studentských osobností natrvalo zakotvila ve veřejné sféře: participovala na městské samosprávě, hospodářskými, sociálními i kulturními aktivitami vytvářela stabilní vrstvu tzv. lokální elity.

Prameny a literatura

Archivní prameny

1. Archiv města Plzně, fond Dělnicko-studentský výbor v Plzni (1920–1923)
2. Archiv Univerzity Karlovy, fond Všestudentský archiv (1848–1953)
3. Soukromý archiv Jiřího Branžovského, korespondence (1922)

Dobový tisk

1. *Český Deník* 1922
2. *Český Směr* 1922
3. *Nová Doba* 1922

[33] Vedení Radbuzy se ke zlomovým událostem znovu oficiálně a již bez znatelných emocí vyjádřilo ve výroční spolkové zprávě: *„Rozkol byl zcela přirozený a nutný, neboť třídní diferenciace v národě odůvodněná hospodářsky a sociálně, musela nutně rozložiti i studenstvo…“ Výroční zpráva „Radbuzy“, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1921–1922 a v jubilejním správním roce 1922–1923.* Plzeň 1923, s. 4.

[34] Z několika desítek se klub ve správním roce 1923/1924 rozrostl až na 200 činných členů. AUK, f. Všestudentský archiv, karton č. A 300. Dále ŠPERL, V. Několik vzpomínek. In: *Almanach k šedesátiletému jubileu studentského spolku Radbuza v Plzni*. Plzeň 1934, s. 37-38.

[35] Blíže *Výroční zpráva „Radbuzy“, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1921–1922 a v jubilejním správním roce 1922–1923.* Plzeň 1923, s. 19-21.

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5. ŠPERL, V. Několik vzpomínek. In: *Almanach k šedesátiletému jubileu studentského spolku Radbuza v Plzni*. Plzeň 1934, s. 37-38.
6. *Výroční zpráva „Radbuzy“, spolku akademiků kraje plzeňského, ve správním roce 1921–1922 a v jubilejním správním roce 1922–1923*. Plzeň 1923.

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REAKCIA VÝCHODNÉHO A ZÁPADNÉHO SVETA NA UDALOSTI V ČESKOSLOVENSKU V ROKU 1968 (K 50. VÝROČIU OKUPÁCIE)

REACTION OF THE EASTERN AND WESTERN WORLD TO THE HAPPENING IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA IN 1968 (TO THE 50TH ANNIVERSARY OF THE OCCUPATION)

Lenka Tkáč-Zabáková

Abstrakt

V československom kontexte sú 60. roky minulého storočia spájané predovšetkým s liberalizáciou politickej situácie. Pokus o demokratizáciu spoločnosti, v dejinách známy pod pojmom „Pražská jar", bol prerušený vojenskou intervenciou štátov Varšavskej zmluvy. Štúdia sa sústreďuje na reakcie európskych a mimoeurópskych krajín, svetových organizácií OSN a NATO a i. na tieto udalosti, od ktorých uplynulo už polstoročie. Bipolarita medzinárodnej diplomacie na základe stanovených sfér vplyvu Východu a Západu by mala byť determinantom homogénnej reakcie v rámci jednotlivých blokov. V štúdii sú predstavené viaceré prejavy solidarity v rôznych formách a ďalšie kolektívne či individuálne postoje a aktivity, ktoré boli podniknuté v súvislosti s okupáciou ČSR.

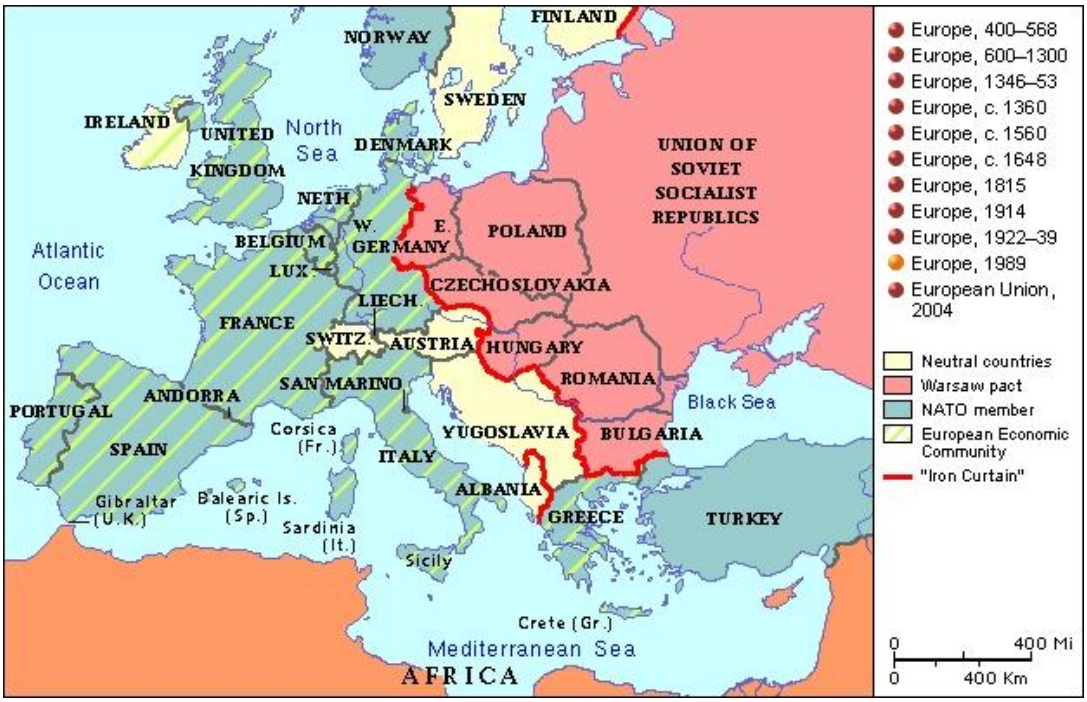
Kľúčová slova: *normalizácia, Pražská jar, invázia vojsk krajín V4, vojenská okupácia, demokracia, represálie*

Abstract

In the Czechoslovak context, 1960s are associated with liberalization of the political situation. The attempt to democratize society known as the "Prague Spring" resulted in the intervention of the states of the Warsaw Pact. The study focuses on reactions of European and non-European states, world organizations (UN, NATO) and others to the military occupation of the Czechoslovak Republic in 1968, that 50th anniversary will be remembered this August. Bipolarity of the international diplomacy was declared for this period of time – as these political spheres of influence had been previously stated, there was a general premise expecting homogeneous reaction to the occupation within these blocs. The study points to several manifestations of solidarity in its various forms and other collective or individual activities carried out with the regard to the occupation of Czechoslovakia.

Key words: *normalization, Prague Spring, invasion of the armies of the V4 countries, military occupation, democracy, reprisals*

Stretnutia vojnových víťazov rozhodli o povojnovom usporiadaní Európy – železnou oponou ju rozdelilo na sféru politického vplyvu Východu a Západu. Rešpektovanie výsledkov rokovaní na Jalte, v Teheráne a v hlavnom meste Brandenburska Postupim malo zabezpečiť pokojný priebeh rekonštrukcie vojnou skúšaného európskeho kontinentu, ktorý sa stal jedným z hlavných mocensko-politických záujmov oboch blokov.



Studená vojna začínajúca takmer bezprostredne po skončení najväčšieho ozbrojeného konfliktu svetového rozmeru ovplyvnila vývoj prakticky všetkých, aj mimoeurópskych štátov. Mierové predstavy boli naštrbené rôznymi čiastkovými konfliktami. Výrazný dopad mali napríklad nároky Sovietov na územie Poľska, Číny a iné. Jednou z priorít ZSSR bolo aj zachovanie jednoty Varšavského paktu a obava z toho, aby sa ktorákoľvek z členských krajín neubrala podobným politickým smerom, ako to urobilo Rumunsko či Albánsko, bola silnejšia ako pocit istoty založený na podpise Varšavskej doktríny na jar roku 1955.

Dejiny malých mnohonárodnostných, slovansko-neslovanských štátov v srdci Európy boli determinované práve procesmi, ktoré súviseli s povojnovou zmenou hraníc. Strategická poloha ČSSR[1] sa stala kľúčovým faktorom, ktorý krajinu staval do úlohy akéhosi „obranného valu“ socialistického bloku pred „západným kapitalizmom“. Z tohto dôvodu sa sovietski predstavitelia okamžite zaujímali a reagovali na akékoľvek náznaky kontrarevolúcie; či už išlo o demonštráciu v Poznani, maďarské povstanie v 1956 alebo demokratizačné procesy v období „predjaria“ v 60. rokoch minulého storočia v Československu, známe pod pojmom „Pražská jar“.

Súčasťou domácej protireformačnej aktivity prosovietskeho ľavicového krídla KSČ, ktoré reprezentovali Vasil Biľak, Alois Indra, Drahomír Kolder, Oldřich Švestka, Antonín Kapka a ďalší, bolo doručenie tzv. Pozývacieho listu. Tento dokument údajne obsahoval oficiálnu žiadosť o intervenciu spriatelených štátov a bol napísaný v ruštine. Jeho existencia bola však

[1] Historicky sa odjakživa oblasť dnešného Česka a Slovenska považovala za priesečník rôznych geopolitických faktorov, veľkomocenských ambícií, plánov a vízií nielen regionálneho, ale aj európskeho rozmeru. V období existencie politických ambícií Ruska (spojených so sovietizáciou Európy) mala práve spomínaná stredoeurópska oblasť zásadný význam. Dôležitosť ovládania Prahy ako politického, hospodárskeho, ekonomického a kultúrneho centra ČSSR, ktoré je navyše situované 160 km západne od Viedne − rovnako významného centra „imperialistického západu“, bola pre Moskvu skutočne kľúčová. Čechy sa totiž nachádzajú v súvislom priestore strategicko-operačného smeru Praha − Norimberg − Štrasburg − Dijon. V súvislosti s predpokladanými plánmi NATO si velenie spojeneckých vojsk uvedomovalo dôležitosť ČSSR ako južného suseda vtedajšej NDR. Slovenská časť územia bola vďaka východnejšej polohe „menej atraktívnou lokalitou“. Týmto priestorom neviedli žiadne významné taktické operačné smery, kým Česko bolo navyše vojensky aj politicky rozvinutejšie. Aj klimatické a prírodné podmienky boli pre možné budúce boje vhodnejšie ako tie na Slovensku (PÚČIK, 1999, s. 8−12).

niekoľkokrát spochybnená. Aj napriek tomu, že jeho originál sa nezachoval, existuje predpoklad, že takýto list bol predstaviteľom ZSSR doručený priamo počas ich pobytu v Bratislave na začiatku augusta 1968 (KRÁKORA − KOPEČEK, 2010, s. 49). Jeho autorstvo sa pripisuje už vyššie spomínanému konzervatívno-dogmatickému krídlu KSČ.[2]

Vážený Leonide Iljiči[b],

s vědomím plné odpovědnosti za naše rozhodnutí se na vás obracíme s tímto naším prohlášením.

Náš polednový demokratický proces, ve své podstatě zdravý, náprava chyb a nedostatků minulosti i celkové politické vedení společnosti je postupně odnímáno z rukou ústředního výboru strany. Tisk, rozhlas a televize, které se prakticky nacházejí v rukou pravicových sil, natolik ovlivnily veřejné mínění, že politického života země se dnes bez odporu společnosti začínají zúčastňovat elementy straně nepřátelské. Rozvíjejí vlnu nacionalismu a šovinismu, vyvolávají antikomunistickou a antisovětskou psychózu.

Náš kolektiv – vedení strany – se dopustil řady chyb. Nedokázali jsme dobře zabezpečit[c] a uvést do života marxisticko-leninské normy stranického života, a to především principy demokratického centralismu. Vedení strany nadále není schopno bránit se útokům na socialismus, není schopno organizovat proti pravicovým silám ani ideologický, ani politický odpor. Sama podstata socialismu v naší zemi je ohrožena.

Politické prostředky a prostředky státní moci v naší zemi v současné době jsou již do značné míry paralyzovány. Pravicové síly vytvořily příznivé podmínky pro kontrarevoluční převrat.

V této těžké situaci se obracíme k vám, sovětští komunisté, vedoucí představitelé KSSS a SSSR,[d] s prosbou o poskytnutí opravdové pomoci a podpory všemi prostředky, které máte k dispozici.[e] Pouze s vaší pomocí je možno vyprostit ČSSR z hrozícího nebezpečí kontrarevoluce.[f]

Jsme si vědomi toho, že pro KSSS a SSSR[g] by tento poslední krok na obranu socialismu v ČSSR nebyl[h] lehký. Proto budeme ze všech svých sil bojovat vlastními prostředky. Ale v případě, že by naše síly a možnosti byly vyčerpány, anebo kdyby nepřinesly kladné výsledky[ch], považujte toto naše prohlášení za naléhavou prosbu[i] a požadavek o vaši akci a všestrannou pomoc.

S ohledem na složitost a nebezpečí vývoje situace v naší zemi prosíme vás o maximální utajení tohoto našeho prohlášení, z tohoto důvodu jej píšeme přímo osobně vám v ruském jazyce.

Indra – Kolder Drahomír – Kapek – Švestka – V. Biľak]

Požiadavka Sovietskeho zväzu kompletne vymeniť najvyšších predstaviteľov komunistickej strany tak, aby boli v súlade s ich predstavami, bola považovaná za krok narušajúci absolútnu suverenitu štátu a priniesla do nielen československých, ale aj do európskych a svetových diplomatických kruhov otázku adekvátnosti rozsahu a opodstatnenia tejto „bratskej" intervencie vôbec. Prezident Svoboda uznal kritiku Moskvy, nerešpektoval však rozhodnutie o navrhovanej demisii vlády, keďže pokladal takéto nariadenie za neústavné.[3] Sovieti nepochybne sledovali vlastné veľkomocenské ciele bez ohľadu na záujmy stredoeurópskych krajín, v ktorých vnútorný tlak a napätie vyústili v rokoch 1956 a 1968 až do prodemokratických aktivít. Vojenskou operáciou „Dunaj" začala okupácia ČSR.

Reakcia na tieto udalosti na seba nenechala dlho čakať. Lojálnosť a solidaritu prejavili mnohé európske krajiny. Taliansko a Rakúsko automaticky predĺžili víza československým občanom. Rakúsky Červený kríž v tejto nevyspytateľnej situácii začal na hranici s ČSSR budovať záchytné tábory pre prípadných emigrantov. V sobotu 24. augusta 1968 arcibiskup z Canterbury odslúžil omšu za obyvateľov ČSSR. O dva dni neskôr bola zvolaná aj mimoriadna schôdza britského parlamentu venovaná situácii v ČSSR, na ktorej sa zúčastnil aj

[2] Kópia Pozývacieho listu bola odovzdaná česko-slovenskej vláde v roku 1992. Urobil tak vtedajší ruský prezident Boris Jeľcin. Aj napriek naliehaniu bývalej premiérky I. Radičovej a ďalších opakovaných žiadostí, slovenská (príp. bývalá česko-slovenská strana konfliktu) originál dokumentu k nahliadnutiu nikdy nedostala (BYSTRICKÝ a kol., 2008, s. 41).

[3] Z rôznych zdrojov pochádza informácia, že v druhý deň okupácie (22. augusta 1968) vydalo velenie okupačných vojsk ultimátum, aby bola do 18 hodín zostavená vláda, ktorá odsúhlasí vojenskú intervenciu Sovietov a ďalších spojencov. *„Nebude-li ultimátum splněno ve stanovené lhůtě, bude nastolen okupační režim se všemi důsledky a s použitím všech prostředků"* (ROŽÁNEK,2013, s. 30).

československý veľvyslanec JUDr. Miloslav Růžek. Okrem návrhu zásahu NATO diskutovali aj o možnosti investovať do rozšírenia vysielania stanice BBC v snahe zabezpečiť šírenie informácií aj pre strednú a východnú Európu.
Združenie mimoparlamentnej opozície Der Republikanische Club Západného Berlína v rámci Stellungnahme zur ČSSR Frage vydalo svoje úradné stanovisko v troch bodoch:

1. Intervencia nie je problém suverenity socialistických zemí, ale perspektív socialistickej revolúcie. To znamená, že pobyt zahraničných vojsk nebude mať dôsledky na akési spochybnenie suverenity či štátoprávia okupovaných krajín.
2. Pokladali za dôležité rozlišovať revolučnú a kontrarevolučnú intervenciu. Kým revolučnú pokladali za neoprávnenú, kontrarevolučnú za oprávnenú. Čo ale podľa nich nebol prípad ČSSR.
3. Predstavitelia pokladajú rozhodnutie ZSSR zasiahnuť do procesov, do istej miery, za racionálnu snahu potvrdiť vedúcu úlohu socialistického hnutia.

Zaujímavé je, že napr. balkánske krajiny, ktorých vláda bola síce socialistická, s vojenskou intervenciou nesúhlasili. Morálnych spojencov ČSSR našlo teda aj v sovietskom bloku. Išlo hlavne o podporu Rumunska a Juhoslávie, s ktorými Československo udržiavalo relatívne intenzívne vzťahy založené na predchádzajúcej spolupráci z rokov 1921 − 1939 v rámci Malej dohody.
Teda aj napriek tomu, že v nej vládli komunistické sily vedené partizánskym a komunistickým vodcom J. B. Titom – realizujúcim nezávislú zahraničnú politiku, bola nezúčastneným štátom − nepodpísala ani Varšavskú zmluvu a nebola ani oficiálnym členom RVHP (mala s ňou len osobnú dohodu). Pozícia Juhoslávie v európskej diplomatickej a politickej sfére bola teda v tomto období veľmi špecifická.
Jej ekonomický a celkový hospodársky systém nebol ani zďaleka naviazaný na sovietsky model do takej miery ako ten československý.
Dôležitú podporu reformačných procesov v ČSSR prezentoval počas svojej návštevy Prahy 9. augusta 1968 práve Tito. Politické diskusie s Dubčekom boli zamerané na demokratické reformačné možnosti v areáli, čo potvrdilo predchádzajúce obavy ZSSR o spoločné plány vytvorenia akého si od Moskvy nezávislého teritória strednej Európy a Balkánu. Sám Dubček vo svojom prejave uviedol: *„…naša zahraničná politika stojí na zásadách proletárskeho internacionalizmu, cítime súdržnosť s bratskými stranami socialistických krajín, rešpektujeme platnosť všeobecných princípov výstavby socializmu rovnako ako všetci musia rešpektovať historické a národné tradície“* (RETEGAN, 2002, s. 13). Tito k tomu dodal, že podporuje zachovanie socializmu, no čiastočná demokratizácia a liberalizácia systému je podľa neho rovnako dôležitá. Na základe nadštandardných vzťahov Juhoslovanská socialistická federatívna republika odsúdila pripravovaný vojenský zákrok varšavských vojsk a ich akékoľvek výrazné intervenčné zásahy do vnútornej politiky štátu.
Solidarizujúci postoj Rumunska a Juhoslávie voči ČSSR rovnako ovplyvnil ich vzťahy s východoeurópskou mocnosťou. Potvrdil totiž domnienky ZSSR, ktoré videlo v spojení týchto dvoch krajín s Československom hrozbu voči socialistickému systému. Sovietska tlačová kancelária TASS obvinila Juhosláviu a Rumunských predstaviteľov zo zastávania rovnakej línie politiky ako mocnosti „imperialistického paktu“ NATO a Čína.
Práve stanovisko Číny patrilo medzi rovnako zásadné. Jej postavenie vo svete sovietsko-čínskym konfliktom silnelo. Nepriamym dôsledkom ich vzájomných sporov bolo budovanie sympatií balkánskych krajín voči Číne, hlavne Albánska a Rumunska. Albánsko bolo krajinou, ktorá na podnet Číny začala spochybňovať postavenie ZSSR ako prvá a následne ukončila svoje členstvo v RVHP aj Varšavskom pakte. Celkový pokles autority Moskvy a Varšavského združenia štátov ako takého priniesol aj dramatický obrat v Československu. Zložité vzťahy medzi demokratickým/kapitalistickým Západom a socialistickým Východom prešli komplikovaným vývojovým procesom. Výnimkou neboli ani jednania samotných

opozičných superveľmocí USA a ZSSR, ktoré boli v priebehu 20. storočia pod neustálym vplyvom nielen ich vzájomných konfliktov, ale aj ich celkovou zahraničnou politikou odhliadajúc od konkrétnych stretov ich záujmov. V 60. rokoch boli ich relácie ovplyvnené rokovaniami o obmedzení strategických zbraní, ktoré sa práve najviac týkali práve týchto dvoch centier. Satelitné štáty Sovietskeho zväzu boli závislé na kremeľskej politike, z čoho vyplýva globálnosť dôsledkov americko-sovietskych diskusií na celý východný blok.
Belgická vláda prakticky okamžite po okupácii a do odvolania prerušila všetky kultúrne a ekonomické kontakty so štátmi Varšavskej zmluvy. Turecká vláda zase vyjadrila nádej v správne riešenie, ktoré malo vzniknúť na medzinárodnej pôde OSN, dúfajúc, že spojenecké vojská opustia strednú Európu v čo najkratšom čase (BYSTRICKÝ, 2008, s. 202). Taliansky premiérsky predseda Giovanni Leone označil okupáciu za mimoriadne závažný priestupok, ktorý je v rozpore s ľudskými právami. Gesto solidarity voči Československu priniesli aj talianski usporiadatelia benátskeho festivalu filmu – zabezpečili mimoriadne nahradenie pôvodne plánovaného francúzskeho snímku filmom Juraja Jakubiska *Zbehovia a pútnici* (ROŽÁNEK, 2013, s. 30−40).
Okupáciu z morálnych dôvodov odsúdil aj vatikánsky pápež Pavol VI. Hlboké sympatie voči statočnosti československého národa vyjadrila aj indická premiérka Indira Ghándiová, ktorá ocenila predovšetkým pokojný priebeh disciplinovaného domáceho odporu. Americký prezident Lyndon Johnson, ktorý vojenský útok na ČSSR očakával, považoval však za prioritu neohroziť vlastné dlhodobé ciele v rokovaniach so ZSSR. Z tohto dôvodu bol postoj USA k vývoju v ČSSR zdržanlivý. Podľa Deana Ruska, vtedajšieho ministra zahraničných vecí USA, bolo v záujme americkej diplomacie *„neformálne a diskrétne dávať najavo...že USA vítajú kroky Československa smerom k liberalizácii“* (BYSTRICKÝ, 2008, s. 202). V prípade, že by sovietske Rusko akýmkoľvek spôsobom obvinilo USA z podnecovania kontrarevolúcie v ČSSR, čo by mohlo mať práve obávané ďalekosiahle dôsledky na ich vzájomné vzťahy, námestník ministra Rostow odporúčal tieto prehlásenia odvolať. Takáto roztržitá reakcia USA bola tiež poznačená zložitými diplomatickými vzťahmi s Kubou. V tejto súvislosti je možné spomenúť, že k situácii sa vyjadril aj Fidel Castro – tento kubánsky vodca označil intervenciu v strednej Európe za protizákonnú, no zároveň ju v rámci zachovania povojnového usporiadania sveta a spoločnej obrany socialistického systému pokladal za politicky nevyhnutnú. Svojimi argumentmi fakticky podporil Brežnevovu doktrínu obmedzujúcu suverenitu ČSSR.
NATO, ktorého zakladajúcim štátom v roku 1945 bolo aj Československo, sa podobne rozhodlo proti invázii vojsk Varšavskej zmluvy nezasahovať. Jednotky dostali rozkaz držať pohotovosť, no nezasahovať, a to kým konflikt nepresiahne hranice socialistických štátov. Orgány NATO situáciu v strednej Európe dôsledne monitorovali a ich vojská boli pripravené prehodnotiť rozmiestnenia vzhľadom ku aktivitám ZSSR. Zaujímavé je pozorovať jednoznačnosť v odmietnutí okupácie u viacerých delegátov no zároveň aj ich relatívnu bezmocnosť. Rada sa síce snažila vyvinúť maximálny tlak na ZSSR a žiadala odchod spojeneckých vojsk z Československa, no tu ich iniciatíva vo vyriešení konfliktu končí. Stiahnutie otázky z rokovacieho programu na žiadosť ZSSR de facto znamenalo legitimáciu ich vojenského zákroku. Predpokladáme, že k zastaveniu v rokovaniach došlo kvôli napätým vzájomným vzťahom so sovietskym Ruskom disponujúcim ťažko vyčísliteľným nukleárnym arzenálom. Tento fakt s veľkou pravdepodobnosťou motivoval najmä západné krajiny v zámere udržať si bezpečný dištanc od záležitostí sovietskej či už vnútornej alebo medzinárodnej politiky.
Reakcie západných mocností na procesy Pražskej jari a predjaria boli plaché a z rôznych dôvodov nejednoznačné. Vo všeobecnosti sa dá povedať, že o dianie v strednej Európe síce prejavili záujem, no zároveň sa od neho z značnej miery dištancovali. Ich prioritné záujmy boli v politickými udalosťami presýtenom roku 1968 úplne inde. Niektorým z najvyšších

predstaviteľov bol výsledok tohto konfliktu záujmov jasný − ním bola kontrola kontrarevolučných politických aktivít, či už nejaké v Československu prebiehali alebo nie.
Veľká opatrnosť socialistických spojencov pri vydávaní oficiálnych vyhlásení spojených s aktivitami Dubčekovcov bola nepochybne dôsledkom faktu, že krajiny mali podpísanú medzinárodnú zmluvu so ZSSR v podobe Varšavského paktu. Vedúca rola komunistickej strany v spoločnosti, a tak nepriamo aj jej centralizovaného riadenia z Moskvy, bola zakotvená v ústavách všetkých jej členov. Ambivalencia postojov voči okupácii ČSSR je teda v majoritnej väčšine vyjadrení jednotlivých štátov celkom jasná a oprávnená. Odráža a je dôsledkom vnútornej heterogénnosti krajín nielen východnej Európy, ale aj celého sveta.
V socialistických aj nesocialistických krajinách sveta prevládal negatívny postoj k okupácii Československa varšavskými vojskami. Vzhľadom na to, že ani existencia Pozývacieho listu je potvrdená, okupácia prebehla proti vôli vedúcich predstaviteľov ČSSR. Intervencia ako taká, vychádzajúc z medzinárodných zmlúv a dohôd, by nebola problémom, no podľa viacerých k nej malo dôjsť na diplomatickej úrovni. Vojenský zásah bol preto vnímaný ako násilný a z historického hľadiska v ňom môžeme vidieť paralelu s rokom 1938, prípadne s konfliktom komunistických a antikomunistických štátov vo Vietname, resp. v celej Indočíne. (1964–1975).
Vo všeobecnosti dominoval názor, že riadne ohlásené vojenské cvičenie zo strany Ruska by mohlo podozrenie z kontrarevolúcie vyriešiť účinnejšie – kontrarevolučné sily by tak boli pod neustálym vojenským dozorom, čo by prakticky zabránilo akýmkoľvek ďalším reformačným snahám.
Skupinové či individuálne prejavy nesúhlasu s okupáciou ČSR prebehli aj na úrovni protestov, tie sa uskutočnili v Ríme, v Kodani sa na protestnej akcii socialistickej ľudovej strany zúčastnilo asi sedemsto Dánov, v nórskom Osle prišlo proti sovietskej invázií demontštrovať až desaťtisíc ľudí. Dňa 25. augusta 1968 sa na moskovskom Červenom námestí odohrala demonštrácia proti agresii ZSSR. Zúčastnilo sa jej osem ľudí. Protesty boli vzhľadom na počet demonštrantov pokojné, no TASS ich vyhlásila za „dôstojnosť sovietskych občanov urážajúce a nebezpečné“. Verejnosti v tom čase bolo zatajené, že skupina protestovala práve proti okupácii ČSSR. Demonštrantov brániacich sa heslami „Strácame najlepších priateľov!“, „Za vašu a našu slobodu“ a pod. KGB okamžite po oznámení protestu zajala a vypočúvala. 12. októbra si skupina zložená z lingvistu Konstantina Babického, básnika Vadima Deloneho, robotníka Vladimira Dremľugu, anglistu Viktora Fajnberga, poetky a prekladateľky Nataľji Gorbanevskej, fyzika Pavla Litvinova, lingvistky Larisu Bogorazovej a študentky Taťjany Bajevovej vypočula rozsudok − šesť z nich malo udelených päť a pol ročný pobyt vo väzení a pätnásť rokov vyhnanstva, zvyšní dvaja sa museli podrobiť psychiatrickej liečbe (RUML,1990, s. 69). Ruská polícia aj v roku 2013 na rovnakom mieste zadržala a pokutovala aktivistov, ktorí si chceli pripomenúť výročie invázie vojsk.
Zaznamenané sú aj aktivity zahraničných Slovákov a Čechov, ktorí práve v období rokov 1968 − 1969 odišli do exilu, no ďalej sa o situáciu v Československu zaujímali. Príkladom je Jan Polášek – profesionálny scénograf a výstavný architekt narodený v Prahe, ktorý inicioval vznik Združenia slobodných Čechov a Slovákov vo Švédsku, kam v 1969 emigroval. Tento krajinský spolok vznikol na politickej platforme ako protest expatriotov žijúcich v Škandinávii proti politickej situácii vo vtedajšom Československu.
Prejavom odporu boli aj gradujúce protesty a protiokupačné demonštrácie, ktoré vyvrcholili vlnou šokujúcej formy protestu − sebaupálením. Prvou osobou vo východnom bloku týmto spôsobom protestujúcou proti invázii vojsk, bol poľský úradník Ryszard Siwiec. K samovražednému činu došlo na varšavskom Štadióne desaťročia počas celorepublikových osláv dožinkov za účasti asi stotisícového davu, vrátane najvyšších komunistických predstaviteľov štátu. Svoj čin mal Siwiec vopred naplánovaný. Tento päťdesiatdeväťročný

úradník pripravil protestné letáky a magnetofónovú nahrávku, v ktorej obviňoval Sovietsky zväz z jeho imperialistických zámerov.[4]
Prvou obeťou protestných aktivít jednotlivcov v ČSSR bol práve pražský študent Ján Palach. V ďalších mesiacoch ho nasledovali Josef Hlavatý, Jan Zajíc, Miroslav Malinka, Blanka Nacházelová a Evžen Plocek, ďalej maďarský učeň Sándor Bauer, v Košiciach sa rovnako upálil Michal Lefčík a následne aj židovský študent z Lotyšska Ilja Rips. Všetci spomenutí takýmto spôsobom reagovali priamo na vojenskú akciu organizovanú Sovietskym zväzom a jeho spojencami a ani zďaleka nie sú všetkým obeťami samovrážd v krajinách, ktoré boli spojené či už príchodom alebo pobytom týchto vojsk v ČSSR.
Reakcia verejnosti na tieto tragické protestné udalosti bola rozpačitá. Kým tisíce pokladajú obetavých protestantov za hrdinov, na druhej strane s odstupom času silnejú aj ohlasy vyzdvihujúce skôr duševnú nestabilitu iniciátorov týchto protestov ako ich oddané vlastenectvo. Faktom zostáva, že napríklad Ryszardovi Siwiecovi bol prezidentom Gašparovičom udelený Rad Bieleho dvojkríža III. triedy in memoriam. Stalo sa tak 4. septembra 2006. Pamiatku všetkých obetí okupácie si bude možné pripomenúť aj pri 50. výročí invázie, ktoré si koncom augusta 2018 pripomíname.

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[4] Tento protest a jeho tragické dôsledky sa však podarilo polícii utajiť. Po tom, ako poľská redakcia Rádia Slobodná Európa považovala za informáciu o upálení sa za nedôveryhodnú, mníchovská redakcia sa o ňom dozvedela z anonymného listu. Ten obsahoval podrobný popis udalosti a správa tak bola v marci 1969 uverejnená. V roku 1981 bol zverejnený aj pamätný dokument s prepisom posolstva hlasového záznamu. Začiatkom 90. rokov bol podľa tejto skutočnej udalosti natočený filmový dokument *Budete počuť môj krik*. V roku 2003 sa dokonca podarilo získať z archívu poľského Ústavu národnej pamäte zábery zo štadiónu a zrekonštruovať tak celý priebeh udalosti.

ROZMĚRY POJMU „ŽIDOVSKÁ LITERATURA“ Z PERSPEKTIVY RECEPČNÍCH AKTŮ. „DEFINOVÁNÍ NEDEFINOVATELNÉHO“

MEANING OF MEANING: „JEWISH LITERATURE“ FROM DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES. „DEFINING THE UNDEFINABLE“

Alexej Mikulášek

Abstrakt

Příspěvek pojednává o heterogenitě významů pojmu „židovská literatura“. Co tento pojem znamená? Je vykládána jako texty psané hebrejsky, jidiš, ladino nebo moderní hebrejštinou (tzv. židovskými jazyky). Znamená také soubor židovských témat, příběhů, motivů, „hlediska“ etc. Je chápána jako soubor děl psaných židy/Židy, avšak židovská identita podle tzv. halachického práva nemá literárně umělecký význam (podstatnější je sebe-identifikace, popř. „přiznaná identita“). Židovská literatura znamená jednak literaturu národní, ale také se stává faktem mezi-literární výměny a nabývá trans-nacionální důležitosti. Někdy je chápána i jako soubor nejhodnotnějších děl tohoto písemnictví. Je rovněž vnímána i jako hlubinný výraz „národní duše“ židovské komunity. Atp. Vidíme, že jeden pojem má mnoho odlišných významů, a to i v současnosti. Pokládáme za důležité popsat onu „jednotu v mnohosti“, ale také ji pochopit a akceptovat.

Klíčová slova: *Židovská literatura, heterogenita koncepcí, židovský jazyk, „národní duše“, témata, náboženská tradice, identita a kulturní sebe-identita.*

Abstract

The paper deals with the conceptual heterogeniety of „Jewish litterature“. What does this concept mean? It means texts, which are written by Hebrew, Yiddish, Ladino or Modern Hebrew (so called Jewish languages). It means textual Jewish topics (fables, characters, motifs, significant „point of view“). It means literary pieces written by Jews - but Jewish identity according to Halacha Law has not the literary importance (self-identity or recognized identity are the most important). It means the national literature as well as inter-national and trans-national literature (as belles-lettres). It means the best pieces of „Jewish writing“ around the world. It means the huge expression of „national spirit“ of the Jewish community. Etc. We are bringing to light, that one concept has a lot of different meaning, but not only novadays. It is very important to find out „in pluribus unitas“ in order to accept it - without preconception.

Keywords*: Jewish literature, conceptual heterogeniety, Jewish language, „national spirit“, topics, religious tradition, identity and cultural self-identity*

Za „židovskou literaturu“ (pojmenování dáváme do uvozovek záměrně, v určitém smyslu slova jde o „definování nedefinovatelného“[1]) je možné označovat „strukturu“, „množinu“ a

[1] NESHER-WIRTH, Hana (ed.): *What is Jewish Literature?* Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society, 1994, 271 pp. ISBN 978-08-276-0513-8. Jak poznamenává recenzentka sborníku Elana Gomel, „*It is easy enough to demonstrate the existence of historically and geographically delimited Jewish literatures: Yiddish nineteenth-century literature, Golden Age literature in Spain, Israeli literature. But it is far more difficult to claim that something unites these disparate literary bodies, written in different languages, surrounded by different indigenous cultures, influenced by different social milieux - something that fuses them into a translinguistic*

„síť“ jevů (a paradigmata jejich vnímání, výkladu a interpretace) z určitého hlediska homogenních, z jiného pak heterogenních, a to jak v minulosti (např. v sociálním a kulturním kontextu střední Evropy 19. století), tak i v současnosti, resp. v jejich zrcadlení historickém i současném. „Strukturu“ (částí tvořících celek), „množinu“ (komplexy částečně se překrývajících jevů) a síť („synaptických vláken a spojů“) související jednak s „vědomím doby o sobě samé“ (přímo s vědomím „židovské literatury“ o sobě samé), jednak s naším „vědomím o době“ (vědomím toho, co a jak bylo jako „židovská literatura“ vnímáno v minulosti), resp. jednak se současnou re-flexí minulosti, jednak s dobovou sebe-reflexí, popř. se současným vědomím o historické sebereflexi[2].

Z hlediska toho, jakým způsobem je (nebo může být) traktován, analyzován a „prožíván“ (koncept Jindřicha Kohna[3]) pojem „židovská literatura“, můžeme rozlišit způsoby konstrukce a recepce pojmů jako „židovská literatura“, „židovská identita“, „česko-židovská literatura“, „českožidovská literatura“ etc. etc., do nichž jsou „vkládány“ předmětné i hodnotové obsahy poměrně heterogenní, což přirozeně zakládá nejen substanciální ne-jednoznačnost pojmu (pojmů), ale současně odráží heterogenitu našich představ (osobních „encyklopedií“, horizontů vnímání, pojmů jako výsledků intelektuálních a zkušenostních recepčních aktů) o zásadních jevech a hranicích sledované kulturní a „literárněkulturní“ oblasti. Do značné míry totéž platí i o sledování jiných „velkých“ literárních celků, jakými jsou „národní literatura“, „středoevropská literatura“, „středoevropský jazykový areál“, „světová literatura“, resp. jejich „nové čtení“ a „nový historismus“ etc.[4]

V tomto dílčím, avšak nikoli okrajovém příspěvku, jehož tematickým rámcem bude „židovsky příznakový“ kulturní okruh vymezený bohemistickým, jen výjimečně germano-bohemistickým kulturním areálem, se zaměříme na metodologii a tvorbu jednoho z „podpůrných“ materiálů, jenž si kladl za cíl ověřit, zda teoreticky vymezitelnou a v historii doložitelnou heterogenitu představ o sledovaném pojmu (pojmech) lze sledovat i v současnosti. Tedy do jaké míry je pojem „židovská literatura“ transparentní a jednoznačný a do jaké míry je užíván „voluntaristicky“, příležitostně a v různém obsahovém ukotvení, a to zvláště mezi spisovateli, žurnalisty, intelektuály a vůbec „lidmi pera“ (oslovených a ochotných se na tomto „dílčím průzkumu“ podílet).[5]

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whole that can be called Jewish litterature“ (Poetics Today, Vol. 18, No. 1 /Spring, 1997/, p. 141 dostupné online: https://www.jstor.org/stable/1773245?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents

[2] Součástí studií bývá důkladný poznámkový aparát, přesto se omezujeme z prostorových důvodů jen na několik analýz, které pokládáme pro sledovanou problematiku za reprezentativní. Současně nechceme každou větu a pojem doprovázet odkazy v textu a ignorovat „čtenářský komfort“ (onen druhý systém odkazování preferujeme v tomto příspěvku).

[3] Analýzu „filozofie asimilace“ teoretika českožidovského hnutí Jindřicha Kohna prezentují naše studie Ke koexistenci slovanských a židovských kultur (In: *Európska únie - nádeje a pochybnosti. Slovensko - Európa - svet*. Bratislava: CCW, 2004, s. 73-87, ISBN 80-89166-04-0) a Kontexty židovské literatury z českožidovského pohledu /se zaměřením na asimilační teorii Jindřicha Kohna/ (In: HRBÁCSEK, Magdaléna (ed.): *Židovský kultúrny fenomén v stredoeurópskom kontexte / Zsidó kultúra közép-európai kontextusban*. Nitra: Univerzita Konštantína Filozofa v Nitre / Fakulta stredoeurópskych štúdií, 2016, s. 63-75. ISBN 978-80-558-1092-8).

[4] Sympatickým pokusem byla v tomto směru útlá monografie Vladimíra Papouška a Dalibora Turečka *Hledání literárních dějin* (Praha: Paseka, 2005, 94 str. ISBN 80-7185-760-2) a na monografii navazující *Hledání literárních dějin v diskusi: záznam diskuse z literárněvědného kolokvia konaného 22. a 23. září 2005 v Českých Budějovicích.* (Praha: Paseka, 2006, 156 s. ISBN 80-7185-775-0).

[5] Dotazník obsahoval devět tematických celků a nabízel na ně pět uzavřených a jednu „otevřenou“ odpověď. Zde jsou: I. Vyznačte prosím co nejpřesnější definici „židovské identity“: - židé jsou ti, kdo na sebe vzali závazek být zvláštním Hospodinovým majetkem, sloužit mu a tlumočit jeho vůli; nejednou jde o aktivní příslušníky židovských (náboženských) obcí; - židem je ten, kdo má oba rodiče, popř. alespoň biologickou matku, židovského původu. Židovství není o víře a spiritualitě, nýbrž „o krvi“, o původu, nelze z něj ani „vystoupit“; - židem je především ten, kdo takto sám sebe identifikuje, popř. kdo je za něj pokládán svým okolím, ať s pozitivním nebo negativním předznamenáním, např. z důvodu rodinné a jiné tradice, stanoviska důvěryhodné autority, svým chováním, skutečnou či domnělou existencí židovského předka/předků apod. - židem je příslušník

židovského národa jako potomek těch, kteří byli vyhnáni z domoviny, žili dlouhá staletí v exilu a teprve vznikem Židovského státu bylo naplněno jejich právo na návrat do vlasti; - židovskou identitu vyjadřují do jisté míry všechny navržené charakteristiky, žádné z nich není možné dát přednost; - žádná z odpovědí nich není přesná, navrhuji tuto:

II. Spisovatele Franze Kafku lze podle vás pokládat za jednoho z představitelů: - literatury německé, neboť psal a publikoval německy, němčina mu byla nejbližší už proto, že studoval na německých školách; stručně řečeno jde o jednoho z představitelů „pražské německé literatury" první poloviny 20. století; - literatury židovské, protože jeho oba rodiče byli židovského původu, sám se živě zajímal o sionistické hnutí, ve svém díle vyjadřoval pocity příslušníka židovské diaspory (osamocenost, odcizení, problémy s komunikací); - literatury české, protože žil v Praze a Prahou byl výrazně ovlivněn, jeho matka pocházela z českožidovské rodiny, byl inspirován českou literaturou, český jazyk označil za „blízký mému srdci", a z mnoha dalších důvodů; - literatury středoevropské, v níž důležitější než etnicita, národní kultura, jazyk a náboženské či jiné přesvědčení je klíčové a důležité vědomí příslušnosti k tomuto prostoru – existence středoevropanství; - literatury německé i české i židovské i středoevropské – s přesahem k literatuře světové; - žádná z odpovědí není přesná a adekvátní, protože:

III. Vyznačte pojetí antisemitismu, s nímž nejvíce souhlasíte: - je nenávist vůči židům/Židům zdůvodňovaná nábožensky (židé nechali ukřižovat Krista), ekonomicky (židé jsou nejbohatší lidé ve státě), sociálně a politicky (židé vládnou přímo či nepřímo), národnostně (preferují jen svou etnicitu a pohrdají ne-židy) apod., jeho projevy nalezneme už ve starověku a existuje i v zemích, ze kterých byli židé vyhnáni; - je forma sebeobrany jakéhokoli společenství před parazitním nebo nepřátelským etnikem, vyvolávají jej židé sami svým chováním, jednáním, mocí svých bankéřů, politiků, průmyslníků, majitelů tisku, tvůrců veřejného mínění; kritika antisemitismu je záminka pro nekritizovatelnost „vyvoleného národa", popř. jakékoli sionistické identity; - jako mytologie je hoden odsouzení, vyvolaný neznalostí jedinců i masy, avšak kritika současné sionistické identity, zvláště Izraele jako Židovského státu, je zcela oprávněná (vznikl vyhnáním palestinských Arabů a pokračuje v etnických čistkách původních obyvatel Palestiny); - je historický jev, jehož projevy dnes jsou okrajové a hlavně přeceňované, škola i média mu věnují zbytečně mnoho pozornosti; spíše než o židovskou problematiku bychom se měli starat o islamisty a islamistický terorismus, jemuž čelíme; - je zcela nevhodný pojem už proto, že Arabové jsou také semité a arabština představuje semitský jazyk. Navíc většina židů mezi námi není potomky Semitů, ale Chazarů. Lze však připustit existenci oprávněné kritiky židů, např. jejich víry a chování v minulosti a v současnosti, v Izraeli i ve světě; - ani jedno z naznačených pojetí není správné, protože:

IV. Pokud byste zjistil/a, že jeden z Vašich rodičů či prarodičů byl židovského původu (skrývaného): - pokládali byste se za žida/Žida a začali se zajímat o židovskou kulturu a tradice, popř. o členství v židovské obci; - na Vaší národní a kulturní identitě by se nic podstatného nezměnilo; podobně byste se zachoval/a v případě informací o vašich slovenských, maďarských, francouzských či japonských předcích; - pokládali byste tento fakt za obohacení své dosavadní identity, popř. byste dále pátrali a hledali informace o této rodinné linii; - tento fakt by vás nemile překvapil, ale protože si své rodiče ani prarodiče nevybíráme, nepokládali byste jej za důležitý; - o charakteru člověka rozhoduje výchova, cosi jako „židovské geny" neexistuje, mytologie krve mne nikdy neoslovovala; - otázka i odpovědi jsou zavádějící, protože:

V. Vyberte nejvhodnější definici židovství - židovství je především vztah, dohoda mezi Hospodinem a jím vybraným národem, služba a závazek, založená dějinnou událostí na Sinaji; - židovství je především souborem rituálů a sdílením zvyků, tradic, respektu vůči židovským autoritám, příběhů dědících se s malými obměnami a reformami po generace a věky; - židovství je spíše než náboženství a vyznání „poutem krve", geny předávaná dispozice, rovněž jakýsi „magnet", který spojuje příslušníky téhož původu a představ o sobě samých; - židovství je dějinné utrpení a rezistence vůči zlu, naplňovanému v křesťanských a muslimských zemích krutými pogromy, pronásledováním, vyháněním, někdy až přímou genocidou (holocaust); - židovství je jen vnější výraz pro skryté či otevřené násilí, faktickou manipulaci a exploataci, jíž jsou vystaveny všechny nežidovské národy, aniž by si to jejich příslušníci vůbec uvědomovali; - žádná odpověď mi nevyhovuje, protože:

VI. Židovská literatura je především - bytostná součást literárních dějin i přítomnosti konkrétní národní literatury jako česko-židovská, německo-židovská nebo polsko-židovská literární kultura; - bytostná součást literárních dějin a přítomnosti konkrétní národní literatury v podobě židovských motivů, témat, hlediska, kritiky antisemitismu apod.; - svébytná a do značné míry uzavřená enkláva s vlastními dějinami a přítomnosti, jazykem a kulturními kódy, byť také související s dějinami literatury majoritní společnosti; - soubor textů sloužících ke zdůvodnění a prosazení židovských zájmů, nejednou etnocentrických a vůči příslušníkům jiné rasy (či národa a vyznání) skrytě či otevřeně nepřátelských; - židovská literatura je soubor všech textů a literárně kulturních památek, jejichž původci byli vyznáním nebo původem židé/Židé, bez ohledu na místo, jazyk, čas vzniku; - žádná odpověď není správná, navrhuji toto pojetí:

VII. Mým nejoblíbenějším českým nebo německým židovským/„židovským" spisovatelem se stal:

Ladislav Fuks, Norbert Frýd, Karel Poláček, Paul Leppin, Franz Werfel, Karel Čapek, Milan Kundera, Adalbert Stifter, Ivan Olbracht, Siegfried Kapper, Josef Škvorecký, Julius Zeyer, Rainer Maria Rilke, Gustav Meyrink, Vojtěch Rakous, Jan Neruda, Max Brod, Moritz Hartmann.... Nikdo ze jmenovaných, nýbrž právě:

Bez ohledu na dosavadní výsledky této ankety, bez ohledu na přicházející odpovědi, bez ohledu na její další směr už samotná heterogenita alternativních odpovědí (či prostě nabízených, bez ohledu na to, zda jsou vnímatelné dokonce jako antisemitské), rozrůzněnost ukotvená zkušenostně, ukazuje onu ne-jednoznačnost využívaných pojmů (a zvláště pojmu „židovská literatura“ v českém kulturním prostoru) coby nástrojů komunikace a konceptualizace. Do jisté míry také ukazuje nutnost rozšíření či zpřesnění pojmosloví, jak bylo prezentováno v prvních dvou svazcích slovníkového projektu Literatura s hvězdou Davidovou[6] a ve studii Antisemitismus v české literatuře 19. a 20. století.[7]

VIII. Za česko-židovského spisovatele je možné pokládat: - spisovatele pocházejícího ze „smíšeného svazku“ mezi Čechem a Židem, disponovaného žít ve dvou kulturách, české a židovské; - nějak definovaného židovského spisovatele pocházejícího a tvořícího v českém kulturním prostoru, bez ohledu na víru, jazyk, preferovanou nacionální kulturu; - spisovatele židovského původu píšícího výlučně nebo také česky; - spisovatele píšícího pozitivně o židech a židovství v češtině; - spisovatele židovské víry, ale národního cítění českého, majoritního; - žádná odpověď není správná, navrhuji tuto:

VIX. Věta „*nevím, proč bych ti nepomohl, nejsem přece Žid*“ je projevem: - antisemitských předsudků či stereotypů, podle kterých židé většinou lidem nepomáhají, protože jsou sobečtí a pomáhají jen „svým“, k něčemu „vyvoleným“. - výrazem obecného poznání, že židé jsou sobečtí, nejednou se i rádi obohacují na cizí účet a nežidy opovrhují, což jsou i moje zkušenosti. - nevinná poznámka, „nebýt jako Žid“ je podobný „stereotypní“ jazykový idiom jako příměr „být opilý jako Dán“ nebo „být šetrný jako Skot“. - věta je vytržena z kontextu, je nutné znát všechny souvislosti, za nichž byla pronesena, a významy, které jsou do tohoto slova vkládány tím či oním uživatelem. - žijeme ve společnosti, v níž se každý stará jen o vlastní zájmy, avšak před takovou pomocí, jako je půjčka, je třeba vždy důrazně varovat, neboť dluh zakládá naši nesvobodu. - žádná odpověď není správná, navrhuji vlastní:

[6] V prvním svazku slovníku jsme vycházeli z tohoto pojmoslovného vymezení: českožidovskou literaturou „*rozumíme literaturu českých židů, tedy spisovatelů židovského původu, příp. i vyznání, kteří spojili svůj osud s osudem české kultury, ať již uvědoměle (např. členové Spolku českých akademiků – židů v Praze), nebo neuvědoměle, zcela přirozeně z důvodů asimilačních, přesto si však uvědomujících své židovství (např. pod dojmem vnějších událostí, rasových zákonů apod.). Reflexe vlastního židovství není překážkou začlenění do české literatury (V. Rakous, E. Lederer, H. Bonn, J. Orten, O. Fischer, L. Aškenazy, N. Frýd a další), ba naopak. Jde o svébytnou část české literatury v užším slova smyslu (nacionálním).*“ (S. 11 – 12) Jako německožidovskou literaturu „*hodnotíme tvorbu autorů židovského původu a vyznání, kteří psali německy a identifikovali se s hodnotami německé, popř. rakouské kultury. Německožidovské písemnictví, postupně oprošťované od iluzí nacionálních, liberalistických a náboženských, tvoří základ pražské německé literatury, jednoho z nejproduktivnějších duchovních center literatury českého regionu (F. Kafka, M. Brod, L. Perutz, F. Werfel, E. E. Kisch, H. Salus, O. Baum, P. Leppin, P. Kornfeld aj.), z nichž mnozí měli úzké vazby na českou literaturu, ovládali dobře češtinu a měli sympatie k českým národně emancipačním snahám.*“ (Tamtéž, s. 12) Židovskou literaturou „*v užším slova smyslu (národním) rozumíme tvorbu integrálně spjatou s potřebami židovské komunity a k ní se obracející ideově, jazykově, tematicky. Pojem je zřetelněji čitelný v literatuře psané hebrejsky nebo jidiš (jakkoli nešlo o „národní literaturu“ ve vlastním slova smyslu), v literatuře námi sledovaného prostoru a období je blízký literatuře sionistické (např. beletrii publikované v sionistickém Židovském kalendáři nebo v Jüdischer Almanach). Ani český sionismus (obdoba národního obrození české majority), který kladl důraz na národní specifičnost Židů a na budování Izraele (nově vytvořeného státního celku na území Palestiny, Erec Izrael, nové domoviny, která má vyřešit problém diaspory), neměl negativní vztah k české kultuře a jazyku a řada jeho představitelů si uvědomovala svou sounáležitost s českou literaturou (V. Fischl, A. Lustig, F. Gottlieb, L. Grosman ad.). Sionisté německého jazyka (M. Brod, F. Weltsch, R. Weltsch, H. S. Bergmann ad.) vplývají do proudu německožidovské (pražské německé) literatury, popř. moderní literatury izraelské.*“ (S. 12) Českožidovská a česká židovská literatura „*jsou integrální součástí české národní literatury; jejich děl i odkazu se může stejným dílem dovolávat i literatura (národní) židovská. Totéž platí analogicky i pro literaturu německou (německožidovskou). Národní hledisko však nelze přeceňovat, neboť v duchu sledovaného společenství je překračovat národnostní a rasová omezení, a to mnohostranně.*“ (S. 12–13)

[7] Ze slovníkového projektu citují např. BENZ, Wolfgang. *Personen. Handbuch des Antisemitismus: Judenfeindschaft in Geschichte und Gegenwart.* Der zweite Band. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 2009, ISBN 978-3-598-44159-2 (e-book) [citace na s. 580]; BAER, Josette. *A Life Dedicated to the Republic: Vavro Srobar's Slovak Czechoslovakism*. Stuttgart : Ibidem Verlag, 2014, 280 s. ISBN-10: 3838203461, ISBN-13: 978-3838203461 [citace na s.15]; 2) BAER, Josette: *"Spirits that I've cited...?" Vladimír Clementis (1902–1952): The Political Biography of a Czechoslovak Communist*. Columbia University Press, Ibidem-Verlag, 2017, 419 pgs., ISBN 383826746X [citace v pozn. 63]; GERSHON, David Hundert: *The YIVO Encyclopedia of Jews in Eastern Europe*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 2008. 2448 pgs. ISBN 9780300119039, [cit. na str. 375, 554, 555];

Dotazníků vzniká nespočet a k nejrůznějším statistickým účelům. Pro účely našeho referátu z něj vybereme pouze tři tematické okruhy, jež chápeme jako interpretační centra sledované problematiky (tedy vnímání, užívání, „prožívání“ a konceptualizace[8] sledovaného pojmu „židovská literatura“). Minimálně ilustrují ne-jednoznačnosti sledované problematiky, substanciální heterogenity jevů, jež jsou pod pojem subsumovány a bezprostředně souvisejí s oním „definováním nedefinovatelného“.

Námi sledovaná oblast je zastoupena už v pojetí toho, co je vnímáno jako židovská identita. Jak ji „nejpřesněji definovat“? Jednak se židé jeví jako *„ti, kdo na sebe vzali závazek být zvláštním Hospodinovým majetkem, sloužit mu a tlumočit jeho vůli; nejednou jde o aktivní příslušníky židovských (náboženských) obcí“*[9]. Toto hledisko jest rabínské a jeho nejčistším výrazem je ortodoxní židovství. Jeho legitimita tkví v dimenzi náboženské (spirituální, kolektivně sdílené) víry zdůvodňující lidskou existenci jako službu „autoritě autorit“, jako svědectví o Něm a tlumočení Jeho vůle a přání, zákonů těchto zjevených a fixovaných a dějinami prověřovaných bez ohledu na to, zda to odpovídá nebo neodpovídá reflexi privátních zájmů (v dějinnosti situovaných) souvěrců či jinověrců. Židovskou identitu je možné přijmout – velmi zjednodušeně napsáno – i konverzí k „Hospodinem /ke službě/ vyvolenému národu“.

Druhý rozměr židovské identity postuluje, že *„židem je ten, kdo má oba rodiče, popř. alespoň biologickou matku, židovského původu. Židovství není o víře a spiritualitě, nýbrž ‚o krvi‘, o původu, nelze z něj ani ‚vystoupit‘.* Druhé hledisko je blízké rasovému pohledu, neboť ze svazku daného „objektivně“, tzv. krví (své rodiče si nevolíme) nelze „vystoupit“ (jako z židovské /náboženské/ obce). Faktem „jisté“ židovské matky se jedinec objektivně a nesmazatelně stává příslušníkem židovského etnika a přijímá „židovskou identitu“. Do identifikace tak vstupují genetické „dispozice coby predispozice a indispozice“, resp. jejich vnímání (soubor recepčních aktů) jako na jedné straně čehosi prevalenčního (dispozice k uznatelnému úspěchu), na druhé straně, jistě v antisemitské reflexi, diskvalifikačního („dispozice ke zlu“).

Třetí rozměr pojmu je velmi liberální a židovskou identitu přisuzuje volním aktem (!): *„židem je především ten, kdo takto sám sebe identifikuje, popř. kdo je za něj pokládán svým okolím, ať s pozitivním nebo negativním předznamenáním, např. z důvodu rodinné a jiné tradice, stanoviska důvěryhodné autority, svým chováním, skutečnou či domnělou existencí židovského předka/předků apod.“* Jde o přisouzenou identitu a sebe-identitu, která však může na obě předchozí plynule navazovat. Volba „národnosti“ se v konečné instanci jeví právě jako volně recepční akt, vůle a vědomí rozhoduje o příslušnosti k jistému etnickému/kulturnímu celku. Kdo sám sebe označí, hodnotí jako Žida, ten se jím „stává“ – v očích vlastních a nezřídka i okolí, pokud mu to umožní. Dokonce jsou takto „pars pro toto“ židé/Židé hodnoceni.

Historical Abstracts: Modern history abstracts, 1450-1914. 49/3-4. American Bibliographical Center, 1998 [citace na s. 1033], SCHUTTE, Andrea Daniela: *Die jüdische Thematik im Werk Jiří Weils.* Digitale Osteuropa – Bibliothek: Sprache und Kultur. 23.12.2003. http://epub.ub.uni-muenchen.de/625/1/Schutte-jiri-weil.pdfl [citace na s. 21, 26, 34]; WITT, Mary Ann Frese (ed.). *Nietzsche and the Rebirth of the Tragic*. Madison : Farleigh Dickinson Associated University Presse, 2007, 255 s. ISBN-10: 0838641601, ISBN-13: 978-0838641606 [citace s. 155, 254]; KLEIN, Nikolaus: *„Seine Taten sind sein Denkmal“.* In: Orientierung. Katholische Blätter für weltanschauliche Informationen. Nr. 71, 2007. ISSN 0030-5502 [citace na s. 4].

[8] Každá otázka nabízela pět odpovědí „uzavřených“, tedy respondent se mohl vybrat odpověď nejbližší jeho privátní představě (dané studiem, četbou, zájmy, osobní zkušeností, reflexí původu etc.), šestá byla „otevřená“, umožňující respondentům specifikovat a formulovat odpovědi vlastní. Koncipování tzv. uzavřených odpovědí bylo neseno snahou vytvořit dostatečně široký prostor pro konkrétní recepční /sebe/identifikaci bez nutnosti formulování vlastního stanoviska, „otevřená“ odpověď pak umožňovala (mohla umožnit) vyvázat se z předem nastavených vzorců vnímání a vstoupit do prostoru „intelektuální svobody“, prostoru nevázaného na intelektuální hranice vymezené autoritou: odborný subjekt „stojící“ za touto anketou se má záměrně jevit jako intelektuálně autoritativní, gestace tohoto „skrytého subjektu“ jakoby nepřipouštěla pochybnosti.

[9] Kurzívou a současně v uvozovkách jsou uvedeny přesné citace z dotazníku. Vyhodnocení „ankety“, která stále probíhá, by však bylo v roce 2018 předčasné.

V prostoru, kde nezřídka chybí vnější znaky židovství, jako je např. nošení kipy, oděvu, užití židovského (jidiš, ivrit, ladino a jejich příznakové tvary) jazyka či vnější vzhled (tzv. „orientální“, asociativně a stereotypně s židovstvím spojovaný), je toto hledisko nezanedbatelné: nelze jej ignorovat ani bagatelizovat. A navíc vedle sebe-identifikace (zdůvodněné např. existencí jednoho židovského prarodiče, rodinnou epickou tradicí etc.) k ní přistupuje i hetero-identifikace, kdy je určitý subjekt jako žid/Žid majoritou vnímán, hodnocen, posuzován, resp. vylučován a odsuzován, nebo naopak akceptován a preferován. [10]
Vyhraněným rozměrem židovské identity je rozměr nacionální. Podle něj „*židem je příslušník židovského národa jako potomek těch, kteří byli vyhnáni z domoviny, žili dlouhá staletí v exilu a teprve vznikem Židovského státu bylo naplněno jejich právo na návrat do vlasti*“. Hledisko čtvrté je blízké modernímu sionismu, navazuje na předchozí „identity“ a zdůvodňuje „právo na vlast“ jako volní dějinotvorný akt, naplňující koncepci návratu do země, z níž byl židovský lid v dávné minulosti vyhnán, ale vzpomínku na vlast si nese dějinami, jako by to byla minulost nedávná. Prožitek dávné minulosti je zpřítomňován každým okamžikem sváteční události. Vznik Židovského státu na jedné straně naplnil mnohé touhy židů/Židů dvacátého století, byl zásadně „iniciován“[11] antisemitismem a hyper-antisemitismem (šoa), na druhé straně je jedním ze zdrojů neutuchajícího násilí, v němž nesmiřitelnost vítězí nad „mírem nyní“.
Jako relativně nejúplnější se nabízí charakteristika židovské identity shrnující, resp. až mechanicky „aditivní“, tedy že „*židovskou identitu vyjadřují do jisté míry všechny navržené charakteristiky, žádné z nich není možné dát přednost*“. Vzhledem k heterogenitě jevů zakládajících vnímání židovské identity se toto jeví jako nemožné, ovšem opak je pravdou. Naznačené rozměry „židovské identity“ spolu více či méně souvisejí, částečně se doplňují, argumentačně překrývají a mohou zakládat „jednotu v mnohosti“, kterou se pokusíme uznat i v koncepci „židovské literatury“. Navíc: jakkoli se nabízené charakteristiky jeví jako dostačující, ba zcela vyčerpávající, je i toto jen zdánlivé; v židovství má vše překvapivé obraty a lze předpokládat, že přistoupí další a další, jako „témata k věčné diskusi“.[12]
Druhým substanciálním rozměrem sledované problematiky, vedle „židovské identity“, je pojem „židovství“, v lexikálním významu nejednou vnímaný jako synonymum judaismu. Jeho vnímání je možné subsumovat do těchto tematických konceptů jako „hrubých rámců“ pochopení, opět navzájem souvisejících, nikoli však identických:
První rozměr předpokládá, že „*židovství je především vztah, dohoda mezi Hospodinem a jím vybraným národem, služba a závazek, založená dějinnou událostí na Sinaji*“. Zdůrazňuje se

[10] Např. Jaroslav Vrchlický byl za svého života i desetiletí po smrti pokládán za žida (původem). Jeho díla byla prokazatelně publikována v židovských periodikách, tematizují (mezi jinými) i židovské látky, sloužila dokonce jako doklad toho, že židé obohatili českou literaturu a nelze je z této vylučovat. Nikdy se však s židovstvím nábožensky, etnicky ani jinak (ponecháme-li stranou jeho kulturní afinitu) neidentifikoval. Na druhé straně spisovatel a filozof Egon Bondy, vlastním jménem Zbyněk Fišer, změnil své jméno na vyhraněně židovské z důvodu protestu proti antisemitismu z době politických procesů padesátých let; byl vnímán jako „židovský autor“ zvláště těmi, kteří tuto skutečnost neznali, včetně antisemitů. Ladislav Fuks je namnoze vnímán jako český židovský autor, jakkoli tuto skutečnost odmítal a podle všeho je jeho židovský původ zřejmě mýtus. Příkladů by bylo možné uvést ještě velmi mnoho, ovšem i tento kusý výčet ukazuje, jak „mýtus“ (pojem dáváme do uvozovek záměrně, neboť nejde o „lež“, nýbrž o „recepční rámec“) židovství ovlivňuje recepci tvorby (jazyka, témat, motivů, poslání). A nejen ji...
[11] Bez nich je coby státotvorná vůle nemyslitelný: jde o vliv antisemitismu na utváření „židovské identity“ jako identity národní a moderně národní (nacionalistické).
[12] Otevřená kreativní odpověď nabízí řadu dalších identifikací, např. specifikaci hetero-identifikační: o tom, zda „je“ či „není“ ten či onen jedinec židem/Židem, rozhodují okolí, společenství, kolegové, prostě ti, s nimiž a vedle nichž žije. Lze sice namítnout, že je zjistitelné, zda ten či onen subjekt je či byl příslušníkem židovské obce či zda jeho prarodiče (rodiče nebo samotný jedinec) byli postiženi tzv. norimberskými zákony, ale při anonymitě života v rozšiřujících se a čím dále více multikulturních areálech je stejně důležité, zda „vy sami“ jste za žida pokládáni či nikoli. Nebo jinak: pro antisemitu je „bílý žid“ (primitivně: „*Novák odvedle*“) stejný, ne-li horší než ten „rasový“ (primitivně: „*Kohn odvedle*“).

zde především substanciální, vnitřní aspekt židovské identifikace (koncept, přesvědčení a prožitek), aspekt daný Tórou a Hospodinovou vůlí, přičemž židé/Židé se stávají výlučným Hospodinovým vlastnictvím, lidem vyvyšovaným i zatracovaným v souladu s Jeho nejvyšší vůlí a Zákonem. Jde tedy o vztah mezi člověkem (komunitou) a „autoritou všech autorit", neviditelnou, nevolitelnou, nedohlédnutelnou.

Druhý rozměr pojmu lze zjednodušeně charakterizovat takto: „*židovství je především souborem rituálů a sdílením zvyků, tradic, respektu vůči židovským autoritám, příběhů dědících se s malými obměnami a reformami po generace a věky*." Akcentuje se ona vnější stránka „dohody", „smlouvy", „závazku", jež je vyjádřena žitými dějinami a jejich odkazem; projevuje se výběrově nebo po celý „židovský rok" (jinými formami, ale v zásadě analogicky v roce křesťanském). Rituály, zvyky, tradice, vyprávěné příběhy se stávají důležitou součástí identity rodinné a společenské, zdrojem hrdosti, radosti, naděje, veselí, varování etc.

Třetí akcent je široce přítomný v současné literatuře české: „*židovství je spíše než náboženství a vyznání ‚poutem krve', geny předávaná dispozice, rovněž jakýsi ‚magnet', který spojuje příslušníky téhož původu a představ o sobě samých*." Vnímání židovství (vlastního nebo cizího) jako „pouta krve", jako čehosi daného biologicky, geneticky, vírou ve „specifickou" DNA apod., a to bez ohledu na vyznání, je široce tematizováno, navíc se v mnohém překrývá s druhým rozměrem židovské identity (sebe-identity) v prvním tematickém oddíle[13].

Další „alternativa" nevylučuje předchozí, spíše na ně navazuje. Postuluje, že „*židovství je dějinné utrpení a rezistence vůči zlu, naplňovanému v křesťanských a muslimských zemích krutými pogromy, pronásledováním, vyháněním, někdy až přímou genocidou (holocaust)*". Nepřímo zdůrazňuje další aspekt židovství (současně jde o reflexi židovské identity!), a tím je antisemitismus a jeho projevy, včetně těch nejkrajnějších, tedy genocidia, pogromy, snaha o vyhlazení. Tento nezpochybnitelný rozměr současně dává tušit roli antisemitismu v utváření novodobé národní židovské identity.

Antisemitský rozměr by se dal koncentrovat do slov, jež představují jakýsi „sucus" jeho moderní podoby: „*židovství je jen vnější výraz pro skryté či otevřené násilí, faktickou manipulaci a exploataci, jíž jsou vystaveny všechny nežidovské národy, aniž by si to jejich příslušníci vůbec uvědomovali*." Je blízký antisemitské recepci, popř. s ní cele splývá. Židé jsou v ní samostatnou silou Zla nebo součástí Osy zla, jež se projevuje otevřeným násilím či skrytou manipulací a vykořisťováním Nežidů. Jde o odpověď patrně nejen emocionálně, ale i racionálně znějícími argumenty konceptualizovanou, zdůvodňovanou především zkušenostně, reálnými nebo fiktivními příběhy, příklady etc. Nelze jej přehlížet, jakkoli se s ním sotva a stěží identifikujeme, nelze jej tedy ignorovat už proto, že i v před-nastavených vzorcích vnímání existuje v latentní i otevřené podobě.

Je vcelku pochopitelné, že nabízené „rozměry" pojmu židovství, navíc těsně spjaté s židovskou identitou a sebe-identitou, nepokrývají celý prostor problematiky. Jiná odpověď, jež jest projevem nesouhlasu s nabízenými charakteristikami, může mít i tuto podobu: „*židovství je náboženství se vším, co ke starověkému orientálnímu náboženství patří, zároveň je však také životní filosofií a životním stylem, ale má i své aspekty etnické, kulturně antropologické, sociálně psychologické, sociolingvistické a mnohé jiné. Příliš úzká a jednoznačná pojetí židovství jsou zpravidla motivována netolerancí a vedou ke zbytečným různicím.*"[14]

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[13] Srov. např. rozhovor Táni Jakubíčkové s hlavní postavou románu Ulovit miliardáře Patrikem Grossmanem: „Jenže židovství je i o krvi." „Copak někdo ví, jakou má krev?" /.../ „Nevím, ale nějak to cítíme. Jsme prostě jiní, a proto přitahujeme pogromy? Ať se snažíme sebevíc je nepřitahovat /.../" (In: Jak ulovit miliardáře : Návod na použití života 2. Praha: Mladá fronta, 2006, s. 118)

[14] Uvádím jedno z pojetí, které přinesla probíhající anketa. Odpovědi na ni jsou však anonymní, popř. je jejich anonymita garantována.

Třetí tematická skupina se zaměřuje přímo na recepci pojmu „židovská literatura“, opět jen v několika dimenzích, které odrážejí nejrůznější stránky jejího „recepčního bytí“. Jak bylo napsáno výše, obecně vzato jde o „strukturu“, „množinu“, „síť“ jevů stejně jako o paradigmata nebo možnosti jejich vnímání[15], výkladu a širší konceptualizace.
Židovská literatura vystupuje jako literatura přímo nebo nepřímo sloužící židovské (židovské náboženské nebo jinak definované) obci. Je chápána jako most, zprostředkovatel, médium dialogu mezi příslušníky židovské obce, jako slovesný „tmel“ mezi židy/Židy (jakkoli definovanými), avšak jako dialogická entita se nebrání ani přesahu k nežidovské společnosti. Je zkoumána jako výraz, tedy exprese „národního ducha“[16] („imagotypových“ struktur) židovského etnika, národa (na-rozeného, popř. sionismem znovu-zrozeného), popř. koncepce „věčného židovství“ („trpíme, tedy jsme“, „jako olivy drcené vydávají svůj olej“), autonomního a autarkního. Může vystupovat i jako čistě mechanický soubor motivů, látek, mýtů, témat etc., soubor myšlenek, představ a obrazů, žánrů[17] a diskurzů spjatých s židovstvím a židovským osudem, bez ohledu na původ tvorce, na jeho sebe-vědomí či kulturní identifikaci. Židovská literatura se může jevit i jako specifická poetika, tvar a forma díla, slovesných figur, metafor, symbolů, např. konkrétní forma kontaktu s Šalamounovou písní formou překladu, adaptace, aluze, citace, nápodoby[18] apod. (tato de facto „židovská poetika“[19] nebo „židovský poetický pohled“ na realitu, resp. literaturu, je faktorem mezi-literární výměny a obohacení). Může také představovat soubor toho nejlepšího, co bylo spisovateli označovanými jako „židé/Židé“ (např. kvůli židovskému původu, ale i „mylně“ přisuzovanému židovskému původu) napsáno a co takto „pozitivně existuje“ v potenciálním nebo aktuálním uměleckém a kulturním povědomí. Židovskou literaturu lze vnímat jako specifickou součást „světové literatury“, v ní dílem „rozpuštěnou“, dílem autonomně vymezenou (např. pouhým původem tvůrců, jejich sebe-vědomím a povědomím, namnoze i reflexí příjemců – reflexí toho, co je a co není „židovské“). Lze ji omezit na literaturu psanou specifickým židovským jazykem, tedy hebrejsky, jidiš, novohebrejsky etc. (takto zúžený pojem se jeví jako zcela jednoznačný). Židovská literatura jest vnímána jako ustavičný spor a zápas v moderních literárních dějinách, jako oscilace, vyhraňování nebo rovnováha mezi

[15] Mnohoznačnost tak signifikantního židovského motivu, jakým je Golem, dokládá i Marek Toman, jenž popisuje v článku *Projekt Můj Golem a jeho multimediální přesahy* následující zkušenost podloženou opět recepčně: „*Všechno to, co jsem nastudoval, mě vedlo k tomu, že můj Golem musí vypadat jinak než ta ustálená představa. Až do knižních ilustrací a filmového ztvárnění bývá Golemova podoba v legendách obvykle stručně odbyta. Vypadá skoro jako člověk, a tím to končí. Postupně mi začalo připadat, že nebylo důležité, jak se Golem jevil svým tvůrcům. Pro ty totiž hrál roli dokladu Božího zázraku. Pro lidi zvenčí, mimo židovskou obec, znamenal něco úplně jiného. Důkaz tajemných židovských schopností, nadprůměrného nadání, nebo nečistých kouzel. Každý si mohl vybrat podle vlastní imaginace, v představách každého asi vypadal jinak. Proto můj Golem, když dojde na jeho zjevení v akci, nemá ani podobu člověka, ani hliněného panáka. Je spíš projekcí jednotlivých strachů nepřátel Židovského města. Nepohybuje se před očima, ale za nimi.*“. Dostupné online na: http://www.forfest.cz/?id=39&action=text&presenter=Colloqy

[16] Lze snad uvažovat o existenci jistých „paralel“ mezi strukturou židovských zkušeností, dialogického a dialektického myšlení a „mýtů“ (náboženských, etnických, reaktivních etc., resp. jejich variantních složek) a literární strukturou např. vyprávění, lyrické konfese, realistického kvazi-předvádění skutečnosti atp. Arne Novák v souvislosti s poválečnou židovskou sebe-reflexí píše, že zachycuje „*zvláštní psychologii svého kmene a národa*“ (In: Přehledné dějiny literatury české: od nejstarších dob po naše dny. IV. přepracované a rozšířené vydání. Brno: Atlantis, 1995, s. 1281)

[17] Z tohoto „žánrově-tematického“ hlediska lze analyzovat např. „židovský román“, popř. „pražský židovský román“ (jakým zůstává např. „Golem“ Gustava Meyrinka), podobně jako román „pařížský“ nebo „petrohradský“, tedy jako svého druhu spaciálně ukotvený mytologicko-symbolický celek.

[18] Srov. např. antologii Milana Balabána a Olgy Nytrové *Ohlasy Starého zákona v české literatuře 19. a 20. století* (Praha: OIKOYMENH, 1997).

[19] Petr Sláma v „*antologii rabínské literatury*“ nazvané *Tanu rabanan* (Praha: Vyšehrad 2010) nepřímo odhaluje signifikantní myšlenkové a formální postupy, zakládající cosi jako „poetiku rabínské literatury“, jakkoli v ní estetická funkce měla podřízené postavení vůči funkci edukativněnáboženské a právní.

plnou autonomií (vůlí k autarkii) a plnou asimilací (resp. vůlí k ní), tedy jako nacionální (sebeurčení) či náboženská (vyvolenost ke službě) intence na straně jedné a „asimilace“ (jakkoli chápaná) v rámci literatury „jinonárodní“. Židovskou literaturu můžeme hodnotit i jako výsledek recepčních aktů, tedy nějak definovaný a strukturovaný soubor toho, co je všeobecně pokládáno za židovské. (klíčové je hledisko recepce, příjmu, vědomí – židovská literatura je to, co „nežidovská“ společnost za „židovskou“ pokládá jako akt kognitivního a emotivního přijetí čehosi „cizího“). S pojmem židovská literatura těsně souvisí i další rozměr, a tím je výčet hledisek jako „horizontů očekávání“ toho, co texty hodnocené jako židovské přinášejí (měly by přinášet), jak je hodnotit a posuzovat. Za židovskou literaturu může být pokládána i vrstva literatury určitého prostoru či areálu se silnou inkluzivní (či naopak exkluzivní) potencialitou, s vyhraněným meziliterárním centrismem[20] či naopak odstředivostí. Pojem a literární celek postupně ztrácejí své obrysy, přesahují nejen aspekty národnostní, nacionální, „rasové“ či náboženské, směřují „nad národy“, ukotvena jen určitým výchozím prostorem. Heslo českožidovského hnutí „s češstvím a židovstvím nad národy“ je toho výrazem. Jistě nelze ponechat stranou i extrémně banální a primitivní hledisko, podle něhož je židovská literatura souborem textů, jež mají „něco s židy spojeného“, cosi amorfního, přibližného, ad hoc vytvořeného žurnalistou, literárním kritikem, komentátorem, existujícího jen jako pomocný pojem s rozmanitě naplňovaným smyslem. Konkrétní definice pojmu pak respektují vždy skupinu jevů, přirozeně se brání absolutizaci pouze jednoho hlediska.[21]

Pro potřeby dotazníkové akce jsme vybrali ty rozměry, jež jsou zastoupeny v recepci pojmu relativně nejčastěji a jsou rovněž jednoduše uchopitelné. Jednak se židovská literatura jeví jako *bytostná součást literárních dějin i přítomnosti konkrétní národní literatury jako česko-židovská, německo-židovská nebo polsko-židovská literární kultura*.“ První hledisko akcentuje především fakt integrovanosti jevu pociťovaného jako „židovská literatura“ do celku konkrétní národní literatury[22], a je např. plně v souladu s koncepcemi českožidovskými a česko-židovskými, v nichž je židovská literatura jakýmsi „židovským vkladem“ do konkrétní národní literatury (zde české) a s ní splývá, symbolicky jako „malý“ přítok do „větší“ řeky.

Židovská literatura se může jevit i jako „*bytostná součást literárních dějin a přítomnosti konkrétní národní literatury v podobě židovských motivů, témat, hledisek, kritiky antisemitismu apod.*“ Druhé hledisko je tematické, resp. tematologické, ale bohatě doložitelné z dějin české literatury, jež zdůrazňuje právě a jen konkrétní židovské motivy, postavy, „hlediska“ etc. jako klíčová, vlastně analogicky jako povědomí o pojmu „židovský román“ či „židovská povídka“ etc. V tomto pojetí, jakkoli problematickém a zpochybňovaném, by byla i

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[20] Pojem „medziliterárne centrizmy“ rozpracoval tým pod vedením Dionýze Ďurišina. Chápal jej jako „*pojem, ktorý v dôslednom zmysle slova vymedzuje široký „nadnárodný“ priestor zodpovedajúcich dejinných fenoménov /.../ zjednocuje niektoré poznatky skúmaných literárnych skutočností do určitej homogénnej jednotky, ale iba v rámci vymedzeného teritória a jeho jednoty tak, že zlučuje jeho jednotlivé komponenty, ale neprekračuje jeho hranice a kompetencie /.../ Nie sú to iba determinanty etnického charakteru, ale aj také determinanty, ako je vnútorná, slohová a iná diferencovanosť literárnych fenoménov, ďalej jazykový aspekt jednotlivých literatúr, ich administratívne hľadiská, ako aj ich konfesionálny charakter a iné.*“ Projekt D. Ďurišin vysvětluje ve studii Perspektívy skúmania medziliterárneho procesu (medziliterárny centrizmus). In: Opera slavica 5, 1995, č. 1, s. 1-5. Toto pojetí je jistě velmi široké a spaciální, prostorové, areálové, zahrnuje však v sobě slovo „centrum“, „střed“, významy jako „dostředivost“ a „soustřednost“, pro naši problematiku velmi důležité „vztahové aspekty“.

[21] Srov. např. „*Jewish literature in Eastern Europe, written in Jewish languages (Yiddish and Hebrew) and in the languages of the non-Jewish surrounding cultures (Russian, Polish, German, Ukrainian, Belorussian, and others), presents a gallery of non-Jewish characters along with depictions of encounters between Jews and their non-Jewish environment. These figures and encounters reflect, by artistic means, the ways in which Jews in Eastern Europe responded to the changes that took place around them: from the disintegration of the old socioeconomic order; through rapid urbanization, mass emigration, and the appearance of political parties; to the rise of modern antisemitism and the outbreak of violent pogroms against Jews*.“ Dostupné on-lina na: http://www.yivoencyclopedia.org/article.aspx/Relations_between_Jews_and_Non-Jews/Literary_Perspectives

[22] Každou konkrétní národní literaturu je ovšem možné vnímat jako „soubor recepčních aktů“.

„česká literatura“ literaturou psanou o Čechách a Češích, jakýmsi souborem „bohemik“.
Sledovaný pojem se může reflektovat jako *„svébytná a do značné míry uzavřená enkláva s vlastními dějinami a přítomností, jazykem a kulturními kódy, byť také související s dějinami literatury majoritní společnosti*.“ Třetí hledisko zdůrazňuje autonomnost a autochtonnost tohoto jevu, užití specifického jazyka nebo specifických kódů s navazujícími významy jako „literatura sloužící židovské minoritě“ nebo „vyjadřující hlediska židovské minority“. Dokonce se může stát i „výrazem židovské duše“.[23]
Čtvrtý „recepční rozměr“ je jednoznačně antisemitský, jakkoli i ten je nutné vzít v úvahu jako existující.[24] Židovské písemnictví se mj. jeví coby „*soubor textů sloužících ke zdůvodnění a prosazení židovských zájmů, nejednou etnocentrických a vůči příslušníkům jiné rasy (či národa a vyznání) skrytě či otevřeně nepřátelských.“* Antisemité mu vesměs uměleckou či humanistickou hodnotu upírají.[25]
Páté hledisko se jeví jako plně dostačující a integrující: *židovská literatura je soubor všech textů a literárně kulturních památek, jejichž původci byli vyznáním nebo původem židé/Židé, bez ohledu na místo, jazyk, čas vzniku*.“ Při bližším pohledu se samozřejmě bude jevit rovněž jako omezující, neboť ponechává stranou hledisko funkce (i díla příslušníků jiných národů mohou přispívat k židovské emancipaci a sebeidentifikaci), tematiku a problematiku apod., a samozřejmě i díla, která kromě původu autora jinak s „židovským světem“ nesouvisejí.
Otevřená odpověď pro nespokojené respondenty může mít např. tuto podobu: „*židovská literatura je písemná tradice pěstovaná v některém ze židovských jazyků, ale také psaná židovskými autory (v nejširším slova smyslu) v různých národních jazycích, (inter)dialektech a místních nářečích*“.
Desetistránkový limit bohužel neumožňuje komplexnější teoretické rozvržení problematiky, ani přehled navazujících a konkrétních otázek, resp. zdůvodnění odpovědí na ně. Doufejme však, že i v této fragmentární podobě bude tento příspěvek chápan jako podnět k diskusi o „jednotě v mnohosti“ a „definování nedefinovatelného“.

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[23] Při studiu pojmu „židovská literatura“ vždy hrozí četné simplifikace dané přízrakem „vulgárního sociologismu“. Automatický předpoklad, že osoba židovského původu je producentem „židovského pohledu“ nebo „židovského příběhu“, „židovského díla“ etc. je příkladem onoho „krátkého spoje“. Typickým příkladem se nám může stát tvorba bratrů Langerů, a to na jedné straně Jiřího Langera, na druhé straně Františka. Zatímco Jiří Mordechal Langer se reflektoval jako spisovatel židovský, obdivující chasidské hnutí (srov. např. edici *Devět bran: Chasidů tajemství*), jeho bratr se reflektoval a proslul jako spisovatel český (jen nacistický antisemitismus jej vyhnal z vlasti). Ovšem i pojmy jako „židovský pohled“, „český pohled“ nebo „ženský pohled“, jež intuitivně vnímáme jako obsažné, jsou na druhé straně konstrukce vždy vztahové a podléhají stereotypům, ke stereotypům vybízejí, srov. naši studii Vnímané stereotypy – nebo stereotypy vnímání? (In: *Medias res*. Odborný časopis pro aktuální otázky společenských věd. Roč. 3, 2018, č. 2, s. 17-28. ISSN 2464-6334).

[24] Jako v jiných tematických oddílech dotazníku, je i tato odpověď „rezervována“ pro případnou antisemitskou reflexi, kterou sugeruje už jazykem („*vůči příslušníkům jiné rasy /.../ nepřátelských /...*/ *židovských zájmů*“).

[25] K tomu srov. naši monografickou studii *Antisemitismus v české literatuře 19. a 20. století : teoretická a historická studie*. Praha: Votobia, 2000. Velmi široké pojetí antisemitismu, v němž jakákoli konceptualizovaná kritika „židů“ a „židovství“ je vnímána jako antisemitismus, lze najít např. v kolektivních monografiích redigovaných Jiřím Holým (*Cizí i blízcí: Židé, literatura, kultura v českých zemích ve 20. století*. Praha: Akropolis, 2016) nebo Michalem Franklem a Jindřichem Tomanem (*Jan Neruda a Židé: Texty a kontexty.* Praha: Akropolis, 2012). Podobně tak v historické analýze Hillela J. Kievala *Formování českého židovstva: národnostní konflikt a židovská společnost v Čechách 1870-1918* (Praha: Paseka, 2011).

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AESTHETIC STANDARDS AS A WAY TO FIND A HUMAN ENTITY: AN EXAMPLE OF URBAN GREENERY

Terezie Vašíčková

Abstract

In the paper we will try to express the aesthetic contribution of urban greenery. We will look at the problem from the position of society and try to define how an evaluation of beauty is made in a man. Next, we will focus on greenery itself, its benefits to human health - predominantly psyche, which could tell us something about the relationship of nature-beauty-man. And finally, we try to analyze this relationship, define the forms of perception of beauty and what she really means to a man.

***Key words**: aesthetic, greenery, city, society, nature, unconsciousness*

1. HOW A MAN ASSESS BEAUTY WITHIN SOCIETY

When we forget various theories, which are trying to explain, what beauty is in its essence and why we perceive she, we can say a few things as observers. Everyone has its own aesthetic standards. He has built these standards in himself. The standards are evolving and shifting, they are not static constants. If a man creates something, he is leaded by his standards of taste - he rarely produces a work that he would dislike, or it would be irksome for him. Even if he makes something "to order" and he has to follow the requirements of the sponsor, he still puts in the work own view of world and beauty. Although he is trying to create something to upset and irritate the others, he subconsciously puts into his own aesthetics. As an example, we can mention the period of decadency in the 19th century.

Fig. 1: Decadence in the Czech Lands at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries

Everybody who creates something, who does not only copy what has already been created thoughtlessly, everybody who has at least some interest in the task, he projects his idea of beauty and aesthetic into his work. Then, it depends on the particular person and his conditions, whether he will finish the work to own contentment. Anyway, the imprint of his personal aesthetic standards remains in the work[1].

[1] Two approaches of creation can be observed in contemporary society. The first when a man inserts his own creative energy, his spirit, ideas and opinions into his work (see above). In the other case, he does not do so. But

Aesthetic standards of one person may not correspond with the aesthetic standards of another. We can easily realize that, if we think about musical taste for example, we can find out that the preference of two briefly same people can be diametrically different. But what is it caused? Awareness about what we like or dislike we have been building since childhood. Education and the environment mould in us "what is nice" and what is not. We all know the parental sentences like: "It is not nice to do such a mess ..." So, children impose a standard of order. Or, on the contrary, the children assure themselves with the sentences: "Yeah, that's beautiful, is not it?" The aesthetic preferences we adopt over the course of our lifetime. When we are older, our views on what is beautiful can change according to fashion, or on the contrary, they can sharply define and crystallize. It is a constant development that is pushed forward by the environment and by our own experiences[2].

One person from the other can perceive beauty differently. As we can observe differences in the taste of people, we can also observe their similarities and agreements. The agreement of taste can be the same for two people, for example, in music, but it cannot be for the same two people in literature or design. If we take a certain aesthetic area (for example, a musical style) and focus on a larger number of people, we find out that much of them agree in a certain genre much more strongly than in other ones. Some from the group like other genres at the same time. Then there are groups that are not in the “middle-of-the-road” at all, but they create their own taste areas. Because people grow up in a similar socio-cultural environment, their tastes are partly or totally identical. There is a majority group with the same preferences to which they are either consciously accountable, or surroundings foists the preferences to them until they like them[3]. In this way, the main stream maintains its position.

How does it look like in places where a lot of people live in a small space from the point of view of visual aesthetics? There really is no room for "eccentricity". Public areas in densely populated localities are used by a large number of people, so it can be assumed that a large number of mainstream operates there. In these areas, the one who differs must retreat and realize his aesthetic visions in private or semi-private spaces.

Visual mainstream forms of taste get into the streets somehow, something determines them. Then, it is significant who decides how the streets look for the real: representatives in the authorities. These people decide what kind of project will be implemented in their cities and how the cities will look. There are a few individuals who try to choose projects in the way of public tastes (of course they use different forms of public opinion polls such as questionnaires, etc.), but the final decision lies on a few people and their personal aesthetic standards. We must admit that the standards subconsciously influence their owners in deciding whether they defend themselves or not.

At this point, it is important to note that the decisions do not only depend on the general aesthetic standards, which representatives have inside themselves and which influence their

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what happens when one does not put his creative energy into work? How does this activity look like? After the sincere efforts of the 20th century, when a man tried to relieve his work and make it as much as possible efficient, people came to robotize their own activities. We work much more mentally than before, manual work is done for us by machines, but we are not thinking about the work from creative point of view now. We do not really like the activity we do, we do not care about it. We just do it to get it away, we're not concentrating on it. We do not see it in the context of other things and we are not looking forward to doing it. And that is why the result can not satisfy us, we cannot like it. We did not put ourselves in the work. This problem is described interestingly by John Dewey: Art as Experience, 1934.

[2] This opinion stems from an empirical approach to man, which is based on endless modeling of human personality through experience. See John Dewey: Child and Curriculum, 1902

[3] A good example may be situation when one is still hearing a song in his surroundings, although the style does not say anything to him, he has no idea about interpret, the song is sung in a language he does not know – still, the song is imprinted into his memory very deeply. When he will hear something like this again, he will take it more openly, tolerate it, get used to it, like it.

choices. But contrary there depends on what projects have realized in public spaces too, because residents see these projects every day, they perceive these projects every day, these projects influence residents additionally. And they made own opinions according to realized projects.
So, in summary, we can say that people are putting pressure on themselves, creating the mainstream standards of their beauty. And because they make efforts to satisfy as many people as possible, the aesthetic of mainstream is applied in public spaces and public greenery too.

2. GREENERY IN THE CITY - WHAT IS BENEFICIAL TO A MAN?

This question may seem unreasonable but let us reflect whether we need greenery in the city at all. Yes, if we look at it ultra-practically, the city is a place where many people have to exist in a very small space. These people must live here, that is, they have to occupy places where they are in private, they have to be in places where they will work, they have to been visiting places where they obtain goods to live. Next, there have to be technical devices such as distribution systems of water, electricity, sewerage, etc. In short, a lot of things for a small space. Is not the greenery something that hinders the cities actually? Something that does not have to be here, what could be left outside the borders of cities?
We do not think so. Greenery in cities just does not "hinder". It fulfills various functions in the construction such as the protection of soil against water erosion, strengthening slopes against landslips, etc. In areas that directly affect man in his life, with different authors, we can say that:

- Greenery decreases the temperature of air by its vegetation surface - it reflects a part of the sunshine back into atmosphere, a part is consumed for photosynthesis, a part is spent on transpiration, interception and evaporation of water from the surface. Thanks to the high levels of vegetation, sunshine is processed on more levels;
- Vegetation is able to increase humidity in the air by evapotranspiration, evaporation of dew on surface and evaporation of captured precipitation;
- Grown trees forestall overheating of buildings, streets and open spaces during the summer;
- Grown greenery decreases dustiness, because it captures dust via its above-ground parts. Further it reduces air flow, respectively dust swirling, and it helps with dust sedimentation. It is essential on what surface the dust becomes sediment. If it drops on a paved surface, dust gets back in to the air with the next blow;
- It affects wind flow - windbreaks can be an asset mainly on the city borders. The opportunity of wind influence is quite limited by built-up areas, but still, greenery is able to decrease the speed and direction of a wind flow. Moreover, greenery can give rise to convectional flowing - colder air flows down into areas with higher temperatures;
- Greenery is able to decrease noise. Branches works as absorbers of sound frequencies;
- It loosens biologically active agents which positively influence the human body, e.g. reactive oxygen species, substances with bacteriostatic and repellent effects etc. (Kolařík 2003, pp. 77-81; Principles and Rules of Spatial Planning 2017).
- Sojourn in natural elements brings us back to our own entity, reduces stress, stimulates all senses at the same time, and adds to the social sector, where it mentions the interaction between cultures and generations as a positive of green space, reduction of feeling of social isolation, increasing sense of responsibility for relations with nature (Roloff, 2016, p. 29).

This is a relatively comprehensive list of health benefits that full-grown greenery brings us in the city. We would particularly like to point out the final one, because it is significant for our investigation and it can help us to clarify the relationship of man to natural beauty.

3. THE CHANGE OF AESTHETIC STANDARDS

Now, let us return to our main problem of aesthetic standards. We have already explained that part of them is the consensus of conviction within society. We have noted that the presence of natural elements in the human environment is essential. It is time to turn our attention to an area that could give us further answers - aesthetic throughout history.

When we take an example of fine art and its development, one thing is blown into our eyes: in the 20th century there is a great change in the understanding of the beauty. The concept appears. Until this time, people in fine arts were trying to express some subconscious harmony and all their rational efforts were focused on the ability to express this "divine" concord. They were trying to imitate nature and her proportions, they were looking for the rules of beauty which they could put into their artworks. People were surrounded by nature, she was both their inspiration and the incomparable goal at the same time. Respected artists were not theorists who explain their know-how, but people who worked with their emotions and intuition.

Yes, there is possible to argue that, in the Renaissance, mathematics and geometry entered fine arts and their concepts, e. g. the linear perspective, helped to artists more often. But the whole interpretation and expression, despite the rational use of geometric tools, was imparted by the artist himself. His artistic expression depended on personal experience, psychological mood, ability to perceive surroundings. The work was done by a man who tried to notice the "divine" beauty by all his means. The situation changed in the 20th century. Suddenly, it was not all about expressing universal beauty in fine art, beauty herself was not the centerpiece, but the visual adaptation of thinking got at the forefront. Fine art turned into a visual illustration of the opinion. The expression of universal beauty stood at first place and it was the main goal of artists until this time. But at this moment, they were trying to demonstrate some statement, whether it was politics or personal attitude. They were not targeting on the beauty of artwork or raising any feelings of harmony. They wanted audience to understand their ideas through visual demonstration. It turned out that it was not so easy as expressing universal beauty. There was requiring of verbal description to understand such visual illustrations. The artists began to explain their works. No longer there were feelings from artworks at the first place, but the opinion which the artworks represented. And this opinion was necessary to explain and describe to audience to understand the artwork correctly. The artists began to focus on understanding of themselves by audience. We rationalized and verbalized what was no need to have rational or verbal for all ages.

Fig. 2: Breakthrough in aesthetics of the 20th century - Fountain by Marcel Duchamp

How did the conceptual direction in art affect the other spheres of human activity? The emotional and intuitive element was pushed out of creation. If someone is using them, so purely subconscious. The development of fine art illustrates how society's attitude has changed. And the transformation to the concept just crowned.
Nature ceased to be the main inspiration, a man began to solve problems within communities and solve them completely rationally, or at least try to displace all their emotions[4].
Allowing the presence of emotions and their share in decision-making processes was impossible. Intuition has been expelled to the field of "delusions".
How could urban aesthetics develop when visual aesthetics generally experienced such a break? Here, the safety of the population, transport, noise, etc. must be the first place. Mainstream ideas dominate in remaining natural space.

4. NATURE AS THE DISOBEDIENT TOOL OF OUR CREATIVITY

But we have forgotten during our concentration on ourselves and our society that nature is not lifeless building material, but it is a living entity or, if we want to say by this way - a universe of living organisms and communities which have their own rules of behavior and development. We began to work with nature as with material, a matter that is available to us and with which we manage somehow. We apply our rational logic rules to her, and we expect that she would behave by the way we planned. Whether she is represented by iron, glass, wood, or apple orchards. We have a plan, and nature should fulfil it.
We have created a role in our society for nature, we have established characteristic attributes to her according to experiences which we have with her, we noted her processes and reactions in particular situations and we are expecting now that all of this repeats every time. But it does not. We think she will do what we planned, but she is going to be different, unexpected. Why is that so?
Two answers are available to us. We do not have enough information about her, so our hypotheses do not come out. She works according to other rules than we think. We apply the unfeeling laws of our logic, how we have created them in our civilization, we act scientifically, etc. - but what if is whole this concept misconceived? Where and when have we confirmed that if some processional rules work well in small parts (in artificial or precisely controlled conditions), they will work as well on other parts of nature or even on nature as a whole? Is it not possible that we omit something in our calculations? What do we not think and should we? Or, contrary, do we not think too much? What if laws of logic are not the ones according to which the whole of nature is govern? It is highly likely that nature has her own laws, but are they really the same as we use for her?
Yes, then everything would be wrong. One thinks that this is not possible, because our predictions work partly. Partially yes, but how many times do we hit 100%? What if general natural patterns subordinate to something other than logical rules, how do we imagine them?
Of course, we can argue that the laws of physics have evolved with history and according to the observation of nature, they have been constantly tested in nature until it has been possible to declare a rule that is valid under certain conditions and that corresponds to the laws of our logic. So, then the laws should work in nature. We do not want to disprove the laws of physics, but if some physical law works, we have to create pre-defined conditions under which it is in operation. The laws of physics deal with parts of nature, not with its entirety. Definitions of physical laws have always been based on experience with individual and relatively small parts of nature. They have great success in these bordered areas. And they will have equally good success in other equally delimited areas. But to applicate of these

[4] Today's research in the field of psychology has already shown us that it is not possible to make decisions and solve problems without emotion. A man is influenced by emotions and unconsciousness, but he does not always admit that. See Dostal 2009.

particular laws to nature as a whole and expectate the same success as in case of its parts seem as a methodical error.

5. MAINSTREAM AESTHETICS VERSUS AESTHETICS OF NATURE

When we look back to aesthetics, by what is she different? Is she different at all? Before concept, people tried to imitate natural beauty. Some of them, thanks to the imitation, embraced natural aesthetic standards. These artists simply created their art, and from their work the natural aesthetics emanated. And this is exactly the point we are trying to find and specify here: the interconnection of nature and man through the subconscious perception of beauty. They intuitively absorbed natural aesthetics and, even though they partially used social aesthetic standards (mainstream), they incorporated natural proportions into their works. Because society was in mood for the accepting of beauty and harmony from nature, they emanated from artworks more. Simultaneously with Dewey (1934), we have to note that the more the artist has freed from social norms and more he has managed the natural subconscious rules, the more groundbreaking and significant his work was.

Let us recall bold claim of Roloff that "staying in natural elements returns us to our own entity" (Roloff, 2016). We have to ask: what is human entity? Does she deeply connect/proceed from nature or does she develop into a different form which does not actually need nature?

Everyone, who thinks a bit critical about the question, must admit that we are connected with nature somehow. Therefore, our most internal entity remains natural. Greenery, even though we try to make decoration from it by different ways and we form various cultivars etc., still keeps own aesthetics. Here the difference is showing what we plan with nature and what she does. With natural elements, their natural beauty is not what nature could do. If we mention natural elements, their beauty is not the target of nature. We cultivate and shape the plants, we have an aesthetic pleasure, we have these plans with them. But, when we stop working on our plans, the cultivars disappear, the carefully trimmed trees become patulous. According to their own plan. In the area where we were especially interested in the decorative pleasure, new species move, new ecosystems arise, and after a while, by a distance, we are fascinated by the special allure of these places[5]. It is not important whether or not we modify the natural elements, it is important whether they are in our neighborhood and whether we are able to perceive them. Then they pass a certain harmony on us which we perceive as a feeling of beauty, and at the same time Roloff's return to our entity is going on. We find it as the most important in the relationship of nature-beauty-man. The aesthetic aspect belongs to nature. We could associate him with the skin of an animal. We notice its surface at first and this makes a main impression. But the intention of nature stays hidden to us, we see only her surface.

Since Descartes, humanity has been increasingly focusing on rational way of thinking. We have primarily worked with facts that we have been able to define and describe clearly. However, we have also pulled them out of context. We have achieved amazing results with this technique. At the same time, we have completely distanced ourselves from other possibilities of knowledge. Practically we cannot imagine other possibilities today. But we closed the door by this manner.

The fact, that we are still able to perceive nature through the emotions which she invokes in us, proves that there are forgotten possibilities to which we have not created cognitive and expressive devices. There are not devices which could understandable catch phenomenon of nature and its whole influence on human society.

[5]As an example, we can mention urban wilderness which is very discussed today.

By the manner how we have created the world around us, we do not have much space to break through rational thinking. However, one breakthrough still appears in the aesthetics of greenery. Independently of the tendencies of mainstream norms, it intuitively returns us to our entity. We cannot describe it by words, we try to find various logical solutions to calm our minds and give reason to go back to the greenery and defend its existence in the cities.
Another reason, which has not yet been explained, may be the breakthrough of the world beyond the rational system of human society. The breakthrough that is realized through the perception of the natural harmony of the vegetation around us. This return to our entity is not rational, by mind, but it gets into our subconscious intuitively through our feelings of blessing and peace.
Rationally, we can try to describe this relationship/natural influence from various perspectives and in different ways, but we can only come close to the general understanding of natural processes through the perception of beauty. And it is only possible by an intuitive imitation/merging with its aesthetic standards, which we can only achieve by individual experience. This way is there from human beginning. It seems that it is time to start exploring its possibilities.

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PROTECTION OF THE WEAKER PARTY IN THE CIVIL PROCEDURE IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Radka Zahradníková

Abstract

The article deals with elements of protection of the weaker in civil procedure law. It presents the elements of protection of the weaker party in the Czech and Slovak republic, and finally European Union and transnational law. It outlines the de lege ferenda considerations for the forthcoming recodification of the civil procedure law in the Czech Republic.

Keywords: *Civil procedure, protection of the weaker party, principle of equality*

1. Introduction

The new codification of Czech private law brought increased emphasis on contractual freedom and autonomy of will as well as the emphasis on the protection of the weaker party. According to professor Števček, the principle of protection of the weaker party is an immanent/inherent part of the legally protective instruments of democratic in 21st century. [1] The principle of protection of the weaker party is generally grounded balancing naturally imbalanced status of certain categories of legal entities in private and procedural law.

There is a concept of a standard form contract (also called as a contract of adhesion) in the substantive law regarding to situation when freedom of contract is merely apparent and thus it loses the respect for the content of contractual agreements legally philosophical justification itself. Should these rules be enforced in civil procedure as well? Or does civil procedure exclude application of these rules? And if so, are there other tools to protect the weaker party in procedural law?

Equality of entities is characteristic of civil law as a whole. Substantive law of civil law is based on its own essence from the point of view of equal treatment of private-law relations whereas civil procedural law has its constitutional dimension based, inter alia, on international obligations.

Civil procedure is a separate category of public law even though it generally provides protection for mainly private law relationships. Every procedural right is related to the public law because at least one entity holds public authority which is not in inherently equal position as the other participated entities involved in the judicial proceeding. The court is an official body with public authority in civil procedure and has a superordinate position among other entities of civil procedure. The courts carry out judicial power as one of the independent state powers.

The principle of equality of participants is considered to be the fundamental principle of a fair trial. The principle of equality means that the court has an obligation to treat participants equally in the same way, so that none of party benefits, and it gives them equal opportunities to exercise their rights. It reflects the equality of parties in subjective rights and obligations under substantive law. The position of the participants shall not be dependent on any ground such as gender, religion, race, national or social origin. This principle requires each of the parties to have the same opportunity to exercise all procedural rights conferred by the law. It means the equal status of both parties when applying the law to any court in particular. The principle of equality of parties is manifested by the creation of the same procedural conditions

[1] Števček, M., Ficová, S., Baricová, J., Mesiarkinová, S., Bajánková, J., Tomašovič, M., a kol. Civilný sporový poriadok. Komentár. [Civil Procedure Order. Commentary on a Law.] Praha: C.H.Beck, 2016, p. 45

and the procedural status of the entities whose rights and duties are decided before court.[2] The principle of equality is reflected in the procedural status and process of the parties and this principal may not predetermine the judgment in dispute or other legal matter. Therefore, the outcome of civil proceedings does not violate itself the equality of the parties before the court.[3] The Code of Civil Procedure (hereinafter referred to as CPC) considers judgment incorrect provided that it was rendered in proceeding in which the equality of its participants had not been respected. It might be successfully challenged by admissible ordinary and extraordinary remedies.

The procedure is a dispute that takes place through a controversial debate where the parties to the dispute must have "equal weapons", i.e. the same opportunity to speak and defend their "truth". In practical life, as a rule, there will be no absolute, mathematical equality; it is a relative notion, especially in the sense that it can not completely eliminate the difference in the procedural and, in particular, the factual position of the parties resulting from their different possibilities.[4] This unequal position may be to some extent offset by additional safeguards for the weaker party, the so-called favor defensionis,[5] which is reflected, for example, in the adjustment of the burden of proof or in reinforced teaching duties.

Beyond these principles certain procedural advantages of certain entities that enter into civil procedural relations are reflected especially as the parties of a dispute. In this context, we can talk about so-called "positive discrimination", it means to give preferential treatment to a certain circle of entities of civil proceedings. This group includes mainly employees, discriminated persons, injured persons, insured persons, passenger[6] or tenants, if they use an apartment just for their personal use.[7] However, it is also possible to include an unrepresented participant in this category.[8] Particularly, a consumer also became such entity under the influence of European Union law.

These categories of entities have comparative disadvantage during proceedings that the court is obliged to balance. In connection with the principle of equality before the law or more precisely the principle of equality in civil procedure, the principle of protection of the weaker party is sometimes mistakenly interpreted as discrimination in favour of a weaker litigant to the detriment of stronger litigant. Such a perception of the principle of protection of the weaker party would probably not be constitutional. On the contrary, content of the principle of protection of weaker party is some kind of equalization of the procedural status of a weaker litigant to ensure the procedural equality and the same imaginary baseline for litigants.[9] The essence of protection of the weaker party in procedural law is equalizing procedural position of weaker party to the level that functionally correlates with procedural status of the counterparty (stronger procedural party).

The role of a modern civil procedure is, among other things, to protect weaker parties of disputes and to compensate for a certain inequality originated in state corresponding to

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[2] STAVINOHOVÁ, J. *Občanské právo procesní. Řízení nalézací*.[Civil Procedure] Brno: Iuridica Brunensia, 1996, s. 57.

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[6] Decision of the Constitutional Court of 11 October 2016 File No. Pl. III.ÚS 1429/16

[7] Decision of the Constitutional Court of 28 February 2006 File No. Pl. ÚS 20/05 published in the Collection of decisions and resolutions of the Constitutional Court under No. 47/2006, page 389.

[8] Compare Article 118a Section 4 Code of Civil Procedure

[9] Števček, M., Ficová, S., Baricová, J., Mesiarkinová, S., Bajánková, J., Tomašovič, M., a kol. Civilný sporový poriadok. Komentár. .[Civil Procedure Order. Commentary on a Law.] Praha : C.H.Beck, 2016, str. 46

hypotheses of substantive law rules and standards. By potential adopting of special procedural procedures it is impossible to speak about violation of the principle of equality of parties as an integral part of the right to a fair trial.
The principle of protection of weaker procedural party means that a weaker entity should be protected only to the extent when mentioned functional procedural equality is achieved. According to prof. Števček, [10] it would certainly not be correct to interpret the principle of protection of the weaker party in the sense that a supreme position of the weaker party is to be secured in relation to counterparty. The estimation of the extent of the equalization by the court is a very sensitive issue in which the legislator frequently intervenes normatively.
The legislation of protection of the weaker party is extremely specific because it brings to civil procedure certain aspects that distinguish proceedings in which the weaker party appears. This is how major modifications of classical procedural institutes and procedural principles begin to realize. It arises the question whether the need to protect the weaker party cannot be seen as a new and separate rule of governing civil procedure. Professor Števček calls it as the principle of protection of weaker party in this context.
Nevertheless, neither Constitution of the Czech Republic (Art. 81 et seq.), nor the Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms (Art. 36 et seq.) and the Court and Judges Act on Courts and Judges (Section 4 et seq.) contain generally provision about protection of the weaker party so it is not possible to speak about the protection of the weaker party as a constitutional principle of the functioning of justice. It is necessary to mention in this context that neither Art. 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights and Freedoms does not mention the protection of weaker party in definition of the right to a fair trial too.
It is not just the position of the weaker party in the factfinding proceedings but the broader context of civil proceedings, alternative dispute resolution, mass or collective protection of consumer rights in the form of collective actions. The protection of the weaker party, namely the consumer, also becomes apparent in enforcement, especially where consumer acts on the side of the liable person, even in connection with the execution title, e.g arbitration award in arbitration proceedings.

2. Protection of the weaker party in the contemporary Czech Code of Civil Procedure

From the point of view of the civil procedure, the legal framework for the protection of the weaker party is fragmented into many provisions and could be found in various places in CPC. The aforementioned aspects, without expressing specific legislation, can be considered extremely important as they ensure the dynamic development of civil procedure and its adaptation to the modern European civil procedure. In the current Czech legal regulation of the civil procedure, the protection of the consumer as a party of the proceedings is presented both in the proceedings and in the enforcement proceedings.
The regulation of protection of consumers, respectively non-entrepreneurs, in the fact finding proceedings is contained in Section 89a of Code of Civil Procedure, according to which the parties can agree in writing on the local jurisdiction of another court of first instance, but only in matters concerning business relations between entrepreneurs. According to the legislation in force until 31.12.2013, all parties of proceedings could have agreed on that in general in all commercial matters.
Prorogation clause in a consumer contract, which has not been individually negotiated and which grounded local jurisdiction of the court located far from the consumer's domicile in terms of distance as well as transportation options, is contrary to the provisions of Civil Code. It is contrary to abovementioned provision if the conflict with the requirement of good faith

[10] Števček, M., Ficová, S., Baricová, J., Mesiarkinová, S., Bajánková, J., Tomašovič, M., a kol. Civilný sporový poriadok. Komentár. .[Civil Procedure Order. Commentary on a Law.] Praha : C.H.Beck, 2016, str. 46

causes a significant imbalance in rights and obligations of the parties resulting from the contract to the detriment of the consumer. The Supreme Court stated further in that opinion R 79/2013 that the abovementioned provisions of the Civil Code are primarily transposition of Council Directive 93/13 / EEC of 5 April 1993 on unfair terms in consumer contracts, in part concerning the abusive clauses in consumer contracts.[11]

In a private consumer contract dispute between a supplier and a consumer, the court may not apply Directive 93/13 directly. If it did so, it would be a direct horizontal effect of Directive 93/13 which is prohibited by the case-law of the Court of Justice of the European Union. Article 6 (1) and Article 7 (1) of Directive 93/13 must be interpreted as meaning that a national court, which found without any motion that a contractual clause is abusive, is not obliged wait to infer consequences from this findings until the consumer proposes to cancel the mentioned clause.

In the view of the fact that the Court of Justice of the European Union regards prorogation as unfair term[12] within the meaning of point 1 q) of the Annex to Directive 93/13 / EC, the possibility of concluding prorogation agreement with non-entrepreneur was excluded by amendment of the Code of Civil Procedure, Act No. 293/2013 Coll. New codification of Czech Civil Code, Act No. 89/2012 Coll., contains this kind of such prohibited conduct in Section 1814 point j) of Civil Code.

Another element of weaker party protection, which is embedded in Czech contemporary Code of Civil Procedure, is the court's obligation to instruct the non-represented party on other procedural rights and obligations than those which were not listed in preceding paragraphs in accordance with Section 118a paragraph 4 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

Another element of the protection of the weaker party is included in the provision of Section 133a of the CPC which applies in the context of clarifying whether the respondent was discriminated. For example whether dismissal from employment was motivated by racial, religious, sexual orientation etc. In such cases, the plaintiff claims facts on which it may be inferred that he or she has been directly or indirectly discriminated, in the areas and for the reasons set out in subparagraphs (a) to (c) of that provision. Thus, a rebuttable legal presumption arises that there has been a violation of the principle (or right) equal treatment. The defendant must then produce the reverse of evidence, i.e. to prove the facts from which it is possible to infer that the termination of employment was not based on discriminatory reasons.[13]

The above mentioned element is related to another element of protection of the weaker party embedded in Section 155 paragraph 4 of the CPC, according to which the court can admit the right to publish the judgment at the expense of the unsuccessful participant on his or her motion to participant, whose legal action was granted, in matters of protection of rights breached or endangered by unfair competition conduct, the protection of intellectual property rights and in matters of protection of consumer rights; depending on the circumstances of the case, the court also determines the scope, form and manner of publication.

Additional element of protection of the weaker party in the Czech fact finding proceedings could be considered the admissibility of the appellate review in which, according to Section 238 (1) c) CPC, the appellate review is not admissible against judgments and resolutions in which it was decided on a monetary performance not exceeding CZK 50,000 unless it concerns relations from consumer contracts and labour relations.

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[11] The Czech version was published in a special edition of the Official Journal of the EU (Chapter 15, Volume

[12] Judgment of the European Court of Justice (Fourth Chamber) of 4 June 2009, C-243/08.

[13] The current form of § 133a of the CPC brought to the Civil Procedure Discrimination Act no. 198/2009 Coll. and reflected in the rules of Community law. Closer to the interpretation of this provision, see III. US 880/15, III. US 1213-1213, III. US 1136-1113, II. US 1609-1608, Pl. US 37/04 and 108/10 R.

Another element of protection of weaker party is the legislation of the fee obligation enshrined in Act No. 549/1991 Coll. on court fees. The party is exempted from the fees, for example the petitioner/complainant in proceedings for the determination of alimony in the case other than mutual maintenance obligation of parents and children, the petitioner who has suffered harm, in the proceedings on compensation of damage to health or injury caused by killing including damages in matters incurred in connection with injury or death and reimbursement of costs of treatment, etc.
Protection of the consumer appears also in the enforcement proceedings especially there where the consumer acts on the side of the liable person resulting from an enforceable title if the arbitration award is issued in the arbitration proceedings. The European Court of Justice formed an opinion in 2009 concerning the interpretation of Council Directive 93/13 / EEC of 5 April 1993, on inappropriate conditions in consumer contracts, that it should be enabled in consumer disputes to review the validity of the arbitration clause also in the enforcement proceedings (see, in particular, the judgment ECJ of 6. 10. 2009, file No. C-40/08, Asturcom Telecommunicaciones SL against Cristina Rodríguez Nogueira).
Concerning alternative methods of dispute resolution, the protection of the weaker, namely the protection of a consumer, was manifested mainly by the exclusion of consumer disputes from the objective arbitrability of disputes (Section 2 Subsection 1 of Act No. 216/1994 Coll.).

3. EU legislation in the field of protection of weaker

The protection of the weaker party in EU legislation provides a wide scope on consumer protection in particular. The European Union adopts various instruments in order to ensure protection of a consumer as a weaker party. These are manifested not merely in the field of substantive law, but also in the protection of the rights and legitimate interests of the consumer in civil procedure. Therefore, the European Union requires from individual Member State to respond to these requirements within their national legislation. It obliges individual Member State to impose proper protection both in substantive and procedural law in national law of such legal relations in which the consumer appears as one of the entities of such a legal relationship.
The EU Commission published Green Paper on Consumer Access to Justice in 1993[14] from which gradually raised the idea of a common uniform procedure for resolving consumer disputes, expressed in the Commission Communication of 14 February 1996 entitled "Action Plan on consumer access to justice and the settlement of consumer disputes in the internal market" [15]consisting of-court settlement of consumer disputes or even creation a pan-European network of "bodies" to resolve consumer disputes. This recommendation of the EU Commission deepens in the "Recommendations of-court settlement of consumer disputes" from 1998[16] in which it is recommended to support extra-judicial procedures for resolving such disputes, such as mediation, conciliation or arbitration as they help to resolve disputes quickly and cost-designed. In April 2001 EU Commission published recommendations on the principles for out-of-court settlements made by non-judicial authorities.[17] The EU Commision named such principles in particular: impartiality, transparency, effectiveness and fairness. These principles became the basis for addressing the later directive.

[14] Commission Green Paper of 16 November 1993 on access of consumers to justice and the settlement of consumer disputes in the single market. COM(93) 576.
[15] Action plan on consumer access to justice and the settlement of consumer disputes in the internal market" [COM(96) 13 final].
[16] Commission Recommendation 98/257/EC of 30 March 1998 on the principles applicable to the bodies responsible for out-of-court settlement of consumer disputes.
[17] Commission Recommendation of 4 April 2001 on the principles for out-of-court bodies involved in the consensual resolution of consumer disputes (2001/310/EC).

In 2008 the European Parliament and the Council published a Directive on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.[18] The system of protection introduced by the Directive is based on the idea that the consumer is in an unequal position against the vendor or supplier regarding the bargaining power and the level of awareness that leads him or her to adhere to pre-fabricated conditions by the salesperson or provider without affection of condition's content.[19]

In 2013 the European Union published Directive of the European Parliament and the Council 2013/11/EU from 21 April 2013 on alternative dispute resolution for consumer disputes and amending of Regulation (EC) No. 2006/2004 and Directive 2009/22/ EC. Although the Directive is not formulated clearly in many points for the purpose to be useful for both parties to resolve disputes by using mediation and parties using direct decisions, the Directive introduces relatively uniform standard of behaviour of such entities.

In addition to this Directive from 2013, the European Union published directly binding Regulation No. 524/2013 on on-line consumer disputes.[20] The regulation came fully into force on January 9, 2016. The platform means an interactive website [21]which allows free access in all official EU languages. EU platform makes it possible to settle disputes in the cases of domestic or cross-border online purchases.

Another aim of the Consumer Policy Strategy adopted by the EU Commission is promoting the retail internal market. The OECD in its recommendation on consumer dispute resolution and redress[22]even encouraged its member countries to provide consumers with access to different means of redress, including collective redress mechanisms. Based on these plans, Green Paper on Consumer Collective assertion of claims for redress of November 27, 2008, COM (2008) 794 was published in final version. [23]

The Commission also pointed out the existence of assertion of claims by means of collective institutions in the Green Paper, which proved to be useful and desirable. Currently mechanism of judicial collective redress serves only in thirteen Member States. In those Member States where such a system is implemented, could be also identified several types of mechanisms which can be classified as "collective" judicial compensation. Consumers should have a court-based collective redress procedure if justice is to take its course as in other instances concerning commercial transactions. It is also necessary to decide whether the process is opt-in or opt-out.[24] Both of these options have their drawbacks.

Elements of the protection of the weaker party could be found in some regulations of the European Parliament and of the Council concerning judicial cooperation in civil matters. These are specifically the regulation of the European Parliament and the European Council Regulation (EU) No. 1215/2012 on jurisdiction and the recognition and enforcement of judgments in civil and commercial matters, which repealed the previous Regulation (EC) No. 44/2001 of 22 12 . 2000 on jurisdiction and the recognition and enforcement of judgments in civil and commercial matters called as Ibis Brussels. Regulation Brussels I bis adjusts so called obligatory jurisdiction for certain areas of legal relations, particularly in matters relating to insurance, in matters of consumer contracts and individual employment contracts.

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[18] Directive of the European Parliament and Council Directive 2008/52 / EC of 21 May 2008 on certain aspects of mediation in civil and commercial matters.

[19] Judgment ECJ dated June 27, 2000, Oceano Grupo Editorial and Salvat Editores C-240/98 to C-244/98, ECR. I-4941, paragraph 25.

[20] Regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council (EU) no. 524/2013 of 21 May 2013 on the settlement of consumer disputes online and amending Regulation (EC) no. 2006/2004 and Directive 2009/22 / EC (Regulation on consumer disputes online).

[21] http://ec.europa.eu/odr

[22] http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/50/38960101.pdf

[23] Green Paper on consumer collective redress (COM (2008) 794 final).

[24] Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee, OJ. lead. C 162, 25.6.2008.

The reason for this amendment is mainly to protect the weaker party in determining jurisdiction, which are favorable to his or her interests than the general rules.[25]

4. Transnational Principles of civil procedure

Principles of transnational civil procedure (hereafter PTCP)[26] is a collaborative project of the American legal Institute (ALI) and the International Institute for the Unification of Private Law (UNIDROIT).[27] The principles were published in 2004 and they represent a significant step towards the harmonization of the rules of civil procedure, particularly with regard to their differences in the Anglo-American and Continental legal system. Principles can serve not only in drafting legislative proposals, but also in the new codification of existing legal standards. The aim of the project was to create procedural principles which transcend the national framework. These procedural standards would be uniformly applied in international business adversarial proceedings worldwide.

The principles of transnational civil procedure recognize and enshrine the general principle of equality in Clause 3 PTCP of course.[28] However, in the context of this principle the requirement to take into account some aspects arising from the particularities of transnational civil procedure is enshrined. The PTCP set up explicitly the principle of equal treatment, which at the same time provides that the right to equal treatment includes avoidance of any illegitimate discrimination particularly on grounds of nationality or residence. Illegitimate discrimination includes also on the basis of nationality, place of residence, sex, race, language, religion, political or other opinion or social origin, marital status, sexual orientation or connection to a national minority. Any form of illegitimate discrimination is thereby prohibited.

However on the other hand PTCP enshrine the requirement so-called positive discrimination, more precisely advantages, since the court should also take into account the difficulties faced by foreign party who participates in the proceedings.[29] Similar legislation was introduced in the EU. In 2003, Council Directive 2003/8 / EC of 27. 1. 2003 on the access of justice in cross-border disputes was approved, by establishing minimum common rules relating to legal aid for such disputes. This Directive was implemented into Czech legal system by Act no. 629/2004 Coll. on providing legal aid in cross-border disputes within the European Union.

5. Slovakian Code of Civil Procedure and the protection of weaker party

Recently, a comprehensive new codification of civil procedure has taken place in the Slovak Republic, which culminated in the adoption of three new laws, namely Act No. 160/2015 Coll. on Civil Procedure, Act No. 161/2015 Coll. on Non-contentious Civil Procedure and finally the Act No. 162/2015 Coll. on The Administrative Court Procedure, which came into effect on 1 July 2016. The aim of the new codification of procedural rules was ensuring efficient, faster and more economical procedure which meets the requirements of the 21st century.

The equality of the parties is defined in the Article 6. 1 of Code of Civil Procedure (CCP), according to which the parties should have equal status consisting of same scope of possibilities to exercise procedural means of an offensive and the defence, except for those cases in which the nature of case requires increased protection of the parties with the aim of balancing naturally imbalanced position of the parties. Moreover, CCP accentuates the specific needs of certain categories of entities which not come under the definition of a

[25] *See* The preamble of Brussels I bis Regulation.
[26] Ali/Unidroit Principles of Transnational Civil Procedure.
[27] See http://www.unidroit.org/instruments/transnational-civil-procedure
[28] See http://www.unidroit.org/instruments/transnational-civil-procedure
[29] The provision 3.2 PTCP.

weaker party. According to Art. 6 paragraph 2, the court has to take into account the specific needs of the parties arising from their health and social status.
According to CCP, the weaker party forms three categories of entities: consumer, employee and discriminated against in anti-discrimination litigation.[30] Normative protection of procedural differences disputes with the protection of weaker parties is contained in Title II Part III in CCP. Legislation reflects one of the basic principles of the new contentious procedure by which severe impacts of concentrated adversarial dispute on certain subjects are not desirable. Justification of this postulate is based on objective substantive and procedural irregularities certain entities of law that the court must compensate by applying special procedural different from general procedural institutes contentious process, otherwise it would not fulfil the purpose of an contentious process which is fair and fast protection disturbed or threatened individual rights.[31]

6. Social concept of civil procedure and protection of the weaker party

Protection of the weaker party stood in the forefront of interests of legal theorists in the past. Due to the fact that liberal concept of civil procedure applicable so far has been proved from the long term insufficient with regard to the concept of the protection of the weaker party in the late 19th century, civil procedural laws created the social concept of civil procedure in the science which is in contrast to the liberal concept. The purpose of this social concept of civil procedure was to achieve equitable decision in the dispute which would not resign on the real substantive relationship between the parties. The role of the court in social concept of civil procedure is to actively participate in the stabilization of the facts of the dispute as well as gathering evidence in cooperation with the parties of the dispute.
It must be emphasized that the term of social concept has nothing to do with political science and sociological connotations of this term. Its name is derived from the active role of courts and judges in getting the real picture of the facts of the case. At the same time, the active role of the judge in the proceedings cannot be equated with a deformed adversary principle as it was in the time of socialism. The purpose of this concept is not certainly finding out real state of case and denial procedural activities of parties as the socialist science of civil procedure was highlighting the principle of material truth in uncritical way.[32]
The important representatives of this concept were specialist in procedural law, namely Austrian Anton Menger and Franz Klein. They feared discrimination of socially weaker parties whose rights could be violated because of its ignorance of the law and thus, they promoted the deepening of the instruction obligations of the court and moderate restrictions of freedom of parties. Menger concluded from the ongoing social and economic changes that the need of functional and effective judiciary was growing however it cannot resign on applying more effective guarantees that eliminate the impact of the social aspect ratios on the outcome of the proceedings.[33] According to Klein, extension of obligation of instruct of court and obligation to inquire of the court has positive effect on protection of the socially weaker party but the court can also contribute to economic and social development of society. The court's

[30] Act No. 365/2004 Coll. on equal treatment in certain areas and on protection against discrimination and on amending and supplementing certain acts.
[31] See explanatory memorandum of CCP.
[32] ŠTEVČEK, M. Koncepčné, historicko-právne a právno-filozofické kontexty kodifikácie civilného práva procesného. [Conceptual, historical-legal and legal-philosophical codification of Civil Procedure].In SUCHOŽA, J.; HUSÁR, J.; HUČKOVÁ, R. (eds). *Právo, obchod, ekonomika V.*[Law, trade and economy V.] Košice: UPJŠ, 2015, s. 441.
[33] MACUR, J. *Zásada projednací v civilním soudním řízení*[The adversary principle in civil procedure*]*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, 1997, p. 81.

activity allows quick law enforcement and contribution to the development of a social order based on private enterprise and a market economy.[34]
The outlined ideas were enshrined into a comprehensive and coherent codification of civil procedure by adoption of the Austrian Civil Code of Procedure in 1895. The principal author of this code was Franz Klein so the designation of the concept of civil procedure sometimes uses adjectival form of his last name. Thus, it is used not only the social concept of civil procedure but also Klein's concept of civil procedure.[35] In Section 432 of Civil Procedural Order of Act No. 113/1895 Coll., it was determined that the judge gives necessary instruction to uninformed parties and legally unrepresented parties , if it is needed, about the execution of procedural steps and to instruct them about the legal consequences associated with their acts or omissions.

7. Conclusion

Starting from Klein's social concept of civil procedure it appears to be a need to consider strengthening socially weaker parties who might be placed in disadvantage in proceedings in the future recodification of Czech civil procedure law. Their rights may be impaired due to their ignorance of law. In order that the civil procedure could fulfil its essential function in this area so as to protect and to promote substantive law and to be a means of protection of subjective rights and legally protected interests;[36] it has to keep pace with a development of substantive law. Just as substantive law of consumer protection also procedural consumer law has to identify the actual real disparity of parties in the civil procedure resulting from the nature of the parties, and this must be taken account of it and to seek appropriate instruments to compensate for it in legal regulation.[37] The actual security of equality of arms between the parties in a civil trial in the formal sense is not capable remove of such a disparity in consumer disputes. Every consumer has de jure opportunity to exercise his right in court or defend themselves against other claims to the same extent and under the same conditions as every other participant of legal relations, de facto, however, this balance is only illusory.[38]
Specific legislation of proceeding of consumer disputes, individual labour disputes and anti-discrimination disputes is entirely absent in Czech civil procedure, also including special arrangements of territorial jurisdiction to the benefit of the weaker party in such disputes. Construction of optimal functioning civil procedure for the effective application of consumer rights is inevitable not only for market-friendly for consumers, but also the condition for the very existence of a balanced market.[39] Collective actions in consumer matters are also completely absent in Czech legal order. [40]

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[34] MACUR, J. Základní teoretické otázky legislativní koncepce civilního procesu. [The Basic Theoretical Question of Legal Concept of Civil Procedure]. *Bulletin advokacie,* 1998, No. 9, p. 9.
[35] ŠTEVČEK, M. Koncepčné, historicko-právne a právno-filozofické kontexty kodifikácie civilného práva procesného. [Conceptual, historical-legal and legal-philosophical codification of Civil Procedure]. In SUCHOŽA, J.; HUSÁR, J.; HUČKOVÁ, R. (eds). *Právo, obchod, ekonomika V.* Košice: UPJŠ, 2015, p. 442.
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[40] In September 2017, a legislative proposal on collective actions is expected to put the Czech Republic.

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GEOPOLITYCZNA PRZYSZŁOŚĆ ŚWIATA WEDŁUG ZBIGNIEWA BRZEZIŃSKIEGO I ALEKSANDRA DUGINA

GEOPOLITICAL FUTURE OF THE WORLD ACCORDING TO ZBIGNIEV BRZEZINSKI AND ALEXANDER DUGIN

Mariusz Brzostek

Abstrakt

Polityczna rzeczywistość drugiej dekady XXI wieku podlega ciągłym zmianom. Artykuł jest próbą odpowiedzi na pytanie o przyszłość świata w obszarze międzynarodowych stosunków politycznych, inaczej: co może wydarzyć się w wymiarze globalnym w niedalekiej przyszłości? Polem badawczym jest teoria geopolityki, materiałem zaś koncepcje sformułowane przez Zbigniewa Brzezińskiego i Aleksandra Dugina. Ten wybór, autor, uzasadnia dwojako. Po pierwsze, Ich pozycja wpływowych teoretyków jest niekwestionowana: Z. Brzeziński był doradcą kilku prezydentów USA (Cartera, Reagana, Obamy), A. Dugin był (i z wysokim prawdopodobieństwem wciąż jest) doradcą prezydenta Rosji- Putina. Po drugie, oba państwa (USA i Rosja) przez czterdzieści pięć lat stanowiły fundament dwubiegunowego świata, który uległ dezintegracji czego skutków wciąż doświadczamy.

Słowa klucz: *geopolityka, Dugin, Brzeziński, wielobiegunowy świat, hegemonia.*

Abstract

Political reality is undefined, have been changing in second decade in XXI century. The article trying to answer what will be the future of the world in the international political relations. In the other words: what may happen in the global dimension in the future? The reaserch field is limited by the geopolitical theory and The reaserch material are ideas of Zbigniew Brzeziński and Aleksander Dugin. This choise, author, justifies in the two ways. Firstly, their influential position is undisputed. Z. Brzezinski was an advisor to several American presidents (Carter, Reagan, Obama), A. Dugin was (and with high probability he still is) an advisor to Russian president Putin. Secondly, both countries (USA, Russia) were a base of the two polar world for forty- five years, the world which has been disintegrated.

Key words: *geopolitic, Dugin, Brzezinski, mulitpolarword, hegemony.*

Wprowadzenie

Przełom XX i XXI wieku nie zapowiadał radykalnych zmian w przestrzeni politycznej świata. Upadek systemu komunistycznego w ostatniej dekadzie XX wieku, a wcześniej innego totalitaryzmu- nazizmu- zdawał się potwierdzać obiektywną przewagę demokracji liberalnej nad innymi ustrojami i USA jako państwa ją realizującą.

Stanu Zjednoczone Ameryki Północnej, po upadku ZSRR, pozostały jedynym mocarstwem o statucie globalnym. Supremacja Stanów Zjednoczonych Ameryki, była do tego stopnia niepodważalna, że, niczym Hegel w stosunku do państwa Fryderyka Wielkiego, niektórzy politolodzy uznali ten fakt za ostatni w długim procesie rozwoju organizacji politycznych człowieka (Fukuyama, 1996). Bardziej ostrożni, wskazywali na dające się zauważyć historyczne tendencje w których demokracja rzeczywiście stała się systemem pożądanym

przez większość państw (Dahl, 1996, Huntington, 1991) (bardziej precyzyjnie- społeczeństw), a przywództwo Stanów Zjednoczonych w globalnej wiosce jest naturalną konsekwencją tych oczekiwań.
Sytuacja uległa gwałtownej i radykalnej zmianie już pod koniec pierwszego roku XXI wieku. Atak na WTC z 11 września nie tylko wymusił działania ze strony USA i koalicjantów, ale co ważniejsze, w konsekwencji następstw (wojna w Afganistanie -październik 2001- interwencja w Iraku -marzec 2003- wojna z terroryzmem, Arabska Wiosna lat 2010-2013) postawiły pod znakiem zapytania nie tylko oczekiwany rozwój procesów demokratycznych ale, co może ważniejsze, światową hegemonię USA, a tym samym podważyły tezę o nieodwracalnym, jednokierunkowym rozwoju społeczno-politycznych procesów.
Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie możliwego scenariusza rozwoju globalnych procesów w perspektywie lat dwudziestu. Ponieważ wielość zmiennych i nie dające się przewidzieć ich konsekwencje, determinują ograniczoność takich analiz (zgodnie choćby z Teorią Chaosu), czego autor jest świadomy, analiza ograniczona będzie do dwóch koncepcji geopolitycznych, ich komparatystycznego zestawienia bez mającego cechy powszechności wnioskowania. Analizie poddane zostaną dwie koncepcje rozwoju świata reprezentatywne dla dwóch państw: USA- koncepcja Zbigniewa Brzezińskiego i Rosji- koncepcja Aleksandra Dugina.
Wybór nie jest przypadkowy. Uzasadniony jest ich globalną supremacją w II połowie XX wieku, co niewątpliwe wciąż rzutuje, ma znaczenie, dla relacji międzynarodowych.

1. Geopolityka

1.1 Podstawowe definicje

Pojęcie geopolityka wprowadzone zostało do obiegu w XIX (1899) przez Rudolfa Kjellena, politologa i prawnika.
W artykule w czasopiśmie „Ymer" pod tytułem „Badania nad granicami politycznymi Szwecji" wyodrębnił geopolitkę jako jedną z podstawowych kategorii badawczych państwa.
Od końca XIX wieku do zakończenia II Wojny Światowej (WŚ) rozwija się geopolityka klasyczna, koncentrująca się na przestrzeni i walce o nią. Po II WŚ geopolityka rozwija się w ZSRR. Nauka ta odradza się w 70 latach XX wieku. Szczególnie w USA i Francji. Zimna wojna potwierdziła aktualność zasad geopolityki. Współcześnie geopolitykę uprawia się w czterech formach: samodzielna nauka (geopolityka akademicka), paradygmat badawczy (w ramach nauk społecznych), doktryna polityczna, metoda potwierdzenia potwierdzenia polityki. Przedstawiciele: Kjellen, Mahan, Haushofer, Spykman, Moczulski. Najbardziej znana teoria geopolityczna to teoria Heartlandu Mackindera (Moczulski, 2000, Sykulski, 2014).

1.2 Podstawowe teorie

Harlford Mackinder (założyciel London School of Economics) sformułował w 1919 roku koncepcję wiążącą historię, społeczną z warunkami naturalnymi (geograficznymi).
Sednem teorii jest wskazanie „Światowej wyspy" (super kontynent Euroazjatycki), której posiadanie decyduje o losach świata. W jej granicach wyodrębnił szczególnie istotny obszar, który pierwotnie określił jako Pivot Area, a w późniejszych pracach, Heartland (Mackinder, 1981, Moczulski, 2000).
Istotą mackinderowskiej wizji geopolityki jest destruktywna, ale konieczna ze względu na bardzo ubogie warunki Hartlandu, ekspansja w obszary zewnętrzne posiadające pożądane z punktu widzenia populacji, zasoby, szczególnie Europę. Wyraził to w słynnej konstatacji:"Kto panuje nad Wschodnią Europą, panuje nad Heartlandem. Kto panuje nad Heartlandem, panuje nad Światową Wyspą. Kto panuje nad Światową Wyspą, panuje nad Światem" (Mackinder, 1919).
Odmienny punkt widzenia, co do znaczenia poszczególnych obszarów, zaprezentował Nicolas

Spykman. Bazując na koncepcji Mackindera, stwierdził , że w skali globalnej, nie Heartland, ale obszary między nim a oceanami (ich posiadanie) decyduje o tym, kto panuje nad światem. Obszar ten nazwał Rimmlandem (Moczulski, 2000). Przeciwstawiał tym samym (i kwestionował możliwości) mocarstwa lądowego – Tellurokracji, mocarstwu morskiemu- Talassokracji. W tym przypadku geopolityka okazała się użytecznym narzędziem do wzmocnienia pozycji USA versus ZSRR w czasie II Wojny Światowej.
Po wojnie geopolityka straciła status nauki społecznej i, przynajmniej oficjalnie, została zaniechana na uniwersytetach w strefie wpływów ZSRR (inaczej było w przypadku dyscyplin związanych bezpośrednio z dyplomacją, wojskiem i służbami specjalnymi. Tam geopolityka była intensywnie rozwijana a po roku 1991 odzyskała swój dawny status).

2. Współczesne koncepcje geopolityczne

2.1 Koncepcja Globalnego „zarządzania" Zbigniewa Brzezińskiego

Pod koniec XX wieku duże zainteresowanie wzbudziła publikacja Z. Brzezińskiego „Wielka szachownica" (1997). Mimo upływu dwóch dekad (perspektywa czasowa zarysowana przez Z. Brzezińskiego) książka wciąż posiada niezaprzeczalne walory i jest par excellence geopolityczna. Tytułowa Wielka szachownica to Eurazja- mackinderowska światowa wyspa. Z. Brzeziński nie odżegnuje się od geopolityki. Wręcz przeciwnie jest ona podstawą jego uwag co do ówczesnego i przyszłego stanu politycznego świata, którego Pivot Area, stanowi Eurazja (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 31)
„Konieczność" napisania „Wielkiej Szachownicy" argumentuje (posiłkując się uwagą R. Dahla) fenomenem tak gwałtownego pojawienia się globalnego hegemona jakim stały się Stany Zjednoczone Ameryki Północnej, że skutki jego równie nieoczekiwanego zniknięcia mogą mieć katastrofalne konsekwencje (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 31).
Odwołuje się przy tym do historycznej analogii, porównując wielkość armii Imperium Rzymskiego w okresie jego świetności do liczby wojsk USA poza granicami kraju w 1996 roku. To dość zaskakujące zestawienie wskazuje na prawie identyczne wielkości. Zdaniem Brzezinskiego może sugerować, analogię co do dalszych losów (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 10). Również przemiany w obszarze kultury, brak wartości, hedonizm, odwrót od religii są zagrożeniem, które pogrążyło Imperium Romanum, a które to cechy Brzeziński identyfikuje tak w USA jak i Europie Zachodniej (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 216). Eurazajtycka Światowa Wyspa to mozaika (szachownica) kulturowa, narodowościowa, polityczna na obszarze której można wyodrębnić cztery regiony o dających się zidentyfikować cechach. Brzeziński dzieli Eurazję na: Zachód (obejmuje jej europejski półwysep, gdzie granicą wschodnią jest podział podobny do rozkładu wyznaniowego w Europie oddzielający prawosławie od chrześcijaństwa zachodniego), Obszar Środowy (obejmujący tereny dawnego ZSSR bez państw nadbałtyckich , Białorusi i Ukrainy oraz na południu, granicą przebiegającej przez Kazachstan, Mongolię i Chiny), Południe, nazywane też przez Brzezińskiego Bałkanami Eurazji, (obszar Azji Mniejszej z Zakaukaziem) i Wschód (Chiny wraz z kontynentalną Azją Południowo-wschodnią i Japonią) (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 34).
Cała książka Brzezińskiego poświęcona jest tak podzielonej Eurazji. Pomija zupełnie Amerykę Południową, Afrykę i Australię. Choć w sposób niebezpośredni, przyznaje On, że świat w wymiarze geopolitycznym opiera się na relacjach USA – Eurazja. Ta ostatnia nie jest w żaden sposób opisywana jako jednorodny byt polityczny. Szachownica, co również nie jest explicite powiedziane, powinna pozostać taka jaką jest , a je defragmentacja nie jest pożądana z punktu widzenia USA. Cele Stanów Zjednoczonych, które Brzeziński kilkukrotnie przywołuje, w skali globalnej sprowadzają się do: utrzymania hegemonii i jednocześnie budowanie globalnej struktury (multilateralnej), która nie wcześniej niż w perspektywie jednego pokolenia, przejmie od pierwszego, jedynego i ostatniego supermocarstwa globalnego – USA- rolę hegemona (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 219).

Choć częściej, wyznaczając cele dla USA, wskazuje nieco bliższą perspektywę- dwudziestu lat (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 201).
Brzeziński analizuje każdą z czterech figur Eurazjatyckiej szachownicy jako element relacji bilateralnych z USA, ale też w odniesieniu do najbliższego środowiska politycznego.
Konkluzje Brzezińskiego są ważne zarówno w ujęciu historycznym (książka wydana została w 1997 roku) jak i na przyszłość.
O ile ogólny wniosek co do zmienności rzeczywistości, a co za tym idzie nieuchronność końca hegemonii USA, nie budzi żadnych kontrowersji, to fragmentaryczne, cząstkowe pointy , już takie nie są.
Europa Zachodnia (będąca jeszcze przed poszerzeniem o państwa Europy wschodniej zarówno jako NATO tak i EU), zdaniem Brzezińskiego powinna uznać specjalną rolę Niemiec i Francji (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 72). Co w konsekwencji oznacza ich przywództwo w tej części Europy. Choć Brzeziński odróżnia hegemonię Niemiec w UE od dawnej czy przyszłej , potencjalnej, Rosji, wskazuje, że Unia Europejska nie jest zdominowana przez jedno mocarstwo o przeważającej strukturze ludnościowej, terytorialnej i PKB (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 112).
Budowa Zjednoczonej Europy (zgodnie z podziałem Eurazji zaproponowanej przez Brzezińskiego) może być skutecznym procesem jedynie przy założeniu, że jej filarem będzie ścisły związek Francji i Niemiec a gwarantem sukcesu Stany Zjednoczone (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 78-79), które muszą uznać, że tak uformowana Europa będzie miała status partnerski w NATO a nie jedynie wasalny. W procesie rozszerzania Paktu Północnoatlantyckiego Brzeziński podkreśla szczególną rolę połączonych działań USA i Niemiec (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 80).
Częścią procesu budowy instytucjonalnej zjednoczonej Europy, zdaniem Brzezińskiego, musi być Rosja. Jej samoświadomość miejsca w procesie globalizacji jest nieodzowna, a aktualny je stan określa mianem „czarnej dziury" (Brzeziński, 1999, s, 80).
Interesująco, i historycznie trafnie, opisuje też modele (choć bardziej były to etapy) budowania rosyjskiej, postsowieckiej pozycji międzynarodowej. Rosja po 1991 roku uznała, że jej szansą jest podążanie za modelem zachodnim. Pierwsza do władzy, pod rządami Borysa Jelcyna, doszła orientacja uznająca okcydentalizację za jej imperatyw. Jednak nie z pozycji przegranego, ale równoprawnego partnera nie tyle wobec Niemiec czy Francji, co bardziej wobec USA. Takie podejście było skazane na porażkę. Rosja nie posiadała potencjału (a nawet nuklearny był przestarzały) pozwalającego odgrywać pierwszoplanową rolę w świecie liberalnej gospodarki. W tym czasie PKB Rosji było na poziomie Holandii (uwaga autora).
W konsekwencji już w połowie lat dziewięćdziesiątych uznano, że rozwiązaniem będzie odbudowa relacji w ramach dawnego ZSSR, tak zwana polityka bliskiej zagranicy. Jednoznaczna dominacja Rosji wobec swoich najbliższych sąsiadów (Bałtów czy Ukrainy) oraz historyczna pamięć były przyczyną fiaska i tej polityki. Trzecią wskazaną przez Brzezińskiego i ważną z punktu widzenia tego artykułu, jest orientacja Eurazjatycka, która stanowić miała przeciwwagę dla pozycji Ameryki w Eurazji (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 99).
Wszystkie te koncepcje, budowy geopolitycznej pozycji Rosji okazały się, zdaniem Brzezińskiego, nieskuteczne. Rosja wciąż pozostaje czarną dziurą Eurazji.
W tym kontekście ważne stają się uwagi Brzezińskiego odnośnie Ukrainy (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 114).
Ogólnie, dla istnienia Zachodniej części „Wielkiej szachownicy" Ukraina jest tak samo ważna jak nieodzowna jest dla budowy Eurazjatyckiego imperium globalnego z Rosją jako hegemonem. Stanowi zwornik, bez którego żadna z tych przyszłych konstrukcji geopolitycznych nie może istnieć, a obie nie zaistnieją symultanicznie.
Ponieważ celem artykułu nie jest sama analiza koncepcji Brzezińskiego (ma ona stanowić komparatystycznie zestawiony element wobec idei Dugina), autor jedynie hasłowo wskazuje

pozostałe elementy „szachownicy Brzezińskiego”.
Dominacja Ameryki będzie możliwa jedynie w przypadku rozwiązania (spacyfikowania) potencjalnych konfliktów między wszystkimi czterema polami Eurazji.
Warto wskazać tutaj na „Południe” nazywane przez Brzezińskiego Bałkanami Eurazji. Obszar ten to rzeczywiście tygiel narodowościowy, którego eksplozja może mieć więcej niż lokalne konsekwencje. Tutaj, między innymi, Brzeziński sugeruje konieczność budowania racjonalnych relacji z Turcją, ale także z Iranem (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 124 – 153).
Ostatnim z czterech pól szachownicy jest obszar Wschodni. Państwami uznanymi przez Brzezińskiego za kluczowe dla tego regionu są Chiny i Japonia. Choć wskazuje też na znaczenie Indii, to faktycznie poświęca niemal całą uwagę dwóm pierwszym krajom.
Japonia jest skutecznie ograniczona w swoich aspiracjach przez obecność militarną USA w tym obszarze (do niedawna były pod militarną kontrolą Stanów) a „praca u podstaw”- budowa społeczeństwa otwartego, demokratycznego zapoczątkowana po 1945 roku- ogranicza szowinistyczne, totalitarne zapędy mieszkańców Nippon'u.
Brzeziński rozumie geopolityczne położenie Japonii i wskazuje jej możliwość wpływu ogólnoświatowego bez konieczności posiadania statusu mocarstwa regionalnego. Inaczej w przypadku Chin. Uznaje prawa tego kraju do bycia mocarstwem regionalnym co ma stanowić punkt wyjścia do zdobycia statusu mocarstwa globalnego przez Chiny (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 195 – 197).
Na koniec, warto wskazać na argumentację Z. Brzezińskiego co do wyjątkowej roli USA w obszarze Eurazji. Po pierwsze, USA to jedyne supermocarstwo, po drugie, Eurazja jest najważniejsza (Wyspa Świata, uwag autora)i po trzecie, dominującym mocarstwem w tym obszarze są Stany Zjednoczone (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 200).
Dla tak umocowanego supermocarstwa Z. Brzeziński proponuje następującą strategię:
„Na krótką metę w interesie Ameryki leży umocnienie i podtrzymanie pluralizmu geopolitycznego występującego w Eurazji. W tych okolicznościach wartości nabiera umiejętność manewrowania i manipulacji, aby nie dopuścić do powstania wrogiej koalicji, która mogłaby w przyszłości starać się podważyć prymat Ameryki, już nie mówiąc o nikłym prawdopodobieństwie, że mogłoby tego dokonać pojedyncze państwo. W perspektywie średnioterminowej poprzednie cele powinny stopniowo ustąpić miejsca większemu naciskowi na dialog z krajami mogącymi stać się ważnymi partnerami Ameryki i sprzyjać jej strategii; kraje te mogłyby pod wpływem Stanów Zjednoczonych pomóc ukształtować eurazjatycki system bezpieczeństwa, oparty na ściślejszej współpracy międzynarodowej. Ostatecznie, stopniowo w rdzeń ogólnoświatowej struktury politycznej, której członkowie ponosiliby autentycznie wspólną odpowiedzialność za sprawy globu” (Brzeziński, 1999, s. 201).
Nawiązując wciąż do gry w szachy określa realizację poszczególnych etapów w perspektywie: pięciu , dwudziestu i powyżej dwudziestu lat.
Reasumując, „Wielka szachownica” to geopolityczny scenariusz służący utrzymaniu roli supermocarstwa przez Stany Zjednoczone Ameryki w perspektywie pokolenia. Budowa wielopłaszczyznowych relacji z państwami Eurazji, tak teraz jak i w przyszłości, zakłada jeden wspólny, tworzący zwornik, element. Są nim USA. Dzięki czemu, choć Brzeziński nie mówi tego wprost, i w perspektywie dłuższej niż czas przypisany jednemu pokoleniu czas, Ameryka pozostanie supermocarstwem umiejętnie manipulującym geopolitycznym otoczeniem.

2.2 Koncepcja Aleksandra Dugina

*„To nie postmodernizm wykluczamy indywidualizm, jednostkę, wolny rynek, neutralność światopoglądową, tolerancję, a włączamy elementy barbarzyńskie, fanatyczne,egzaltowane”.(*wywiad G. Górnego z A. Duginem "Fronda" 1998, nr 11-12.).
Nie trudno zauważyć, że A. Dugin czerpie obficie, z dorobku Halforda Johna Mackindera,

Karla Haushofera. Fredericha Ratzla czy Alfreda Mahan'a (Dugin, 1997, s. 18-36, Wojnowski, 2014). Jego główna koncepcja to połączenie Eurazjanizmu (który ukształtował się w latach 20-tych XX wieku wśród rosyjskiej emigracji) i paradygmatu geopolityki.
W swojej najważniejszej książce „ Podstawy geopolityki. Geopolityczna przyszłość Rosji", Dugin opisuje podstawowy mechanizm dziejów ludzkości. Jest to walka między „nadcywilizacjami": Atlantycką- Morza (Talassokracja) i Lądową- eurazjatycką (Tellulokracja).
Przeciwstawia sobie (jakby zupełnie niezgodnie z koncepcją Multibiegunowości, którą także artykułuje) dwa elementy. Jeden to Ameryka jako emanacja chrześcijańskiego (mowa jest o katolickim a właściwe protestanckim) świata osadzonego w liberalnej myśli i „praktyce kapitalistycznej gospodarki" jako ucieleśnionym złem- cywilizcja Mondialistyczna- którą zdaniem Dugina, doskonale opisał Popper w „Open Society and Its Enemies". Dugin jest przeciwnikiem (wrogiem) demokratycznego społeczeństw otwartego.
Drugi to świat oparty o „prawdziwe" chrześcijaństwo, którego ucieleśnieniem jest Prawosławie (w swojej podstawowej formie kontestującej prawosławie hierarchiczne, jak mówi Dugin: bez popów).
Nadcywilizację Lądu cechuje (mimo odwołania do prawosławia) powrót do barbarzyństwa, kult siły, tradycji i pierwotnej duchowości. W odróżnieniu od swojego antagonisty- świata Atlantyckiego- Świat Lądu oparty jest o zasadę kolektywizmu i co jest konsekwencją tego, rządy autorytarne- nadcywilizacja militarno-autorytarna (Dugin, 1997, s. 11-12, 70).
Nadcywilizacja Morza (USA i Europa Zachodnia) cechuje się racjonalizmem, indywidualizmem, konformizmem. Co jest konsekwencją: kapitalizmu, demokracji i materializmu.
Celem A. Dugina jest stworzenie eurazjatyckiego imperium kontynentalnego, którego rdzeniem, fundamentem ma być Rosja. Będzie to możliwe jedynie wtedy, gdy nadcywilizacja Lądu pokona Atlantycką. Istotą powodzenia tego planu jest zbudowanie trwałych sojuszy między Moskwą a: Berlinem, Teheranem i Tokio. Wokół tego imperium „Wielkich przestrzeni" funkcjonowałyby imperia wtórne: Imperium Europejskie, którego centrum byłyby Niemcy, Imperium Oceany Spokojnego z Japonią jako centrum oraz Imperium Środkowoazjatyckie pod kierunkiem Iranu.
W swoich najnowszych pracach Dugin proponuje budowę świata wielobiegunowego w opozycji do obecnej globalizacji, którą realizują Stany Zjednoczone - świat jednobiegunowy.
Koncepcje A. Dugina korespondują z ideą Wielkiej Europy, która była popularna w kręgach władzy Rosji w końcu lat dziewięćdziesiątych XX wieku. Celem jej zwolenników było stworzenie jednej przestrzeni polityczno-gospodarczej obejmującej UE i Rosję jako przeciwwagi dla globalnej polityki USA. Praktyczną możliwością utworzenia takiej struktury będzie polityczne osłabienie USA, w konsekwencji światowego kryzysu gospodarczego. To jednak przyszłość.
A. Dugin zwraca uwagę na wymiar religijny. Twierdzi, że katolicyzm stał się schizmatyczny wobec prawosławia. Obecnie Zachód- to katolicyzm i jej konsekwencja- protestantyzm: Świat z „fokusowany" wokół jednostki, ego, realizacji i zaspokajaniu potrzeb indywidualnych.
Inaczej niż w Prawosławiu, gdzie człowiek istnieje jedynie dla pożytku ogólnego. Taki jest jego cel. A elementy tradycji (ezoteria, magia, hermeneutyka, inne religie, pogaństwo) nie są zepchnięte na margines, jak w katolicyzmie, ale stanowią naturalny (czasami wydaje się, że podstawowy) element konstytutywny. Polska jest na skraju obu tych typów geografii sakralnej: przedchrześcijańskiej i katolickiej o rodowodzie germańsko-romańskiej. Jej sytuacja graniczna to, że etnicznie jest słowiańska ze wszelkimi tego konsekwencjami a religijnie katolicka nie pozwala jej na jednoznaczny wybór. Zawsze pada „łupem" trzeciej siły jak dziś mondializmu czy atlantyzmu. Położenie między Niemcami a Rosją przy „dualizmie" Polski powoduje, ze zawsze będzie istniał problem rozbiorów.

Zdaniem A. Dugina w prasłowiańskiej Polsce interesujące dla niego jest...tradycja żydowska małych miasteczek. Dlaczego? Bo interesuje go wszystko co niekatolickie czyli: ezoteria, okultyzm.
Według A. Dugina Rosja jest namaszczona, a jej celem jest zbawienie świata – Rosja Mesjaszem. Cała tysiącletnia historia Rosji to próby zrealizowania i odnalezienia drogi do przemienienia świata. Nawet komunizm jest zdaniem Dugina jedną z form walki Rosji o realizację tego zadania w walce z zachodem (Górny, 1998).
Praktyczne aspekty teorii Aleksandra Dugina mają także podstawy filozoficzne.
Dugin (z wykształcenia filozof) swoja koncepcję 4PT przedstawił w książce pod tym samym tytułem „Czetwiertaja polityczeskaja teorija" (Dugin, 2012). Najkrócej, odrzuca trzy historyczne drogi rozwoju (faszyzm i komunizm ponieważ zbankrutowały) i liberalizm jako formę fałszywej świadomości. Czwartą drogą jest koncepcja A. Dugina.
Swoje rozważania przenosi również w obszar metafizyczny. Nawiązuje tutaj do heideggerowskiej koncepcji bytu w interakcji „Dasein". Ten wymiar koncepcji Dugina nadaje mu pełniejszy i nieco tajemniczy charakter, co ma niewątpliwie legitymizować i podkreślać wyjątkowość jego teorii, ale nie ma praktycznego znaczenia dla jego twierdzeń geopolitycznych.

2.2.1 Inspiracje Aleksandra Dugina

W sposób absolutnie pewny A. Dugin buduje swoją geopolityczną koncepcje w oparciu o mackinderowski Heartland.
Podobnie podział Europy na zachodnią i wschodnią jest łudząco podobny do zaproponowanego rozgraniczenia przez Mackindera z 1919 roku.
Konsekwencją tego podejścia jest uznanie (za H. Mackinderem) że Europa, Azja i Afryka stanowią światową wyspę. A. Dugin idąc tym tokiem zaakceptował pogląd, że kto panuje nad Heartlandem panuje nad Światową Wyspą; kto panuje nad Światową Wyspą panuje nad Światem.
Jednak A. Dugin opisuje świat (aktualny) jako zdominowany przez jedno mocarstwo – USA. Przeciwstawia się temu, jednak (nie artykułując tego wprost) uznaje znaczenie i siłę „spykmanowskiego" Rimmlandu. To przecież z nim – cywilizacją Atlantycką, opartą o potęgę morza- chce walczyć o supremację w świecie. Chce stworzyć, multipolarny a w konsekwencji bipolarny świat.
Przeciwstawia Tallasokrację (potęgę morską- USA) Tellurokracji (potęgę lądową- Rosja jako super imperium Eurazjatyckie).
W takim ujęciu geopolityki (dychotomicznym) nie trudno dostrzec wpływ popperowskiej koncepcji społeczeństwa otwartego versus społeczeństwo zamknięte, których archetypem są Ateny i Sparta. Od zainteresowania Popperem Dugin nie zaprzecza. Oczywiście swój eurazjanizm buduje w opozycji do Poppera oraz elementów teorii potęgi morskiej Alfreda Mahan'a .
Proponowany przez A. Dugina podział świata- stref wpływu- łudząco przypomina propozycje Karla Haushofera (Dugin dodaje jeszcze jedną strefę- Irańską, gdzie K.H., oczywiście poza strefą USA, wskazuje jedynie Niemiecką, Rosyjską i Japońską).
Również kwestia przestrzeni życiowej i Mitteleuropa są obecne w eurazjatyzmie A. Dugina. Obie te kategorie są zapożyczeniem od K.Haushofera i F. Neumana.
Ujmując A. Dugina szerzej, analitycy stwierdzają, że jego poglądy cechuje synkretyzm (choć zdaniem autora jest to bardziej eklektyzm)- łączy ze sobą elementy koncepcji:

- Geopolityki Mackinder'a, Haushofer'a, Mahan'a,
- Eurazjanizmu,
- Trzeciego Rzymu,
- przedchrześcijańskiego pogaństwa, ezoterii.

A. Dugin wprost mówi, że odrzuca katolicyzm, protestantyzm jako „wrogi" prawosławiu. Przypisuje mu się inspirację ustawy o „prymacie wyznań tradycyjnych". Jednak samo prawosławie traktuje jedynie jako element czegoś szerszego – tradycji. Uznaje jego znaczenie w wymiarze jakim współtworzy synergię z władzą polityczną. Odrzuca prawosławie „popowskie"- hierarchiczne. Prawosławie w opozycji do katolicyzmu (i protestantyzmu) jest „otwarte" na inne religie, które stoją w opozycji do „tych ze świata zachodniego". Dlatego religijny synkretyzm A. Dugina otwarty jest zarówno na Islam, Hinduism jak i marksistowski ateizm czy magiczny, ezoteryczny i okultystyczny świat Alexista Crowleya czy madame Bławackiej (Górny, 1998).
Trudno nie odnieść wrażenia, że jest to koncepcja, mimo oczywistych historycznych różnic, zbieżna z tym co głosił i realizował Hitler, który zachowując niektóre elementy chrześcijaństwa odwoływał się do tradycji, mitów, wierzeń starogermańskich.

2.2.3 Niekonsekwencje teorii Eurazjatyzmu Aleksandra Dugina

Idea „przewodniej", mejsanistycznej wyjątkowej roli Rosji w historii jest odpowiedzią na pustkę jaka wytworzyła się po upadku Związku Sowieckiego w 1991 roku. Dekada B. Jelcyna była próbą budowy państwa i społeczeństwa bliskiego paradygmatowi zachodniemu. Nieudaną próbą.
Eurazjanizm Dugina to świat co najmniej multipolarny (w którym Rosja ma decydującą rolę budowaną w opozycji do USA co właściwe oznacza świat bipolarny).
Tej koncepcji podporządkowane są wszelkie działania co skutkuje niekonsekwencjami zarówno w obszarze teoretycznym jak i w praktyce.
Mackinderowski Heartland stanowi oś historii, ale jest niewystarczającym do panowania nad „światową wyspą". Kluczem do Eurazji jest obszar „Międzymorza" (obszar Europy Środkowej między Bałtykiem a Morzem Czarnym). Kontrola nad Międzymorzem otwiera możliwość powstania Eurazji z wszelkimi konsekwencjami. A. Dugin początkowo bagatelizuje tej obszar co widać w jego stanowisku wobec Polski. Uważa, że powinna ona przynależeć do strefy wpływów Niemiec (do Imperium Niemieckiego). Z czasem, ewoluuje i odmawia istnienia strefy „buforowej" ,w tym Polski, między Rosją a Niemcami. Jednak w sposobie podziału tego obszaru nie jest precyzyjny.
H. Mackinder uznając wyjątkowość Heartlandu, jako geopolitycznego obszaru o znaczeniu strategicznym, jasno stwierdza, że nie ma on charakteru konstruktywnego- budującego- a jedynie niszczycielski. Żadna „populacyjna nadwyżka" wychodząca z tego obszaru nie była konstruktywna. Przykładem Mongołowie. Panowanie nad Heartlandem, zdaniem H. Mackindera, jest istotne z punktu widzenia państw zewnętrznych wobec tego obszaru, szczególnie Niemiec. Co wyraża jego słynne zdanie:" Kto panuje nad Europą Wschodnią panuje nad Heartlandem, kto panuje nad Heartlandem panuje nad Światową Wyspą, kto panuje nad Światową Wyspą panuje nad światem". A. Dugin pomija tę problematyczną kwestię, a właściwe dokonuje pewnej volty. W eurazjatyzmie, to Rosja ma decydującą rolę (mesjanistyczną), jest nadrzędną wobec Niemiec.
Odwołując się do S. Huntingtona i jego koncepcji zderzenia cywilizacji, A. Dugin dokonuje uproszczenia. Z ośmiu (czasami mowa jest o dziewięciu) cywilizacji generalizuje i przeciwstawia sobie dwie: Eurazjatycką i Atlantycką.
Również w obszarze bieżącej geopolityki można zauważyć, że A. Dugin dokonuje błędnych interpretacji. Przykładem może być jego stanowisko wobec Turcji Erdogana.
Na portalu The Fourth Political Theory (4 PT) w swoim artykule „Principles and strategy of coming war" z początku 2016 roku (po zestrzeleniu przez Turcję rosyjskiego samolotu wojskowego w listopadzie 2015 roku), wymienia sześć frontów na których Rosja ma prowadzić (choć zdaniem Dugina wojna już trwa) wojnę. W akapicie odnoszącym się do „front tureckiego"- drugiego frontu- stwierdza, że wojna Rosji z Turcją jest bardziej

prawdopodobna niż kiedykolwiek w XX i XXI wieku. Powodem jest zaangażowanie Rosji i Turcji w konflikt w Syrii. Turcja jest „inspirowana" przez USA i jest członkiem NATO. Zdaniem A. Dugina grozi to wybuchem III WŚ.
Pomocne w rozwiązaniu tego problemu będzie, zdaniem A. Dugina, realizacja polityki wsparcia tureckich Kurdów i opozycji wobec Erdogana, którego (słusznie) posądza o politykę neo-ottomańską.

3. Podsumowanie

Eurazjanizm proponowany w wersji Aleksandra Dugina to bardzo aktualna koncepcja geopolityczna w Rosji. Mimo pewnego eklektyzmu, niejasności czy wręcz sprzeczności (rola Heartlandu, błędne stygmatyzowanie katolicyzmu) trudno jest przejść obok niej obojętnie. Powiązania Dugina ze środowiskiem służ specjalnych (kiedyś ZSRR dzisiaj FR), środowiskiem wojskowych, bezpośrednio lub pośrednio z władzą polityczną FR (Duma Państwowa, Prezydent FR- W. Putin) są wystarczającym powodem, żeby „duginowski eurazjanizm" uznać za paradygmat obecnej polityki zagranicznej Rosji (Winiarski, 2014). Tym bardziej, że wydarzenia potwierdzają słuszność takiego podejścia. Wojna w Gruzji (2008), zajęcie Krymu (2014), wojna z Ukrainą i zajęcie Doniecka i Ługańska (2014), interwencja w Syrii (2015) (gdy pamięta się o duginowskim paradygmacie geopolitycznym) są konsekwentnymi krokami w realizacji eurazjanizmu w praktyce.
Pytanie o następne posunięcia Rosji pozostaje w tym kontekście aktualne i jest pytaniem otwartym.
Zestawiając poglądy Aleksandra Dugina, wizję globalnego świata, z tym co wynika z lektury „Wielkiej szachownicy" Zbigniewa Brzezińskiego, można stwierdzić, że obaj czerpią ,przynajmniej inspiracje, z XX wiecznych koncepcji geopolitycznych. H. Mackinder, N. Spykman czy A. Mahan są czasem wprost przywoływani. Nie jest to zarzut, ale wskazanie wspólnego mianownika, którego obecność pociąga za sobą logiczne konsekwencje.
Geopolityka jest, choć czasem nie expressis verbis, sposobem na panowanie nad światem. W pracach naukowych jest jedynie teorią, konceptem. Jako polityczna praktyka, geopolityka, staje się narzędziem o niebezpiecznych i nieprzewidywalnych konsekwencjach. W pracach tak A. Dugina jak i Z. Brzezińskiego, świat traktowany jest przedmiotowo. Państwa, a co za tym idzie i narody, mają jedynie taktyczne (pośrednie) znaczenie w strategicznych planach panowania (Dugin) czy rządzenia (Brzeziński) nad światem.
Unipolarny świat, obecny u Z. Brzezińskiego, a kwestionowany przez A. Dugina, praktycznie przestał istnieć. Sam Z. Brzeziński musiał zrewidować swoje tezy zawarte w „Wielkie szachownicy". Jego przewidywania nie uwzględniały utraty przez USA pozycji globalnego mocarstwa wcześniej niż za dwadzieścia lat, a i wtedy to Stany Ameryki Północnej miały kontrolować proces transformacji z jedno w wielobiegunowy świat.
Jeżeli przyjmiemy, że obie koncepcje są modus operandi (Z. Brzezińskiego dla USA i A. Dugina dla Rosji) to w najbliższej (dziesięciu - piętnastu lat) perspektywie możemy przewidywać istotne przesunięcia figur (żeby pozostać w konwencji „Wielkiej szachownicy") na globalnej planszy. Obszarem który obaj konceptualiści uważają za szczególnie ważny jest Europa, a ściślej jej centralna część określana przez H. Mackindera „Międzymorzem". Panowanie, czy mniej kategorycznie – wpływ- nad tym obszarem będzie celem zarówno Ameryki jak i Rosji. Jest to o tyle prawdopodobne, że USA wciąż zachowują zdolność do globalnej aktywności, a dla Rosji obszar Międzymorza stanowi bezpośrednią, graniczącą z nią przestrzeń, co przy jej ograniczonych zdolnościach w skali globalnej czyni ten obszar szczególnie użytecznym. Pierwszym potwierdzeniem tej tezy jest fizyczna obecność wojsk NATO (USA, WB, Niemiec) w przestrzeni Międzymorza. Drugim, konflikt zbrojny na terenie Ukrainy.
Zdaniem autora, przy poczynionych założeniach, konflikt militarny obejmujący Europę

Środkową staje się coraz bardziej prawdopodobny. Prócz polityki USA i Rosji, co oczywiste, znaczącą rolę ma stanowisko Niemiec oraz zdolność samoorganizacji państw Międzymorza. W obu przywołanych koncepcjach największa gospodarka starego kontynentu ma istotne znaczenie dla organizacji post unipolarnego świata w wielobiegunowej przyszłości.

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HODNOTOVÁ A POLITICKÁ ORIENTÁCIA VLADIMÍRA CLEMENTISA V EXILE

THE VALUATION AND POLICY ORIENTATION OF VLADIMIR CLEMENTISA IN EXILE

Monika Práznovská

Abstrakt
Práca sa zameriava na politologický pohľad pri formovaní politických názorov Vladimíra Clementisa v čase jeho pôsobenia v exile, teda v rokoch 1939- 1945. Je to obdobie v rámci ktorého sa dotvorili hodnotové koncepcie politického myslenia Clementisa v dôsledku externých determinantov. V práci analyzujem tri externé determinanty. Hodnoty politického myslenia Clementisa boli ovplyvnené spoločenskou situáciou v Európe ale aj jeho ľavicovou a sociálnou orientáciou. Vladimír Clementis nebol len primárne ľavicovým politikom. Jeho politická a hodnotová orientácia oscilovala na pomedzi ľavicovej osy a sociálne-demokratickej osy. Bol ľavicovým intelektuálom, ktorého z dnešného pohľadu možno radiť do sociálne -demokratického krídla komunistickej strany. Práca je postavená na štúdiu archívnych prameňov, primárnych zdrojov a existujúcej odbornej literatúry.
Kľúčová slova: *Vladimír Clementis, Československo, exilové prostredie*

Abstract

The thesis focuses on the political view of forming Vladimir Clementis' political views at the time of his exile, ie between 1939 and 1945. It is a period in which the Clementis value-based concepts of political thinking were created as a result of external determinants. At work, I analyze three external determinants. The values of Clementis political thinking were influenced by the social situation in Europe, but also by its left-wing and social orientations. Vladimir Clementis was not just a left-wing politician. Its political and value orientation oscillated along the left-hand axis and the socio-democratic axis. He was a left-wing intellectual who, from today's point of view, can consult the social-democratic wing of the Communist Party. The work is based on the study of archival sources, primary sources and existing professional literature.
Key words: *Vladimír Clementis, Czechoslovakia, exile environment*

1. ÚVOD

V práci sa zameriavam primárne na formovanie politických názorov Vladimíra Clementisa v čase jeho exilového pôsobenia, teda v čase Druhej svetovej vojny. Vladimír Clementis bol jedným z významných predstaviteľov v exilovom prostredí v rokoch 1939- 1945. Bol nielen politikom, právnikom či publicistom, ale bol hlavne intelektuálnou osobnosťou.

Na formovanie myslenia Vladimíra Clementisa ako ľavicovo orientovaného politika, publicistu a diplomata vplývalo viacero externých determinantov. Svoju hodnotovú a politickú orientáciu, ktorú si vytvoril ako ľavicový politik v predvojnovom období, si zachoval aj v dobe, keď bol vylúčený z radov komunistickej strany. Bol stúpencom ideológie marxizmu. Ak hovoríme o Clementisovej hodnotovej orientácii, tou máme na mysli jeho netradičnú orientáciu smerom k sociálnej demokracii. Podstatou však je, že nikdy nebol sociálnym demokratom, ale inkriminoval k nemu z dnešného pohľadu. Z ideového hľadiska by sme ho mohli charakterizovať ako člena KSČ, ktorý mal názorovo blízko aj k sociálne

demokratickým hodnotám. Svojim humanizmom a sociálnym cítením smeroval nielen k sociálnej demokracii ale aj k liberalizmu, najmä pre jeho zreteľne prejavované sociálne cítenie s robotníkmi, roľníkmi i ľavicovo orientovanou časťou vtedajšej spoločnosti.
Hovorím o viacerých externých determinantoch vplývajúcich na jeho hodnotovú orientáciu . Spoločným menovateľom formovania jeho myslenia je politické prostredie, ktoré vplývalo na jeho nielen publikačnú činnosť, ale aj na jeho exilové pôsobenie. Za jeden z prvých vonkajších vplyvov možno považovať spoločensko-politickú situáciu vznikajúcu v roku 1939 na území Československa. Ďalšou udalosťou, ktorá významne vplývala na jeho politické myslenie, bolo exilové pôsobenie v Paríži a v Londýne. Sociálne hodnoty možno označiť za Clementisovu tretiu hodnotovú orientáciu, ktorú nadobudol pôsobením v internačných táboroch. Pohnutý rok 1939 a nemecká agresia, pôsobenie v exile a sociálna politika sú tromi prvkami, ktoré možno považovať za hlavné determinanty jeho vtedajšej hodnotovej orientácie. Na základe nesúhlasu s ľudáckym režimom ukázal demokratické a pokrokové cítenie. Je možné domnievať sa, že sú to kľúčové prvky k pochopeniu Clementisových politických postojov v ďalšom prostredí.
Vyjadroval sa k problémom kultúrnym, najmä však k problematike národnej a historickej. Neskôr tieto skutočnosti ocenil aj Gustáv Husák v predhovore Clementisovej knihy Odkazy z Londýna, kde uvádza, že: *„Clementis bol nesporne najvýznamnejšou osobnosťou slovenskej časti československej emigrácie v Anglicku“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 7). V rámci svojej novinárskej činnosti v BBC sa stal opäť užitočný pre ilegálny odboj.
Primárnym zdrojom pri písaní práce boli archívne dokumenty zo Slovenského národného archívu a taktiež z Národného archívu Českej republiky. Pre komparáciu s ideologickým zameraním bolo nutné použiť práce od Andrewa Heywooda, Giovanniho Sartoriho a Blanky Říchovej zaoberajúcimi sa teóriou demokracie a politológie.
Cieľom príspevku je poukázať na skutočnosť, že Vladimír Clementis nebol len primárne ľavicovým politikom. Jeho politická a hodnotová orientácia oscilovala na pomedzi ľavicovej osy a sociálne- demokratickej osy. Potrebné je však uviesť fakt, že Clementis nikdy neprejavil záujem pridať sa k sociálne- demokratickej strane. Bol ľavicovým intelektuálom, ktorého z dnešného pohľadu možno radiť do sociálne -demokratického krídla komunistickej strany. Reflektoval nielen ľavicovú politiku ale taktiež sociálnu politiku, pričom inkriminoval k demokratickému razeniu. Cieľom bolo taktiež preukázať fakt, že ho nemožno zaraďovať medzi nacionalistov, pretože i keď hájil záujmy slovenského národa, vždy zastával myšlienku vytvorenia spoločného štátu Slovákov a Čechov, avšak na federalistickom princípe. V závere práce dokazujem priloženými archívnymi dokumentmi jeho ľavicovo sociálne demokratickú hodnotovú orientáciu.

2. VPLYV EXILOVÉHO PROSTREDIA NA POLITICKÉ MYSLENIE CLEMENTSIA

Vplyv exilového prostredia na politické myslenie Clementisa v období nacionalisticky orientovanej politickej situácii treba chápať ako jeden z prvých externých determinantov vplývajúcich na jeho politickú orientáciu. Vladimír Clementis bol v exile od roku 1939 až do roku 1945. Pôsobil v exilovom prostredí v Paríži a v Londýne. Historička Zdenka Holotíková uviedla, že vyhlásenie Slovenského štátu ako samostatného celku vytvorilo priestor, v ktorom sa Clementis formoval ako bojovník proti ľudáckemu režimu (Holotíková, 1972). Odmietal nacionalizmus a samostatnosť v podobe ľudáckeho režimu. Vo svojom článku *„Únik pred totalitou“* (Clementis, 1947, s.336) poznamenal, že *„jednako nesloboda tam je, tlak a útlak zhora existuje a zase raz deformuje a okypťuje prirodzený rozbeh z obdobia dvadsaťročného života v Republike...“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 339). Zdenka Holotíková uvádza, že práve v Paríži sa stretával s komunistickými funkcionármi Viliamom Širokým , Janom Švermom a Brunom Köhlerom, taktiež aj s politikom liberálneho razenia Hubertom Ripkom. Práve Ripka vyjadril pochybnosti v to, či by mal Clementis odísť do USA, kam pôvodne smeroval. Historik Ján

Černý sa domnieva, že za Clementisovým zadržaním v Paríži bol Viliam Široký, ktorý pôsobil v exilovom centre Komunistickej strany Československa v Paríži (Černý, 1999) avšak toto tvrdenie je len autorova domnienka, ktorú nepodložil dôkazmi. Holotíková naopak tvrdí, že práve Beneš vydal nariadenie Ripkovi *„aby zabránil odchodu Clementisa do USA, lebo tam medzi krajanmi by mohol byť politicky nebezpečný“* (Holotíková, 1972, s. 184). Je možné spochybniť tvrdenie, že Viliam Široký bol v exile vo Francúzsku a stretol sa tam s Clementisom, ako to tvrdí historička Zdenka Holotíková, pretože v tom čase bol Široký vo väzení. Napriek tomu dokument Národného archívu v Prahe Sebakritika Clementisa v Košiciach v roku 1945 k chovaniu vo Francúzsku, dotýkajúci sa jeho pobytu vo Francúzku, potvrdzuje prítomnosť oboch, teda Clementisa aj Širokého (NAČR- KSČ- ÚV- K 1945-1989, zv. 3, a.j. 43). Práve v tomto prostredí začal spájať svoje sociálne myslenie, ktoré nadobudol pôsobením ako poslanec parlamentu s vtedajšou politickou situáciou. Vyslovoval sa kriticky k pracovným podmienkam v internačnom tábore vo Francúzsku a žiadal zlepšenie pracovných podmienok, čím preukázal svoje humanitné postoje.

Od roku 1940 pôsobil v anglickom exile. Dôvodom bola jeho kritika sovietsko-nemeckého paktu, za ktorú ho vtedy vylúčili z Komunistickej strany Československa. Napriek tejto skutočnosti, sa Clementis pridržiaval vo svojich rozhlasových rečiach ľavicových postojov. Vo vysielaniach anglického rozhlasu BBC nevychádzal z ideologických pozícií, ale jeho názory možno charakterizovať ako ľavicové. Jeho príhovory z Londýna zaznievali pod pseudonymom Peter Hron (Černý, 1999). Už vtedy bol Clementis uznávaným intelektuálom, ktorého určitá časť slovenského ľavicového spektra rešpektovala ako človeka s politickou praxou. Svoj odpor k ľudáckemu režimu vyjadroval aj vo svojich článkoch a rozhlasových prejavoch. V článku „Nacizmus a jeho exportné *„nebenprodukty“* (Clementis, 1947, s.216) vysvetľoval svoje chápanie nacizmu. Kritizoval ho a charakterizoval nacizmus tak, že *„vlastne nejestvuje nijaká teória, či dokonca filozofia nacizmu, a i takzvaný nacistický program“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 216). Nacizmus nepovažoval za akceptovateľnú teóriu, dokonca sa vyjadril, že *„je to len prostriedok pre jasne nedeklarovaný mocenský cieľ; skôr návod pre propagandu,...“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 217). Definoval charakter nacizmu komparáciou s *„vedeckým socializmom“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 217), ktorý *„má nielen svoj sociálnopolitický a ekonomický program (výstavba socialistickej spoločnosti), neobmedzujúci sa na územie jedného národa, či štátu, ale má aj svoju metódu nazerania na vývoj vôbec a vývoj ľudskej spoločnosti zvlášť (historický materializmus) a svoju filozofiu- noetiku a logiku (dialektický materializmus). Nacizmus, naopak, programovo hlásaval, že nie je univerzalistický, že nie je exportným artiklom, že je privilégiom vyššej nemeckej rasy“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 217). Poukázal na skutočnosť, že nacizmus je totalitný, pretože chce ovládať celú spoločnosť. Už v tomto období sa zamýšľal nad slovenskou budúcnosťou, ktorá v časoch nástupu nacizmu začínala rezonovať medzi členmi komunistickej strany. Uvedomoval si, že nástup nacizmu ovplyvní aj územie Československa, ktoré bolo rozdelené na priemyselnú českú časť a agrárnickú slovenskú časť. Clementis hovoril, že ide o poľnohospodársky národ, ktorý sa ešte nedokázal spamätať z pozostatkov prvej svetovej vojny a hospodárskej krízy (Vašš, 2010). Uvedomoval si, že vplyv nacizmu sa pravdepodobne odrazí aj na Slovensku, kde vznikali vhodnejšie podmienky pre nástup tejto ideológie. Upozorňoval, že nemecký fašizmus si svojou agresívnou politikou bude chcieť podmaniť malé národy a vzýval nutnosť „uvedomiť si tragédiu, akú prežívajú malé národy“ (Clementis,1947, s. 94). Osloboditeľské tvrdenia nacizmu odmietal, pretože ich národný socializmus *„pre nižšie rasy je spojený s ničením a likvidovaním všetkých demokratických ustanovizní“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 219). Nejde o národný, teda slovenský socializmus. Nie je ideológiou národnou, pretože *„je nielen importovaná z nacistického Reichu, ale je aj celkom pristrihnutá na potreby toho ktorého vývojového, či situačného štádia Nemecka“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 255). Zároveň poznamenal, že nie je ani socialistická, a to z toho dôvodu, *„lebo je*

vernou kópiou nacistického sociálneho programu" (Clementis, 1947, s. 255). Dokonca zosmiešnil politickú ideológiu hlásanú predstaviteľmi Slovenského štátu, že *„je odvarkom z otravy nemeckého fašizmu"* (Clementis, 1947, s. 256).
Európska politická situácia sa zmenila podpísaním paktu o neútočení medzi ZSSR a Nemeckom, známym tiež ako Pakt Ribbentrop- Molotov. Vladimír Clementis vyjadroval nesúhlas s týmto paktom. Kriticky sa vyjadroval k fašizmu ako takému. Odmietal fašistickú ideológiu a nemeckú agresívnu politiku rozpínavosti. V Paríži sa o tejto téme rozprával v kruhu predstaviteľov komunistickej strany, a to so Širokým, Köhlerom a Švermom. Ján Černý uvádza, že Clementis svoje pochybnosti týkajúce sa paktu vyjadril v Paríži medzi predstaviteľmi komunistickej strany. Domnieval sa dokonca, že zdieľajú rovnaké postoje k paktu (Černý, 1999). V rámci dokumentu Národného archívu v Prahe Sebakritika Vladimíra Clementisa je dokázané, že v čase exilového pôsobenia sa kriticky vyjadroval k Sovietsko-nemeckému paktu. V archívnom dokumente sú zaznamenané jeho slová: *„Nevidel som vtedy, že to bola práve stalinská politika, ...ktorá zvrátila situáciu a donútila západ opustiť mníchovskú politiku"* (NAČR- KSČ- ÚV- K 1945- 1989 , zv. 3, a.j. 43). Clementis však vo svojej rozhlasovej reči Osud malých národov z 23. novembra 1943 povedal, že všetky krajiny, ktoré sa spojili s Hitlerom *„urobili tak pôvodne z vlastnej vôle, zdanlive azda z rôznych príčin, no v skutočnosti všetci preto, lebo v spojenectve s Hitlerom videli zábezpeku svojich režimov, zábezpeku i proti vlastnému ľudu"* (Clementis, 1947, s.94). Spomínaný argument bol neskôr zneužitý na jeho perzekvovanie. Neskôr si priznal svoju chybu a poznamenal: *„Pozdejšie som si uvedomil, že moja vtedajšia chyba pramenila jednak v nesprávnom pochopení a hodnotení politickej situácie a vývojových možností, jednak a predovšetkým: v nepochopení toho, že cesta, ktorú zvolil v tých kritických časoch Sovietsky zväz bola jedine správna a že podľa nej – a nie vo vymýšľaní vlastných koncepcií – má a musí sa riadiť celý náš postup"* (NAČR- KSČ- ÚV- K 1945-1989 , zv. 3, a.j. 43). Clementis sa už v exile dostal do zložitej situácie týkajúcej sa straníckej disciplíny. Podľa Zdenky Holotíkovej Clementis nepovažoval spoluprácu za správnu a z toho dôvodu bol vylúčený z radov strany, konkrétne za *„porušenie straníckej línie"* (Holotíková, 1972, s. 185). Autorka poznamenala, že jeho odmietavý postoj k paktu a z toho vyplývajúce *„dôsledky sa tiahli dlhé roky...jeho životnou a politickou dráhou"* (Holotíková, 1972, s. 185). Clementis i keď vyjadroval kritiku sovietsko-nemeckej spolupráce nikdy v žiadnom svojom prejave či článku nespomenul konkrétne pakt, vždy len naznačil, že sa k spolupráci vyjadruje kriticky. Napriek tomu priznal svoje pochybenie.
Po uzatvorení nemecko-sovietskeho paktu francúzska polícia začala vyhľadávať a zatýkať komunistov, medzi nimi aj Vladimíra Clementisa. Za jeho prepustenie sa prihovorili viacerí slovenskí politici, napríklad Milan Hodža či Ján Paulíny-Tóth. Priamo na ministerstve vnútra sa prihovoril vyslanec Štefan Osuský. V Clementisov prospech intervenovali aj francúzski intelektuáli. Clementis si však uvedomoval, že jeho zatknutie súvisí s jeho postojom k sovietsko-nemeckému paktu (Černý,1999). Neexistuje žiadny písomný dokument, ktorý by potvrdzoval jeho kritiku paktu. Nevyhradzoval sa proti nemu ani vo svojich rozhlasových rečiach, pričom nacizmus ostro kritizoval. Politická kritika nacizmu však v jeho myslení zostala. Bol kritikom nacizmu, odsudzoval ho i keď Sovietsky zväz spolupracoval s Nemeckom. Dokonca hovoril, že nacizmus neobsahuje žiadne *„logické argumenty"* (Clementis, 1947, s.216). Vtipne a kriticky zosmiešňoval základy nacizmu, pretože popieral existenciu teórie nacizmu. Nacistický program nie je chápaný ako program ale ide skôr o propagandu *„je to len prostriedok pre jasne nedeklarovaný mocenský cieľ; skôr návod pre propagandu, než pracovná predloha"* (Clementis, 1947, s. 217). Hovoril taktiež o sociálnom aspekte nacizmu, ktorý skritizoval, pretože *„sľuby robotníkom na úkor kapitalistov a naopak, maloobchodníkom na úkor veľkopodnikateľov a naopak..."(*Clementis, 1947, s.219) považoval za ovplyvňovanie, pričom dodal, že môže ísť aj o nahradzovanie jedného národa

druhým, čo chápal ako šovinizmus, v niektorých prípadoch išlo až o antisemitizmus, ktorí bol typickým prvkom nemeckého nacizmu (Clementis,1947). Nemožno tu teda hovoriť o sociálnom aspekte nacizmu, pretože Clementis za sociálny aspekt považoval práve zlepšenie pracovných podmienok pracujúceho ľudu, ale nie na úkor niektorých častí spoločnosti. Clementis vo svojej práci *„Od Pribinu, či Prybinu- po Tisu, či Tiszu“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 249) špecifikoval, že *„socializmus vychádza z predpokladu absolútneho práva všetkých národov a rás na rovnosť, hlási sa ku kultúrnemu dedičstvu celého ľudstva a usiluje sa o také hospodárske, sociálne a politické prebudovanie spoločnosti, v ktorej by bolo znemožnené vykorisťovanie človeka človekom, kde by výroba a distribúcia bola postavená nie na princíp anarchizujúceho pudu zisku ale na vedecké poznanie a slúžila by na zvyšovanie životnej a kultúrnej úrovne národov“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 256). Nemecký národný socializmus považoval za program, ktorý je *„demagogickou nahotou sociálnej starostlivosti“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 352). Ide o socializmus, ktorí sa nesnaží o vytiahnutie chudobných zo zlej sociálnej situácie, ale skôr ju zhoršuje. Nerovné postavenie, na základe ktorého privilegované postavenie zaujali Nemci a submisívnymi boli všetky malé národy. *„Nemci mali postavenie pánov a vládcov, aby tí, čo sa dávajú dobrovoľne do ich služieb a psovsky poslúchajú ich rozkazy, boli v mnohých ohľadoch voľnejší, než tí, čo - súc verní svojej národnej cti a hrdosti- postavili sa na odpor nacistickému imperializmu“* (Clementis,1947, s. 92). Zdôrazňoval ako nacistické Nemecko pochopilo slobodu podmanených národov. Oni ich považovali za menej cenných, teda tých, ktorí musia poslúchať aby prežili. Čiže vytvárali akúsi davovú psychózu poslušnosti a formovali neustály strach. Nacionalisti, respektíve nemecký nacizmus takto vnímal postavenie robotníckej triedy, no bol to národný socializmus (Clementis, 1947). Blanka Říchová neskôr k tejto problematike uviedla, že viacerí autori chápali národný nacionalizmus v Nemecku ako totalitarizmus (Říchová, 2014). Obracal sa aj na slovenských robotníkov, ktorí boli v službách nacistického Nemecka a ktorí v týchto službách bojovali vo vojne. Hovoril, že samostatnosť *„robotníctvu dala prácu v Nemecku a dezertérom z nej pracovné koncentračné tábory“* (Clementis, 1947, s. 397). Prostredníctvom spomínaných skutočností môžeme hovoriť o Clementisovi ako o ľavicovom politikovi s humanistickým cítením, ktorý stál na ideovom rozhraní medzi komunistickými a sociálne- demokratickými hodnotami.

Clementisovo prepustenie z tábora bolo podmienené vstupom do vojenskej služby. Vstúpil do československej armády na základe mobilizačného rozkazu. Ján Černý uvádza, že práve s týmto aktom nesúhlasil jeho stranícky kolega Viliam Široký (Černý, 1999). O týchto udalostiach informoval Gottwalda, ktorý vyhlásil, že *„Clementis vystupuje proti sovietsko-nemeckému paktu aj proti ZSSR v otázke Fínska,...“* (Černý, 1999, s.38). Clementis sa pokúšal vysvetliť svoju kritiku postupu voči Fínsku: *„ Musím ďalej dodať, že som podľahol i obavám z perspektívy, ktorá sa za operácií vo Fínsku rysovala vo forme vojny Nemecka-podporovaného aspoň pasívne Franciou a Veľkou Britániou- proti SSSR“* (NACR- KSČ-ÚV- K 1945-1989, zv. 3, a.j. 43) . Tým pádom jeho kritika vychádzala z obavy pred vojnou, pričom hlavným dôvodom bol strach o budúcnosť Sovietskeho zväzu. Nemožno preto tvrdiť, že by sa spreneveril straníckej línii. Išlo o obdobie plné poloprávd, ktoré vplývali nielen na pozície Clementisa ale ovplyvňovali aj jeho politickú pozíciu v čase emigrácie, napriek tomu si vždy zachoval svoje politické postoje . Boli to pokrokové postoje, ktoré presahovali svoju dobu.

3. ZÁVER

Cieľom výskumu bolo preukázať, že Vladimíra Clementisa nemožno považovať len za ľavicovo orientovaného politika. Možno tvrdiť, že nešlo primárne len o ľavicového politika, ale išlo o ľavicového politika so sociálno-demokratickými hodnotami, pričom razil aj humanistickú politiku.

Na základe analýzy a komparácie možno potvrdiť, že na jeho politické myslenie výrazne vplývalo prostredie a politická situácia v spoločnosti. Vladimír Clementis bol ovplyvnený exilovým prostredím, v ktorom pôsobil v medzivojnovom období. Na základe spracovanej odbornej životopisnej literatúry môžeme spozorovať, že Clementis svoje sociálne a humanistické dogmy výrazne prejavoval práve v exilovom prostredí vo Francúzku. V internačných táboroch začal bojovať za lepšie pracovné podmienky pre robotníkov. Uvedomoval si šovinizmus, ktorý v tom čase prevládal v táboroch a taktiež si uvedomil potrebu zlepšenia pracovných podmienok. Práve zlepšenie týchto podmienok chápal ako skvalitnenie sociálnej problematiky. Tu bol viditeľný jeden z aspektov hodnotovej orientácie Clementisa. Sociálnu politiku, ktorá bola dôležitá nielen pre marxisticko-leninskú ideológiu, začal zmiešavať s demokratickými princípmi a čiastkovo aj s humanistickými hodnotami. Na základe štúdia literatúry a komparácie s odbornou literatúrou zaoberajúcou sa ideológiami, je možné tvrdiť, že Clementis bol ľavicovým intelektuálom so skrytými prvkami sociálne-demokratických hodnôt, avšak zo súčasného pohľadu.

Za dôležitý poznatok zo štúdia považujem zistenie štátotvornej orientácie Clementisa na povojnové usporiadanie Československa. Clementis chcel aby sa Československo budovalo na základoch rovnoprávnych. Išlo o rovnoprávne postavenie dvoch národov, teda Slovákov a Čechov na báze rovného s rovným. Bojoval za rovnoprávne postavenie vo federatívnom usporiadaní. Ako výrazná intelektuálna a politická osobnosť sa zapojil do národnoemancipačného procesu Slovákov, vďaka ktorému sa dostal do rozporov s Benešom. Apeloval na potrebu vytvorenia silného štátu, ktorý bude zárukou bezpečnosti a mieru, ktorý bol potrebný po skončení vojny.

Vladimíra Clementisa na základe štúdiu archívnych dokumentov a odbornej literatúry možno hodnotiť ako ľavicového intelektuála, ktorý prezentoval demokratické a humánne myšlienky s dôrazom na sociálnu problematiku. Cieľom výskumu bolo preukázať jeho osciláciu medzi ľavicovou politikou a politikou sociálne-demokratickou. Na základe analýzy a komparácie možno hovoriť o Clementisovi ako o politikovi, ktorý presahoval dobovú interpretáciu marxisticko-leninskej ideológie.

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TEMPORARY INCAPACITY FOR WORK IN THE ENVIRONMENT OF THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC[1]

Silvia Treľová, Lenka Procházková

Abstract

The paper deals with the problematics of temporary incapacity for work which is a result of an illness or injury of an insured person. The temporary incapacity for work is judged and decided upon by the attending physician who establishes the person's health condition and prescribes medication and the course of treatment based on the diagnosis, illness progression, duration and substance of treatment, sets the length of the duration of temporary incapacity for work and issues an acknowledgement stating temporary incapacity for work. The reasons for and duration of temporary incapacity for work are various. The issue of financial support is of key importance for the sick person. In case an employee, self-proprietor who has been paying mandatory sickness insurance or a person voluntarily sickness insured become temporary incapable to work, they qualify for sick pay. An employee is entitled to sick pay after 11th day of temporary incapacity for work since by then he is given a compensation of pay by the employer from the first day of his/her incapacity for work. Practically there is a lot of unawareness about these facts that is why the issue is paid attention in this paper.

Key words: *temporary incapacity for work, attending physician, sick leave, compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work of an employee*

1 INTRODUCTION

Being healthy has always been considered a priority which people strive for. However, illnesses belong to the life of a person and they need to be overcome. Each illness has its manifestation and symptoms. In the case of stronger and very strong symptoms it is necessary to see a physician who declares the person incapable to work.

The term of "temporary incapacity for work" is not only used in healthcare but also in the field of industrial law in connection to a halt of work activity, as well as in the field of law on social welfare in connection to financial liability or allowances, which belong to the insured person based on his sickness insurance and meeting requirements given by the law during temporary incapacity for work. In everyday life we encounter alternative terminology such as temporary work incapability or the so called "PN".

2 THE LEGISLATION OF TEMPORARY INCAPACITY FOR WORK

When defining the term of temporary incapacity for work, it is not possible to rely on a relevant legislation since the term itself in not defined by any Slovak legal regulation within healthcare legislation, any labour regulation or normative legal act within social welfare law. Contrary to the Slovak Republic for example legal regulation in the Czech Republic grounds positive as well as negative definition of temporary incapacity for work. According to § 55 (1 and 2) Act No 187/2006 Coll. on sickness insurance as amended by later regulations

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“temporary work incapacity is understood as a status which makes it impossible for the employee: a) to continue in the insured work activity due to health disruption or other reasons not stated in this law and when such health disruption lasts for more than 180 days, also another up to now insured work activity; b) to meet the requirements for a job candidate if the temporary incapacity for work arose within the protected term or if the work incapacity lasts after ending the up-to-now insured work activity, even if the insured is not a job candidate. It is not considered temporary work incapacity if the insured is treated a) in a night sanitarium during intoxication after using alcohol, narcotics or psychotropic substances, with an exception of using these substances without own infliction, c) and offered healthcare in his/her own interest based on cosmetic or esthetic reasons paid by the insured.“

It follows from the phrase itself that it is a time during which a person cannot work for a certain time because of health reasons and it is expected that the ill employee will recover soon and be able to work. According to Gregorova and Galvas (2005, p. 120) work capability is “a relationship between life and work functions of given person, between his/her work capability on one hand and requirements placed upon him by the work activity which he/she is to perform on the other hand. At the same time it depends on the purpose why is such a relationship i.e. work capability or incapacity being found out and evaluated, and also it depend on the fact how is such a relationship for such purpose adjusted and normatively defined.“

In healthcare the issue of “temporary incapacity for work“ is regulated by the law in § 12a Act No. 576/2004 Coll. on healthcare and on services connected to healthcare as amended and supplemented by later regulations (further on only “Act on healthcare“). This regulation sets out the issues of arisen temporary incapacity for work, the issue of legible person who decides about the temporary incapacity for work, it regulates the acknowledgement form for temporary incapacity for work, outings as well as other related issues. However, a definition of the phrase is not provided, not even within basic terminology.

Apart from the Act on healthcare, temporary incapacity for work is dealt with in Act No. 461/2003 Coll. on social insurance as amended by later regulations (further on only “Act on social insurance“), in connection with the maximum duration of temporary incapacity for work as well as with the paid benefit of health insurance – sickness pay offered by Social Insurance Company during the duration of temporary incapacity for work. It follows from § 33 and § 34 of the Act on social insurance that temporary incapacity for work concerns employees, self-proprietors paying mandatory health insurance and people voluntarily health insured.

3 EMERGENCE AND DURATION OF TEMPORARY INCAPACITY FOR WORK

An attending physician decides upon temporary incapacity for work (general practitioner, a specialized doctor in gynaecology and obstetrics when offering non-resident care or a doctor of a healthcare facility) after evaluating the ability for given work performed by the employee including the influence of work and work environment on his health condition.

Based on assessed health condition the physician prescribes medication and the course of treatment depending on the diagnosis, illness progression, duration and substance of treatment, sets the length of the duration of temporary incapacity for work and issues an acknowledgement stating temporary incapacity for work.

Incapacity for work can be acknowledged based on an illness, injury, work injury, occupational disease, other general disease or because of ordered quarantine precaution.

Based on the assessed health condition of a person, the attending physician prescribes the length of duration of incapacity for work. The temporary incapacity for work starts on the day when the attending physician found out about the disease which makes him state the incapacity for work. There are exceptional cases when temporary incapacity for work starts later or is acknowledged retroactively.

Such an exception is a situation when healthcare is provided to an employee after finishing his shift because that is the case when temporary incapacity for work starts on the next day. (§ 12a (3) of the Act on healthcare). Analogically it follows that if healthcare is provided during work shift of an employee, incapacity for work starts on that very day. However, from the point of view of applied praxis, problems arise concerning how such an employee is financially supported. Is such an employee indemnified for all day's pay even if he worked for part of the day or should he receive the sickness benefit just for the aliquot part of the day? If an employee worked during the day when his title to the benefit originated, he/she is to receive a benefit for the aliquot part of the day. Even though, this benefit is only offered in an aliquot sum, this day is counted for the support period for offering compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work as well as sick pay. These are just different interpretations of the issue.

Retroactive acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work concerns such cases when a person was not able to see a doctor based on reasons laid down by law. The attending physician may acknowledge a person incapable to work retroactively for not more than three calendar days based on medical finding of first aid medical service or institutional emergency service (§ 12a (4) Act on healthcare). The time-limit of three days for retroactive acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work has been in force as of July 1, 2014. Until this date retroactive acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work by an attending physician had not been laid down by law. In case such medical finding is absent, contrary to previous practice, according to valid legal regulation an attending physician can acknowledge an employee incapable to work on the day when such work incapacity was found by him/her. In case urgent care connected to hospitalization abroad was offered and the person submitted hospital discharge papers to the attending physician within three days of the end of hospitalization in abroad, the attending physician issues an acknowledgment of temporary incapacity for work retroactively while the beginning date of the temporary incapacity for work is set according to the discharge papers.

After acknowledging a person incapable to work the attending physician issues an acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work on a prescribed form (five-part "Acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work"), prescribes medication and treatment. A person acknowledged incapable to work by a physician tells the doctor where he is reachable during his/her work incapacity. Such a place is provided in the form. "Acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work" for the purpose of a Social Insurance Company check, as well as the employer if the person in question is an employee. If there are serious reasons for a change of such a place the attending physician may allow for a change of the address during temporary incapacity for work after a special request for this. The change of address is recorded on the acknowledgement form of temporary incapacity for work as well as in the medical documents of the person incapable to work.

The obtained acknowledgment of temporary incapacity for work, more specifically its II. part, is sent to a branch of Social Insurance Company personally by the self-employed person or by the person voluntarily sickness insured. An employee is obliged to send the acknowledgement to his/her employer, while he states what kind of benefit he/she is applying for and gives proof of the fact leading to the rise, duration and height as well as end of the claim for pay

compensation during work incapacity. Such an acknowledgement form has to be signed by the person incapable to work.

As for the duration of temporary incapacity for work, it is not regulated by the Act on healthcare. According to the Act on social insurance the time of support for offering sick pay during temporary incapacity for work lasts 52 weeks maximum.

If another incapacity for work arises on the next day after the person's incapacity for work just ended, this is considered an extension of incapacity for work of the previous incapacity for work and the attending physician issues a new acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work where "extension of temporary incapacity for work" is marked. The new acknowledgement of temporary incapacity for work is issued by the attending physician as of the day stated as the first day of incapacity for work on the previous acknowledgement of incapacity for work. The extension of temporary incapacity for work is conditioned by the Act on healthcare by worsened health condition of the person after ending the temporary incapacity for work, which means that in the given case a change of diagnosis is not taken into account.

4 REASONS FOR AND DURATION OF TEMPORARY INCAPACITY FOR WORK IN SLOVAKIA

In Slovakia there is quite a lot of temporarily incapable to work people. Social insurance company which records all temporary incapacities to work of the insured from the first day of temporary incapacity for work, monitors and statistically assesses only physical entities with sickness insurance (not all residents in SR). (A Report on Health Condition of Slovak Residents, 2015). "In 2017 there were daily 96,127 insured with incapacity for work on average which confirms the negative growing trend from the past – in 2016 there were 91,904 people on average incapable to work, in the year 2015 it was 87,803 insured." (Social Insurance Company, 2018).

According to resources from Social Insurance Company (2016a), the most common reasons for temporary incapacity for work are respiratory system diseases, especially urgent respiratory infections and influenza. From the latest available resources these diseases were the reasons for work incapacity in 2016 for 209,468 people from the overall number of 610,512 people with incapacity for work, which is 34 %. This shows a decline of diseases of such type compared to the year 2015 when Social Insurance Company recorded 257,688 incapacities to work based on respiratory infections from the overall number of 622,849. This was 41 % of people ill with this type of diseases. In 2014 Social Insurance Company recorded 223,727 incapacities to work based on respiratory diseases.

Another group of most common diseases are diseases of body muscular and skeletal system and fibrous tissue, especially problems with the spine and diseases of joints. In the time of January to October 2016 these caused 144,478 incapacities to work for insured people (23.66% from the overall number) which is by 16,160 more than in the year 2015. The third most common reason for temporary incapacity for work were in 2016 different injuries of head, poisonings and other outer consequences outside work performance. "In the year 2015 there were 58,721 such diseases, while in 2014 the insurance company recorded 57,093 incapacities to work of the insured. The reasons for their absence at work were especially frequent open wounds and flesh wounds, dislocations, wrenches and repositioning of joints." (Social Security Company, In TASR, 2016).

The durations of temporary incapacities to work differ. In the past decade there has been a growth and further on a stagnation of average duration of temporary incapacity for work in the nationwide average. The greatest change was recorded in the year 2009 (44.87 days) compared to the year 2008 (33.96 days). The longest average duration of temporary incapacity for work in the past decade was in the year 2012 when it reached 50.48 days as shown in the following table Table 1.

Table 1: Average duration of temporary incapacity for work in days (2006-2017)

	2007	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**
Average duration of work incapacity (days) together	**34.70**	**33.96**	**44.87**	**46.71**	**45.43**	**50.48**	**46.00**	**46.11**	**42.43**	**44.12**	**43.75**

Source: Statistical Office SR (2018)

As for the duration of temporary incapacity for work from the point of view of reasons for temporary incapacity for work, people with respiratory system diseases as the most common reason for incapacity for work usually are incapable to work for a short term with the duration of incapacity up to 10 days, namely for urgent respiratory infections and influenza. Temporary incapacity for work because of muscular and skeletal system diseases and fibrous tissue problems, usually lasts 43 to 91 days. Frequent open wounds and flesh wounds, dislocations, wrenches and repositioning of joints require duration of incapacity for work from 43 to 91 days. (Social Insurance Company In TASR, 2016).

In this connection it should be noted that the duration of temporary incapacity for work influences the percentage of incapable to work. The shorter the duration of temporary incapacity for work the higher the percentage of incapable to work. Such disproportion is given by short-term diseases in flu season.

The duration of temporary incapacity for work depends on the social status of a patient, also his functional rank. When it comes to managers of organizations extensions of duration of temporary incapacity for work is not expected but he/she will use the shortest treatment type possible. The duration of temporary incapacity for work is also influenced by the check of keeping the treatment regime. It is assumed that consistent enforcement of such check-ups especially of time intervals can positively influence the duration of temporary incapacity for work. Last but not least the duration of temporary incapacity for work is influenced by medical progress – replacement of a knee joint takes three days, after plastic surgeries e.g. of breasts the medical institution will discharge the patient on the next day, even though the patent is not completely self-reliant.

5 FINANCIAL SUPPORT BASED ON INSURANCE RELATIONS

One of the basic requirements of the insurance system are levies of subjects, e.g. liability to pay premiums. This means that the involved in insurance relation – the insured, is liable for the sick pay (when socially insured) or service (when sickness insured) on condition he/she has been paying premiums or another subject has been paying for him/her (e.g. state).

If an employee, self-proprietor who has been paying mandatory sickness insurance or a person voluntarily sickness insured, become temporary incapable to work they qualify for sick pay. For a voluntarily sickness insured person the title for sick pay is conditioned by the fact that such a person had been insured in the previous two years before the rise of temporary

incapacity for work for at least 270 days. This condition was legally regulated because of the so called exploitation of the sick pay by the voluntarily insured. Social Insurance Company (2014) emphasizes that if the temporary incapacity for work will be acknowledged contrary to legal rules i.e. will be issued by an inappropriate doctor, will not be acknowledged from the date when the disease was found out or will be acknowledged more than three days retrospectively, the claim for sick pay will not be considered valid.

Unlike insured self-proprietor paying mandatory sickness insurance and voluntarily sickness insured person who may claim for sick pay from the first day of temporary incapacity for work, an employee may not. An employee may claim for sick pay from the 11th day of temporary incapacity for work because by then from the first day of his incapacity he receives compensation of pay from his employer according to Act No. 462/2003 Coll. on compensation of pay during an employee's temporary incapacity for work as amended and supplemented by later regulations (further on just "Act on compensation of pay during an employee's temporary incapacity for work "). The stated facts do not apply in the case if temporary incapacity for work arose for an employee in the so called protected period which is seven days after termination of sickness insurance unless the Act on social insurance states otherwise. Such a physical entity is entitled for sick pay also from the first day of temporary incapacity for work.

The compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work is a social benefit which is provided by an employer to an employee for the first ten calendar days from the day when temporary incapacity for work arose. The liability of an employer to provide an employee with a compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work corresponds with an employee's liability to meet the requirements of his treatment regime during work incapacity which follows from the Labour Code and Act on compensation of pay during an employee's temporary incapacity for work. An employee is responsible to meet the requirements of his treatment regime established by the attending physician also by virtue of being an insured paying premium for sickness insurance which follows from the Act on social insurance during the duration of temporary incapacity for work. It follows from the stated that this duty continues during the whole duration of temporary incapacity for work, not only while receiving the compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work of an employee but also while he is receiving sick pay.

Since an employer provides compensation of pay amounting to 25% of daily assessment base for the first three days (from 4th to 10th day amounting to 55% of daily assessment base), which is not very financially advantageous for the employee, employees often prefer taking a day off instead of temporary incapacity for work, of course on condition that the employer allows them to take a holiday. During holiday an employee is entitled to compensation of pay. Preference to take a paid leave over being temporary incapable to work happens especially during trivial illnesses such as a cold or migraine which do not call for a long time to recover. However, it is possible that by preferring this option harmful consequences on health may intensify with a later risk of even more serious disease. This can eventually mean a much greater financial burden.

Concerning the continued temporary incapacity for work (after ending temporary incapacity for work the health condition of the person gets worse), this influences financial security of an employee during temporary incapacity for work i.e. an employee receives the benefit of sickness insurance - sick pay - from Social Insurance Company further on. On the contrary i.e. when temporary incapacity for work arises for an employee an employer has to provide compensation of pay during temporary incapacity for work. However, this does not apply if such temporary incapacity for work was acknowledged from another labour relation which

participates in sickness insurance. In case when activities are performed within several labour relations participating in sickness insurance, the attending physician assesses temporary incapacity for work individually. This means that for one activity an employee may be acknowledge temporary incapable to work and for another he may continue able to work.

Providing sick pay may not exceed 52 weeks from the beginning of temporary incapacity for work – the so called support period. The title for sick pay ends on the day following termination of temporary incapacity for work, no later than 52 weeks after beginning of temporary incapacity for work (support period thus includes the first ten days of temporary incapacity for work when an employee receives compensation of pay from the employer). The support period includes previous periods of temporary incapacity for work if they belong within 52 days before it arises. Previous periods of temporary incapacity for work are not included in the support period if sickness insurance lasted for at least 26 weeks from the termination of last temporary incapacity for work and the insured did not become temporarily incapable to work during this time. The support period does not include a period of ordered quarantine precaution.

Related to the above mentioned it applies that if a person during temporary incapacity for work receives sick pay, the attending physician issues on a prescribed form (a form assigned by Social Insurance Company) a certificate on the duration of temporary incapacity for work as of the last day of calendar month when the temporary incapacity for work takes place. (§ 12a (8) Act on healthcare).

6 CONCLUSION

Every person faces a situation when he/she visits a doctor and will have to follow his/her recommendations to get well and improve his/her health condition. As a consequence of disease or injury he/she may become temporary incapable to work which prevents the person from doing his/her job.

The problematics of temporary incapacity for work is a part of several legal regulations. We may encounter it not only in the environment of healthcare in connection with the rise of temporary incapacity for work but also in the field of labour law as a hindrance to work on the side of an employee, as well as in the field of the law of social security in connection with financial support of an employee during temporary incapacity for work.

In the past decade in the nationwide average we can see a growth followed by stagnation of the average duration of temporary incapacity for work. It is necessary to ask the question: Why is this? It may be really caused by a high occurrence of diseases or the reason is something else, like people speculatively seeking benefits?

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VYBRANÉ EKONOMICKÉ POJMY V DIELE KARLA MARXA „KAPITÁL“

SELECTED ECONOMIC TERMS IN THE KARL MARX’S „KAPITAL“

Yana Daudrikh

Abstrakt

Karl Marx ako jedna z najvýznamnejších osobností Nemecka bol filozof, ekonóm, sociológ a spisovateľ presvedčený o potrebnosti zmeniť existujúci spoločenský stav. Svoje myšlienky podporené vtedajším filozofickým prúdom zhrnul do svojho diela „Kapitál“. Dielo „Kapitál“ okrem iného zahŕňa aj ekonomické pojmy, ktoré autor podrobil kritickej analýze. V rámci tohto príspevku sa preto pokúsime vysvetliť niektoré ekonomické pojmy tak z pohľadu K. Marxa ako aj ich súčasného vnímania.

Kľúčová slova: *Karol Marx, ekonomické pojmy a teórie, kapitalizmus, kapitál.*

Abstract

Karl Marx, as one of Germany's most prominent figures, was a philosopher, economist, sociologist and writer convinced of the need to change the existing social condition. He summed up his thoughts, supported by then current philosophical movement, into his work "Capital". The work "Capital" includes, among other things, the economic concepts that its author subjected to a critical analysis. In this paper, we will try to explain some economic concepts from both the perspective of K. Marx and their current perception.

Key words: *Karl Marx, economic terms and concepts, capitalism, capital.*

1 ÚVOD

„Kapitál“ je hlavným dielom K. Marxa. Nad týmto dielom K. Marx pracoval mnoho rokov svojho života. Marx si bol istý, že spoločnosť vo svojom vývojovom stupni, v ktorom sa v tom čase práve nachádzala, sa postupne približuje k takému bodu, keď hmotné výrobné sily už nezodpovedajú existujúcim výrobným vzťahom. Práve to vytváralo dôvod pre spoločenskú revolúciu a brzdilo rozvoj celej spoločnosti ako celku.

Marx si bol vždy istý, že každý aspekt ľudského života je podmienený materiálnymi faktormi. Preto sa snažil pritiahnuť všetku pozornosť na hmotnú a fyzickú realitu ľudského života. Podľa Marxa je robotnícka trieda najchudobnejšou časťou spoločnosti. Bol si istý, že zrušenie súkromného majetku a celého pracovného systému, kde človek zneužíva človeka, povedie k zničeniu tohto systému. Jeho názory a presvedčenia, zakladajúce sa na hlbokom filozofickom myslení a ovplyvnené udalosťami tých čias, keď došlo k zrušeniu feudalizmu a do popredia stále viac a viac vystupoval kapitalizmus, našli svoj odraz v diele „Kapitál“.

Drvivá väčšina prívržencov a protivníkov K. Marxa považujú komplexnosť štúdia v diele „Kapitál“ za jeho najdôležitejšiu zásluhu. K. Marx zaviedol do vedeckého poznania nové ekonomické pojmy, napríklad také ako „*klasická politická ekonomika*“, „*pridaná hodnota*“ atď., a rovnako tak aj súvisiace ekonomické teórie. Podľa samotného K. Marxa boli základom pre jeho dielo tri vedecké smery: anglická klasická politická ekonómia A. Smitha a D.

Ricarda, nemecká klasická filozofia G. W. F. Hegela a L. A. Feuerbacha a tiež francúzsky utopický socializmus. [1]

2 NIEKOĽKO POZNÁMOK K VYBRANÝM EKONOMICKÝM POJMOM

Nepochybne je K. Marx jedným z najväčších ekonómov, ktorého základné postulované otázky zostávajú aj v súčasnosti aktuálne nie len pre ekonomickú teóriu. Zároveň však má jeho teória nenapraviteľné chyby, čo dokazuje aj jeho dielo „Kapitál". Základný problém spočíval v nepochopení vzťahu medzi ekonomickými subjektami a objektami. V prvých dvoch zväzkoch „Kapitálu" sa K. Marx vyhýbal štúdiu psychológie správania sa ekonomických subjektov a snažil sa stavať na objektívnych faktoroch, ktoré určujú správanie sa subjektov. A až v treťom zväzku vzal K. Marx do úvahy túžbu jednotlivcov mať rovnaký, respektíve vyšší príjem ako má konkurencia.[2]

Nižšie sa pokúsime vysvetliť niektoré ekonomické pojmy, ktoré K. Marx definoval vo svojom diele „Kapitál". Na začiatku sa K. Marx venuje pojmu *„výroba"*. Výrobu rozdeľuje na „výrobné sily" a „výrobné vzťahy".

Pod *výrobnými silami* sa rozumejú pracovnici vykonávajúci prácu pracovným naradím. Výrobné sily však nezahŕňajú objekt výroby. Napríklad výrobca nábytku používa drevo ako materiál na výrobu konečného produktu, ktorým je nábytok. V tomto prípade sa drevo považuje za objekt výroby, a tým pádom sa nezahŕňa do pojmu výrobná sila. Kategória výroby je tak oveľa širší pojem ako kategória výrobné sily, pretože predmet práce je súčasťou pojmu výroba. K. Marx vnímal výrobnú silu staticky, zatiaľ čo my ju vnímame skôr dynamicky, teda ako určitý proces.

Výrobné vzťahy K. Marx definuje výrobné vzťahy ako majetkové vzťahy, teda sú to právne vzťahy. Ak ale vychádzame z doslovného výkladu, výrobné vzťahy môžeme skôr definovať ako vzťahy, ktoré existujú vo výrobe medzi jej účastníkmi, napríklad vzťahy medzi vedúcim a pracovníkmi, vzťahy spolupráce medzi pracovníkmi navzájom. Z uvedeného je zrejmé, že výrobné vzťahy vznikajú v procese výroby pri spracovaní objektov práce medzi subjektami výroby. Teda právne vzťahy vznikajú skôr ako výrobné vzťahy. Na druhej strane, K. Marx celkom správne definoval *„cenu výrobnej sily"*. K. Marx tvrdí, že každá výrobná sila má svoju cenu. *Cena výrobnej sily* predstavuje súbor tých životne dôležitých výhod, ktoré sú potrebné pre zachovanie a rozvoj životných síl konkrétneho pracovníka a jeho rodiny.[3] Práve na základe stanovenej ceny výrobnej sily, K. Marx vytvoril *teóriu pridanej hodnoty*. Podľa tejto teórie jediným zdrojom zisku pre kapitalistu je neplatená pracovná sila, pretože v procese práce pracovník vytvára hodnotu väčšiu ako hodnota jeho pracovnej sily. A tento rozdiel patrí výlučne vlastníkovi kapitálu. Na základe toho K. Marx navrhol rozdeliť kapitál na stály (náklady na zariadenie, suroviny, budovy, atď.) a premenlivý (náklady na prácu). Prvá zložka zodpovedá hodnote tovaru a druhá zložka pridáva k hodnote práce ďalšiu hodnotu vytvorenú ľudskou prácou.[4]

Základným problémom pri skúmaní vyššie uvedených pojmov je absencia pojmu *„spotreba"*. A to napriek tomu, že spotreba hrá obrovskú úlohu v hospodárstve. Je cieľom akejkoľvek ekonomiky. Výroba bez spotreby v zásade nemá zmysel. Z toho vyplýva, že K. Marx

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[1] ЯДГАРОВ, Я. С.: *Классическая политическая экономия через призму исследовательской парадигмы К. Маркса в его книге «Капитал» (к 200-летию со дня рождения К. Маркса).* In: Гуманитарные науки. Вестник Финансового университета, 2018, стр. 57-58.

[2] БОРИСОВ, Г. В.: *История анализа теории цены производства К. Маркса в экономической литературе (1894-1957. Гг.)* In: Проблемы современной экономики, 2010, стр. 57.

[3] ТЮКАВКИН, Н. М.: *Краткий анализ экономической теории К. Маркса и Ф. Энгельса*. In: Вестник Самарского государственного университета, 2014, стр. 159.

[4] ИВАНОВ, Д. В.: *Концепции капитала от Карла Маркса до марка Цукерберга*. Вестник Санкт-Петербургского университета. Сер. 12, вып. 1, 2014, стр. 127.

zabudnúc na spotrebu a tým aj na spotrebiteľov, urobil zasadnú chybu, ktorá sa prejavuje v definovaní ďalších ekonomických pojmov.
V diele K. Marxa „Kapitál“ sa objavujú aj ďalšie zaujímavé definície, ktoré podkopávajú autoritu autora. Podľa názvu „Kapitál“ usudzujeme, že autor sa vo svojom diele priamo venoval pojmu kapitál. K. Marx však robí chybné závery a skúma „kapitalizmus“ nahrádzajúc ho kategóriou „kapitál“. Je zrejmé, že pojmy kapitalizmus a kapitál nepredstavujú to isté. Pod kapitalizmom môžeme rozumieť systém organizácie spoločnosti, ktorá má určitý stupeň ekonomického, právneho a kultúrneho vývoja. Oproti tomu kapitál je vec, teda neživý predmet. Podľa K. Marxa je kapitál mŕtvy druh práce, ktorý žije len vďaka stálej absorpcii živej práce.[5] Z tohto tvrdenia vyplýva, že kapitalista, ako osoba, sa prirovnáva ku kapitálu. Teda kapitalista ako živá bytosť je považovaný za vec a naopak vec je považovaná za človeka. Je zrejmé, že ide o zámenu subjektívnych a objektívnych znakov skúmaných pojmov. Následne K. Marx doplňuje svoje tvrdenia tým, že opisuje kapitál nie ako vec, ale ako určitý proces, ktorý sa nachádza v neustálom pohybe.[6] V tomto prípade K. Marx zahŕňa pod pojem kapitál všetky ekonomické, politické a spoločenské vzťahy všetkých subjektov a všetkých vecí, skrátka celý kapitalistický systém spoločnosti.
Ďalším pojmom, ktorému sa venuje K. Marx, je pojem *„tovar“*. Tovar podľa K. Marxa predstavuje bohatstvo kapitalistickej spoločnosti.[7] Problém však nastáva pri pochopení pojmu tovar. Za tovar sa v súčasnosti považuje určitý objekt, ktorý je určený na predaj. Z toho môžeme vyvodiť záver, že bohatstvo spoločnosti netvorí tovar, ale spotrebný tovar, teda tovar kúpený spotrebiteľom. Je zrejmé, že ak sa tovar nedostane k spotrebiteľovi, teda nebude predaný, automaticky stratí svoje spotrebiteľské vlastnosti. Výrobky sa znehodnotia (napr. mlieko), veci sa stanú starými (napr. oblečenie) a tým pádom nedôjde k zvýšeniu bohatstva spoločnosti. Pre lepšie pochopenie vezmeme známy vzorec, ktorý použil K. Marx pri analýze výmeny tovarov T-P-T (tovar-peniaze-tovar). Je zrejmé, že aj tento vzorec je chybný. Reálne má vzorec vyzerať nasledovne T-P-ST (tovar-peniaze-spotrebný tovar). Tovar zakúpený spotrebiteľom je v jeho rukách už nie komoditou, ale predmetom spotreby. Vzorec T-P-T sa bude používať v prípade, ak sa tovar predáva za účelom jeho následného predaja ďalšej osobe. V tomto prípade peniaze nadobúdajú iný význam a sú považované za „investičné peniaze“. Určitý objem peňazí sa použije na kúpu konkrétneho tovaru, cena ktorého následne rastie a je vyššia ako prvotná cena kúpeného tovaru, čiže v takom prípade hovoríme o zisku. Tento vzorec pre pohyb kapitálu (peniaze sa menia na tovar a potom znova na peniaze) definoval K. Marx ako univerzálny zákon kapitalizmu.[8]
V nadväznosti na pojem tovar, rozoberá K. Marx pojem *„úžitková hodnota“*. Podľa K. Marxa úžitková hodnota závisí od konštrukcie, respektíve vlastnosti určitého objektu. Napríklad železo, pšenica alebo diamanty máju úžitkovú hodnotu.[9] Z toho vyplýva, že tovar ako samostatný objekt, má úžitkovú hodnotu. Rovnako, ako aj v ostatných prípadoch, subjekt úplne absentuje. Práve absencia vzťahu medzi subjektom a objektom vytvára ďalší problém. Je zrejmé, že prirodzený objekt nemusí mať mnoho vlastností vyžadovaných spotrebiteľmi, napríklad strom ešte neznamená nábytok (stôl, kreslo, atď.). Nadobudnutie týchto vlastností sa predovšetkým zakladá na procese spracovania dreva subjektami výroby. Následne už objekt nadobúda vlastnosti vyžadované spotrebiteľmi, lenže stále nemá úžitkovú hodnotu. Úžitková hodnota sa prejavuje až v procese spotreby, kde spotrebiteľ vyhodnocuje vlastnosti pridané subjektami výroby. Pravdepodobne nesprávny predpoklad vznikol preto, lebo K.

[5] МАРКС, К.: *Капитал*. Т. 1, гл. 8, стр. 245, 1937.
[6] МАРКС, К.: *Капитал*. Т. 2, гл. 4, стр. 122, 1939.
[7] МАРКС, К.: *Капитал*. Т. 1, гл. 1, стр. 44, 1937.
[8] ИВАНОВ, Д. В.: *Концепции капитала от Карла Маркса до Марка Цукерберга*. In: Вестник Санкт-Петербургского университета. Сер. 12, вып. 1, 2014, стр. 126-127.
[9] МАРКС, К.: *Капитал*. Т. 1, гл. 1, стр. 45, 1937.

Marx neskúmal „pôvodný“ objekt, ale už spracovanú hmotu (napr. železo, papier, atď.). Práve preto K. Marx dospel k nesprávnemu záveru pri vymedzení pojmu úžitková hodnota.
Zaujímavou definíciou v diele „Kapitál“ je aj pojem *„výmenná hodnota“*. K. Marx ju definuje na základe konkrétneho prípadu: *„známa komodita, napríklad jedna štvrtina pšenice, sa vymieňa za x lesku na topánky alebo za y množstva hodvábu, alebo za z množstva zlata, atď... Z toho vyplýva, že pšenica nemá jednu, ale viacero výmenných hodnôt. Keďže x lesku na topánky, y hodvábu a z zlata, atď. tvoria výmennú hodnotu štvrtiny pšenice, potom x lesku na topánky, y hodvábu a z zlata, atď. musia byť výmennými hodnotami schopnými nahradiť sa navzájom ...“*[10] Z tohto príkladu vyplýva jedine to, že pšenica ako samostatný objekt je schopná sa vymeniť na lesk na topánky, hodváb a zlato. Znovu vidíme absenciu akéhokoľvek subjektu, ktorý by realizoval túto výmenu. Ak vezmeme do úvahy ľudí ako nevyhnutný subjekt výmenných vzťahov, potom sa výmena tovaru uskutočňuje podľa želaní a potrieb ľudí, teda práve ľudia sú hybnou silou výmeny tovarov, a práve na základe tejto výmeny vzniká výmenná hodnota.

3 ZÁVER

K. Marx bol bezpochyby významný teoretik zaoberajúci sa okrem iného otázkami ekonomickej existencie kapitalistickej spoločnosti. Na základe v článku vymedzených pojmov je však zrejmé, že K. Marx sa mýlil a nebral do úvahy viaceré dôležité aspekty (a to nielen v porovnaní so súčasným stavom). Vysvetliť tento Marxov prístup sa dá práve obdobím, v ktorom žil. Prechod od feudalizmu ku kapitalizmu ako novej „vylepšenej“ forme spoločenského systému podnecoval autora k vytvoreniu tohto diela, ktoré niekedy obsahuje „mýtické“ prvky. Za „mýtické“ prvky v prvom rade môžeme považovať absenciu konkrétnych subjektov v ekonomických vzťahoch. Je zrejmé, že každý ekonomický vzťah sa nemôže zaobísť bez subjektov. Z uvedených dôvodov je otázne, či dielo veľkého K. Marxa dokáže ovplyvniť súčasný ekonomický svet.

Článok bol spracovaný ako výstup v rámci riešenia projektu VEGA 1/0138/18 s názvom „Marxizmus stále živý? K prehodnoteniu učenia K. Marxa v súčasnom právnom a ekonomickom myslení.“

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[10] МАРКС, К.: *Капитал*. Т. 1, гл. 1, str. 46, 1937.

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ŠPECIFICKÁ METÓDA EKOLOGICKÉHO A HUMANITNÉHO VÝSKUMU A RIADENIA VO FILOZOFII EKOLÓGIE

SPECIFIC METHOD OF ECOLOGICAL AND HUMANISTIC RESEARCH AND MANAGEMENT IN PHILOSOPHY OF ECOLOGY

Ľubov Vladyková

Abstrakt

Filozofia ekológie má medzisektorový, multidisciplinárny základ, ktorý pokrýva rozsiahlu oblasť charakterizovanú širokým výskumným programom, spájajúcim viaceré zavedené vedecké disciplíny. Naším cieľom je zdôrazniť interdisciplinárnu povahu problému, o ktorom sa diskutuje, ako aj skutočnosť, že rôzne koncepcie filozofie ekológie by boli ťažko udržateľné a ťažko rešpektované, ak neodpovedali na zistenia najnovšieho výskumu v oblasti ekológie alebo v oblasti filozofie.

Kľúčová slova: *filozofia, ekológia, interdisciplinarita, naturalizmus, ekologická gramotnosť*

Abstract

Philosophy of ecology is an intersectional, multi-discursive foundation, which covers a vast area characterised by an extensive research agenda, connecting a number of established scientific disciplines. It is our aim to highlight the interdisciplinary character of the problem under discussion, as well as the fact that different conceptions of the philosophy of ecology would be hard to sustain and hard to respect if they did not respond to the findings of latest research, be it in the field of ecology or in the field of philosophy.

Key words: *philosophy, ecology, interdisciplinarity, naturalism, ecological literacy*

1. Špecifické metódy a interdisciplinárna povaha filozofie ekológie

Je príroda súhrnom materiálnych procesov a javov, ktoré prebiehajú nezávisle od ľudského vedomia? Možno tieto procesy odhaliť vedeckými metódami? Je príroda jednoduchým subjektívnym premietnutím hlásaných svetonázorov na materiálny horizont? Existuje v prírode rovnováha, alebo je príroda inherentne chaotická? atď.

Na tieto a mnohé ďalšie otázky by mohla dať odpoveď vedecká ekológia, ktorá má s ostatnými prírodnými vedami[1] spoločnú nielen metodológiu (získavanie základných údajov, metódy spracovania, testovanie hypotéz, metódy na overovanie, korelácia, atď.), ale aj *filozofické základy* (transcendentná dynamika neustálej otvorenosti a neustáleho pýtania sa).

Jedným z týchto základov je *naturalizmus*[2], názor, že existuje iba jeden systém reality – príroda – pričom tento systém nezávisí od nadprirodzených faktorov. Naturalizmus

[1] Význam prírodných vied neustále narastá, predstavujú „exemplárne disciplíny intelektuálneho rozvoja, poskytujú školu prísneho uvažovania a racionality a je v nich výzva *pochopiť, dokázať a mobilizovať* .....“ (in. Lipovetsky 2007: 400)

[2] *Naturalizmus* predpokladá, že príroda je v zásade úplne poznateľná. Pravidelnosť, jednota a celistvosť v prírode predpokladá objektívne zákony, bez ktorých by snaha o vedecké poznanie prírody bola celkom absurdná. K oživeniu naturalizmu došlo v 30. a 40. rokoch 20 storočia predovšetkým v USA filozofmi ako F. E. Woodbridge, Morris R. Cohen, J. Dewey, E. Nagel a S. Hook. Naturalistický prístup, ktorého novodobá história siaha k Darwinovi a starším proto-evolučným mysliteľom, získaval na význame s každým novým pokrokom v biológii a kognitívnych vedách. Jeho súčasnú verziu môžeme interpretovať v podobe tézy: *všetko ľudské, vrátane mysle a kultúry, má materiálnu základňu a vzniklo počas vývoja ľudskej genetickej konštitúcie a*

nevylučuje nevyhnutne existenciu nadprirodzena, avšak pochopenie prírodného sveta nevyžaduje porozumenie nadprirodzenému svetu. Naturalizmus teda zpochybňuje názory, ktoré postulujú príčinu a riadenie vesmíru pred samotnou prírodou alebo ich ontologicky oddeľujú od prírody. Pojem *„naturalizmus"* sa stal za minulé desaťročia súborným označením pre celkom odlišné filozofické pozície. Zohráva/l dôležitú úlohu v teórii poznania, filozofii ducha, vedeckej teórii, religióznej filozofii, v metafyzike/ontológii a aj v etike. Precízna definícia pojmu sa však objavuje len zriedkavo. Veľa autorov sa na miesto toho sústreďuje na sumarizáciu a kritickú diskusiu jednotlivých pozícií označených ako naturalistických. Ak sa ale napriek významovej rozmanitosti pojmu pokúsime identifikovať niektoré centrálne charakteristiky naturalistických pozícií, narazíme na nasledovný bod: v protiklade ku klasickým pozíciám ako napr. etickému naturalizmu, ktorý patrí k najstarším filozofickým interpretačným programom morálky, je pre *moderný naturalizmus* – od konca 19. stor.- *centrálnym pojmom veda*, nie príroda. Táto charakteristika moderného naturalizmu je výsledkom úpadku dejín *„kvalitatívneho pojmu prírody",* na ktorého konci je na prírodu nahliadané ako na predmet empirickej (…) vedy. Zodpovedajúc tomuto centrovaniu je pre moderných naturalistov typické, že prírodovedcom, resp. ich teoretickým a praktickým východiskám, preukazujú rešpekt, úctu a relevanciu, to znamená, že význam prírodných vied klasifikujú v porovnaní *s* a *pre* iné disciplíny ako *veľmi vysoký.* Na základe veľkého úspechu prírodných vied pri výskume a vysvetlení sveta by mali - podľa ich argumentácie - filozofi akceptovať, aký enormný význam majú prírodné vedy pre filozofiu[3].

Tento postoj bol aktuálny u jedného z najvýznamnejších filozofov 20. storočia, J. Deweyho. Filozof zdôrazňoval, že problém človeka spočíva v pochopení toho, čo znamená objektívnosť na báze naturalizmu; akým spôsobom je morálka objektívna a pritom sekulárna a sociálna. Človek je súčasťou prírodného a táto skutočnosť redefinuje projekt filozofie. Predbežne a veľmi všeobecne možno naturalizmus charakterizovať ako metodologický princíp. Ekológovia rovnako ako filozofickí naturalisti tvrdia, že všetky reálne veci sú objaviteľné rovnakými metódami a sú opísateľné rovnakým jazykom. Rozdiely sú v názore na konečné usporiadanie samotnej prírody.

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jeho interakcie s prostredím. Výskumy v biológii ukazujú, že vnútorné morálne priestory existujú a môžu byť presnejšie definované. Sú imanentné v unikátnych programoch mozgu, ktoré vznikli v priebehu evolúcie. Ukazuje sa, že ľudský duševný vývoj je oveľa bohatší a štruktúrovanejší než sa pôvodne predpokladalo. To oslabuje pôvodne absolútny rozdiel medzi tým čo je a tým čo by malo byť - v oblasti morálno-filozofickej reflexie (pozri: http://www.jstor.org/stable/3750474: Michael Ruse a Edward O. Wilson: Moral Philosophy as Applied Science. In. Moral Philosophy as Applied Science. Source: Philosophy, Vol. 61, No. 236 (1986), pp. 173-192).

[3] Evoluční naturalisti adekvátne formulujú, že určitá prírodná veda – evolučná biológia (ale aj transdisciplinárne neurovedy), má veľký význam pre etiku (ako aj zvýšenie záujmu o empirický výskum morálky). Čo presne je myslené veľkým významom evolučnej teórie pre etiku a aké konzekvencie sa z nej vyvodzujú? Alebo spočíva význam evolučnej teórie omnoho viac v tom, že predkladá špecifickú *metódu*, ktorá by mala napomáhať zodpovedaniu etických otázok (najmä metaetických), prípadne že disponuje určitými *empirickými dátami*, ktoré by do etickej argumentácie mali byť zahrnuté? Alebo ide len o to, uznať pokroky, ktoré evoluční teoretici urobili za posledné desaťročia vo výskume ľudskej morálky? Ak chce naturalizmus v súčasnosti zastávať zaujímavú filozofickú pozíciu, musí byť viac ako len prejav solidarity a rešpektu voči prírodným vedám. Práve tak ani vágna téza o tom, že vo svete všetko smeruje k dobru, a v tom zahrnuté odmietnutie akéhokoľvek druhu viery v zázraky, obskurantizmus a okultizmus nemôže umožniť naturalizmu byť ´substančnou´ filozofickou pozíciu. Ak nemôže evolučný naturalizmus v etike spočívať iba v uznaní doterajšieho úspechu evolučnej teórie, v čom presne teda ale spočíva (zdá sa) veľký význam evolučnej teórie pre etiku a v akom význame sa hovorí o „naturalizácii morálnej filozofie"? Aby sme mohli túto otázku zodpovedať, je užitočné nahliadnuť do debát ohľadom naturalizmu a preskúmať, aké rôzne *typy naturalizačných projektov* môžeme rozlišovať (viac: Vladyková, Ľ.: *Úvod do evolučnej etiky – vybrané problémy evolučnej etiky*. rukopis).

Názor, známy ako *vedecký realizmus*[4] tvrdí, že príroda objektívne existuje nezávisle od jej percepcie. Pozorovanie umožňuje odhaliť zákony, ktorými sa prírodné systémy riadia. Veda a vedecké fakty nie sú výsledkom konštruovania, ale odhaľujú skutočnosť, resp. sú schopné dosahovať objektívne pravdivú reprezentáciu sveta. V prospech tohto postoja existuje niekoľko argumentov (Černík – Viceník 2004: 86-87), z ktorých možno pre potreby tejto štúdie zvlášť spomenúť *biologickú motiváciu*: realizmus je nevyhnutný pre biologické prežitie – musíme reálne poznať a do istej miery adekvátne modelovať svoje prostredie, svoj životný habitát – prírodu. Tento filozofický základ, ktorý ekológia zdieľa s ostatnými prírodnými vedami, je metafyzicko-epistemologický realizmus. Je to názor, že existujú modely alebo pravidelnosti v prírode, ktoré existujú nezávisle od percipienta. Tieto modely sú človekom do určitej miery objektívne poznateľné. Ekológia sa snaží rozpoznať tieto modely. Spolu s geológiou a fyzikálnou geografiou študuje prírodu priamo ako sa prezentuje človeku. Pozorovanie modelov sa stáva základom vypracovania hypotéz, ktoré sa testujú metódami tzv. normálnej vedy. Zatiaľ čo sa ekológovia nezhodujú v názore na podstatu prírody, je zhoda v predstave, že v prírode existujú modely, ktoré sú viac než iba pojmovými kategóriami.

Iný názor – názor *spoločenského kontextualizmu alebo konštrukcionizmu* – tvrdí, že to, čo vedec ´objaví´ v prírode je vlastne interpretáciou závislou od kultúrne podmienenej orientácie, tradícií a presvedčenia vedca. Fundamentom je tu myšlienka, že vedecké poznanie je len konštruované prostredníctvom spoločenských procesov a každému vedeckému faktu patrí sociálno-technická história. Tento názor popularizujú ´post/štrukturalistickí´ myslitelia a nesporne najslávnejšou konštruktivistickou štúdiou je *Laboratory Life: Social Construction of Scientific Facts* (1979; 1986) B. Latoura a S. Woolgara. Podľa ich tvrdení existencia vedeckého faktu má zmysel a význam na základe kontextu, v ktorom sa použije a jeho premena z tvrdenia na vedecký fakt je reverzibilná, tzn. realita môže byť tiež dekonštruovaná.[5] Táto pozícia má abstraktnú povahu. Je to výskumný program, ktorý od nás žiada, aby sme dôkladne preskúmali tvrdenia, že niečo ako ´príroda´ skutočne funguje ako počiatok alebo základ spoločenského, a aby sme ich podrobili dôkladnej dekonštrukcii s cieľom odhaliť spoločenské procesy, ktoré môžu byť skryté pod týmto substrátom. Proti tomuto tvrdeniu možno namietať tézou: aj keď celá krajina alebo jej veľká časť bezpochyby vykazuje znaky spoločenskej činnosti, jediné čo ľudia robia, je *pretváranie, nie utváranie sveta.*

Zdá sa, že ´tvrdý´ spoločenský konštruktivizmus je kontroverzný. Vyplýva to z tvrdení, že akýkoľvek *význam* pripisovaný prírode je produktom spoločnosti. Aj keď veľká, alebo prevažná časť významu, ktorý nachádzame v prírode – idylický raj či bezútešná pustatina, kde život je „osamelý, úbohý, odporný, surový a krátky“ – má spoločenský základ, sme toho názoru, že príroda má aj mimosubjektívny a transkultúrny význam, ktorý ľudia (zdá sa)

[4] Vo vedeckom realizme existuje spoločný základ vyjadrený epistemicky pozitívnym postojom k výstupom vedeckého skúmania - pokiaľ ide o pozorovateľné aj nepozorovateľné aspekty sveta.

[5] V štúdii *Laboratory Life: Social Construction of Scientific Facts* (1979, 1986) B. Latoura a S. Woolgara sa autori zamerali na skúmanie histórie existencie faktoru uvoľňujúceho thyrotropin (TRF(H). Latour a Woolgar tvrdia, že (TRF(H) má význam podľa kontextu, v ktorom sa použije. Jednoducho má odlišný význam pre lekárov, pre bádateľov, pre endokrinológov atď. Má iný zmysel pre tých, ktorí strávia celý profesionálny život štúdiom TRF(H) a iný pre tých, ktorí ho využívajú ako nástroj pre prípravu biologických vzoriek v rámci experimentov v čiastkových odboroch. To je jeden z dôvodov, prečo autori zdôrazňujú, že zmena tvrdení na fakt je reverzibilná, tzn. realita môže byť dekonštruovaná. V inej súvislosti - podľa B. Latoura zvlášť podnecujúcej - je archeológia novej praxe fabrikácie predmetov, zrodená v 17. storočí v laboratóriu. Ide o predmety bez vôle a predsudku, nie-ľudské súcna „no pripisuje sa im zmysel"; sú to hybridy „medzi tisícročným štýlom biblickej exegézy - dovtedy používaným výlučne na Písmo sväté a klasikov - a novým prístrojom, ktorý produkuje nové zápisy" (Nikdy sme neboli moderní. Bratislava, Kalligram 2003, s. 40). Nové nie-ľudské súcna sú sociálne i asociálne a Latour ich považuje za *tricksters* porovnávacej antropológie a cez túto trhlinu vstupuje veda a technika ako niečo záhadné a fascinujúce, odlišujúce západnú kultúru od všetkých ostatných.

dokážu rozlíšiť. Preto vedecká ekológia je v určitom zmysle v rozpore so spoločenským konštruktivizmom. Spoločenský konštruktivizmus popiera, že slová *príroda* a *divá príroda* majú nejaký objektívny, transkultúrny význam. Konštruktivizmus nemá problém s chápaním fyzických procesov, existujúcich nezávisle od ľudského vnímania, podľa tohto konceptu sémantika slova *príroda* (napr. idylická či ohrozujúca, vyvážená alebo chaotická) je spoločensky determinovaná. Konštruktivizmus sa rozvíjal jednak vplyvom kritickej teórie Frankfurtskej školy (Lukács, Horkheimer, Adorno a Habermas) ako aj vplyvom ´poštštrukturalizmu´ (Derrida, Lyotard, Deleuze, Foucault). Pre poštštrukturalizmus je typická predstava neuzavretej a decentralizovanej štruktúry. Konštrukcionisti sa pýtajú: ako sa získavajú rôzne koncepcie „prírody", informácie z rôznych historických a kultúrnych perspektív? Perspektíva je spojením viacerých faktorov: biologického, spoločenského, náboženského. Sila a vplyv týchto faktorov sa nesmie podceňovať, pokiaľ ide o ich účinok na vnímanie reality. Podľa konštrukcionizmu západní vedci nepredstavujú v tomto smere žiadnu výnimku.

Výskumy potvrdzujú , že ľudské bytosti nie sú schopné epistemologickej objektivity *sub specie aeternitatis*. Ľudské poznanie je časovo i priestorovo podmienené. Avšak je možná určitá konvergencia názorov, pretože individuálni pozorovatelia majú podobné skúsenosti. Preto objektívnosť (v zmysle *extrasubjektiovity*) je v prírodných vedách možná (Williams 1985). Vedecká prax vždy v sebe obsahuje subjektívnu zložku, ale rozvoj vedeckej praxe v 21. storočí implikuje *umiernený* vedecký realizmus. I keď nie je veľa ekológov tvrdiacich, že ekológia je úplne objektívna záležitosť zbavená kultúrnych predsudkov, väčšina ekológov sa domnieva, že existujú zásadné aspekty prírody, ktoré sú prístupné bádateľom. Táto myšlienka neznamená, že prírodu môžeme spoznať vo *všetkých* jej atribútoch, ani že je jednoduchá a deterministická. Ekologický výskum demonštruje komplexnosť a nedeterminovanosť prírodných systémov. Ako uvádzajú D. R. Keller a F. B. Golley (eds. 2000: 2):

> *pozerať sa na svet vedecky je ako pozerať sa na svet cez slnečné okuliare: farba šošoviek ako kultúrny filter, cez ktorý každý vedec nazerá na svet, pridáva kvalitu svetu, ktorá nie je vo svete obsiahnutá. Svet nie je zelený, žltý či ružový. Šošovky môžu nejasné vzdialené predmety zobrazovať ostro alebo nejasné blízke objekty môžu zobrazovať ostro. Ale časť obrazu je obrazom sveta, ako existuje nezávisle od ľudského pozorovania.*

Z uvedeného vyplýva, že dôsledný vedecký realizmus nie je z ľudského hľadiska možný, ale umiernený realizmus možný je.

Potrebujeme potvrdiť realitu prírody, čo je nevyhnutnou kotvou pre akúkoľvek skutočne hlbokú ekologicko-etickú teóriu schopnú pochopiť, porozumieť a pomôcť riešiť súčasnú ekologickú krízu. Príroda je niečo, čo treba zachovať a obhajovať pre ňu samu. Filozofia ekológie a ekologická etika musia začať tým, že odkryjú a porozumejú tomuto problémovému okruhu otázok a uvedomia si existenčno-habitačný imperatív prírody.

Aj keď nie je nič morálno-filozofické v prírode[6] (ako by mohol tvrdiť D. Hume a ako to tvrdil J. Habermas) a na otázku: *je príroda etická?* zvyčajne odpovedáme, že ide *o premietnutie určitých kritérií z antropocentrickej etiky na prírodu a odpovede sú neempirické, závislé od*

[6] Príroda nám nemôže poskytnúť nijaké morálno-filozofické normy, ale je výzvou pre filozofiu a etiku budúcnosti: príroda sa stala morálne neutrálnou surovinou ľudského plánovania. Prinajmenšom pokiaľ ide o zásahy do neživej prírody a zásahy do fenotypovej štruktúry mimoľudských tvorov, panuje príslušný a ďalekosiahly konsenzus: „Príroda nie je nedotknuteľná. Smie a má sa vyviesť zo seba (über sich selbs hinausgeführt), čo je v súlade so starým motívom osvietenstva: má sa zdokonaľovať" (Ruse 1993: 145). Kontroverzná je otázka, či príslušné zásahy sú opodstatnené - alebo morálne akceptovateľné.

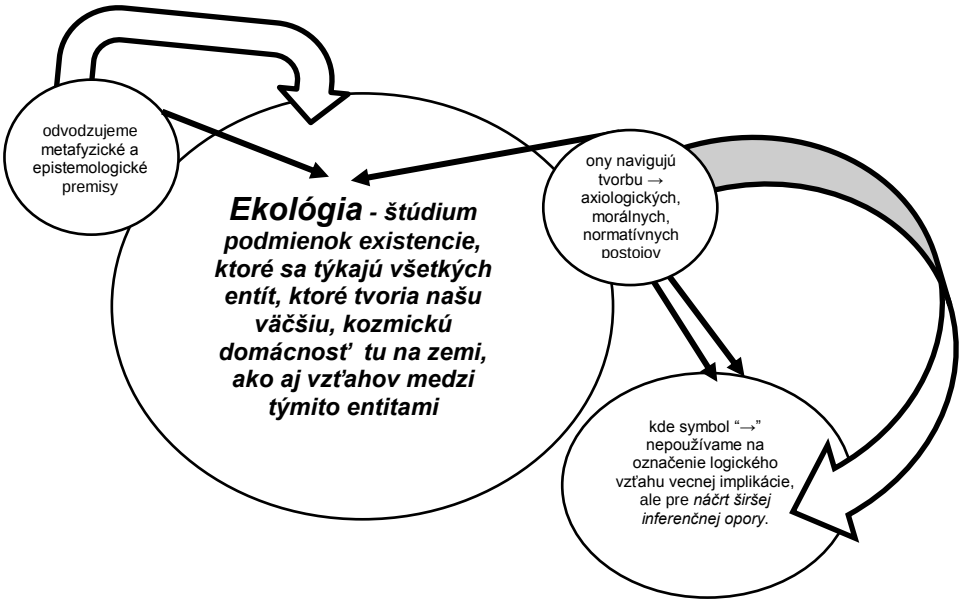
kultúrou podmienených definícií, takže pravdepodobne nemôžu byť definitívne. Príroda však bola *vždy eticky interpretovaná*, a preto nemohla slúžiť ako arbiter rozhodujúci o rôznych interpretáciách, pretože „…vždy sa zúčastňujeme na tom, čo opisujeme“ (Skolimowski 1999: 26). Týmto zúčastňovaním sa mení naša rola nezúčastneného pozorovateľa na pozorovateľa zahrnutého do svojich výpovedí:

> *Dôkazy nemožnosti alebo neexistencie (v teórii relativity, kvantovej mechanike alebo termodynamike) svedčia o tom, že prírodu nemožno opisovať zvonku, z pozície diváka (z pozície nazerajúceho). Opis prírody je živý dialóg, komunikácia, ktorá je podriadená tomu, že sme makroskopické bytosti, pohrúžené do reálneho fyzikálneho sveta* (Prigogine 1984: 299-300).

2. Perspektíva vo vzdelávaní

Napriek tomu, že existuje veľké množstvo časopisov a publikačných aktivít venujúcich sa empirickému výskumu ekologických vied, napr. *Environmental Science in Europe, Journal of Environment* a i., doposiaľ neexistuje na Slovensku etablovaná oblasť v aplikovanej alebo praktickej filozofii a neexistuje odborný časopis, ktorý by sa špeciálne venoval skúmaniu morálno-filozofických rozmerov ekologickej oblasti a laboratórneho výskumu[7]. Absencia takejto oblasti či fóra je o to výraznejšia, ak zoberieme do úvahy odborný profil a takmer všadeprítomnosť bioetických inštitúcií. Ekológovia, filozofi, ekologickí etici a manažéri z oblasti biodiverzity potrebujú porovnateľné fórum – tzn. nové vedecké a odborné pole – pre systematickú identifikáciu a objasnenie filozofických, etických a morálnych otázok a na prediskutovanie a výmenu myšlienok o spôsobe riešenia etických otázok, ktoré so sebou prináša skúmanie, zložitý terén pri uskutočňovaní svojej práce v rôznych kontextoch, vrátane štátnych a súkromných ochranárskych zariadení (napr. zoo, akvária, botanické záhrady, parkov a národných chránených oblastí, ako aj miestnych spoločenstiev).

Ekológia nie je len veda, je to aj pohľad na svet navigujúci metafyzické, epistemologické a etické premisy (viď.: obrázok):



[7] Pozoruhodným (v tejto súvislosti) je zamyslenie v štúdii J. Lejmana *: Ekológia, súčasná biológie a polské ekologické myšlení*. In. B 50-2003. Sborník prací FF MU. Studia Philosophica.

Rastliny a zvieratá sú vnútorne prepojené, tvoria sieť[8]. Manipulácia s nimi môže mať neočakávané a často nežiaduce dôsledky. Objavovovali(jú) sa hlasy, že ekológia nemá žiadny vzťah k tomu, čo je dobré a čo zlé, teda nemá vzťah k morálno-filozofickej reflexii. Dogma, že veda a filozofia patria do samostatných ´vesmírov´ diskurzu, bola základným pilierom filozofie modernity a prerozdelenia. Fakty a hodnoty, filozofia a veda, boli nepriedušne uzavreté priestory myslenia a reči. Preto samotná myšlienka, že ekológia môže byť súčasťou morálno-filozofického pohľadu na väzby človeka a prírody, vyvolávala/va starý prízrak ´dichotómie´.

Pod vplyvom protoekologického vedeckého redukcionizmu a atomizmu, sme chápali prirodzené prostredie ako abiotickú skladačku - z neživého povrchu, na ktorom sú rastliny, zvieratá, rôzne organizmy a prírodné entity - usporiadané ako nábytok na podlahe veľkej miestnosti. Aby sme boli spokojní s tým, ako žiť s ´nábytkom Zeme´, tak ako bol/je usporiadaný, mohli by sme ho usporiadať lepšie tak, že odstránime niektoré druhy a importujeme iné/vhodnejšie (napr. domestifikácia zvierat a i.). Prísne vzaté: ide o usporiadanie organizmov ´externe súvisiacich´ s ich neživým prostredím.

Ako teda môžeme podporovať filozofické a etické hľadisko ekológie? Prvým krokom je pochopenie nášho miesta v prírode. Ale to je iba začiatok, ako sa domnieval R. Rorty. Lebo „...naša morálna dôstojnosť - náš zmysel pre morálne práva a povinnosti, pre jedinečnosť nášho druhu - nie je v nijakom rozpore s vedeckým poznaním...“ a „okrem slovníkov na predvídanie a regulovanie – slovníkov prírodných vied – sú tu ešte slovníky nášho morálneho a politického života, umenia a všetkých ľudských aktivít, v ktorých nejde o predvídanie a regulovanie, ale skôr o vytvorenie takého obrazu človeka, ktorý je dôstojný ľudského druhu. Taký obraz nie je pravdivým alebo nepravdivým opisom ľudskej podstaty, pretože jednou zo základných čŕt našej výlučnosti je práve to, že vieme klásť otázky o pravde a nepravde“ (1992: 78-79).

Masívna celosvetová integrácia za posledné dve desaťročia objasnila *vzájomnú závislosť* všetkých sfér ľudskej činnosti: *žijeme v jednom planetárnom ekosystéme* pozostávajúcom z širokého spektra sociálno-ekologických subsystémov. Táto vzájomná závislosť je viditeľná horizontálne prostredníctvom vplyvu každej oblasti ľudskej činnosti - ekonomickej, sociálnej, ekologickej, environmentálnej - na všetky ostatné, ako aj vertikálne prostredníctvom vzájomného vzťahu rôznorodých stupňov skalárnosti - od miestnych po globálne. Diskusie o výzvach vo vysokoškolskom vzdelávaní majú tendenciu pozerať sa dovnútra, zameriavajú sa na také otázky, ako je internacionalizácia, autonómia a riadenie, kvalita a uznanie, akademické kariéry, nábor študentov, financovanie. Okrem iného to zahŕňa prípravu študentov na dešifrovanie rozdielov medzi informáciami, vedomosťami a naučiť ich, ako riešiť neistotu a nejednoznačnosť v nestabilnom svete. Znamená to pomôcť študentom vyhľadávať, syntetizovať a aplikovať poznatky z rôznych zdrojov a rôznych kultúrnych zázemí na pochopenie zložitých problémov. Je dôležité ukazovať študentom ako môžu, resp. majú integrovať pocity, hodnoty a emócie s faktami. To je úloha ´konziliencie´ prírodných, humanitných a spoločenských vied. Vysokoškolské vzdelávanie – napríklad prostredníctvom internacionalizácie, môže zohrať dôležitú úlohu pri realizácii prosociálnych a proprírodných ašpirácií do vedomostí, výskumu a pedagogiky, ktoré umožňujú

[8] B. Latour zameriava pozornosť na siete (podľa autora ohybnejšie a empirickejšie ako komplexita) - siete prírody, politiky a diskurzu, resp. vedeckej práce, sociálnych procesov, faktov, moci. Siete - vytvárajúce „prekladový" súbor praxi. Siete umožňujúce vytvárať „prekrývaním" praxe očisťovania a praxe sprostredkovania - prekrytia spoločnosti a prírody - celkom nové zmesi hybridov. Spájajú (zmiešavajú) kvázisubjekty s kváziobjektmi, resp. pól prírody a mimoľudských súcen a pól spoločnosti (ľudia medzi sebou). V sieti nadobúdajú význam tak entity ako aj ich relácie. Sieť j e reálna, diskurzívna, naratívna, historická, nestabilná (mení sa na základe aktuálnych relácií), existenciálna; je „príbytkom, kde je dosť miesta pre Ríšu stredu... spoločný dom pre nie-moderný svet i nie-modernú Ústavu" (in. *Nikdy sme neboli moderní*. Kalligram. 2003: 118).

absolventom stať sa agentmi sociálnej transformácie[9]. Oblasť internacionalizácie je ako novým trendom VŠ vzdelávania, s ktorým máme konkrétne skúsenosti aj na UPJŠ v Košiciach[10].

Zdá sa, že v prvom rade musíme pestovať evolučno-ekologickú[11] - resp. ekologickú gramotnosť[12]. Najdôležitejšie objavy 21. storočia nie sú v oblasti vedy, lekárstva alebo technológie, ale skôr v rozširovaní povedomia o hraniciach sveta a o tom, ako tieto obmedzenia ovplyvnia ľudský vývoj. Ľudstvo sa dostalo na križovatku, kde sa stretávajú rôzne ekologické hrozby, čo vyžaduje udržateľný rozvoj. Zatiaľ čo sa veľká pozornosť venovala tomu ako vlády, korporácie, verejné služby, medzinárodné agentúry a súkromní občania môžu urobiť aby pomohli pri prechode k udržateľnosti, bolo málo uvažované o tom čo môžu školy, vysoké školy a univerzity urobiť v tejto oblasti. Keď sa zdravie planéty naďalej zhoršuje, je dôležité, aby sme vzdelávali a vychovávali ekogramotných občanov. Človek, ktorý je šetrný k životnému prostrediu, je niekto, kto "...uskutočňuje informované rozhodnutia týkajúce sa životného prostredia; je ochotný zotrvať na týchto rozhodnutiach ... a aktívne sa zúčastňuje občianskeho života" (Hollweg et al.: 2011). Ľudia však majú nedostatočné a odborne nepodložené znalosti o etike, ekológii a životnom prostredí. "Všetko vzdelávanie je ekologické a environmentálne vzdelávanie," (D. Orr: 2004). Ekologická kríza je v každom prípade krízou vzdelávania. Vzdelávacie západné tradície od Platóna k J. Deweyovi, definovali dobré vzdelanie nielen ako zvládnutie predmetu, ale aj ako kultivovanie hodnôt. Vzdelanie jednoznačne súvisí s nadčasovou otázkou *ako máme žiť* - aký by mal byť spôsob života, o ktorý by sme sa mali usilovať – teda tvorí *kontinuum* s filozofiou a etikou. Takmer svojvoľné uplatňovanie pojmu environmentálna gramotnosť vyústilo do rozdielneho

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[9] Možno nie celkom konzistentne si dovolíme malú odbočku: J. Haidt a J. Craig porovnávali práce o ľudských univerzáliach, kultúrnych odlišnostiach v morálke a vytvorili zoznam *univerzálnych morálnych modulov*. O. i. to, čo obidvaja pokladajú za morálne základy rôznych spoločnosti je veľmi rozsiahle, ale jednu zo zásadných úloh zohráva kultúra „*politicky liberálnych univerzít*“ (viac pozri: Gazzaniga 2013: 156).

[10] Autorka tohto príspevku je koordinujúcou expertkou workshopu "*Eticko-ekologická a environmentálna profilácia odborníkov pre spoločenskú prax - ekogramotnosť*" v rámci implementácie projektu "*Internacionalizácia, interdisciplinarita a inovácia vysokoškolského vzdelávania na UPJŠ – 2017/19*". V rámci projektu pozývame medzinárodných expertov, ktorí realizujú interdisciplinárne workshopy, zamerané na študentov (štúdijne a vedné odbory) všetkých fakúlt UPJŠ. Workshopy reflektujú nové trendy zo sveta vedy s dôrazom na inter/transdisciplinaritu, inými slovami, témy sú zaujímavé a zrozumiteľné pre všetky vedné odbory na UPJŠ.

[11] Evolučno-ontologický fundament k tejto téme nájdeme v pozoruhodných publikačných aktivitách profesora J. Šmajsa (napr. *Drama evoluce*. Hynek: Praha. 2000).

[12] *Ekologická gramotnosť, resp. vzdelávanie na báze eko-gramotnosti*, by malo mať dvojitý cieľ: predstaviť študentom paletu myšlienkových systémov (sústav ideí - pracovná charakteristika konceptu sústavy ideí: (i) poskytuje pojmový aparát a súbor konceptov, ktoré umožňujú opísať istý predmet, (ii) poskytuje materiál, na základe ktorého možno *budovať teórie* o tomto predmete a (iii) podáva dosť obsiahly opis svojho predmetu na to, aby vytvorila samostatný *uhol pohľadu*, ktorý, ak ho prijmeme, (aspoň na určitý čas) vylučuje všetky ostatné uhly pohľadu) - ale zároveň ich zoznámiť s ich obmedzeniami. Neexistuje žiadna prísne usporiadaná sústava ´ekologických myšlienok´, avšak študent rôznych odvetví techniky, ekológie alebo enviromentalistiky si musí osvojiť koncepty z oblastí ako je ekológia, fyziológia, geomorfológia či chémia. Ak rozšírime oblasť skúmania na vplyv človeka na krajinu a živé organizmy (ekológia človeka a i.), musí začať zohladňovať etické, filozofické, psychologické, ekonomické, politické a sociologické pohľady. Môžeme uvažovať nad spôsobmi ako zručnosti študentov fyziky, strojárstva či architektúry môžu byť aplikované na enviromentálne témy. Títo študenti by napríklad mohli absolvovať predmety zamerané na analýzu biologických vzoriek či evolučný dizajn vyučované za pomoci terminológie, s ktorou sú už oboznámení. Podobne, študenti ekonomických predmetov by mohli byť obohatení predmetmi o environmentálnom dopade priemyslu. A nakoniec, študentom humanitných vied by mohli byť ponúknuté predmety zaoberajúce sa hodnotami a prístupmi k ochrane prírody. Takáto zmena osnov by bola nielen prínosná a ľahko zakomponovateľná do súčasných štruktúr vyššieho vzdelávania, ale bola by aj ľahko prispôsobiteľná jednotlivým cieľovým skupinám. Sieť rozšírenia disciplinárnych oblastí sa darí realizovať napr. v študijnom programe Aplikovaná etika (št. plán odboru Aplikovaná etika na Katedre aplikovanej etiky FF UPJS v Košiciach - schválený pre akademický rok 2017/2018 to jasne deklaruje – jeho súčasťou sú o. i. predmety: Úvod do ekologických vied, Filozofia ekológie, Ekologická etika).

vnímania tohto pojmu, a rôzne skupiny teoretikov a akademikov v oblasti humanitných, spoločenských a prírodných vied často používajú/li tento termín ´tak teoreticky ´uvoľnene´, že sa stráca náznak toho, čo vlastne znamenajú. Pojmy environmentálna gramotnosť, ekologická gramotnosť sa používajú v mnohých rôznych spôsoboch a/alebo sú tak obsiahle, že majú málo využiteľný didaktický význam v rôzne orientovanej literatúre (napr. Roth: 1992; Evernden: 1992; Stables and Bishop: 2001; Orr: 2004; Payne: 2006; Capra: 2004; Powers, 2010; P. Eliáš, 2013; J. a i.). Ekologická gramotnosť sa pýta, ako objavenie konečnosti ovplyvňuje obsah a podstatu vzdelávania, ohľadom hraníc Zeme; čo by mali ľudia vedieť a ako by sa mali vzdelávať a vychovávať? Naša civilizácia čelí vzrušujúcej a významnej výzve, ktorá je jednou z najhlbších v jej histórii: zlovestná možnosť ekologického kolapsu. Naše úsilie o vybudovanie dlhodobo udržateľného sveta nemôže uspieť, pokiaľ sa budúce generácie nedokážu učiť, ako spolupracovať s prírodnými systémami, aby sme dosiahli náš spoločný prospech. Inými slovami, ľudia sa musia stať ´ekologicky gramotnými. Pracujeme na transformácii našej ´globálnej dediny´ fascinovanej často si odporujúcimi insitnými mytológiami dedenými od dávno mŕtvych demagógov, ktorí žili v temnote nevedomosti mnoho storočí predtým, než veda vrhla svetlo na to, kto sme, odkiaľ sme prišli, a kde a ako môžeme žiť. Šírenie ekologickej gramotnosti a filozofické a etické dôsledky ekologického pohľadu na svet boli a sú hlavnou úlohou súčasnej generácie filozofie ekológie[13], ekologickej etiky[14] a s nimi súvisiacej ekologickej gramotnosti. Prevádzanie vedomosti do politiky a praxe je/bude naším ďalším krokom.

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[13] V najvšeobecnejšom význame je *filozofia ekológie* filozofickým štúdiom (a) ekologických fenoménov/javov; (b) disciplín, ktoré študujú ekologické javy. ´Ekologické javy´ študujú rôzne disciplíny ekológie. Problém je v tom, že pojem ´ekológia´ je používaný rôznymi spôsobmi v rôznych kontextoch. *Filozofiu ekológie* chápeme ako *sféru angažujúcu konkrétny a priamy spôsob ekologického a humanitno-vedného výskumu a riadenia*. Tento prístup by mal celkom prirodzene čerpať z filozofických teórií a princípov, ktoré sa etablovali v teoretickej filozofii, aplikovanej filozofii a aplikovanej etike (napr. v bioetike, etike zvierat, ekologickej etike a environmentálnej etike). Celkovo má širší rámec a integruje oveľa širšiu oblasť než ktorákoľvek z uvedených oblastí a subdisciplín. Výskumná agenda (svojou povahou interdisciplinárna) môže byť efektívna za predpokladu, že bude výsledkom organizovaných a sústavných diskurzov, prebiehajúcich naprieč prírodnými vedami, spoločenskými vedami, humanitnými vedami a ochranárskymi sférami (viac pozri: Vladyková, Ľ. *Úvod do filozofie ekológie*. ActaFacultátis. 2015).

[14] Ekologická etika je s*pôsobom aplikácie normatívnej etiky* na určitý súbor praktických (problémových) otázok, ale zároveň predstavuje aj *nový spôsob realizácie normatívnej etiky* vo všeobecnosti. Je oblasťou interdisciplinárneho skúmania a premýšľania vzťahu človeka a prírody. Podnetom pre tento *problémovo* orientovaný typ aplikovanej etiky bola emergentná ekologická situácia; vplyvom masívnej technizácie a neuvážených technologických zásahov sa začali prejavovať známky ireverzibilného poškodzovania biosféry. Paradigmatickým východiskom ekologickej etiky je *etika Zeme* Alda Leopolda, ktorý rozšíril predmet etiky tak, aby mohol zahŕňať aj vzťahy človeka k prírodnému svetu a mimoľudským entitám. A. Leopold rozvinul ekologickú etiku v súvislosti s modernou ekológiou (viac pozri: Vladyková, Ľ. *Etika o vzťahu človeka a Zeme*. ActaFacultatis. 2013).

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CZECHOSLOVAK´S MILITARY MISSIONS IN THE LATIN AMERICA DURING THE INTERWAR PERIOD

Vít Rouč

Abstract

The main target of the article is the description of Czechoslovak military missions in Latin America during the interwar period. The article describes chosen conflicts – between Colombia and Peru and others Bolivia and Paraguay. The article demonstrates the geopolitical development of these conflists and activities and the interests of Czechoslovakia too. By the metodological site it is used a historical description and the analyse of archive documents from Ministry of Foreign affaires of the Czech Republic. Other sources cover specialized books and articles by authors as J. Opatrný, B.Baďura or F. Hrbata – famous Czech historians and iberoamericanists.

Key words*: Czechoslovakia, military mission, Bolivia, Paraguay, Colombia, Peru, Klecanda, Plaček*

1. Introduction

The interwar period was very important in the history of international relations. The international system was changed by the results of the first world war. One of its results was the forming of a new state called Czechoslovakia. In the past a former part of the Austro-Hungarian empire. Names as T. G. Masaryk, M. Štefánik or E. Beneš are the most important from this view. One of the most important condition for the forming of the independent Czechoslovakia was the existence of the voluntary army. This army fought together with states of „Dohoda“ during the first world war. Fighting results of these men brought the indipendence for the nations of Czechs and Slovaks in the independent state.

A strong and modern army was the base of the independent Czechoslovakia in the future. The next very important reason was the existence of the strong military industry. The name of Škoda was very known in the world. And other names were ČKD, Brněnská zbrojovka etc. Production of the Czechoslovak weapons was very hudge. From pistols to guns, airplains and tanks too. These weapons were very requested in the world.

Latin America was not an unknown territory in Czechoslovak. Relations between our countries and Latin America. They are dated from the 16th and 17th centuries. In the 19th century for example, a lot of Czech men fought in Mexico during the existence of the Second Mexican empire.

During the interwar period the name of Czechoslovakia had a good sound in the latinamerican countries because Czechoslovakia had not a colonial background. In some countries Czechoslovak communities lived too. A lot of members of these communities were very sucefful and rich persons with political and economical influence. Their positions were very important for the Czechoslovak diplomacy in this region too.

But Latin America had a lot of problems during the interwar period - political, economical, social and geopolitical too. The last mentioned – geopolitical problems- had the iniciation in the 19th century when the independent latinoamerican states were found. The frontiers were not exactly admeasured in a lot of examples in the past. This fact was the main reason of a lot of conflicts in the Latin America during 19th and the first part of the 20th century.

The main target of the article is the description of the participation of Czechoslovak´s military missions in chosen geopolitical conflicts during the interwar period. Metodology of the article is the historical description and analyses of documents from the Archive of

Ministry of Foreign affaires of the Czech Republic. As the next sources will be used proffesional books and articles of the authors as J. Opatrný, J. Šouša, Z. Veselý and next others.

2. Colombian-peru border conflict

The border conflict between Columbia and Peru culminated during 30th years in the 20th century. The border was formed by the Salomon-Lozan contract in the year 1928.[1] In the end of 1932 in Peruan´s department fake news was spred, that Colombia wants to close the transport on the river of the Amazona. This situation could interrupt the merchant connection of this area with the rest of Peru. Peru occupied the colombian´s area named Leticia. It was very a coplicated situation for Colombia because it´s military wasn´t prepared. The Peruan army had five modern divisions, a modern battle airforce and five battle ships on the sea. But Colombia in the same time had only prepared airforce and two battle ships. Peruan´s officers had modern skills and were reorganized too. Colombia had only one important target in this situation: „To hold battlefront in the forests of western areas, the ports Caucaya-La Tagua, to close the enter to Putumayo from Brazil in the east, to protect battlefront of Putumayo, to protect border with Ecuador in Cordilleras, to hold ports of Tumaco and Buenaventura on the Pacific coast. The military and navy mobilization to be finished.“ [2]

The conflict was solved by the USA, by other latinoamerican countries and by resolution of the League of Nations too. The peace agreement was signed in Rio de Janeiro on 2nd November 1934. During next years technical problems with the determination of borders were solved. The border was finaly formed in the year 1938 and bouth states opened customs office. This agreement was made 10th May in Bogota. It came into force on 10th december 1938.[3]

The Czechoslovak military mission was sent as the one instrument of solving of this problem. Division general Vojtěch Klecanda was the head of this military mission. This mission was held during 1st March to 31 October 1934. The main target of general Klecanda was the modernization of the Colombian army, consultative activities in Colombian military headquarters. General Klecanda represented and propagated Czechoslovak factories, especially factory of Škoda. General Klecanda was very succeful in Colombia by his military skills and stance too. During his activities in Colombia he was interested in economic, political and social situation too. He described his experiences from the way in the book named „Sons of conquerors“. During his stay in Colombia he visited Ecuador and Venezuela too. [4] His skills and attitude made him a lot of friends from Colombian higt society. These friendships formed a better position for Czechoslovak factories on Colombian market. At the first these contacts were important for military industry. One of the most important contract for the Czechoslovak military industry was the offer (October 1937) to airplane factory Letov in Prague for sending the offer on airplanes types Š 328 and Š 528 and metal propellers too. [5]

Czechoslovakia exported the most ground weapons to Colombia. It must be said, that Colombia didn´t buy only weapons but locomotives, lorries, industrial equipment, textile goods, glass, porcelain ware, metal goods, fashinon jewellery from Jablonec and a lot of other products. From Colombia to Czechoslovakia there were exported oil, coffee and leathers.

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[1] See AMZV, Peru, 1937-1939, box number VIII (5)a

[2] Klecanda, V., Synové dobyvatelů, Praha 1935, p. 34.

[3] See AMZV, Colombia and Ecuador, 1937-1938, box VIII (1) d

[4] See Hrbata, F., El General Checo Vladimir Klecanda en Colombia, Ibero-Americana Pragensia, Aňo IX, 1975, p.191.

[5] See AMZV, box 476, Dodávky 1918-1939, Odbytové možnosti pro letadla v Kolumbii, zpráva 346/37, Bogota 1.9. 1937

How much significant there was the Czechoslovak help to Colombia described the words of prezident Santos from August 1938: „ Colombia will never forget merits of Czechoslovakia during the conflict of Leticia and he declared, that Mr. President Dr. Beneš is the most popular statesman of all European statesmen in Colombia.“ [6]

3. Border conflict between Bolivia and Paraguay

The border conflict between Bolivia and Paraguay was about the area of Chaco Boreal. The geopolitical development was more complicated and longer. Durin 19th century Boliva lost the access to the sea – especially in the nitre war against Chile during 1879-1884.[7] The war with Brazil in 1902-1903, twenty years later, Bolivia lost the area of Acre. The access to the sea was very important for the export of tin. Bolivian diplomacy was traying to gain the important access to the sea during 20th and 30th years of 20th century. The hope came during the war between Peru and Chile in 1920-1929.[8] The war was held for the area Tacna Arica. Bolivia wanted to gain the port of Arica in this conflict. The port Arica was a strategical access to the sea. Bolivia connected the League of Nations during November 1920, but unfruitful.

Next foreign policy problem was the conflict about Chaco Boreal with Paraguay. Agreements about this area were signed in 1913 and 1915, but both states wanted the same region. This situation brought the war on 6th December 1928. The influence of the League of Nations and Panamerican coference led to temporary truce on 4th April 1930. Heads of armies of the both states didn´t wont a compromise and they broke talks.[9] It was the main reason to start a war in the year 1932. In this case we can talk about the regular war during 1932-1935. The military comander of Paraguay, general Estigarribia, occupied the area, but next invasion to Boliva was unsuccessful. The total result of the war was the defeat of Bolivia, although Bolivia was supported by the League of Nations, by some states and military embargo was cancelled too. This defeat had the influence on the interior development of the state. Military revolution by Tejado Sorzano was held in the year 1934. The support of the League of Nations led to sign of the truce with Paraguay on 14th June 1935. This truce was the base of the peace agreemant from 21th July 1938. [10] The reasult of the peace contract wasn´t happy for Bolivia. Two-third of the area of Chaco Boreal gained Paraguay. Bolivia gained the access to the sea by the river Paraguay.

Czechoslovak-Bolivian relations started to develop after the year 1935. „Contacts of Czechoslovak military industry with Bolivian and Paraguay markets had own development and problems too. The main reason was Czechoslovak foreign policy.“ [11] Bolivia was interested in Czechoslovakia only of the view of increased shopping of weapons during the conflict with Paraguay. Czechoslovakia penetrated to this conflict by the person of general Vilém Plaček and next military consultants. This officers were active by Bolivian military headquarters. This action was confirmed by bilateral agreement from 8th May 1934. On this date general Vilém Plaček was named the head of Czechoslovak military mission in Bolivia. The political resolution was in hands of the president of Czechoslovakia T.G. Masaryk. This resolutin was the answer for Bolivian political request. The agreement had 10 articles in which Czechoslovak site promised the help with modern organization of Bolivian army. [12]

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[6] AMZV, Colombia and Ecuador, 1937-1938, box VIII (1) d

[7] See. Opatrný, J.: Amerika v proměnách staletí, Libri, Praha, 1998. p. 642-643. ISBN 80-85983-42-7.

[8] Ibidem, p. 643.

[9] See AMZV ČR, Peru, 1937-1939, box number VIII (5)a

[10] Jiránek, T., La Participación Checoslovaca en la Guerra del Chaco Boreal, Aňo XXVI, 1992, p. 115.

[11] Baďura, B., Los intereses de la burguesía Checoslovaca en la guerra de Gran Chaco, (1a parte), Ibero-Americana Pragensia, Aňo XIV, 1980, p. 169.

[12] See Baďura, B., Los intereses de la burguesía Checoslovaca en la guerra de Gran Chaco, (2a parte), Ibero-Americana Pragensia, Aňo XV, 1981, p. 163.

Members of this mission were the colonel Rudol Bělín – commander of 7th infantry regiment, artillery specialists Čeněk Kudláček and Bohumír Podlezl, and finally, Teodor Pokorný. The conditions of the contract were very good „the commander had 300 pounds sterling per month, others 150, included travel costs and benefits in the end of the mission.“ [13] The main target of the military mission was the help in the war againts Paraguay and the victory of Bolovian army. But in this case the mission wasn´t successfull and Paraguay wan. Very interesting were positions of Czechs and Slovaks living in Paraguay. They sent the telegram to the president Masaryk and they requested cancellation of Czechoslovak military mission: „Czechoslovak soldier cannot defend interests of a single slavery state of the America against the brave Paraguayan nation which loves the peace.“ [14] Bolivia was defeated and this fact couldn´t change the effective Czechoslovak military mission, the international support and military supplies too. But we can say that military skills and friendly access of members of Czechoslovak mission became the base of the new Czechoslovak-Bolivina relations. The result was the foundation of Czechoslovak-Bolivian society on 21st February 1936. The cheef of this society was named general Vilém Plaček. Škoda was the most important member of this society in the industrial site. The main target of the new society was the penetration in Bolivian market, to held positions in Bolivian army and the acquiring of the main contracts during modernization and reorganization of Bolivian army. The society promoted Czechoslovakia by various foto exebitions, publishing of information books and in the religion area by consecrating and sending the copy of statue of the Prague Infant Jesus to the cathedral in La Paz.

4. Conclusion

The content of the article shortly describes two Czechoslovak´s military missions in Latin America during the interwar period. Of course, that more coflicts in the latinamerican region were held. But only these two mentioned, we can say about direct Czechoslovak activities. These conflicts solved geopolitical and historical problems of borders in the latinamerican region. Therefore these states needed new and modern weapons. Czechoslovakia was one of the most important producer of weapons during the interwar period. It was not accepted as the colonial state or the state with colonial past. Its weapons were modern, sure and mostly simle manipulatable. The high quality of Czechoslovak officers, their friendly access and acceptation of the latinamerican specifications were very pozitive by accepted by the latinoamerican society. These factors together opened a lot of posibilities for the Czechoslovak industry – a military and a civil one too. All of them created a very good sound of the name of Czechoslovakia and the cordial acceptation of our people in the latinamerican region.

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APPLICATION OF INDIRECT CONTACT OF PARENTS WITH CHILDREN IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Pavla Buriánová, Vladislav Vnenk

Abstract

This article deals with parental contact with a child if their parents do not live together, and the article attempts to capture unconventional situations that require an unconventional solution. The article is about contacting a parent with a child if the child is not in the care of that parent and about modifying the indirect contact first because of the parents' residence distance and subsequently in situations where the parent is in prison. The article deals with this issue from the point of view of Czech law and the case law of the European Court of Human Rights.

Key words: *child, contact with child, indirect contact*

1 AN INTRODUCTION TO THE TOPIC[1]

One of the fundamental rights and obligations of parents arising from their parental responsibility is personal contact with the child. Parent-child contact is the expression of parent-child's personal ties. The right of personal intercourse is exceptionally lawful, for it is only by means of it that parenthood itself can be realized.[2]

The personal contact of parents with a child does not only stem from a national regulation, but the relationship between parent and child also has international legal dimensions, in particular the Convention on the Rights of the Child, adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989, and Convention on Contact concerning Children. The Czech Republic is a signatory to both of these conventions, and since they are human rights treaties, they are based on the jurisprudence of the Constitutional Court of the Czech Republic as part of the constitution.

Under Article 9 (1) of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, States Parties shall ensure that a child is not separated from his or her parents against their will, except when the competent authorities, subject to judicial review, determine, in accordance with applicable law and procedures, that separation is necessary for the best interests of the child. Such determination may be necessary in a particular case such as one involving the abuse or neglect of the child by the parents, or where the parents are living separately and a decision must be made as to the child's place of residence.

The Convention on Contact with Children defines in Article 2 the contact of parents with a child means the child staying for a limited period of time with or meeting a person mentioned in Articles 4 or 5 with whom he or she is not usually living; any form of communication between the child and such person and the provision of information to such a person about the

[1] This contribution is funded by the University of West Bohemia in Pilsen project No. SGS-2016-043: Constitutional and Legal Aspects of European Integration and State Sovereignty with respect to Law Enforcement. Tento příspěvek je financován z projektu Západočeské univerzity v Plzni s č. SGS-2016-043: Ústavně-právní aspekty Evropské integrace a státní suverenity s ohledem na aplikaci práva.

[2] HRUŠÁKOVÁ, M., KRÁLÍČKOVÁ, Z., WESTPHALOVÁ, L. a kol.: *Občanský zákoník II. Rodinné právo (§ 655−975). Komentář.* 1. vydání. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2014, p. 934-935.

child or to the child about such a person. Under Article 4 or 5, the person concerned is the parent or other person with whom the child has family ties.

The Czech Civil Code respects the principles enshrined in both conventions and deals primarily with the circumstances that are the reason for the restriction or denial of the cottages. The Civil Code assumes that it is not in the best interest of the child, in particular, to be at risk of being in the family or if the other parent exasperates against the other parent, as well as in cases of child morbidity.

2 BEST INTEREST OF THE CHILD AS THE SUPREME PRINCIPLE

The best interests of the child are considered in the legal theory and practice as the foremost aspect of any decision making regarding children. The UN Human Rights Committee ("the Committee") in General Comment No. 14 of 29 May 2013 on the Rights of the Child states that the best interest of the child is a complex and dynamic concept and its assessment should take into account several aspects such as the child's view, the identity of the child, the preservation of family environment and relationships, child care, child protection and safety, the vulnerability of the child, the right of the child to the highest achievable level of health, and the right of the child to education. The best interest of the child can also be defined as an environment suitable for the positive development of the child, which is to ensure sufficient understanding, love, tolerance, happiness and harmony.[3]

In today's society, it is increasingly possible to meet the model that the parents of the child do not live together and the so-called child care needs to be adjusted. In essence, this term includes the correlation between parents and children, in particular, how one parent will continue to care for and how the child will interact with the other parent. Under current legislation a child can be entrusted with parental care, alternate parenting or exclusive care. Whilst the child is entrusted with any kind of care, both parents have the right to have personal contact with the child and to participate in the upbringing of the child unless they have limited parental responsibility with the child. However, the child's interest is always a foremost consideration.

As the European Court of Human Rights recalled the Czech Republic in its judgment in the case of T. v. the Czech Republic, No. 19315/11, Judgment Date 17/07/2014: "A long-term interruption of parental-child contact or excessive intervals between their individual meetings threatens any more serious attempt to re-establish or deepen family ties. Regular contact between parents and children is therefore considered to be a very important component of their relationship, as if this was not implemented and continued to be maintained and expanded, it could completely alienate the child from his or her parents and parents from his or her child and restore their mutual relationship has been substantially hindered if not even impossible."

According to § 906 of the Civil Code, the necessary condition for the divorce of marriage is the provision of contact and maintenance to the minor child. It follows from the wording of that provision that the court does not necessarily have to regulate the contact with the other parent who may not be entrusted with the child if he comes to the conclusion that the parents are able to make contact and agree to contact. Such an agreement between parents exists and is implemented seamlessly. If parents are unwilling to agree than the child's kinket must be decided on the basis of a court decision. This means that if the parents are able to agree on

[3] TRÁVNÍČEK, M. *Střídavá Péče.* 1. vydání. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2015, p. 7.

contact with the child they are given the so-called "free hand" and the parental contact with the child does not have to be strictly regulated by a court decision. This is, in the authors' view, a reflection of the legislator's efforts to prioritize parents' agreement since in some cases the lawsuit becomes an initial problem in parents' communication.

According to Section 887 of the Civil Code, the exercise of parent's right to personal contact with his child may not be entrusted to another person. According to the literature this legal provision must be interpreted with great caution, as it is primarily the duty of a parent who is not currently able to care for the child to tell the other parent who is about to entrust child care and for what reason. However the purpose of the statutory provision is that the parent should exercise the child personally and do not disrupt the relationship between the parent and the child and considers the transfer of child care adequate, with excepion to individual cases such as "one-time" pick up of a child from school or kindergarten or, in the case of parental responsibilities, it does not consider adequate transfer of all childcare to another person.[4] The significance of parental and child's personal contact was also highlighted by the European Court of Human Rights in the case of Voleský v. Czech Republic, No. 63627/00. The European Court of Human Rights has emphasized that the possibility of being together is one of the basic elements of family life for parents and their children, even if their parent‘s relationship has broken apart. The provisions of the Civil Code, in particular § 888, expressly enshrine the right of the child who is in the care of one of the parents to contact the other parent to the extent that it is in the best interest of the child as well as the parent's right to care for the child . It also imposes on the parents, who have the child in custody, the obligation to properly prepare the child for contact with the other parent, to allow this contact and to cooperate with the other parent. This provision is very well complemented by Article 889 of the Civil Code, according to which both parents may not interfere with the relationship of the child to another parent or make it more difficult for them.

3 INDIRECT CONTACT OF PARENTS WITH CHILD IN PARCTICAL EXAMPLES

The Civil Code explicitly favors the direct contact of parents with children, but it cannot be ruled out to do so in justified cases and indirectly. Indirect contact is not personal contact. The goal of indirect contact is to maintain the emotional bond of parents and children. Literature then states that "... indirect contact is considered only as a subsidiary form of communication but is offered for use in the case where direct personal contact is not possible for any reason."[5] In this respect, judicial practice has come to a firm conclusion that indirect contact is to direct contact in the ratio of specialty, not subsidiarity, i.e. shall apply when objective circumstances rule out direct contact which always prevails. In addition, indirect contact may maintain open space in the future for easier and less direct opening of the question of direct contact for the child.

At present, indirect parental and child interaction is implemented in two cases but this does not exclude other situations under which such treatment would be considered. The first situation is when the parent is in custody and the second situation is the distance between the parent and the child, especially when the parent is employed or staying in another state and the regulation of the indirect contact of the child with the parent seems to be the most appropriate solution and developing a parent-child relationship. As Professor Hrušáková

[4] HRUŠÁKOVÁ, M., KRÁLÍČKOVÁ, Z., WESTPHALOVÁ, L. a kol.: *Občanský zákoník II. Rodinné právo (§ 655−975). Komentář.* 1. vydání. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2014, p. 934-935.

[5] ZUKLÍNOVÁ, Michaela. § 887 (Styk s dítětem a jiná osoba). In: ŠVESTKA, Jiří, Jan DVOŘÁK, Josef FIALA, Michaela ZUKLÍNOVÁ aj. *Občanský zákoník: Komentář, Svazek II, (§ 655-975).*

stated, it may also be a situation where direct contact is not in the best interest of the child, but it is desirable that the links between the parent and the child be preserved, especially the future development of relationships and relationships with the aim that the parent and child will find the most appropriate route to direct personal contact.[6]

Since the regulation of indirect contact between a parent and a child and his conditions or circumstances is not enshrined in the current legislation, an indirect interpretation of the decision-making practice has been interpreted. The following text will demonstrate how indirect contact has been adjusted through selected decisions that were of great importance for application practice.

Regarding the application of indirect contact due to the international distance of the parent's residence, the author seems appropriate to mention the decision of the Regional Court in Ústí nad Labem of June 11, 2012, no. 73 Co 286/2012. In this case, a child with a mother lived in the Czech Republic and the father who was a foreign national lived permanently in Brazil. The child's father requested that the mother be given the opportunity to allow her father to communicate with her daughter via skype. The mother filed an appeal against the interim injunction in which she argued in particular that her daughter had refused to contact her father and that her mother did not want to force her to communicate with her father or to blame her for dealing with her father. The mother also argued that previous attempts at skype communication were unsuccessful, either for technical reasons or because of her father's initiative or daughter's refusal. The Court of Appeal, the Prague High Court, confirmed the contested resolution and stated in the grounds of the decision that for the minor, regular contact with the father is necessary as it maintains and deepens mutual emotional ties and does not find reasons to justify that contact with the father is not in her interest. The Court further noted that in the given situation, i.e. in view of the considerable distance of the two parent's homes, it is necessary to use a different form of contact with the father that is more appropriate, considering all the circumstances of the case. In conclusion, the court of appeal stated: "*The mother's objections to the minor's rejection of this form of communication are completely irrelevant. It is the duty of a mother to educate a minor to respect the child's rights and to educate her so that the child's right to regular contact with both parents is preserved. For the same reasons, the mother's opinion is completely irrelevant that the child is not obliged to associate with her parent.* "

The above decision was of considerable importance for subsequent application practices. The Supreme Court of the Czech Republic issued an opinion based on this decision which governs the possibility of contacting the child with the parent and using modern means of communication.[7] In this opinion, the Supreme Court[8] stated that in justified cases, the personal contact of a parent with a child may be replaced in other ways, e.g. by means of computer technology, so-called electronic mail, internet communication (Skype, Facebook, etc.) or by telephone. In that opinion, the Supreme Court of the Czech Republic stated, on the one hand, that with regard to the technical progress of the company, ordinary human communication is implemented by means of computer technology, mobile phones or in writing. The court also emphasized the duty of the mother to ensure this contact between the

[6] HRUŠÁKOVÁ, M., KRÁLÍČKOVÁ, Z., WESTPHALOVÁ, L. a kol. *Rodinné právo.* 2. vydání. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2017. p. 217

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[8] More detailed on the role of the Supreme Court of the Czech Republic: ZAHRADNÍKOVÁ, R. et al. *Civilní právo procesní.* 2. vyd. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2015.

father and his daughter and the minor child and properly prepare the contact and if the minor does not have a mobile phone. Contact can be made via the mobile phone of the mother and the mother is obligated to provide the minor's reply to the father's e-mail if such an obligation imposes an enforceable decision of the court.

4 SITUATION OF A PARENT IN PRISON

Another example of a situation of indirect contact is when a parent is in prison or in custody. This situation was expressed by the Constitutional Court of the Czech Republic, namely by a judgment of the Constitutional Court of the Czech Republic of 8 August 2017, no. II. ÚS 22/17. This procedure was used to regulate child care, including contact with the child. During the appeal process his father has been serving imprisonment. For this reason, the Court of Appeal suspended the appeal proceedings and stated that the father's contact with minors was not regulated. In this case, the fact that the mother did not tell or even did not want to tell her father that she was serving a custodial sentence was important because she wanted to maintain their favorable opinion of her father and furthermore argued that it would not be worthwhile to visit the father in prison. For these reasons, the mother did not send a correspondence from her father to the children, nor did she tell him the phone number through which the father's contact with the minor could be realized. Later, the mother communicated the facts to her father and gave her letters, but according to her statements the children did not respond to these letters.

In its decision, the Constitutional Court respected the case law of the European Court of Human Rights,[9] in which cases one of the parents is serving imprisonment and the other parent hinders contact with the child finds this to be a violation of the right to respect for family life. The Constitutional Court insists that while respecting the prisoner's right to family life, it is necessary for the state authorities to allow and help the prisoners keep in touch with the closest family. Prison rules place emphasis on the development of prisoner’s family relationships, which is also the case with the rights, respectively These people can maintain written contact with children in an unlimited manner and children can usually visit their parents in specially designed rooms for visits with children. The Constitutional Court thus disagreed with the appellate court's assertion that a prison visit would be traumatic for minors and would have an adverse impact on their psyche and relationship with their father. Furthermore, the Constitutional Court of the Czech Republic has stated that in the interests of minors, it may not be that one of the parents, for the duration of the sentence, may not even see for a few years or not even come into contact with them or even the fact that minors will believe that his father lost interest and left them without leaving them.

However, the authors point out that the regulation of the indirect contact of a parent residing in the custodial sentence is not and cannot be completely unlimited. As the Constitutional Court has also stated, it is important what kind of offense the offender committed. Parents have a role to play and an example to set. So, if they commit serious or mischievous behavior it cannot be considered that the parent could be a good example to children, and in such a case it would not be appropriate to modify the relationship with the parent either indirectly.[10]

5 CONCLUSION

Contact between childreen and their parents is a very important part of family life. If the parent and a child are prevented from contacting one another their relationship may be irreversibly disturbed or even damaged in such a way that in the future it is basically

[9] For example the case of T. v. the Czech Republic, No. 19315/11.
[10] See. Judgment of the Supreme Court of the Czech Republic dated 22 May 2013, no. 30 Cdo 1376/2012

impossible to restore it. Exceptions forbidding contact with the other parent, it is in the best interests of the child to associate with a parent who is not entrusted with it and if objective obstacles do not allow for direct contact, indirect contact will be the best choice for developing parent-child relationships . The child sees that the parent is interested in him, his activities and his life, and the parent, on the other hand, can be present at the child's experiences, problems or concerns at least through the means of communication, and can be a support for the child, although only so-called "distant".

As for the parent who is in prison, the situation is also very carefully addressed here, as according to the current Czech legislation, each prisoner can call up to 5 approved phone numbers for 20 minutes a day and between how many numbers and how long he chooses is not limited. As for written contact, there is also no limit when in prison and it is possible for children to send postcards or letters every day. Personal interaction can also be carried out because the present premises of prisons are adequately equipped for visits with children.

Nowdays, when a mobile phone is part of human life, as well as home and apartment and children already have a cell phone in the first class, it can not be operated by the argument that the child or parent does not own a mobile phone. This argumentation would be hard to believe. In a situation where a parent considers that the child is not sufficiently mature to own a cell phone, then the phone can be made via the parent's mobile phone. The best way would be for the child to make a phone call without the presence of a second parent and not be influenced by it, but in most cases it can be assumed that the other parent will want to be familiar with everything the other parent told the child and what the child told him.

An even more important communication is skype communication. There is not only sound transmission between the parent and the child but also to the picture transmission, they can be seen as well as their reactions and communication is much easier.

However, the authors do not consider it appropriate to communicate with the child via Facebook or e-mail, as there is no absolute certainty that he or she actually communicates with his or her parent, or that everything written actually stems from the thoughts and opinions of the child.

The abovementioned ways of contact will be a very appropriate solution in situations where the child will not be reluctant to contact and the parents will come together without any major problems. A much more problematic situation occurs when the child or the other parent will refuse indirect contact. In such cases, it is the responsibility of the other parent to prepare the child for contact, just as if the parent had prepared the child in case of direct contact. The parent should therefore explain to the child that contacting a second parent with IT is not a bad thing, and his realization is best for both the child and his parents because the parent wants the child to hear and see the child, although he can not currently be with the child in direct contact. Just as a TV receiver is a part of almost every household, a computer, notebook, tablet or other device is found in almost every household or even in a wider family, and this contact can take place. Of course, except for some minimal exceptions of socially weaker families, it is worthwhile considering how to deal with the situation.

Although the Czech Republic is unfortunately not very aware of the form of indirect contact, it certainly deserves attention because indirect contact can be a means of developing and maintaining a parent-child relationship or can be a helpful means of direct parenting for the

child. The legislation also allows for the enforcement of this decision to be enforced by a bailiff in the event of a breach of the conditions of indirect contact.[11]

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[11] For details see for example: ZAHRADNÍKOVÁ, R. et al. *Civilní právo procesní.* 2. vyd. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2015.

THE ARMENIAN GENOCIDE: STILL A TABOO?

Lea Mezeiová

Abstract

The presented paper deals with a delicate topic - the Armenian genocide, which is still a taboo in Turkey. The term genocide cannot even be used in Turkey without fear. There is a serious denial about it and twist of the events. The situation in Turkey shows, that the past cannot be forgotten and this question is still really relevant today. The purpose of this paper is to explore the importance of dealing with the question of Armenian genocide nowadays. In particular, the paper contends that it is essential to resolve the question of Armenian genocide and that it cannot remain a taboo in Turkey because of the future development of Turkey and its attitude towards the protection of human rights.

Keywords: *Armenian genocide, denial, Turkey, human rights*

1 INTRODUCTION

The presented paper deals with a really delicate topic - the Armenian genocide, which is still a taboo in Turkey. The term genocide cannot even be used in Turkey without fear. There is a serious denial about it and twist of the events. The situation in Turkey shows, that the past cannot be forgotten and this question is still relevant today. Under Article 301 of the Penal code of Turkey[1], citizens are regularly prosecuted for denigrating Turkey or insulting Turkish identity by using the term genocide. The politics of denial is that strong. When someone is charged under this article, he is labelled as an enemy and can easily become a target for extremists. The problem is that the Article 301 is open to various interpretations. The interpretation of this Article of the Penal code is also absolutely contrary to the international standards, which are protecting the freedom of expression and it jeopardizes the lives of citizens charged under this article. Most international standards, including those of the European Court of Human Rights, see criminal insult provisions vis-à-vis the State authorities as an infringement of freedom of expression.[2]

In 2007 the Turkish-Armenian writer Hrant Dink, who was a prominent advocate of the Armenian minority in Turkey was assassinated. He was numerous times charged under Article 301 of Penal code. At the time of his death, he was waiting for his trial for insulting Turkish identity because of referring to the tragic massacre of Armenians, in an interview, as genocide. Another Turkish writer Orhan Pamuk, was charged under the same Article of the Penal code because of his comment made for a Swiss newspaper where he made a reference on killing the Kurds and Armenians in Turkey and that nobody dares to talk about it. The list

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[1] Article 301 on Insulting being a Turk, the Republic, the organs and institutions of the State reads:
1) A person who explicitly insults being a Turk, the Republic or Turkish Grand National Assembly, shall be imposed a penalty of imprisonment for a term of six months to three years.
(2) A person who explicitly insults the Government of the Republic of Turkey, the judicial bodies of the State, the military or security organisation shall be imposed a penalty of imprisonment for a term of six months to two years.
(3) Where insulting being a Turk is committed by a Turkish citizen in a foreign country, the penalty to be imposed shall be increased by one third.
(4) Expression of opinions with the purpose of criticism does not require penalties.
See Haraszti, M.: *Review of the Draft Turkish Penal Code: Freedom of Media Concerns*, 2005, available at: < https://www.osce.org/fom/14672?download=true>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[2] Haraszti, M.: *Review of the Draft Turkish Penal Code: Freedom of Media Concerns*, 2005, available at: < https://www.osce.org/fom/14672?download=true>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

of enemies of Turkish state is still growing. This list includes journalists, writers as well as Academics for Peace, who are the defenders of human rights in Turkey. The situation is really serious.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the importance of dealing with the question of Armenian genocide nowadays. In particular, the paper contends that it is essential to resolve the question of Armenian genocide and that it cannot remain a taboo in Turkey because of the future development of Turkey and its attitude towards the protection of human rights. The presented paper argues that the unresolved question of Armenian genocide influences the violation of human rights, mainly the freedom of expression, because of the consequences of the Article 301 of the Penal code. The goal of this paper is not to offer a summary of the problematics of the genocide in general, what is already well established by existing literature. The aim of this paper is rather to show how important is to deal with the question of Armenian genocide and why its denial by Turkey should concern all of us. As a result, this paper illustrates the consequences of the denial for the individuals, who expressed their opinion on this very delicate topic as well as on the relationship of Turkey with other states, which recognized the past event as genocide.

The presented paper is divided into three chapters. The first chapter deals with the definition of the genocide as well as the attitude of the international community towards this crime. It also contains a legal background of our topic. To be able to answer our research questions, it is essential to understand what is the attitude of the international community towards this issue and how this issue is covered by international law. The second chapter aims to describe the Armenian genocide and how this issue influenced the today's situation in Turkey. The third Chapter aims to describe the denial politics of Turkey as well as its consequences on the individuals and other states.

2 THE GENOCIDE AND THE INTERNATIONAL LAW

The word genocide first appeared in print in the book named Axis Rule in Occupied Europe, by Raphael Lemkin, a Polish lawyer, in 1944. The word genocide consists of the ancient Greek word *genos*, which means the race or the tribe, and the Latin word *cide*, which means the killing. Raphael Lemkin created this term partly to describe the systematic murder of Jewish people during the Holocaust under the Nazi regime and also as a response to the previous cases in history of targeted actions, which goal was to destroy a particular group of people. He was also a leader of the campaign for recognition of the genocide and its codification as one of the international crimes.[3]

Genocide as a crime was first recognized under international law in the year 1946, by the UN Resolution adopted by the General Assembly[4]. In this document, the genocide is described as: „ *A denial of the right of existence of entire human groups, as homicide is the denial of the right to live of individual human beings. Such denial of the right of existence shocks the conscience of mankind, results in great losses to humanity in the form of cultural and other contributions represented by these human groups and is contrary to moral law and to the spirit and aims of the United Nations. The General Assembly therefore affirms that genocide is a crime under international law…*". This definitions of genocide was however not the legal one. The legal definition of genocide was for the first time given by the UN Convention

[3] Lemkin, R. Raphael. : *Axis Rule in Occupied Europe: Laws of Occupation - Analysis of Government - Proposals for Redress*, Washington, D.C.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1944, p. 79 – 95

[4] Resolution adopted by the General assembly of the UN (A/RES/96-1), 11 December 1946, available at: < https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/RESOLUTION/GEN/NR0/033/47/IMG/NR003347.pdf?OpenElement >, [accessed 19 May 2018]

on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide in 1948.[5] According to the convention, genocide means any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such: Killing members of the group; Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group; Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part; Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group; Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.

The list of crimes under international law is also enshrined in the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. In particular, Article 5 of the Statute defines the most serious crimes of concern to the international community as a whole. These include the crime of genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes and the crime of aggression.[6] The genocide is defined in Article 6 of the Statute. Nowadays, the Genocide convention has 149 member states. There are still some states, which have not yet ratified the Convention, like Somalia or Japan. This however does not mean that they can commit this crime without the violation of international law. These states are bound by the customary international law, which has been confirmed in a number of international judgements. The prohibition of genocide enjoys the jus cogens status.[7] An important document regarding the genocide is also the UN Security Council´s Resolution 1674, adopted on 28. April, 2006, which reaffirmed the provisions of paragraphs 138 and 139 of the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document regarding the responsibility to protect populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity.[8] This Resolution presents the commitment of the Council to take actions to protect civilians in the armed conflict. The definition of genocide was later, in 2008, supplemented with the part of the Resolution adopted by the Security Council, which notes that rape and other forms of sexual violence can constitute a war crime, a crime against humanity, or a constitutive act with respect to genocide.[9] It has to be mentioned, that these developments do not encompass the Armenian Genocide because the crime against the Armenian people was committed before the adoption of the United Nations Convention in 1948 and of the international treaties and resolutions intended to criminalize specifically such odious conduct. This however does not mean that the story of the Armenian Genocide is over. Quite the contrary, the fact is that there was no punishment and even no official recognition of the genocide by the perpetrator, which keeps the wounds open and prevents healing.[10]

The attitude of the International community towards the genocide is clear. The International community agrees that genocide is unacceptable. Regarding the Armenian genocide, as of beginning of the 2017, 28 countries have officially recognized the Armenian genocide.[11] In some of these countries, the denial of the genocide is criminalized, like for example in Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Slovak Republic or Switzerland. Among other international organizations recognizing the Armenian genocide belong for example the UN, EU as well as

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[5] Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, Paris, 9. December 1948, available at: <https://treaties.un.org/doc/publication/unts/volume%2078/volume-78-i-1021-english.pdf>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[6] Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, available at: <https://www.icc-cpi.int/NR/rdonlyres/ADD16852-AEE9-4757-ABE7-9CDC7CF02886/283503/RomeStatutEng1.pdf>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[7] Mennecke, M.: *The Crime of Genocide and International Law, available at:* <https://www.niod.nl/sites/niod.nl/files/International%20Law.pdf>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[8] UN Security Council, Security Council resolution 1674 (2006) [on protection of civilians in armed conflict], 28 April 2006, S/RES/1674 (2006), available at: <http://www.refworld.org/docid/4459bed60.html>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[9] UN Security Council, *Security Council resolution 1820 (2008) [on acts of sexual violence against civilians in armed conflicts]*, 19 June 2008, S/RES/1820 (2008), available at: <http://www.refworld.org/docid/48 5bbca72.html>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[10] Hovannisian. R. G. : *Looking backward, moving forward : confronting the Armenian Genocide*. USA, 2003, pp. 138

[11] Christoforou, A. : *The list of 28 countries that have officially recognized the Armenian Genocide*, available at: <http://theduran.com/the-list-of-28-countries-that-have-officially-recognized-the-armenian-genocide/>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

the Council of Europe and other organizations. Really notable was also the effort of the Pope Francis to urge the international community to recognize the atrocities as the first genocide of the 20th century.[12] Turkey is an important NATO ally and most of the international community does not want to stand up against Turkey. Once a country recognizes the Armenian genocide, Turkey responds quickly by cutting off diplomatic ties and canceling trade agreements and issuing serious statements and threats.

3 THE ARMENIAN GENOCIDE - THE ISSUE AND THE FACTS

According to some sources, Hitler during his speech given to Wehrmacht commanders on 22 August 1939, a week before the German invasion of Poland, remarked: „ Who, after all, speaks today of the annihilation of the Armenians? “.[13] This statement fits to the references of the Armenian genocide as the forgotten genocide or the forgotten holocaust.[14] According to the Western scholars, by the year 1915, in the eastern provinces of the Ottoman Empire were living around 2 million Armenians. Due to the tragic events during the World War I, more than 1, 5 million Armenians were killed in attempts to unify the Turkish people and to create a new empire with one religion. The Armenians were not the only Christian population that suffered. There were also other minorities, mainly Christian Syrians and Greeks. This genocide emptied the Ottoman Empire from the Christians and left an almost entirely Muslim Turkey. This ethnic cleansing of Armenians and other minorities is marked as Armenian genocide.

The background of the genocide is marked with the breakdown of the Ottoman Empire. Around the beginning of the 20th century, the Ottoman Empire was collapsing. It has lost all of its European territory through the Balkan Wars, which created instability between the nationalist ethnic groups. At the turn of the century, the tension among the Armenians and Turkish authorities was still growing. First of the Armenian massacres happened in 1894 when the Armenian villages in eastern Anatolia have been attacked. The historians estimate, that by the year 1896, over 80 000 Armenians were killed.[15] The Ottoman Sultan was removed from power in 1909 by the new political movement named Young Turks. This new political movement wanted to create a modern style of government, exclusionary to the multi-ethnic Turkish society.

To consolidate Turkish power above the remaining territories of the Empire and to build a Turkish identity, the Young Turks drew up secret plan to exterminate the Christian population, represented by the Armenians and other minorities. The World War I provided a great opportunity to resolve the Armenian question. Turkey entered World War I on November 1914, on the side of the Germany and Austria-Hungary. Turkish military leaders accused the Armenians of disloyalty since some of them had allied with the Russians. Because of these accusations, Turkey disarmed the whole Armenian population and removed them from the war zones along the Eastern front.[16] The primary weapons of genocide were the mass deportations to the southern desert regions and the massacres that accompanied those expulsions. These death marches killed roughly 1, 5 million of Armenians and lasted for multiple months. The Armenian cultural heritage like ancient architecture, libraries and archives were also demolished.

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[12] Available at: <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2015/apr/12/pope-francis-armenian-slaughter-first-genocide-20th-century>, [accessed 19 May 2018]

[13] Lochner, Louis Paul . : *What About Germany?*. Dodd, Mead & Company. 1942, pp. 11–12.

[14] Sigman, Jack.: *Even if the World Had Paid Attention, Nothing Would Have Changed: If the Armenian Genocide Had Not Been Forgotten*, (2013), Saber and Scroll: Vol. 2: Iss. 3, Article 12

[15] Pritchard, M.: *Genocide: A History from Carthage to Darfur. 2013*, RW Press Ltd., pp. 66

[16] Whitehorn, A.: *The Armenian Genocide- The Essential Reference Guide.* California, 2015, pp. 240

The Armenian genocide is commemorated on April 24, because on that night, in 1915, the Turkish government arrested over 300 Armenian community leaders in Constantinople. They were all sent to prison, where most of them were executed. More than one million Armenians perished due to the execution, diseases, starvation and physical abuse. A people who lived in eastern Turkey for nearly 3,000 years lost its homeland and was profoundly decimated in the first large scale genocide of the twentieth century. At the beginning of 1915 there were some two million Armenians within Turkey, today there are fewer than 60,000.[17]
At the time, the committed atrocities were recognized by the international diplomats as atrocity against humanity. The events were mentioned by the U.S. consul, Swedish Ambassador as well as by the press like The New York Times and also by the Allied Powers who issued a warning to Turkey, that they will hold the members of the government personally responsible for the events. This warning had unfortunately no effect.

4 THE POLICY OF DENIAL AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

Despite the significant amount of evidence of the historical reality of the Armenian genocide, such as eyewitness accounts, official archives, photographic evidence, reports of diplomats, and the testimony of survivors, the denial of the Armenian genocide by successive regimes in Turkey has gone on from 1915 to the present. The Turkish genocide denial however has changed during the last hundred years due to the new evidence. After the World War I, Turkey absolutely denied occurrence of any massacres or deportation. This statement could not last forever because the international research of the genocide began in the 1980s and even more supporting evidence occurred. Turkey had to redefine its statement.
The Turkey´s denial of genocide is based on several facts. Turkey claims, that the allegations that more than 1, 5 million of Armenians were killed cannot be true, because the demographic studies prove that before the World War I, less than 1, 5 million of Armenians lived in the whole Ottoman Empire. Another argument of Turkey is that the losses on the Armenian side were few comparing to over 2, 5 million of Muslims who died in the same period. Turkey also contests some of the Armenian evidence, which according to Turkey is of diminished value and derives from dubious and prejudicial sources. Another argument of Turkey is that the Armenians deaths do not constitute genocide because the Armenians themselves took arms against their own government and it was their violent political aims, not their race, ethnicity or religion, rendered them subject to relocation. Supporting argument is also that none of the Ottoman orders commanding the relocation of Armenians, which have been reviewed by historians to date, orders killings. To the contrary, they order Ottoman officials to protect relocated Armenians. Turkey also claims that the accusation of genocide fails the minimum standards of proof required by the 1948 United Nations Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide. They also claim that the Holocaust has no meaningful relation to the Ottoman Armenian experience.[18]
The recognition of the Armenian genocide is still a delicate issue in Turkey. Fact, that to even speak about the Armenian genocide is punishable by law, shows how serious this situation is. As was mentioned in the previous chapter, there are 28 countries that have officially recognized this ethnic cleansing in Armenia as genocide. What is more, in some of these countries, the denial of the genocide is even criminalized. This issue is however really difficult to resolve, because Turkey is an important NATO ally and most of the international community does not want to stand up against Turkey. Once a country recognizes the

[17] Smith, R.W. : *Professional Ethics and the Denial of Armenian Genocide*. Holocaust and Genocide Studies, V9 Nl, Spring 1995, p 3
[18] These facts are enshrined in the document of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Turkey: *The Armenian Allegation of Genocide: The issue and the facts.* Available at < http://www.mfa.gov.tr/the-armenian-allegation-of-genocide-the-issue-and-the-facts.en.mfa>, [accessed 23 May 2018]

Armenian genocide, Turkey responds quickly by cutting off diplomatic ties and canceling trade agreements and issuing serious statements and threats. When the Parliament in Germany passed a resolution declaring the 1915 events genocide, as a protest, Turkey recalled its ambassador from Germany. After Austrian Parliament signed a declaration which also defined the massacre of Armenians as genocide, Turkey issued a statement that this declaration will leave permanent stains on the Turkish-Austrian friendship and also recalled its ambassador from Vienna as in the case of Germany. Turkey followed the same pattern regarding the recognition of the atrocities as the first genocide of the 20th century, by the Pope Francis. Turkey recalled its ambassador from Vatican and declared the statement of the Pope Francis as null and void. The Turkish President Erdogan as well as the Turkish Foreign Ministry holds the same position on these resolutions that the recognition of the genocide is just a mistaken repetition of the anti-Turkish Armenian propaganda.

The denial of the genocide by Turkey is so strong, that the term genocide cannot even be used without fear. Under Article 301 of the Penal code of Turkey, citizens are regularly prosecuted for denigrating Turkey or insulting Turkish identity by using the term genocide. The Amnesty International has already stated that the this Article presents a direct threat to the freedom of expression, which is one of the fundamental rights[19]. Freedom of expression is protected by the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms[20] as well as by the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,[21] which bind Turkey as a State Party. Turkey has therefore the obligation to ensure the freedom of expression. However there are numerous of prosecutions brought up against writers, journalist, human rights defenders and other individuals, under Article 301 of the Penal Code, who dare to express their opinion on Armenian genocide. Amnesty International also considered that this Article does not fulfil the requirements of the restrictions on the freedom of expression laid down by international law, because the presented article is wide and contains vague terms, which is dangerous because it can be applied arbitrarily. A democratic state that respects and protects the fundamental rights and freedoms has an attitude inviting the criticism of its present or past actions and accepting various opinions. Professor of Law at Queen Mary University of London, Eric Heinze wrote in his article that if we want to know the attitude of a state towards human rights, we should look at his official version of past events and above all at the freedom of its citizens to challenge that version.[22]

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[19] Statement is available at < https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/eur44/003/2006/en/>, [accessed 23 May 2018]

[20] Article 10 provides:

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of expression. This right shall include freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart information and ideas without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers. This Article shall not prevent States from requiring the licensing of broadcasting, television or cinema enterprises.

2. The exercise of these freedoms, since it carries with it duties and responsibilities, may be subject to such formalities, conditions, restrictions or penalties as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society, in the interests of national security, territorial integrity or public safety, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals, for the protection of the reputation or rights of others, for preventing the disclosure of information received in confidence, or for maintaining the authority and impartiality of the judiciary.

[21] Article 19 provides:

1. Everyone shall have the right to hold opinions without interference.

2. Everyone shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of his choice.

[22] Heinze, E. : *Law can enshrine a country's history, but it is a citizen's right to question it*. available at: < https://theconversation.com/law-can-enshrine-a-countrys-history-but-it-is-a-citizens-right-to-question-it-59561>, [accessed 23 May 2018]

5 CONCLUSION

The recognition of the Armenian genocide remains still a relevant issue not just for Turks and Armenians but for the whole international community as well. Despite the fact, that these tragic events happened more than 100 years ago, it can still not be a closed chapter in history. As the Armenian President said, the denial of a crime constitutes the direct continuation of that very crime and only the recognition and condemnation can prevent the repetition of such crimes in the future. The recognition of the Armenian genocide is important not just for the ethnic minorities but it is also crucial for the future development of Turkey. The denial of the genocide is the final stage of genocide which paves the way for the future genocides. It is a question of humanity. The resolution of the issue of Armenian genocide would help to reduce the tension between the Turks and Armenians as well as between Turkey and other States which recognized the genocide internationally. Turkey would internationally denounce the unacceptance of genocide by admitting the historical events, which would prevent such crimes to happen again. It would be also a strong signal that Turkey protects the human rights and that Turkey is not an authoritative state which breaches the international law and is punishing the freedom of expression.

This paper presented the opinion of the international community on the crime of the genocide. Genocide is unacceptable under the international law and the prohibition of genocide enjoys the jus cogens status as well. The goal of the international community is to prevent such atrocities as genocide to occur again. Despite the fact, that the genocide is contested by the international community, with the recognition of the past Armenian genocide it is complicated. There are 28 countries which have officially recognized the Armenian genocide. In some of these countries, the denial of the genocide is even criminalized. Really notable was also the effort of the Pope Francis to urge the international community to recognize the atrocities as the first genocide of the 20th century. It has to be stressed out, that Turkey is an important NATO ally and most of the international community does not want to stand up against Turkey.

Despite the significant amount of evidence of the historical reality of the Armenian genocide, the denial of the Armenian genocide by Turkey has gone on from 1915 to the present. Turkey insists on its version of the past events and is not afraid to take further measures to confirm it. Under Article 301 of the Penal code of Turkey, citizens are regularly prosecuted for denigrating Turkey or insulting Turkish identity by using the term genocide. This Article violates the freedom of expression granted by the international law. There are numerous prosecutions brought up against writers, journalist, human rights defenders who openly expressed their opinion on the issue of genocide. Turkey presents its attitude toward the question of Armenian genocide also by cutting off diplomatic ties, canceling trade agreements and issuing serious statements and threats, once a country recognizes the Armenian genocide. The denial of the Armenian genocide prevents the healing of the wounds inflicted by genocide.

The situation described in the presented paper shows, that the question of resolving the Armenian genocide is still a really relevant topic and should concern the whole international community. To be able to build a modern democracy, we have to learn from our own past mistakes. This however does not function when the history is denied and the committed wrongs are not openly admitted. Those, who do not learn from history, are doomed to repeat it and who does not know the past, does not know where is he heading for. These well-known statements accurately explain it. Therefore it is essential to recognize the Armenian genocide, even down it has happened more than 100 years ago.

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"GROWING UP SLAVIC IN AMERICA" MEMORY AND SILENCE IN THE SLOVAK AMERICAN LITERATURE

Diana Židová

Abstract

Years 1970s were marked with the rise of new immigrants. The main person to promote their culture in media and education was Michael Novak. This article tends to tackle some aspects of these years and to bring some information on the stereotypes in literature about Slovak-Americans. Then the article focuses on several writers who bring a valuable insight into their life in the twentieth century in literature. The results show that the motifs which pertain are loosely connected with the ideas of ethnic pride, Slovak identity and the significance of belonging to local places in their lives.

Keywords: *American history, Slovaks in America, Slovak American literature, ethnic literature, immigrant fiction, Slavic languages*

1 THE RISE OF "WHITE ETHNICS"

In the early 1970s patriotism and the melting pot had gone out of fashion. Many people in America started to cherish the position of multi-culturalism in which the African American communities and the so called "new immigrants" or "new ethnicity", later "white ethnics", were invited to the mainstream society. This decade is known for being a transformation route from strong Americanization tendencies to a pluralistically oriented culture.

White ethnics represented people from eastern and southern Europe: Italians, Czechs, Poles, Hungarians, Slovaks, Slovenians, etc., who were mainly Catholics and working-class. Rudolf J. Vecoli points out that the intensity of power and enthusiasm these ethnics, although being often isolated in urban areas or ghettos, brought to the dominant WASP environment was barely expected: „What perhaps came as a surprise to many (certainly historians and social scientists) was the alacrity and militancy with which "white ethnic" groups also proclaimed their collective identities ("Polish [or Irish, or Swedish, etc.] is Beautiful") and sought to manifest their particular histories and cultures. (Vecoli, 1990, p.vi)

Michael Novak was a well-known Catholic philosopher, but he also got famous as an ardent supporter of white ethnic minorities in the politics and diplomacy, especially Slovak-Americans. He was one of the founders of Ethnic Movement Political Action Committee (EMPAC) in 1975 in Bayville, New York. He took the role of the main representative of a national civil rights committee, based on encouragement and promotion of new immigrants, particularly in education and media. In addition, its aim was also to better the relationship between African Americans and white ethnics. Later on, the project´s name was changed into the Ethnic Millions Political Action Committee (EMPAC!).

EMPAC(!), running from 1975 to 1977, became a useful vehicle for Novak's ideas. Many politicians were convinced that the white ethnic vote was developing into a significant electoral base", for example members of Congress, presidents Ford and Carter, political advisers and officials (Elkins, 2007 p. 6). Supporters of this project formed a heterogeneous group of people of different races and affiliations. Many of them were prominent persons who had been in the cultural awareness circles for a longer period of time. In Slovak-American community, for instance, John F. Berko, Sonya Jason, Joseph C. Krajsa, Mark

Stolarik, or organizations and associations with a long historical significance, such as First Catholic Slovak Union (Jednota). Novak was an editor of a Newsletter *A New America* (1975), later called EMPAC! (1976).

The title of this article refers to a slim book of four essays on experience of three white ethnicities – Slovak, Polish and Slovenian. *Growing Up Slavic in America* was edited by Michael Novak and published by EMPAC! in 1976 as a part of contest for people among various ethnic groups. The second printing was done by Jednota Printery in 1979. Novak points out that there is a significant silence prevalent in the marginal stance of ethnic minorities, particularly in case of people of Slovak origin: "Most expressed themselves in music and work, not in words. They had long been trained in being humble, in not pushing themselves, not being talky, not being aggressive. Silence – sitting in such long silence, not necessarily brooding, not necessarily melancholy, not necessarily unhappy – became almost, a deeply cherished folk symbol. It is time to break the silence and to give tongue to feelings long suppressed." (Novak, 1979, p.v) In addition, strong national pride was highlighted in the inscription of the book at the fourth page. It says: "Upward! After a Thousand Years of Serfdom…. Liberty!" (Novak, 1979, p. iv) There is no doubt that this emotional call has a direct connection with Slovaks in Czechoslovakia, who were said to be under serfdom of Magyars /Hungarians for a thousand year. Furthermore, the illustration of the falcon on cover of the book directs its reference to the Slovak Catholic Sokol, a Slovak-American organization founded in 1905.

What does it mean to be a child in a Slavic ethnic community? In her reminiscence, Patricia Ondek Laurence understands reaping life in silence a common behavior attached to Slovak immigrants rooted in their past. She recalls the "silent tradition […] between a grandfather and a granddaughter who could barely speak each other´s languages; […] silent because of a tradition of quiet suffering more expressive of its endurance than articulate of complaint." (Laurence, 1984, p.101) By coming back to the suppressed memories of a child, there is the chance to acknowledge ones feeling of isolation in the subdivided American culture: "A child of Slavic immigrants, I feel my parent´s wordlessness in relation to the dominant culture which I am a part, and my own wordlessness in relation to them." (Goska, 2006, p.50) What Goska points out is a hybrid identity, being neither here, not there, the feeling of not belonging anywhere, resulting in estrangement towards own breed and blood. Based on her experience, Slovaks feel shame of their ethnic origin even nowadays; she recalls her niece being still in 2002 "ashamed of that whole side of her ancestry" (ibid, p.60).

2 WHITE ETHNICS AND STEREOTYPES

The white ethnic movement was also an answer to stereotypes about Slavic people. Novak in *The Sting of Polish Jokes* laments that Americans make fun of not only people of Polish origin, but of Slavic people in general. Such ethnic humor is not aimed at laughing but in mockery and intolerance towards them. Moreover, people of Slavic origin are called pejoratively "Hunkies" (1976, p.13). Hunky, a shortened form of Bohunk, created as a mixture of Hungarian and Bohemian, was an Eastern European immigrant worker – a Slav, Hungarian or Lithuanian. By the First World War any immigrant working in a steel mill was labeled as a mill hunky (Barrett, Roediger, 1997, p.7). Hunky was supposed to be strong physically but weak mentally. Bicha points out that the beginnings of the Slavic stereotypes emerged after 1890 emphasizing that their creators were usually Americanizers who were driven by the idea of cultural conformity in America. The stereotypes could be divided into three groups: defects regarded as remediable under new living conditions, inner defects being

a part of a Slavic personality, and a very few positive traits. Generally, a Slav was seen as a negative figure in American society (Bicha, 1982, p.20–21).

There are at least two well-known examples of Slavic stereotypes in American literature at the beginning of the twentieth century. In Upton Sinclair´s *The Jungle*, Poles, Lithuanians, Bohemians, Slovaks and other Slavic workers are presented as indistinguishable beings. In the American social system machinery Slovaks are supposed to be "the most miserable of the Slavs": "The Poles who had come by tens of thousands, had been driven to the wall by the Lithuanians, and now the Lithuanians were giving way to the Slovaks. Who there was poorer and more miserable than the Slovaks, grandmother Majauszkiene had no idea…" (Sinclair, 2003, p.76).

In Thames Williamson´s novel *Hunky*, the main character Jencic works as an undermined immigrant laborer in a bakery. He is a big, slow man who does not remember where he comes from: "I do not remember - only a little. Sometimes I feel like homesick but I do not know what for. I am just homesick, that is all" (Williamson, 1929, p.95). There are a few references to Jencic's Slovak, Slavic or Hungarian background, but overall the book lacks psychological motivation and Jencic is „a perfect creature suitable for a stereotype of all the Slavs supported by public opinions and Williamson's social movement ideas. (Zidova, 2014, p.153)

A more complex and psychologically motivated story is expressed in a short novel *Hunky Johnny* written by Edward J. Nichols. Johnny Opalko represents a member of the Slovak community in Gary, Indiana in 1930s. Coming back home after finishing university studies, he is neither a Slovak anymore, nor an American yet: „Why can't Hunky stay Hunky? This was his trouble. Always wanting to go white." (Nichols, 1945, p.9) Becoming „white" is a leitmotif of the book. Johnny's Slovak background, Greek Orthodox religion or his name might be a problem for him in the future. To be accepted by the American society, he is asked to consider changing his name to John Paul. He is on the crossroad – should he maintain his ethnic identity, cherish it and accept the burden of being ethnic or should he long for being accepted by the society that wants to make a completely new person out of himself? Would he ever succeed? Only now he understands what it means to have some roots, to have a name, which he does not want to forget or abandon: "I felt swell this afternoon once I figured out I was through with trying to be anything white" (Nichols, 1945, p.210). At the end, Opalko resists the temptation of the white majority environment and chooses instead the local patriotism to lead his life. In a sense, his decision is presented as backward and outdated. The world wanted to offer him a better life, but he declines to utilize it.

3 SLOVAK AMERICAN WRITERS

Slovak American authors, often labeled ethnic, depict their group from the current situation or in its historical change. From the historical point of view, their attitude towards the Slovak diaspora and its relationship to American social and economic realities change slowly. In 1970s, white ethnics "according to the melting pot ideology ought to have been totally assimilated by now. Instead, here they were demanding that their voices also be heard through the novels, poetry, and art they had created as part of the chorus of America." (Vecoli, 1990, p. vi)

There are two well-known writers for general and academic American public, namely Thomas Bell and Alvena Vajdak Seckar. Bell wrote novels during 1930s-1940s. His most famous is *Out of This Furnace*, which was rediscovered in 1970s by Betty Ann Burch in her dissertation thesis, later in 1990 published in a book form, and David Demarest, a university teacher of

English language interested in minority and ghetto writing. Alvena Vajdak Seckar was probably the best known Slovak American woman writer and artist. Born in the coal mining town of McMechen, West Virginia, Seckar moved with her family twenty-two times before settling in Allentown, Pennsylvania. She studied at the University of Pennsylvania, but when she was expelled as a result of her involvement in the political issues of the day she continued at New York University. She used to be a keen traveler and donated 50 paintings and 50 drawings, after her show in Bratislava in 1984 to Matica slovenská in Martin, Slovakia.

Seckar wrote three remarkable books for children: *Zuska of the Burning Hills*[1] (1952), *Trapped in the Old Mine* (1953) and *Misko* (1956). They are all based on her childhood memories taking place in a coal-mining community of Slovaks. She highlights positive humanistic approach to life through the lens of her young characters. The books are accompanied by her realistic illustrations. Slovak phrases and names add to the exoticism of the setting, such as *Chaptawa Marusha* (the name of a chicken), *halushki* (gnocchi), *dushenka moya* (my sweetheart), *perina* (comforter), *koryto* (wooden washtub), etc.[2] There is even a short song in Slovak: *Ishli prez po-le, Shmi-hli na ko-ne, O, poz-ri sa mi-la, To vshet-ko tvo-je!* (Seckar, 1999, p. 154)[3]

Maria K. Sinak in her novel *Katka* (1946) writes about a young peasant girl in a little village in Czechoslovakia who dreams of becoming a writer from her very childhood. After mother's tragic death, Katka falls in love with an American boy on a vacation in Europe. Thereafter, they marry and move to America. Although Katka has to cope with language barrier and family crisis, at the end she manages to complete and publish her novel. The story contains strong autobiographical features and was originally written in Slovak language as *Jej americká svokra* (1942).[4]

Katka undoubtedly represents a worth-reading document for those who want to know how American dream looks like from the point of view of a Slovak immigrant. This work illustrates not only struggles of a girl longing to reach her dream of becoming a writer, but it points to the hardships American life in the depression period brings. The power of the book lies in Katka herself – her strength to cope with language barrier and American way of life. What is more, it is that brisk young humor which makes the plot vivid. There is a visible transformation of Katka's carefree life into that with marital problems, misfortunes in her husband's business and her identity doubts. Nevertheless, she stands for those women whose energy and enthusiasm to change their lives bear fruit. All in all, it is a fiction made of reality.

Lisa A. Alzo in *Three Slovak Women* (1999) writes a non-fiction story of three generations of Slovak women in Pennsylvania. The book follows the journey of Veronika Straka from a small Slovak village to America in 1922. Afterwards, she marries a steelworker Jánoš Figlyar, a hardworking coal miner. Veronika's first daughter Anna represents the first generation grown in America. Lastly, Lisa as a second generation is able to honor family values and Slovak traditions using the opportunities offered by America which her mother and grandmother lacked. The main idea lies in family love binding these women together. Alzo in

[1] *Zuska of the Burning Hills* was a *New York Herald-Tribune* Spring Festival Honor Book and was placed on the *New York Times* list of the Hundred Best Books published for children in 1952.
[2] The Slovak phrases and words are taken from *Zuska of the Burning Hills* 1999 (1952).
[3] The song is translated into English on the next page: "They rode through the fields, Flicking the horses, O, gaze around you, my dear- All of this is yours!" (p. 155)
[4] "Her American Mother-in-law" (Translation into English by D. Ž.).

her book brings a widely used structure when writing about immigrant experiences in America with exception that she does not present it in the form of fiction. Her picture of life struggles viewed through three generations has become more or less quite conventional in the last decades. Nonetheless, what we find valuable in her autobiographic work is its authenticity and uniqueness accenting mother – daughter bonds which persist long after the book is finished. In conclusion, by this Alzo's contribution, one understands that ethnic heritage is in the most cases impacted by cohesion of family relations.

Rita Malie grew up in Youngstown, Ohio and worked in healthcare administration for over thirty years. In 2001, Rita travelled on a cruise down the Danube River visiting Slovakia, the homeland of her grandparents. The cruise inspired her to write her mother's memoir *Goodbye America*: *A Great-Grandmother's Personal Childhood Story* (2006) which received four first place awards from Florida Writers Association, Royal Palm Awards for Best Children's Unpublished Nonfiction, Best family Saga, and finally she received first place from the 2005 Promoting Outstanding Writers Awards for unpublished Children's/Youth Category. The book has been a popular item in the Ellis Island Immigration Museum since 2007.

The book has two parallel stories. In the first narrative, Malie's mother Anna Baron (Baba) tells her great-granddaughters about her life on Thanksgiving Day, nearing ninety she has been telling her story for three generations. Morgan and Madison want to hear it again while the rest of the family is preparing the Thanksgiving dinner: "Baba tell us your story again. That's the best part of our visit." (Malie, 2006, p.6) The second narrative tells how after her father's death in the 1919 flu epidemic, Anna's mother decided to take her four children back to her home village of Pohorelá in then Czechoslovakia. Realizing that life there had not really changed since she emigrated, still filled with misery, hunger and the harshness of nature in the mountains, she takes the two elder children back to America, but the two younger ones, Anna and her sister, stay on for five years before finally returning home and reuniting with the family.

Joel Mader is a retired English teacher living in Richfield, Ohio. In his collection of short stories entitled *Woodhill Road: Stories from the Hardware* (2012) Mader goes back to times when his father ran a hardware store in the Woodhill Road, Buckeye and Kinsman neighborhoods in Cleveland, back when there was home for the Slovak community. Joel helped his father in the store and the stories he heard as a young boy became the essence of this remarkable book.

Mader Hardware was where Slovak men met to eat their lunches and share stories which usually began with "You should hear what happened to me today." We learn that Charlie, a policeman, never got tired of telling the story of the missing head, what Stefan carries in his bag that is so suspicious to people, or what sad secret Father James has never revealed to anyone. Although the store closed in 1970, Joel Mader sends a legacy that Slovaks from Woodhill Road will not be forgotten.

3 CONCLUSION

Literature of Slovak Americans seems to be still unknown to American and Slovak readers and critics. Although it has been more than fifty years since the ethnic revival of "new ethnicities" initiated by Michael Novak happened, when people of third and fourth generations after immigration started to question their identity and researched their roots also in Slovakia, there has not been done enough research in the literary field to uncover the stories of our compatriots. Some people might suggest that there is nothing valuable written to

discover, that what they propose is just some “regional writing”. But we cannot agree with this statement. In this article we have shown that there are books worthy of studying produced by Slovaks and their descendants. They just must be found and studied.

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TRENDY A TENDENCE VYPRÁVĚCÍCH STRUKTUR AUDIOVIZUÁLNÍCH DĚL

TRENDS AND TENDECIES IN STORYTELLING PATTERNS OF AUDIOVISUAL WORK

Irena Kocí

Abstrakt

Cílem mé disertační práce je pojmenovat proměny vyprávěcích struktur filmů. Od vyprávění lineárního k nelineárnímu a nechronologickému způsobu narace. Scenáristicko dramaturgické zákonitosti vedení vyprávění kombinuji ve svém příspěvku s linií naratologickou, mapující posuny ve vyprávěcích vzorcích. Zvlášť se pak zaměřuji na fenomén flashforwardů, protože zatím tento vypravěčský nástroj není v odborné literatuře uceleněji reflektován. V disertační práci usiluji o klasifikaci flashforwardů na základě rozlišení jejich funkcí a formální podoby. Pro názornost přináším nákresy struktury vyprávění ve dvou vybraných filmech s vyznačenými nelineárními úseky dějů. Přínos mého příspěvku spatřuji v nalezení paralely se sílícím příklonem ke kreativnímu myšlení, vedoucímu k interdisciplinaritě.

Klíčová slova: *vyprávěcí struktura, nelineární vyprávění, flashforward, kreativní myšlení*

Abstract

The aim of my dissertation is to name changes in narrative structures of films. From the narrative of the linear to the non-linear ways of narration. The scriptural dramaturgical rules of storytelling combine in my contribution with a narrative line, mapping shifts in narrative patterns. In particular, I focus on the flashforward phenomenon, because this narrative tool has not yet been more fully reflected in the literature. In the dissertation thesis I am trying to classify flashforwards based on the distinction of their functions and the formal form. For the sake of clarity, I draw sketches of narrative structure in two selected films with marked non-linear parts of the stories. The benefit of my contribution I see in finding a parallel with an increasing tendency towards creative thinking, leading to interdisciplinarity.

Key words: *narrative structure, non-linear storytelling, flashforward, creative thinking*

1 ÚVOD

V posledních desetiletích roste počet filmů, jejichž podoba vyprávění se nedrží tradičního lineárního modelu vyprávění (chronologicky řetězící se příběh hlavního hrdiny, jehož činy zapříčiňují následky, kterým musí čelit). Touha autorů vypovědět něco nového se demonstruje skrze hledání nových vyprávěcích struktur. Těžiště příběhů se z jednoho protagonisty tříští na více titulních postav, ústřední dějová linie, dříve spjatá s hlavním hrdinou, je zmnožena ve vícero příběhových liniích. Vztahy mezi postavami a situacemi nejsou přímočaře kauzální, ale čím dál častěji se ocitají v juxtapozicích či kontrapozicích. A možnosti interpretace významů v myslích diváků jsou téměř bez hranic. V těchto posunech spatřuji příklon ke kreativnějším principům myšlení i tvorby samotné.

A protože nelinearita ve vyprávění je ústředním tématem mého výzkumu, je i struktura tohoto příspěvku ozvláštněná - skládá se ze dvou paralelně plynoucích linií; z linie naratologické, psané kurzívou, a z linie řekněme strukturální.

2 STŘED

Můj konferenční příspěvek pro tuto interdisciplinární konferenci nese název: Trendy a tendence vyprávěcích struktur audiovizuálních děl. Abychom mohli hovořit o vyprávěcích strukturách, jejich tendencích, nabízím nyní jejich přehled.

Příběhové vzory (Storytelling Patterns) a struktury vyprávění[1] podle Dr. Lindy Seger *Advanced Sreenwriting* (SEGER 2003): Linear Storytelling Structure (Lineární vyprávěcí struktura), alias lineární vyprávění. Je založeno na principu řetězení příčin a následků. Hrdina překonává stupňující se překážky. Cílem je vyvrcholení hrdinova snažení - tedy orientace na výsledek, na konec. Konec příběhu zpětně dává smysl snažení hrdiny, konec příběhu je ústředním vrcholem vyprávění. Imanentně vychází lineární vyprávění z předpokladu, že život plyne chronologicky a lineárně, že se v této linii vyvíjí, kultivuje, zlepšuje a roste. Lineární vyprávění sestává z vývoje událostí v průběhu tří dějství (aktů), příběh má svůj začátek, prostředek a konec.

Filmoví teoretikové tzv. wiskonsinské školy definovali principy klasické narace s důrazem na linearitu: klasický syžet pracuje s dvojitou kauzální strukturou, dvěma liniemi zápletek, přičemž obě linie jsou na sobě závislé a vzájemně se ovlivňují. Hladké kauzální navazování obou linií proto budí dojem linearity, třebaže linearity podvojné a Bordwell (BORDWELL 1985) o paralelismu hovoří jen v souvislosti dvou (nebo více) vyprávěcích linií, které jsou mezi sebou v kontrastu a vyjadřují určitý konceptuální závěr - jako například v Intoleranci (Griffith, 1916).

The Descriptive Story (Popisný příběh) – například příběhová struktura filmu Kolja (režie Jan Svěrák, 1996). Příběhy se nesoustředí na vývoj událostí, spíše události popisují. Protagonista není hybatelem děje, ale bývá spíše jeho obětí. Vyprávěcí tempo mívá pomalejší. Základní hnací motor tradičního vyprávění - silná narativní linie - tu není patrná, vyprávění je rozdrobeno do menších a oddělenějších dílčích zápletek, někdy až epizodický.

Ovšem lineární průběh událostí není jedinou možností, jak nazírat na svoje životy. V některých ne-západních kulturách vyprávění příběhů lineární není (např. východní kultury, Maorové, původní obyvatelé Ameriky), se vymaňují z běžně pojímaných kategorií času - místo na sebe navazujících a ze sebe vyplývajících řetězců událostí příčin a následků pojímají čas jako oddělené okamžiky přítomnosti. Tradiční Balijská kultura nenazírá na život jako na souvislý proměnlivý proces, ale vnímá jej jako ustálený stav.

Mnozí z nás, přestože jsme zformováni západními kulturními vzorci, také vnímáme naše životy poněkud méně lineárně. Výjimečnost určitých našich životních okamžiků, které nás mohou fatálně proměnit, nám pak nepasují do tradiční příběhové šablony.

Drama (filmové) má možnosti, jak rozdílné nazírání našich životů interpretovat a vyprávět nové obsahy novými / jinými podobami vyprávění. Řečeno s Lindou Seger: "New forms and new structures can lead us to new understandings of our own lives." /"Nové formy a nové struktury nás mohou přivést k novému porozumění vlastnímu životu." (SEGER 2003)

Naratolog Rick Altman (ALTMAN 1992) aplikoval svůj koncept dvouohniskového narativu (dual-focus-narrative) nejprve na žánr amerického muzikálu a poté obecněji na klasický hollywoodský film a upozorňuje na přehodnocení zdánlivě "jednoohniskových" příběhů. Podle něj se dualita projevuje simultaneitou a paralelismem scén a sekvencí. Podle Altmana se hollywoodský klasický narativ neúspěšně snaží svůj dualismus skrývat; linearita, kauzalita a kontinuitní střih slouží pouze jako mizanscéna pro ze své podstaty dualistický vztah.

[1] Pojem "vyprávění" používám v tom nejširším možném významu, jako sdělování něčeho, včetně samotného aktu sdělování. Podle Bordwellova dělení narativu je mně nejbližší považování narativu za strukturu, neboli „konkrétní způsob spojování částí k výstavbě celku“. Nezříkám se ale zcela ani nazírání na narativ jako na proces, „akt výběru, uspořádání a ztvárnění látky příběhu za účelem dosažení konkrétního, v čase omezeného působení na diváka“ (BORDWELL 1985).

Druhým vyprávěcím vzorcem je příběh cesty (The Journey Story). Byl využit například ve filmech Thelma a Louisa, Magnolia nebo Zachraňte vojína Rayena. Postavy v těchto příbězích nemusí nutně fyzicky cestovat. Cestou se tu myslí spíše pouť - situace, ve smyslu akce, vyvolávající reakce, mluvíme tedy o kauzálních vztazích.
Opakování jako vyprávěcí struktura (Repetitive Structures) alias "Broken-record Structure", vyprávění jako zaseknutá deska, jako jsme mohli vidět třeba ve filmu Na Hromnice o den více (1993), Lola běží o život (1998). Tak jako se nám v životě někdy vrací stále stejné situace, někomu neuspokojivá práce, jiný opakovaně zkouší přestat pít nebo kouřit, tak se ve filmech, využívajících tuto strukturu, stále vrací situace, které jsme už viděli. Opakování obecně není dramatické. Ale vyvíjející se repetice (v každém dalším "stejném" dni je něco jinak, něco navíc) udržuje tah vyprávění. Ovšem i tento strukturální vzorec pracuje s jasným začátkem, prostředkem a koncem, přičemž v Hromnicích druhé dějství sestává ze sedmi variant téhož dne. V analýzách filmu Lola běží o život se často zmiňuje vliv počítačových her, směr uvažování, vedoucí až k "databázovému" narativu, o němž se mezi teoretiky vyprávění hovoří až o pár let později.
Filmový teoretik a historik Thomas Elsaesser (ELSAESSER 1998) hovoří o narativech o mnoha liniích ("multi-strand narratives"). Jedná se o paralelní nebo větvící se linie, jejichž poplétání již není "neviditelným", jako tomu bylo u lineárně kauzálních příběhů, ale naopak vystupují do popředí. Filmy jako Pulp Fiction nebo Prostřihy, které tento vyprávěcí vzorec využívají, označuje jako "postklasické filmy devadesátých let".
Paralelní struktury (Parallel Structures) dále Linda Seger dělí na paralelní cesty (Parallel journeys) či paralelní linie. Paralelní vyprávěcí postup bývá využíván i v tradičně vyprávěných příbězích, kdy je představován nejprve život jedné postavy a průběžně život druhé postavy, aby se - buď ještě v expozici, anebo v prvním bodě zvratu - jejich cesty spojily. Struktura paralelních linií okamžik protnutí obou linií vyprávění oddaluje. To nastává až v midpointu, tedy uprostřed fimu (jako např. ve filmu Tajnosti a lži (*Secretts and lies*, režie Mike Liegh, 1996) anebo ještě později, v druhém bodě obratu. Například ve filmu Hodiny (*The Hours*, režie Stephen Daldry, 2002) je vyprávění tvořeno třemi paralelními liniemi ze tří odlišných časových rovin. Dvě tyto příběhové linie se protnou až ve třetím aktu.[2]
Příkladem filmů, sestávajících z vícera vyprávěcích linií může být třeba snímek z roku 1998 Srdcová sedma (*Sliding Doors*, scénář a režie Peter Howitt) nebo snímek Traffic – nadvláda gangů (*Traffic*, režie Steven Soderberg), který sestává ze čtyř paralelních linií, jež se téměř neprotínají. Ve filmu Magnolia (*Magnolia*, režie Paul Thomas Anderson, 1999) je příběh tvořen devíti protínajícími se vyprávěcími liniemi.
Dalším vyprávěcím vzorcem paralelně vedeného vyprávění je struktura spirály (The spiral). Nejčastěji se využívá pro příběh o proměně hrdiny. Využívá flashbacky, které jsou takovou podobu vyprávění nezbytné. Příkladem použití takové vyprávěcí struktury může být režijní debut Roberta Redforda Obyčejní lidé (*Ordinary People*, 1980), příběh o rozkrývání dávného traumatu z dětství hlavního hrdiny.
David Bordwell (BORDWELL 2002) analyzoval model větvících se linií (Forking Paths), hovoří o vícenásobné vyprávěcí struktuře (Multiple-draft structure) a popsal sedm konvencí, které tyto narativy používají:

1. *Větvící se linie jsou lineární. Poté, co se linie rozdělí, jsou vedeny vztahem příčiny a následku bez dalšího větvení*
2. *Místa větvení (rozcestníky) vyprávění jsou označena.*
3. *Linie se dříve či později protnou*

[2] První linie je z roku 1921, druhá 1951 a třetí 2001 (s velmi krátkou částí umístěnou do roku 1940). I když se jedná o jasně oddělené časové osy, cítíme, že příběh Virginie Woolfové, psaný v roce 1920, je určující pro události v budoucnu.

4. *Větvící se příběhy jsou sjednocené tradičními nástroji soudržnosti - má na mysli vztah příčin a následků, realizovaný především schůzkami postav a deadliny - pres časem.*
5. *Linie často postupují paralelně (současně)*
6. *Jednotlivé linie si nejsou rovny - poslední skončená, uzavřená linie, v sobě nese očekávání ve vztahu k dalším liniím vyprávění; tedy to, co přichází dříve, vytváří naše očekávání o tom, co bude následovat.*
7. *Jednotlivé linie si nejsou rovny - vyprávěcí linie, která přichází později, formuje naše pochopení předcházejícího vyprávění. Tedy retrospekce je často stejně důležitá, jako prospekce. Navíc často budí dojem, že poslední "verze" linie vyprávění je tou "opravdovou", reálnou, která se skutečně stala.*

Vyprávěcí vzorec, využitý ve filmu Obvyklí podezřelí (*The Usual Suspects*, režie Bryan Singer, 1995), ozačuje L. Seger (SEGER 2003) jako odhalení tajemství (The Unravelling-Mystery Structure). Termínem obrácená struktura (The Reverse Structure) definuje specifickou podobu vyprávění filmu Memento (režie Christopher Nolan, 2000). Začátek příběhu v přítomnosti dělá z následného vyprávění flashback. Příběh začíná koncem, pokračuje prostřední částí a končí začátkem[3]. Tyto vzorce vyprávění definovala Linda Seger v souvislosti s možným spojením s naší obecnou životní zkušeností - s naší psychologií, s našimi tématy, se situacemi, v nichž jsme se někdy ocitli.

Dále pojmenovává příběhové struktury, které nejsou založeny na našich reálných životech. Zakřivené struktury (Curved Structures) jsou využity ve snímcích s příběhy se stroji času nebo s fantaskními bytostmi. Takové snímky jsou vyprávěny jednak kruhovou strukturou (The Circular Structure), jako třeba ve filmu Před deštěm (Makedonie, 1994, režie Milcho Manchevski)[4], tak i smyčkovou strukturou vyprávění (The Looping Structure). I ona má, podle Lindy Seger, začátek, prostředek a konec, ale ne v tomto pořadí. Má začátek – konec – a prostřední části. Jako například v Historkách z podsvětí (*Pulp Fiction*, režie Quentin Tarantino, 1994) anebo ve filmu Davida Lynche z roku 2001 Mulholland Drive. Oba tyto snímky budí dojem, že začínají koncem, po němž následuje smyčka zpět na začátek, dále se pokračuje prostřední částí příběhu a v závěru se vyprávění vrací na samotný konec konce. Zpřeházené pořadí událostí umožňuje zbrazit vztahy a proměny, které by při zachování linearity vyprávění nebylo možné postřehnout.[5]

2.1 Hraní s filmovým časem

Obecně platí, že čím kratší časový úsek film zobrazuje, tím je pravděpodobnější, že vznikne intenzivnější drama. Čím delší čas film zachycuje, přímou úměrou roste riziko, že se vyprávění stane epizodickým, s roztrhaným a neplynulým dějem. Zároveň se zvyšuje riziko, že příběh bude více vyprávěn, než ukazován. Dojem spojitosti mohou posílit rekvizity nebo objekty, které se objeují ve všech oddělených částí vyprávění v jiném čase (např. květiny a kniha ve filmu Hodiny).

Nabízí se spojitost mezi větvícími se liniemi vyprávění na jedné straně a počítači a videohrami na straně druhé. Objevuje se nový moment ve vztahu k vyprávění, a to interaktivita. Divák volí

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[3] Flashforward je pojmem, označující záběry, obrazy, scény z opačného směru ve vyprávění, než odkud čerpá flashback. Z jiného úhlu pohledu na strukturu vyprávění bychom mohli hovořit spíše o flashforwardu. Ostatně flashforwardy jsme schopni s určitostí určit vždy až po skončení filmu.

[4] Film *Před deštěm* se skládá ze tří povídek, jejichž děj postupně ozřejmuje celý příběh. Pomocí subjektivníh pohledu navzájem velice odlišných protagonistů se pokouší vynést na světlo kořeny etnických konfliktů. První část nazvaná Slova se odehrává v makedonském pravoslavném klášteře. V povídce Tváře se přenášíme do Londýna a teprve ve třetí povídce Obrazy se pomyslný kruh uzavírá.
https://www.csfd.cz/film/70967-pred-destem/prehled/ Přístup: 2. 11. 2017

[5] Narušenou chronologii považuji také za podpůrný prostředek při budování napětí. Jako mechanismus, který z jinak málo dramatických událostí dělá situace dramatičtější, napínavější, překvapivější, tajemnější.

variantu pokračování příběhu, jako v případě Kinoautomatu Radúze Činčery z Expa v Montrealu v roce 1966. Thomas Elsaesser (ELSAESSER, 1998) definuje rozdíl mezi filmem a interaktivními médii jako rozdíl mezi narací a navigací.

Britská profesorka Linda Aronson, autorka praktického průvodce pro scenáristy a dramaturgy cénář pro 21. Století, česky vydáno v roce 2014, používá odlišný způsob nazírání a dělení nových vyprávěcích struktur současných filmových příběhů. O konvenční klasické narativní struktuře (trojaktová struktura) hovoří v souvislosti s tradičním lineárním vyprávěním. Ostatní vyprávění souhrnně označuje jako paralelní naraci.[6]

Aronson (ARONSON 2014) rozlišuje šest různých druhů filmů s paralelní narací, lišících se strukturou a rozdílnou filosofií. Těchto šest druhů dále dělí do dvou hlavních kategorií: filmy se skoky v čase a filmy bez skoků v čase. Filmy odehrávající se v jedné časové rovině označuje jako filmy s několika hlavními postavami a jejich vyprávěcí vzorce označuje jako mozaiku příběhů, příběhy se skupinovým hrdinou a filmy dvojí cesty. Filmy, které skoky v čase obsahují, nazývá nelineárními a dělí je na vyprávění s flashbacky a sled příběhů. Šestý druh filmů s paralelní narací je hybridní (kombinovaná) forma, která se podobá snímkům s několika hlavními postavami, ale obsahuje skoky v čase.

Filmy s několika hlvními postavami vždy využívají více dějových linií, které si jsou často rovny. Tato struktura je využívána pro zobrazení jednotlivců ve společnosti (válečné filmy, rodinná dramata, snímky o sociálních menšinách) a zachycují interakci v rámci společnosti. Navzájem rovnocenné příběhy, věnující se stejnému tématu, které se odehrávají ve stejné časové rovině a na společném místě a v průběhu filmu mezi nimi procházíme, to jsou charakteristiky mozaiky příběhů. Tento strukturální model by se dal charakterizovat jako „stejné téma, různé dobrodružství“ a byl využit například ve filmu Prostřihy (*Short Cuts,* Robert Altman, 1993) nebo Faunův labyrint (*El laberinto del fauno*, režie Guillermo del Toro, 2006).

Naproti tomu pro filmy se skupinovým hrdinou by charakterizace zněla: stejná skupina, stejné dobrodružsví. Jedná se o filmy se skupinou postav, které svede dohromay nějaké dobrodružství, nějaká mise nebo uvěznění. Všechny hlavní postavy těchto filmů představují růzé verze stejného hrdiny, jak jsme mohli vidět řeba ve filmu Americká krása (*American Beauty*, režie Sam Mendes, 1999) nebo starším snímku Sedm statečných (*The Magnificent Seven*, režie John Sturges, 1960).

Dalším vyprávěcím vzorcem je film dvojí cesty. V těchto příbězích jsou dvě hlavní postavy, dva paralelní žvoty, které se k sobě přibližují, nebo od sebe vzdalují, anebo se pohybují současně. Typickým snímkem, vyprávěným podle tohoto vzorce, je animovaný snímek Hledá se Nemo (*Finding Nemo*, režie Andrew Stanton, Lee Unkrich, 2003) nebo hraný film Thelma a Luisa (*Thelma and Louise*, režie Ridley Scott, 1991).

Podle Davida Bordwella (BORDWELL 2008) vznikly tzv. síťové narativy jako důležitá alternativa k zápletkám s jedním nebo dvěma protagonisty, přičemž působí v jednom momentě neotřele i povědomě, neobvykle i běžně. Tyto "síťové" zápletky, které působí v jednom momentě neotřele i povědomě, neobvykle i běžně, přirovnává k výskytu příběhů s flashbackem v šedesátých letech – jde o dominantní princip nekonvenčního vyprávění.

„Síťový narativ užívá všechny možnosti vyprávění obecně, včetně flashbacku, omezeného časového rámce apod., ale zároveň se tato forma vyznačuje svými specifickými zvláštnostmi. (...) Síťový narativ se zaměřuje na několik protagonistů, přičemž někteří se snaží o dosažení svých vlastních cílů, zatímco ostatní ani žádné cíle mít nemusejí. Ať už se tyto postavy

[6] Přičemž tvrdí, že všechny druhy nekonvenčního vyprávění vycházejí z tradičního tříaktového modelu s gradací a jako příklady uvádí filmy *Memento, Hodiny, 21 gramů* aj. U posledních dvou se domnívá, že z původního tříaktového modelu vedení jejich vyprávění bylo vynecháno druhé dějství - sestávají tedy ze silné stupňující se expozice a rovnou končí vyvrcholením.

navzájem znají, nebo ne, obývají více méně stejný časoprostorový rámec a mohou se setkat tváří v tvář. Jejich příběhové linie se protínají, přičemž může jít o setkání dvou či více postav. Postavy si mohou setkání samy domluvit (naplánování schůzky nebo stanovením termínu), ale často jsou setkání spíše dílem náhody." (BORDWELL 2008)

Filmy se skoky v čase jsou ze své podstaty nelineární. L. Aronson (ARONSON 2014) je dělí do kategorie nazvané vyprávění s flashbacky a sled příběhů. Flashbacky pak klasifikuje do šesti kategorií. Názorný flashback, nečastěji se jedná o flashback jako vzpomínku, flashback lítosti, rámcový flashback, flashback v prologu, flashback zásadní životní chvíle (útržkovité rozvzpomínání) a kategorie vyprávění ve dvou časových rovinách. Struktura spočívá ve dvou plnohodnotných příbězích, přičemž jeden je v přítomnosti a druhý v minulosti a děj mezi nimi přechází (jako např. v Amadeovi). Existují i další formy, využívající flashbacky, a přitom nespadají pod vyprávění ve dvou časových rovinách. Jsou to filmy, které vkládají lineární vyprávění do obrazu nebo sekvence z přítomnosti, jako jsme viděli ve filmu Titanic (*Titanic*, režie James Cameron, 1997) nebo Klub rváčů (*Fight Club*, režie David Fincher, 1999) nebo využívají obraz z prostřední či závěrečné části filmu a vloží jej na úplný začátek a po něm děj odvyráví buď chronologicky až do konce (Americká krása), anebo naopak nechronologicky zobrazují útržky z minulosti, jako ve filmu Annie Hallová (*Annie Hall*, režie Woody Allen, 1977).

Sledem příběhů má Aronson na mysli filmy, které mají samostatné příběhy, tedy i protagonisty a jsou vyprávěny postupně, jeden po druhém a nakonec se v závěru protnou. Poslední kategorii vzorců vyprávění označuje Aronson jako hybridní nelineární mozaiku příběhů a využily je snímky jako 21 gramů (*21 Grams*, režie Alejandro Gonzáles Iňárritu, 2003), snímek Babel (*Babel*, režie Alejandro Gonzáles Iňárritu, 2006) či film Hodiny, o nichž byla řeč již dříve. Nejčastějšími náměty a tématy filmů, využívajících nelineární mozaiku příběhů, jsou nečekaná a zhusta na náhodě založená setkání velmi kontrastních postav a postojů, obnažující důsledky řetězových reakcí třeba i nenápadných událostí.

„Databázový narativ" je podle Seana Cubitta (CUBITT 2004) narativní strategie, která je typická pro jednu linii soudobé zejména hollywoodské produkce, a to neobarokní film[7]. Barokní příběh není konstrukcí v čase, ale čistě abstraktní konstrukcí času, kde narace funguje jako tvorba schématu. Za neobarkní označuje třeba film Obvyklí podezřelí, v jehož konstrukci shledává až algoritmickou eleganci. Film Na Hromnice o den více pak podle něj nemá příběh v pravém smyslu slova, ale spíše je výsledkem jednoho z mnoha možných průchodů skrze databázi narativních událostí, jejichž souhra je spíše strukturní nebo arcitektonická, než časová.

Filmy tohoto typu vyprávějí stejný příběh dvakrát nebo třikrát, jako kdyby chtěl filmař experimentovat s různými konci. Jde o formu nápadně připomínající videohry, které umožňují protagonistovi, jenž umřel, příběh restartovat. Takové filmy mají k dispozici několik narativních událostí, které prezentují v různém pořadí a s různými konci, přičemž tyto události mohou být rovněž ukázány z různých hledisek.

Tento přehled vyprávěcích vzorců využitých ve filmových příbězích berme jako základní vytýčení scenáristcko-dramaturgického pole, abychom mohli pojmenovat aktuální tredy a tendence v současné tvorbě audiovizuálních děl.

2.2 Flashforwardy

Hlouběji se zabývám nelineárními vyprávěcími strukturami, zejména snímky se skoky v čase, a to se skoky v čase do budoucnosti (flashforwardy). Řečeno s Lindou Seger, zajímají mě repetitivní a paralelní struktury vedení vyprávění filmového příběhu. V terminologii Lindy

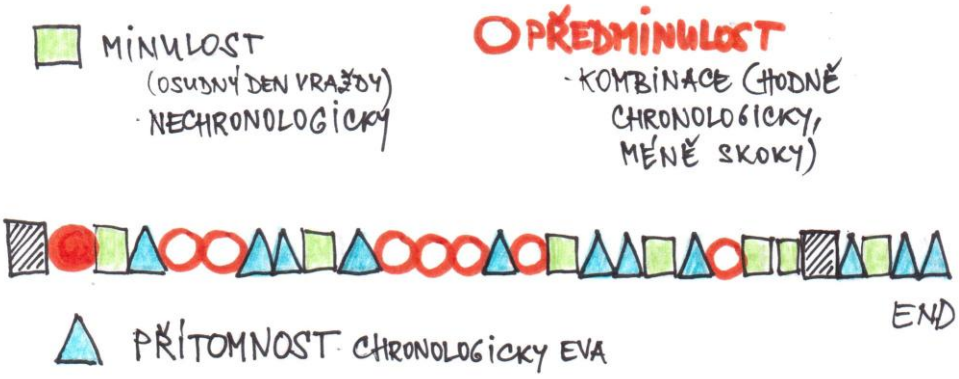
[7] Tento termín je většinou spojován se skupinou francouzských filmů 80. let (hlavně filmy Caraxe, Beineixe a Bessona), nicméně Cubitt jej používá v obecnějším smyslu a v souvislosti s hollywoodskou kinematografií.

Aronson jsou ve středu mého zájmu filmy se skoky v čase a hybridní formy filmového vyprávění. Tyto nelineární nechronologické vyprávěcí struktury, stejně jako příklon k databázovému narativu, považuji za aktuální trendy a tendence v audiovizuální naraci.
Flashforwardy rozumím ty části vyprávění, které teprve nastanou. Části fabule, které se v syžetu "předběhnout" ze svého místa v lineární linii vyprávění[8]. Označení flash - backu i - forwardu je odvislé od stanovení si přítomnosti (přítomné linie).
Zjišťuji, že mnohé prostřihy z jiných vrstev vyprávění nejsou v pravém slova smyslu ani flashbacky, ale ani flashforwardy. Obecně se například sny označují jako flashbacky, ovšem s tím nemohu souhlasit. A co vyjádření tužeb, proroctví, předtuch, nočních můr nebo deja vu? Bude správné přinést vlastní pojmenování sekvencí, vybočujících z lineárně-kauzálního plynutí vyprávění, jako scény "odjinud"? Jako např.: Flash-from-soul. (Sub-un-conscious = pod-ne-s-vědomí)? Možná "Flash - from - other - universe", nebo "- from - no-time".
Klíčovým shledávám nejen popsat dosavadní uplatnění flashforwardů, případně vysledování vyprávěcích vzorců, v nichž byly zatím použity. Zajímají mě odpovědi na otázky: jaké funkce flashforward ve filmovém vyprávění může mít, jakým způsobem - při zachování "čitelnosti" nebo ještě lépe srozumitelnosti filmu - může obohatit vnímání filmového vyprávění.
Jeden ze stěžejních momentů, při využití flashforwardu ve vyprávění, spočívá, podle mého názoru, v přenesení pozornosti od "CO se stane" k "JAK k tomu dojde".
Toto dotazování se po možnostech a účincích flashforwardů (vůbec kalkulování s budoucím filmovým časem) není a nemá být samoúčelným formalistním ozvláštňováním. Má pojmenovat praktické scenáristické možnosti, kterými autoři mohou obohacovat své příběhy.
Domnívám se, že - zvláště do prologu umístěný - jakýkoli záběr (obraz, sekvence) z pozdějšího filmového děje, by měl být označen jako flashforward (Aronson ovšem ve své klasifikaci hovoří o flashbacku v prologu).

Grafické znázornění struktury vyprávění s flashforwardem v prologu by mohlo vypadat takto:
Flashforward jako prolog ve filmu *Americká krása* (*American Beauty,* 1999)

Flashback, tentokrát ne v prologu, ale jako první záběr filmu, po němž následuje scéna rovněž flashbacková, z ještě "starší" minulostní linie vyprávění - takovou neobvyklou strukturu má film Musíme si promluvit o Kevinovi (We Need to Talk About Kevin, režie: Lynne Ramsay, 2011).

[8] Abychom rozlišili důležité pojmy, kterými jsou *syžet* a *fabule*, použiji definici Bordwella (BORDWELL 2011). Zatímco fabulí nazýváme „soubor všech událostí ve vyprávění – ať už explicitně uvedených, nebo vyvozených divákem, (…) termín syžet se používá k popsání všeho, co můžeme ve filmu před námi vidět a slyšet“.15 Pochopení rozdílu mezi těmito dvěma pojmy divákovi pomáhá uvědomit si, že příběh filmu tvoří i události, které se ve filmu explicitně neobjevují.



Film je tvořen třemi vyprávěcími liniemi: první vyprávěcí linie je v přítomnosti, druhá linie minulosti a třetí linie - linka "předminulosti". Linie přítomnosti zahrnuje období dvou let a začíná po zlomovém druhém bodě obratu vyprávění. Minulá linie je soustředěna na osudový den - zlomový okamžik ve vyprávění celého příběhu protagonistky Evy. Třetí linie, nazývám ji předpřítomná, je tvořena flashbacky, mapujícími minulý život hlavní postavy. Zachycuje život Evy, matky Kevina, agresora a vraha spolužáků, od okamžiků ještě před seznámením se s budoucím manželem a otcem dětí, až do doby ústředního konfliktu, její "dramatická délka" je více než sedmnáct let.
Linie v přítomnosti postupuje chronologicky, linie minulosti a předminulosti nechronologicky. Ke spojení linie přítomnosti a minulosti dojde ve druhém bodě obratu - a tím je synovo povraždění spolužáků ve škole. Linearita třetího dějství je narušena jedním flashbackem z předminulosti, tedy z období před svatbou Evy s manželem Franklinem.
První záběr filmu po titulcích (vlající záclona v otevřených balkónových dveřích) je zobrazením okamžiku, který teprve nastane v druhé linii, v linii minulosti. Následuje záběr z linie předminulosti - krvavá rajčatová bitva na ulici, v níže je Eva nesena davem v poloze ležícího Krista na kříži.
Systém vyprávění, kdy z linie minulosti /2/, tvořené flashbacky, je vyprávění prokládáno flashbacky linie předminulé /3/, přináší onu "architektonickou" slast ze sledování a z vytváření příběhových hypotéz. To, že se v případě hned druhého záběru filmu a následující dvě a půl minuty dlouhé sekvence, jedná o flashback, nemusí diváci rozkrýt, a přitom symbolický účinek této rudé lázně nebude umenšen, spíše naopak. Krvavá lázeň, druhá nejdelší scéna filmu, je "nejstarší" částí vyprávění třetí, předminulé linie (odehrálo se ještě před svatbou) a není kauzálně navázána na dějové události příběhu. Přináší informaci o Evině zážitku z doby před svatbou a - co je podle mě důležitější - metaforicky předznamenává téma stěžejní pro první linii vyprávění - život Evy v přítomnosti; vyrovnávání se se skutečností, že je matkou vraha a v postupném přijímání své viny. Motivy očisty, očišťování duše Evy, jsou podpořeny událostmi v přítomnosti, kdy čelí morálnímu odsouzení společností, což je vyjádřeno skrze drhnutí červené barvy ze stěn a oken domu, auta. Smývání viny, rozpouštění rudé barvy jako odpuštění.

3 ZÁVĚR

Principy vyprávění i jejich následná interpretace a hledání významů se odklánějí od logicky vysledovatelných kauzálních řetězců příčin a následků. Vazby jsou spíše asociativní, intuitivní, aktivující kreativní myšlení diváků. Posilování kreativních přístupů nejen při sledování filmů, ale i v ostatních životních situacích, považuji za dominantní proměnu ve vnímání a prožívání života i světa. Otevírá nekonečné možnosti průniků oblastí, dříve vnímaných odděleně. Kreativní myšlení jako dominanta nejen uměleckého světa, ale i všech dalších možných světů - i vědeckých. I při psaní teoretických disertačních prací pojďme využít kreativní způsoby myšlení. Tak budeme schopni přinést řešení "out of the box". V

kreativním přístupu vidím šanci, jak přestat recyklovat staré osvědčené myšlenkové vzorce. Tudy vede cesta také k interdisciplinaritě.

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VYBRANÁ OMEZENÍ VLASTNICKÉHO PRÁVA JAKO STŘET PRÁVA VEŘEJNÉHO A SOUKROMÉHO

SELECTED LIMITATIONS OF RIGHT TO PROPERTY AS CONFLICT OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE LAW

Eliška Fischerová

Abstrakt

Příspěvek se zabývá ústavněprávními a občanskoprávními východisky pro omezení vlastnického práva a dále se zaměřuje na jeho vybrané případy (vyvlastnění a veřejné užívání).

Klíčová slova: *vlastnické právo, veřejné užívání, vyvlastnění*

Abstract

The paper deals with the constitutional and civil bases for limitation of the right to property and it also focuses on its selected examples (the expropriation and the public use).

Key words: *right to property, public use, expropriation*

1 ÚVOD

Vlastnické právo představuje absolutní základ ekonomického systému – tržního hospodářství, v němž se ekonomické subjekty snaží zajistit co největší množství majetku.[1] Současně je předpokladem svobody a rozvoje jednotlivce v jeho soukromoprávních aktivitách. Náleží do skupiny základních přirozených práv, která jsou nezadatelná, nezcizitelná, nepromlčitelná a nezrušitelná, a současně představuje nejdůležitější právo věcné.[2]

Přestože je vlastnické právo vnímáno jako nejméně omezitelné věcné právo, může být limitováno. Předkládaný příspěvek se zabývá ústavněprávními východisky omezení vlastnického práva a jejich reflexí v zákonné úpravě ve vybraných případech. Autorka vychází z hypotézy, že omezení vlastnického práva představuje střet práva soukromého a veřejného. Cílem příspěvku je analyzovat podstatu a povahu vybraných omezení vlastnického práva (vyvlastnění a veřejného užívání) ve světle ústavněprávních limitů.

2 POJEM VLASTNICKÉHO PRÁVA

Chceme-li zodpovědět otázku, co se rozumí vlastnickým právem, je nutné zabývat se jeho různými pojetími, mezi nimiž se nejvíce prosadilo pojetí syntetické a analytické.

2.1 Pojetí syntetické (teorie právního panství)

Syntetické pojetí vlastnického práva (nebo též teorie právního panství) chápe vlastnictví jako celek, aniž by byla rozlišována jednotlivá dílčí oprávnění vlastníka, a současně jako právní panství nad věcí. Vlastnické právo tedy znamená ovládání věci – naprostou a výlučnou možnost disponovat s věcí v mezích právního řádu. Toto pojetí se prosadilo již v prvních civilních kodexech (Code Civil nebo ABGB) a převažuje dodnes.

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[1] KLÍMA, Karel. *Praktikum českého ústavního práva.* 3. vyd. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2009, s. 302.
[2] FIALA, Josef a kol. *Občanské právo hmotné.* 3 vyd. Brno: Masarykova univerzita Brno, 1993, s. 106.

Současně je však nutné zdůraznit, že ani výkon tohoto právní panství nad věcí není zcela nelimitovaný, neboť je přinejmenším vždy omezen výkonem vlastnického práva jiných subjektů.[3]
V právním řadu České republiky je neomezenost vlastnického práva též ovlivněna tzv. Hedemannovou koncepcí, jejíž odraz lze najít v čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny základních práv a svobod (dále jen Listina), podle jehož znění vlastnictví zavazuje. Podle této koncepce, která se zrodila ve francouzské a německé právní vědě ve 20. století, plní vlastnictví sociální funkci – tedy má současně sloužit nejenom jednotlivci, ale i blahu společnosti. Přestože tento přístup k vlastnickému právu není přesně definován, je pro něj typický zákaz zneužití práva a skutečnost, že je vlastnické právo spjato i s řadou povinností.[4]

2.2 Pojetí analytické (teorie dílčích oprávnění)

Analytická definice vlastnického práva nahlíží na vlastnické právo prizmatem jednotlivých dílčích vlastníkových oprávnění; *ius possidendi, ius utendi, ius fruendi* a *ius abutendi*, která představují obsah vlastnického práva.[5] Toto pojetí se promítlo v německé právu v BGB a do občanského zákoníku č. 40/1964 Sb. Nevýhoda tohoto pojetí však zůstává v nemožnosti vyjmenovat všechna vlastníkova dílčí oprávnění přímo v textu zákona.[6]
Lze shrnout, že vlastnické právo můžeme definovat jako *„právem zakotvenou možnost vlastníka v mezích stanovených právním řádem držet a užívat věci a nakládat s nimi podle své úvahy a ve svém zájmu, a to mocí, která je nezávislá na existenci moci kohokoli k téže věci v téže době.“*[7] Vlastnické právo je v České republice regulováno jak na ústavní, tak zákonné úrovni.

2.3 Ve světle práva ústavního

Čl. 11 odst. 1 Listiny garantuje, že každý má právo vlastnit majetek a vlastnické právo všech vlastníků má stejný zákonný obsah a ochranu. Rovněž se zaručuje dědění. Listina tedy všem zaručuje stejný zákonný obsah a ochranu jejich vlastnického práva. Ačkoli Listina nedovoluje, s ohledem na zásadu rovnosti, vytvářet různé kategorie vlastnického práva, které by požívaly různé stupně ochrany, její čl. 11 odst. 2 zakotvuje výjimku pro případy realizace veřejného zájmu, podle níž je možné zákonem stanovit, který majetek nezbytný k zabezpečování potřeb celé společnosti, rozvoje národního hospodářství a veřejného zájmu smí být jen ve vlastnictví státu, obce nebo určených právnických osob; zákon může také stanovit, že určité věci mohou být pouze ve vlastnictví občanů nebo právnických osob se sídlem v České a Slovenské Federativní Republice.[8] Tedy umožňuje, aby vybrané statky byly předmětem vlastnického práva omezeného okruhu subjektů.

2.4 Ve světle občanského zákoníku

Na Listinu navazuje a její ustanovení rozvíjí z. č. 89/2012 Sb., občanský zákoník (dále jen občanský zákoník) a to tak, že právní úprava obsažená v těchto předpisech představuje obecný regulatorní rámec vlastnického práva. Význam vlastnického práva a důraz na jeho ochranu je zdůrazněn již v úvodních ustanoveních soukromoprávního kodexu, podle jehož § 3 odst. 2 písm. e) platí, že vlastnické právo je chráněno zákonem a jen zákon může stanovit způsoby jeho vzniku a zániku.

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[3] DVOŘÁK, Jan. *Občanské právo hmotné 3 – Díl třetí: Věcná práva.* Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2015, s. 29.
[4] FIALA, Josef a kol. *Občanské právo hmotné.* 3. vyd. Brno: Masarykova univerzita Brno, 1993, s. 107.
[5] Blíže viz DVOŘÁK, Jan. *Občanské právo hmotné 3 – Díl třetí: Věcná práva.* Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2015, s. 31.
[6] Tamtéž, s. 31.
[7] FIALA, Josef a kol. *Občanské právo hmotné*. 3. vyd. Brno: Masarykova univerzita Brno, 1993, s. 105.
[8] KLÍMA, Karel. *Praktikum českého ústavního práva.* 3. vyd. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2009, s. 304.

Občanský zákoník rozlišuje mezi vlastnickým právem v objektivním a subjektivním smyslu, a snaží se tak odlišit pojmy „vlastnické právo“ a „vlastnictví“, které jsou v praxi používány *promiscue*. Vlastnictví představuje objekt vlastnického práva – vše, co někomu patří, tedy všechny věci hmotné i nehmotné.[9] V pojetí subjektivním vlastnické právo označuje subjektivní právo, které vlastníkovi dovoluje, aby svým vlastnictvím v mezích právního řádu libovolně nakládal a jiné osoby z toho vyloučil. Současně se však vlastníkovi zakazuje nad míru přiměřenou poměrům závažně rušit práva jiných osob, jakož i vykonávat takové činy, jejichž hlavním účelem je jiné osoby obtěžovat nebo poškodit.[10]
Občanský zákoník tak opouští analytické pojetí vlastnického práva tak, jak bylo upraveno v § 123 občanského zákoníku[11] z roku 1964,[12] nesnaží se o jeho definici a současně se přiklání k jeho syntetickému pojetí.
S ohledem na shora uvedené lze sumarizovat podstatné rysy vlastnického práva. Dle J. Dvořáka vlastnické právo představuje nejobsáhlejší věcné právo, které zajišťuje jeho nositeli právo s jeho vlastnictvím libovolně nakládat, je omezené, resp. omezitelné a současně je pro něj charakteristická jeho přímost a nezávislost na právu jiného. Dále zaručuje vlastníkovi možnost bránit se vůči neoprávněným zásahům.[13]
K dalším nesporným rysům vlastnického práva též patří jeho elasticita a trvalost. Trvalost (persistence) vlastnického práva znamená, že i případech, kdy vlastník pozbude některá z dílčích oprávnění, jeho vlastnické právo nezanikne. Díky trvalosti zůstane vlastníkem dokonce i v situacích, kdy by pozbyl všechna dílčí oprávnění imanentní vlastnickému právu; tento stav se označuje jako holé vlastnictví (*nuda proprietas*). K dalším charakteristickým atributům náleží též elasticita vlastnického práva, která úzce souvisí s jeho možným omezením. Jakmile pominou právní či faktická omezení vlastnického práva, obnoví se ve svém původním rozsahu. Elastičnost vlastnického práva podporuje tezi o jeho omezitelnosti.

3 OMEZENÍ VLASTNICKÉHO PRÁVA

Vlastnické právo nelze chápat jak absolutně neomezené právní panství nad věcí. Jedná se o pouhou myšlenkovou konstrukci v praxi obtížně realizovatelnou, neboť vlastník žije ve společenství dalších osob nadaných obdobným právem.[14] Obecně se rozlišuje mezi omezeními, která platí pro všechny vlastníky bez výjimky a vyplývají ze samotné podstaty vlastnického práva, neboť je pojmově spjato i s určitými povinnosti (tzv. pojmová omezení). Vedle nich existují i vnější omezení, jejichž původ leží mimo vlastnické právo a jejichž příčinou je kolize vlastnického práva s jinými právy a oprávněnými zájmy.[15] Teoreticky je možné omezení vlastnického práva členit též podle právního titulu, na jehož základě k omezení dojde; tj. na základě právního jednání, ex lege, nebo rozhodnutím orgánu veřejné moci. Oporu pro omezení vlastnické práva stanoví Listina, na kterou navazují další předpisy soukromoprávní (především občanský zákoník), ale i veřejnoprávní povahy. Z tohoto pohledu

[9] § 1011 OZ.
[10] § 1012 OZ, blíže též Důvodová zpráva k OZ.
[11] Dle § 123 občanského zákoníku z roku 1964 platilo: *„Vlastník je v mezích zákona oprávněn předmět svého vlastnictví držet, užívat, požívat jeho plody a užitky a nakládat s ním.“*
[12] Pojetí vlastnického práva v občanském zákoníku z roku 1964 je kritizováno zejména proto, že oddělovalo pozitivní a negativní stránku vlastnického práva, seznam jednotlivých dílčích oprávnění odporoval jednotnosti, úplnosti a elasticitě vlastnického práva a současně nerespektoval klasickou romanistickou triádu vlastnického práva. Blíže Důvodová zpráva k OZ, s. 260.
[13] DVOŘÁK, Jan. *Občanské právo hmotné 3 – Díl třetí: Věcná práva*. Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2015, s. 32.
[14] SPÁČIL, Jindřich a kol. *Občanský zákoník III. Věcná práva (§ 976-1474). Komentář.* Praha: C. H. Beck, 2013, s. 143.
[15] FIALA, Josef a kol. *Občanské právo hmotné*. 3. vyd. Brno: Masarykova univerzita Brno, 1993, s. 108.

je možné též rozlišovat mezi soukromoprávním a veřejnoprávním omezením vlastnického práva.[16]

3.1 Ústavněprávní východiska a jejich reflexe v občanském zákoníku

Ústavní základ pro omezení vlastnického práva vyplývá z čl. 11 odst. 3 a 4 Listiny. Podle čl. 11 odst. 3 platí*: „Vlastnictví zavazuje. Nesmí být zneužito na újmu práv druhých anebo v rozporu se zákonem chráněnými obecnými zájmy. Jeho výkon nesmí poškozovat lidské zdraví, přírodu a životní prostředí nad míru stanovenou zákonem.“* Ze spojení „vlastnictví zavazuje“ je zřejmě, že se Listina nepřiklání k individualistickému pojetí vlastnického práva a zdůrazňuje jeho sociální funkci, tedy odpovědnost vlastníka ve vztahu ke společnosti, vůči které se má chovat tak, aby výkonem svého vlastnického práva neohrožoval zájmy ostatních.[17] Tento článek je považován *„za tzv. sociální základ dimenze vlastnického práva a jeho výklad a významové posouvání teoreticky umožňuje rozšiřovat prostor pro sociální využití vlastnictví jednotlivce.“*[18] Tento rozšiřující výklad pak nalézá svůj odraz v možnosti omezit vlastnické právo právě z důvodu sociální funkce vlastnictví neboli z důvodu závazku jednotlivce vůči společnosti bez nároku na náhradu za toto omezení. Na základě sociální koncepce vlastnictví se tedy považuje za zcela legitimní omezit vlastnické právo za předpokladu, že je toto omezení stanoveno zákonem, sleduje legitimní cíl a zachovává vztah proporcionality mezi omezením a výhodou pro společnost.[19] V případě, kdy by bylo omezení vlastnického práva legitimní a legální z důvodu jeho sociální funkce, avšak vlastník by musel snášet nepřiměřené břemeno, stává se omezením dle čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, za něž náleží náhrada. Na ústavní rámec pak navazují jednotlivá ustanovení občanského zákoníku. Čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny se projevuje ve znění § 1012 OZ, podle jehož věty druhé se vlastníku obecně zakazuje nad míru přiměřeným poměrům závažně rušit práva jiných osob, jakož i vykonávat takové činy, jejichž hlavním účelem je jiné osoby obtěžovat nebo poškodit. Konkrétní omezení jsou pak upravena § 1013 až 1023 OZ, prostřednictvím zákazu imisí a dalších specifických opatření, která souvisí s pozemkovými úpravami, pěstováním rostlin, chovem zvířat (oblast tzv. sousedských práv).

Čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny stanoví ústavní rámec pro nucené omezení vlastnického práva, jakožto nejintenzivnější zásah do tohoto základního práva. Vyvlastnění nebo nucené omezení vlastnického práva je možné pouze za rigorózních podmínek, a to ve veřejném zájmu, na základě zákona a za náhradu. Občanský zákoník upravuje případy nuceného omezení vlastnického práva z důvodu veřejného zájmu ve dvou případech, a to v případě nezbytného použití cizí věci (§ 1037 OZ) nebo vyvlastnění (§ 1038 až 1039 OZ).[20]

4 VYVLASTNĚNÍ

Nejzávažnějším zásahem do vlastnického práva je bezpochyby vyvlastnění. Dle § 1038 OZ platí, že je možné vlastnické právo omezit nebo věc vyvlastnit ve veřejném zájmu, který nelze uspokojit jinak a jen na základě zákona. Současně je stanoveno, že za vyvlastnění nebo omezení vždy náleží plná náhrada odpovídající míře, v jaké byl majetek takovými opatřeními dotčen.

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[16] SPÁČIL, Jindřich a kol. *Občanský zákoník III. Věcná práva (§ 976-1474). Komentář*. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2013, s. 142.

[17] ŠIMÁČKOVÁ, Kateřina. In WAGNEROVÁ, Eliška a kol. *Listina základních práv a svobod. Komentář*. Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2012, s. 312.

[18] KLÍMA, Karel. *Praktikum českého ústavního práva*. 3. vyd. Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2009, s. 305.

[19] ŠIMÁČKOVÁ, Kateřina. In WAGNEROVÁ, Eliška a kol. *Listina základních práv a svobod. Komentář*. Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2012, s. 312.

[20] Nezbytná cesta (§ 1029 až 1036 OZ) představuje institut, který stojí mezi sousedskými právy a omezením vlastnického práva ve veřejném zájmu.

Lze tedy shrnout, že vyvlastnění (expropriace) znamená pro vlastníka úplné pozbytí jeho vlastnického práva jako důsledek jeho nuceného přechodu z vyvlastňovaného na vyvlastnitele na základě rozhodnutí orgánu veřejné moci.
Vyvlastnění (nebo omezení vlastnického práva) je spjato s vydáním správního aktu vyvlastňovacím úřadem ve vyvlastňovacím řízení, jehož legislativní úprava je obsažena v z. č. 184/2006 Sb., o odnětí nebo omezení vlastnického práva k pozemku nebo ke stavbě (zákon o vyvlastnění), který stanovuje obecný rámec pro vyvlastnění. Tento předpis v posledních letech doznal řady změn a současně reflektoval judikaturu, která se od roku 2003 vyjadřovala k nejasné povaze rozhodnutí o vyvlastnění (omezení vlastnického práva).
Rozhodnutí o vyvlastnění obsahuje dva výroky, a sice výrok o vyvlastnění (samotný expropriační akt) a o náhradě za vyvlastnění.
Rozhoduje-li vyvlastňovací úřad o výši náhrady za vyvlastnění, panuje obecná shoda, že se jedná o otázku soukromoprávní, neboť v tomto vztahu figuruje vyvlastňovaný a vyvlastnitel, kteří vystupují v rovném postavení, a účelem náhrady je *„znovuobnovení narušené rovnováhy zúčastněných zájmů, tj. v tomto případě opětovné nastolení majetkové rovnováhy mezi soukromými subjekty.“*[21]
Ohledně povahy samotného expropriačního aktu však jednotný přístup absentoval. V období od roku 2003 do 2004[22] převažoval názor, že rozhoduje-li vyvlastňovací úřad o vyvlastnění, rozhoduje v soukromoprávní oblasti s ohledem na soukromoprávní povahu vlastnického práva. S tímto závěrem se však neztotožnil rozšířený senát Nejvyššího správního soudu, podle něhož soudy dostatečně nerozlišovaly předmět řízení a směšovaly vlastnické právo se zásahem do vlastnického práva.[23] *„Do subjektivního vlastnického práva, tj. vůči všem působícího oprávnění vlastníka věc držet, užívat a požívat a disponovat s ní, lze zasáhnout nejrůznějšími způsoby, a přesto pouhá skutečnost, že došlo k zásahu do soukromého práva sama o sobě evidentně neznamená, že i takový zásah má soukromoprávní charakter.“*[24]
Předmětem řízení je tak samotný veřejnoprávní zásah do vlastnického práva, nikoli právo samotné.[25]
Nejvyšší správní soud konstatoval, že je ohledně vyvlastnění aplikována veřejnoprávní metoda právní regulace: *„Subjekty právního vztahu v tomto případě nejsou expropriát (vyvlastňovaný) a expropriant, ale toliko expropriát na straně jedné a stát reprezentovaný stavebním úřadem*[26] *na straně druhé.“*[27] Vyvlastňovaný a stavební úřad nevstupují do takového vztahu dobrovolně a v rovném postavení, jelikož stavební úřad jako nositel veřejné moci sám zakládá právní vztah správním aktem, v němž rozhodne o vyvlastnění i přes nesouhlas vyvlastňovaného.
V roce 2007 nabyl účinnosti zákon o vyvlastnění, jehož § 28 navzdory předchozí judikatuře překvapivě svěřil přezkum rozhodnutí jak o náhradě, tak o vyvlastnění civilním soudům, které tak v druhém případě projednávaly otázky veřejného práva vzhledem k povaze expropriačního aktu (jednalo se o rozšíření civilní pravomoci). Model sjednoceného soudního přezkumu však přetrval jen do roku 2013, kdy došlo k dalšímu legislativnímu obratu. Zákon o vyvlastnění byl novelizován a navrátil se k duálnímu modelu soudního přezkumu; od roku 2013 je rozhodnutí vyvlastňovacího úřadu o náhradě i nadále přezkoumatelné v občanském soudním řízení, zatímco přezkum rozhodnutí o vyvlastnění je svěřen soudnictví správnímu.

[21] Rozsudek Nejvyššího správního soudu ze dne 20. prosince 2004, sp. zn. 4 As 47/2003.
[22] V tomto období bylo vyvlastnění regulováno z. č. 50/1976 Sb., o územním plánování a stavebním řádu.
[23] VOLKOVÁ, Jana. Příslušnost soudů ve věcech vyvlastnění ve vleku neustálých legislativních změn. *Právní rozhledy*. 2013, roč. 21, č. 19, s. 660.
[24] Rozsudek Nejvyššího správního soudu ze dne 20. prosince 2004, sp. zn. 4 As 47/2003.
[25] Blíže WINTEROVÁ, Alena. Soudní ochrana při vyvlastnění. *Právní fórum.* 2009, roč. 6, č. 5, s. 195.
[26] Dle původní úpravy (v zák. č. 50/1976 Sb., o územním plánování a stavebním řádu) o vyvlastnění rozhodoval stavební úřad.
[27] Rozsudek Nejvyššího správního soudu ze dne 20. prosince 2004, sp. zn. 4 As 47/2003.

Byť mohou někteří pochybovat o praktičností tohoto modelu, je nutné přisvědčit argumentaci Nejvyššího správního soudu vycházející z důsledného rozlišování mezi právem soukromým a veřejným.

5 VEŘEJNÉ UŽÍVÁNÍ

Dalším specifickým případem omezení vlastnického práva je institut veřejného užívání, které představuje hraniční oblast mezi právem soukromým a veřejným. Veřejným užíváním se rozumí *„užívání všeobecně přístupných materiálních statků, které odpovídá jejich účelovému určení, předem neomezeným okruhem uživatelů.“*[28]

Veřejné užívání se rozlišuje na dva druhy, a to veřejné užívání obecné a zvláštní, které je podmíněno vydáním správního rozhodnutí. Obecné užívání vzniká přímo ze zákona, který zpravidla upravuje i meze jeho výkonu nezávisle na vůli vlastníka. U obou typů platí, že není podstatné, kdo je vlastníkem onoho materiálního statku. Materiální statek může být ve vlastnictví jak veřejnoprávní právnické osoby, tak osob soukromého práva. Vlastník je však tímto specifickým režimem výrazně limitován ve svém vlastnickém právu a to tím, že předmět veřejného užívání může užívat kdokoli jiný.

S ohledem na vzájemné vazby mezi právem vlastnickým a veřejným užíváním se vyvinuly tři teoretické přístupy. Podle civilistického přístupu je vlastnické právo k předmětu veřejného užívání institutem práva soukromého, ale s veřejnoprávním modifikovaným obsahem. Publicistický přístup neuznává vůbec existenci vlastnického práva k předmětu veřejného užívání a vnímá jej jako výsostné právo státu. Podle teorie veřejného vlastnictví je vlastnické právo uznáváno, ale slouží přímo veřejnému zájmu.[29]

Podle současných judikaturních závěrů je veřejné užívání institutem práva veřejného. *„Nárok veřejného užívání komunikací není a nemůže být upraven předpisy soukromého práva, neboť jde o oprávnění různých subjektů vůči státu a jako institut práva veřejného byl upraven již v příslušných ustanovení Obecného zákoníku občanského z roku 1811.“*[30] Nepopiratelně je však úzce spjato i s právem soukromým. K civilistické povaze se veřejné užívání přiblížilo v důsledku rekodifikace soukromého práva. Nově přímo § 490 OZ stanoví, že věc určená k obecnému užívání je veřejným statkem.[31] Tímto statkem jsou typicky pozemní komunikace, lesy nebo vody.

Oproti vyvlastnění nebo jinému omezení vlastnického práva však vlastníkům veřejných statků není garantováno právo na náhradu za toto omezení, je proto otázkou, zda je takovéto omezení ústavně konformní ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, nebo ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny.

Pro vlastníky lesů dle § 19 lesního zákona platí,[32] že *„každý má právo vstupovat do lesa na vlastní nebezpečí, sbírat tam pro vlastní potřebu lesní plody a suchou na zemi ležící klest.“* Vlastník je tedy ze zákona povinen strpět vstup neomezeného okruhu subjektů do jeho lesa a též sběr plodů, aniž by na straně oprávněných vznikalo bezdůvodné obohacení. Dle odborné literatury se nejedná o nucené omezení vlastnického práva ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, ale možnost veřejného užívání je dovozována ze sociální funkce vlastnictví ve smyslu čl. 11odst. 3 Listiny, za kterou náhrada nepřísluší. *„Povinnost vlastníka lesa respektovat, že lidé mají*

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[28] HENDRYCH, Dušan. *Správní právo: obecná část*. 8. vyd. Praha: C. H. Beck, 2012, s. 307.

[29] Tamtéž, s. 312.

[30] Usnesení Ústavního soudu ze dne 8. listopadu 2000, sp. zn. II. ÚS 427/2000.

[31] Veřejný statek je pojmově užší než statek materiální. Zatímco veřejným statkem může být pouze věc, materiální statkem mohou být i takové statky, které nepředstavují věc v soukromém právu.
Blíže MÁCHA, Aleš. Veřejné užívání a bezdůvodné obohacení. In HANDRLICA, Jakub (ed.).
Veřejné právo a právo soukromé. Aktuální tendence a výzvy veřejnoprávní úpravy plynoucí z problematiky právního dualismu. Praha: Univerzita Karlova, Právnická fakulta, 2014, s. 154.

[32] Zákon č. 289/1995 Sb., lesní zákon.

právo vstupovat do lesa, sbírat tam plody a klest za předpokladu, že nebudou poškozovat les a ani porušovat pokyny vlastníka, je zcela legitimní a přiměřená.“[33]
Mácha shrnuje podmínky, za kterých je možné vlastnického právo omezit veřejným užíváním bez náhrady a bez souhlasu vlastníka. Toto omezení musí být dáno přímo zákonem, současně musí být legitimní a zásah do vlastnického práva musí být proporcionální, tedy míra omezení vlastníka nesmí přesáhnout míru výhody pro ostatní.[34]
Otázka veřejného užívání má též zásadní význam pro vlastníky jedné z kategorií pozemních komunikací - účelových komunikací, které se dále člení na veřejně a neveřejně přístupné. Tato kategorie pozemních komunikací vzniká přímo ze zákona a rovněž je přímo ze zákona podrobena režimu veřejného užívání, neboť platí, že *„v mezích zvláštních předpisů upravujících provoz na pozemních komunikacích a za podmínek stanovených tímto zákonem smí každý užívat pozemní komunikace bezplatně obvyklým způsobem a k účelům, ke kterým jsou určeny (dále jen "obecné užívání"), pokud pro zvláštní případy nestanoví tento zákon nebo zvláštní předpis jinak.*“[35] V případě, kdy vznikne na pozemku vlastníka veřejně přístupná účelová komunikace, je bezpochyby výrazně omezen ve výkonu svého vlastnického práva ostatními uživateli. Otázkou zůstává, zda toto omezení splňuje požadavek proporcionality a lze jej justifikovat s odkazem na čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny. Připomeňme, že pokud břemeno spjato s veřejným užíváním nepřiměřeně zatěžuje vlastníka, jedná se o omezení ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny. Ústavní soud v tomto případě judikoval ve svém nálezu ze dne 9. ledna 2008, že “ústavně konformní omezení vlastnického práva je proto možné pouze ve veřejném zájmu, na základě zákona a za náhradu, přičemž míra a rozsah omezení musí být proporcionální ve vztahu k cíli, který omezení sleduje, a prostředkům, jimiž je omezení dosahováno. Tam, kde jedna z těchto podmínek nuceného omezení vlastnického práva absentuje (například zákon nepředpokládá poskytnutí kompenzace za jeho omezení), jedná se o neústavní porušení vlastnického práva. V takových případech lze ústavně konformně omezit vlastnické právo pouze se souhlasem vlastníka, a nelze tedy vůbec hovořit o jeho nuceném (resp. vynuceném) omezení, jak má na mysli čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny. Jinak řečeno, existuje-li v zákoně veřejnoprávní institut omezující vlastnické právo, aniž by s tímto omezením spojoval poskytnutí náhrady, je nezbytnou podmínkou jeho ústavní konformity souhlas vyjádřený vlastníkem.“[36] V daném případě Ústavní soud nevycházel ze sociální funkce vlastnictví ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny, ani nuceného omezení vlastnického práva dle čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, ale dospěl k závěru, že se jedná o omezení dobrovolné a závislé na vůli vlastníka. Ohledně požadavků na souhlas platí, že tento souhlas může být výslovný, ale i konkludentní. Tento souhlas pak přechází z původního na nového vlastníka účelové komunikace a není třeba udělení souhlasu od vlastníka nového.[37]

6 ZÁVĚR

Autorka se ve svém příspěvku zaměřila na vlastnické právo a jeho vybraná omezení v soudobém právu jako projev střetu mezi právem veřejným soukromým. Přestože je vlastnické právo tradičně vnímáno jako nejméně omezitelné právo věcné, již ústavní pořádek zakotvuje způsoby jeho omezení, která se promítají do zákonné úrovně. Listina zdůrazňuje, že vlastnictví zavazuje a z této textace je dovozována sociální funkce vlastnictví, která může vést za splnění dalších předpokladů

[33] ŠIMÁČKOVÁ, Kateřina. In WAGNEROVÁ, Eliška a kol. *Listina základních práv a svobod. Komentář*. Praha: Wolters Kluwer, 2012, s. 312.
[34] MÁCHA, Aleš. Veřejné užívání a bezdůvodné obohacení. In HANDRLICA, Jakub (ed.). *Veřejné právo a právo soukromé. Aktuální tendence a výzvy veřejnoprávní úpravy plynoucí z problematiky právního dualismu*. Praha: Univerzita Karlova, Právnická fakulta, 2014, s. 156.
[35] § 19 zák. č. 13/1997 Sb., o pozemních komunikacích.
[36] Nález Ústavního soudu ze dne 9. ledna 2008, sp. zn. II. ÚS 268/06, nebo též nález Ústavního soudu ze dne 18. května 2017, sp. zn. I. ÚS 4103/16.
[37] Rozsudek Nejvyššího správního soudu ze dne 2. května 2012, sp. zn. 1 As 32/2012.

k omezení vlastnického práva bez náhrady právě z důvodu plnění této funkce ve společnosti ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny. Listina současně představuje ústavní základ pro vyvlastnění a další nucená omezení vlastnického práva, která jsou realizovatelná pouze za rigorózních podmínek a vždy za náhradu (čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny).
Na tento ústavněprávní rámec pak navazuje nejenom občanský zákoník, jakožto výchozí kodex soukromého práva, ale rovněž další právní předpisy i z oblasti práva veřejného, které stanoví limity pro vlastnické právo. Omezení vlastnického práva tak představuje střet mezi těmito dvěma hemisférami našeho právního řádu, a to práva veřejného a soukromého. Závěru o povaze vyvlastňovacího aktu předcházel poměrně bohatý judikaturní a legislativní vývoj, který potvrdil, že se jedná o typický veřejnoprávní zásah do vlastnického práva. Hraniční charakter (neboť v sobě nese jak prvky soukromoprávní, tak veřejnoprávní) pak vykazuje institut veřejného užívání, který výrazně omezuje vlastníka, avšak mu není příslušnými zákony přiznána náhrada za toto omezení. Autorčiným předmětem zájmu se stala otázka, zda se jedná o omezení vlastnického práva pro jeho sociální funkci ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny, nebo o omezení ve smyslu čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, za něž má náležet náhrada. Analýzou vybrané judikatury a odborné literatury dospěla k závěru, že přístup k posuzování veřejného užívání není jednotný. Zatímco v případě vlastnictví lesa nachází omezení vlastníka oporu v čl. 11 odst. 3 Listiny s poukazem na jeho význam pro společnost, v případě vlastníků účelových pozemních komunikací judikatura dospěla k závěru, že východiskem pro omezení nemůže být sociální funkce vlastnictví tohoto veřejného statku, současně se nemůže jednat ani o omezení dle čl. 11 odst. 4 Listiny, a proto se jedná o omezení vycházející z vůle vlastníka. Autorka se domnívá, že lze pochybovat o ústavně konformní interpretaci veřejného užívání v případě, kdy je toto omezení justifikováno rozdílně v závislosti na tom, jaký materiální statek se stane předmětem takovéhoto posuzování, a současně v situaci, kdy souhlas vlastníka přechází na jeho další právní nástupce bez reálné možnosti ho odvolat.[38]

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[38] Rozsudek Nejvyššího správního soudu ze dne 2. května 2012, sp. zn. 1 As 32/2012.

HYBRIDIZATION OF NATIONAL LANGUAGES: THE CASE OF THE SLOVAK LANGUAGE

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Abstract:

The phenomenon of hybridization of languages is supported by globalization in various aspects of life. The introductory part of the paper summarizes definitions of key concepts related to the question of hybridization. It also offers a sociolinguistic point of view onto globalization and the causes of linguistic globalization. The main objective of the article is to analyse some of the possible causes and consequences of hybridization of the Slovak language. The empirical part offers an analysis of hybrid elements in mass media, particularly in print; in colloquial language and, last but not least, in the technical language of politics and business. Slovak counterparts are suggested to substitute some of the hybrid elements. A partial objective of the article is to provide possible solutions for the decrease of further hybridization of the Slovak language. The research hypothesis is also stated in the empirical part, and it has been proved. The method of analysis and a questionnaire were used to study specific linguistic forms in the area of mass media and everyday speech. The conclusion summarizes the findings of the analysis.

Key words: *History of language. Globalization. Hybridization. Sociolinguistics, Slovak language*

1 INTRODUCTION

What is the accurate term to designate a process when one language is dominantly influenced by another language? Is it a hybrid or mixed language? Oxford Dictionary describes mixed language as: "*A language made up of a mixture of elements from two or more languages; specifically (a) one which has been substantially influenced by another language (as English by Norman French) (now in non-technical use); (b) one which arises under conditions of contact between speakers of two or more languages, including pidgins and Creoles; a contact language"* (Oxford online dictionary). On the other hand, term hybrid language is not that well spread or is even unknown to the dictionaries. Nevertheless, we have decided to use this term instead of mixed language maybe because 'hybrid' refers to a thing made up from combining two elements creating one single unite and it holds some negative connotation.

As Whinnom mentions, that there is "no other wholly satisfactory term for the phenomenon of language-mixing, but, *mutatis mutandis*, the biological and linguistic processes of hybridization are closely comparable if not mechanically identical" (Whinnom, 1971, p. 91). He also coined terms such as *primary*, *secondary* and *tertiary* hybridization. According to Whinnom, primary hybridization is something as "breaking up of a species-language into races (incipient species)/dialects", while secondary hybridization is "the inter-breeding of distinct species" closely connected with bilingualism and second language acquisition; and tertiary hybridization is explained as a common language (lingua franca) by speakers who do not share the same first language (Whinnom, 1971, p. 91-92).

Hybridization refers to a process of (intentional or unintentional) influence or impact of one language on another. This means a situation when a language 1 is constantly grammatically or lexically influenced by a language 2, while the language 1 is unable to react to it and develop e.g. its own vocabulary. Komar considers the following causes of hybridization: "...

commercial benefits, worldliness and inability or laziness to find appropriate mother tongue term" (Komar, 2010, p. 82). If we look at the socio-political background of the society in the recent years (or even further into history) we can observe constant migration (huge migration crisis in Europe in the summer 2015). Due to migrations many languages have been influenced; some even to the point that new language varieties have been created. According to Pokorný (2009) changes in languages caused by a language contact are dependent on cultural, political or economic dominance, thus prestige. The contact can be equal where languages are equal or there is a traditional hierarchy; or non-equal where the less dominant language is losing its specific features, simplifies or even recedes.

In terminology, not only the designations but also the content of concepts is being changed. It is important to add that there is contact between different linguistic, cultural and conceptual systems. What may sound alarming is the uneasy situation which started in the formal codified Slovak language, for example in terminology of many subject fields in the case of non-existent, different and developing designations, or finding of an equivalent of some concept. For example: *oolovky dňa* in Marketing, *start-upový project*, *daňová rezidencia, Pohoda festival crew, touchové ovládanie in furnishing*…The preference for native language is recommended by the terminology standard ISO 704 as a principle for term formation.

The mixing and convergence of languages is a reality and the research issues in many countries. The outcome of hybridisation processes is hybrid language and hybrid identity beginning from Hawaiian Pidgin English to Shen language, hybrid dialect in London and Manchester, to Franglais, Spanglish, Slovglish… There is a huge amount of borrowings and loanwords which are part of the shared international vocabulary of many languages, this overborrowing creates the hybrid communication, e.g. franchising, event, party, looser, resident, Brexit… Hybridism in contemporary Europe and Slovakia is a result of globalism, multiculturalism, transcultural mixing, power, migration, marketing, obsession with English, obsession with mixing languages, using loanwords, the language behaviour of young generation, prestige, translation and knowledge intermediarity, an imaginary universe, language sense deformation and deficient language and special competence (Cíbiková, 2016, p.163-167).

With the hybridity in language, text and translation also deals the research project of the academic collective from the Faculty of Arts at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica called Vega No.1/0551/16. The subject of the research is current and very frequent hybridity in language, communication and translation interaction. The basic terminological pillars is hybridity as a feature, hybridity as a phenomenon, hybridisms as the results of hybridisation, hybridisation as a process (Huťková, Bohušová, 2016, p.10).

While the paper is focused on the case of Slovak-English interference, it is possible to observe the same or similar situation in many other languages. For example some Russian authors are aware of English-Russian hybrid called either '*Russlish*' or '*Runglish*'. Proshina explains that nowadays English is „acquiring new functions in the Russian setting, more and more intertwining with the Russian language, for example in mass media, advertising, business, and even politics" (Proshina, 2014, p. 14). Partin offered explanation of its origins and according to him the reason for creation of Runglish was that Russian could not react on the flow of neologisms from English language and except of creating their own equivalents Russian emigrants in America simply borrowed them (Partin, 2007). Other examples can be found in '*Engrish*', a Japanese term for English-Japan language hybrid; '*Chinglish*' as an English-Chinese language hybrid, or '*Denglish*' thus English-German language hybrid.

Hybrid languages are nothing new in the history. They are in some way enriching a language; on the other hand they may be a threat as well. The whole fight against hybridization of languages and maintaining language purity is not only an act of protecting culture and identity, but also a political fight of individual states.

2 RESEARCH

The subject of the research is occurrence of hybrid elements in national languages- based on example of Slovak language. The research is focused on hybrid elements in Slovak language print media and their appropriate use; and hybridization in everyday speech produced by Slovak native speakers

2.1 Objectives

The main objective is to explore hybridization of a language in everyday communication between native speakers and a language in Slovak mainstream magazines and their influence on Slovak language native speakers. We also try to offer possible solutions or translation of certain hybrids in Slovak language. In case of partial objectives the article analyses possible causes of hybridization in Slovak language based on native speakers' conversations.

2.2 Data Collection

The data have been collected since October 2016 by collecting words from woman magazines (EMMA August 2016, EVA April and December 2016), online sources and observation of everyday speech of people face-to-face, through online private conversations. We have chosen woman magazines as they represent printed version of everyday speech for wide range of age categories as well as they may have high impact on the language use of their readers.

2.3 Data analysis

The research started with collection wide range of the magazines and speech; and collection of hybrid elements in it. These elements were further analysed according to their degree of assimilation and equivalence. Next we have tried to offer possible solutions how to avoid hybrid elements.

From the total number of 225 of samples, 29 are samples of code switching and code mixing, 168 samples have been used for the purpose of the analysis of lexical hybrid elements and 27 samples of syntactic, grammatical and semantic hybrids.

Samples are arranged in the chronological order. All samples can be seen in the Appendices. The highest number of hybrid elements in Slovak language is on lexical level; however, we have tried to collect as much as possible examples of hybridization on syntactic, semantic and grammatical level as well.

2.4 Hypothesis

H1: Hybrid language is predominantly made on the lexical level.
H1: has been proved
H2: The reason why hybrid elements on lexical level are used is their zero equivalence.
H2: has been disproved
H3: The highest number of hybrid elements is partially assimilated.
H3: has been disproved
H4: Hybrid elements are overused and most of them can be avoided in Slovak language.
H4: has been proved

H5: The primary motivation of speakers to choose hybrid elements and code switching in communication is laziness.
H5: has been disproved

2.5 Methodology and research methods

The method of *analysis* has been used, based on research of language used in the area of mass media and everyday communication. Examples of personal communication as well as articles in magazines and various websites has been chosen. They reflect currently used language among native speakers. We have analysed hybrid elements in the language, and through comparison with Slovak Academy of Science's dictionary we proved or disproved whether particular elements can be considered as hybrid elements or they have already become nativised. If they have not become nativised we have focused on offering the equivalents.

Another method to study the hybridization of the national language used for the research has been *a questionnaire*. For the purpose of supporting partial objectives and proving or disproving hypothesis that the gender does not influence producing of hybrid language, the questionnaire has been compiled. It consists of predominantly open questions as we wanted to avoid influencing opinions of respondents.

3 LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

In the theoretical part ways of producing hybrid language were described. As it can be seen further, hybridization in Slovak language can be seen predominantly on lexical level, however, in many cases the categories themselves are overlapping. But firstly, why those are even present language? Is it a failure of creating equivalents? Why do Slovak native speakers prefer using words of foreign language and purposely create hybrid language? We can find plenty examples of hybridity in Slovak language in either everyday speech or in mass media. In the following chapters we try to find answers to these questions.

3.1 Hybridization on the syntax level

If you came few years ago to Slovakia, you would hear '*Prajem/želám vám pekný deň*' when saying farewell. Recently you can much more often hear '*Majte pekný deň*' that is just a faithful translation from English '*Have a nice day*' and in terms of standardized Slovak not the correct one. Many native speakers are not aware of their use of foreign syntax in Slovak language and consider it natural. This can be also seen during introductions when a person says '*Moje meno je....*', which has more or less feeling of English origin, instead of already existing phrase '*Volám sa...*'. Slovak language as analytic one has no problem to start a sentence with verb and thanks to inflectional morphemes it is clear to whom and what the verb is referring to.

Another example is that many young Slovaks literally love everything, so they may say: "*Milujem tvoje topánky! Kde si ich kúpila?*" which means in English: "*I really love your shoes! Where did you buy them?*" In English by using verb love to describe adoring or liking of some object is perfectly normal. However, the Slovak equivalent '*ľúbiť/milovat*' used to express feelings or liking towards a person while to express liking of some objects they should use '*páči sa mi*'. Nevertheless, Slovak speakers use '*milujem*' in colloquial speech to express liking of some objects.

On 13th October 2017, Slovak TV and radio presenter called Sajfa shared on his facebook account a satiric picture as an answer to strike of doctors in Slovakia. The picture was followed by the description: "*Štrajk doktorov*. (*toto mi dnes spravilo deň*)". Probably every

native speaker could understand the meaning of the underlined clause; however, again we talk about an example of Slovglish. '*Toto mi dnes spravilo deň*' is nothing more than English calque of '*this made my day*'; and more appropriate and natural for Slovak language is '*toto mi zlepšilo deň*'.

In many cases hybrid language or even foreign language is chosen due to its better rhyming or playfulness in a context as can be seen in the following example: '*Homeless is not fashionless*'(EVA, 4/2016, p. 28). Without a doubt, in this context it could be quite difficult to create pun in Slovak language which would be quite short and catchy at the same time, so the author of the article used English language to achieve all of it.

3.2 Hybridization on semantic level

In some cases hybrid elements can be part of more groups as it is in the case of '*autority*' which is very popular in spoken Slovak and probably originates from English '*authorities*'. Here we can speak about a lexical-semantic level as Slovak Academy of Sciences´ dictionary until its 2006 edition did not recognize a meaning of '*autorita*' other than an esteemed, respected or distinguished person. Since 2006 edition the meaning has been enhanced by application to institutions.

Another example of hybridization on semantic level is the use of idioms in their literal translation such as: '*Šteká pod nesprávnym stromom, robí si propagandu alebo to, čo mu nakážu*.' Probably even a non-English speaker could guess the meaning of the literary translated idiom 'bark up the wrong tree'; however, proper Slovak idiomatic translation or equivalent is '*plače na nesprávnom hrobe*' or '*je na zlej adrese*'. We can only guess why the debater used literal translation. Interestingly, he or she has to have high English language proficiency while having knowledge of idioms in this language, however, choose to not use proper Slovak equivalent.

‚*V rámci štúdie sledovali 1929 dvojvaječných dvojičiek rovnakého a rozdielneho pohlavia. Ak matka otehotnela s dvojičkami rozdielneho pohlavia, trvalo tehotenstvo podobne dlho ako u ženy, ktorá čakala dvojičky- dievčatá. Pôrodná hmotnosť dievčat bola v obidvoch prípadoch približne rovnaká'* (svet.sme.sk, 8.10.2001). Well, this is an exact example how calques can harm the meaning in one language while in other it is perfectly normal. In Slovak language, if a woman '*otehotnela s dvojičkami*' means that she had carnal intercourse with twins, definitely it does not bear the information that she is pregnant and she will have twins babies. This can be considered also as literal, highly unprofessional translation of '*pregnant with twins*', a skilled translator would translate it as '*čaká dvojičky*'.

To the group of semantic hybrids belongs also well-known: '"*...Nedohrala som to a vypomstilo sa mi to. Začala hrať ešte presnejšie, nebola to moja šálka kávy," uznala Cibulková*' (tennis-arena.cz). For people who live abroad and speak English fluently, is only natural that they get to know English collocations and idiomatic expressions. Same happened to the tennis player, who in the interview used English idiom '*not one's cup of tea*' which became quite popular among Slovak native speakers in its changed form '*not one's cup of coffee*' thus '*nie je to (moja) šálka kávy*'. However, other speakers would still prefer older Slovak idiom '*nie je to (moja) parketa*'.

3.3 Hybridization on grammatical level

We can observe hybridization on the level of grammar as well. For example '*TIPY na VÍKEND: tretí aprílový víkend ide byť plný nevšedných súťaží*'(Ružomberok24, 14.04.2016),

or '*Polícia v kraji ide byť nekompromisná: Smrteľných nehôd je priveľa*' (Žilina24, 15.01.2014). To many people who have English as a second language, the structure of '*ide byť*" reminds the one of English future tense '*(it) is going to be*'. Another calque is '*Vidíme sa*' which is probably a calque from English '*See you (soon/later)*'. The problem in both cases is that future tense in Slovak language is expressed by verb prefix or modal verb, so correct form is '*Bude*' instead of '*ide byť*" and '*Uvidíme sa*' instead of '*Vidíme sa*'.

Probably it is due to global language influence, or it could be at the beginning translation failure which became nativised, but in recent decade (or maybe even longer) we can observe signs and restrictions such as '*Zákaz fajčenia*'(picture 1). The message that smoking is forbidden is clear. Although, Slovak language prefers use of active verbs and therefore 'zákaz *fajčiť*" would be more suitable while analytical languages such as English use in these cases gerunds.

Figure 1: [Zákaz fajčenia/ Smoking forbidden sign] [available on: protex.sk]

Hybridization can be observed also in case of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives or adverbs in Slovak language. In the chapter 4.1 we have explained the basic principle of how comparatives and superlatives are created in Slovak language. Nevertheless, we have found examples of English language influence there as well:
'*Obklopujú ho pohoria a zároveň brána do iného sveta – východiskový bod smerom na južný ostrov, kde je život vo všeobecnosti uvoľnenejší a ľudia sú prekvapujúco ešte viac priateľskejší.*'(zivot.cas.sk, 05.02.2014).
'*IIHS: Sú hybridy viac bezpečné ako elektrické autá*?'(auto.pravda.sk, 06.02.2017).
'*Vtedy totiž kožu a podkožie nemá čo „podopierať", takže celulitída je viac viditeľná* ' (aktuality.sk, 24. 80.2015).

All of the examples above have English principle of gradation. As in English '*friendly*' is two syllable word and its comparative form is therefore made by word '*more*' (Slovak 'viac') its comparative is therefore '*more friendly*'. On the other hand, Slovak as analytic type of language creates gradation by inflectional morphemes and therefore correct form is '*priateľskejší*'. Another interesting fact is, that there already is used the correct comparative form but word '*viac*' is redundant and the question is whether the author mean the superlative or just comparative. At any rate, in both cases it is a hybrid element. In other two examples thus '*viac bezpečné*' and '*viac viditeľná*' is apparently influence of English language. Correct form of both comparatives would be '*bezpečnejšie*' and '*viditeľnejšia*'.

In English language, if something happened sometime in the past, it is expressed by adverbial phrase '*years ago*'. In Slovak language, on the other hand, it is expressed by a preposition '*pred*'. Therefore, a title of the article: *'25 vecí o živote, ktoré by som chcel vedieť 10 rokov dozadu*'(startitup.sk, 10.02.2016) is not correct again and should be written as '*pred desiatimi rokmi*'.

In English '*one*' does not give any information about a gender of person. So the phrase '*one in a million*' can be used for masculine, feminine or neuter gender. On the other hand, Slovak

language distinguishes between genders also in numerals. So in case of '*Jeden z milióna: Catherine porodila unikátne dieťa, keď ho uvidíte, pochopíte! Jedna k miliónu je šanca, že sa matke s čiernou pleťou narodí biele dieťa*' (aktuality.sk, 28.2.2017) we do not know if it is a girl, boy or chance. Therefore, the phrase '*jeden z milióna*' is considered as a hybrid from English and appropriate Slovak form would be '*jedno dieťa z milióna*' or '*jeden prípad z milióna*', where we describe the numeral's gender by noun. Also '*jeden*' is masculine and following sentence does not mention any relating noun of this gender.

Next example of grammatical hybridization is: '*Mnohí si o rodičoch myslia, že sú bezcitní a nechápu, ako mohli urobiť tak zásadné rozhodnutie bez toho, aby na bábätko brali ohľad*'(cas.sk, 23.2.2017). Here can be seen a strong influence of English and its phrase '*to do so*'. Slovak equivalent to English conjunction '*so*' is '*tak*'. Although the Slovak conjunction is bound to adverbs, while in English the grammatical classes do not play important role. In the sentence the conjunction is followed by adjective and therefore the correct conjunction should be '*také*'. The whole article was probably translated from English language and the phrase '*to do so*' was taken as a whole unit without considering Slovak grammatical rules.

Related to the previous examples when some phrases taken a structure of synthetic language in Slovak, instead of its natural analytic, are:

'*Lotyšsko vybudovalo na hraniciach s Ruskom 23 kilometrov dlhý plot*' (teraz.sk, 04.02.2017) and '*Podľa jeho slov, ktoré zverejnil portál amerického denníka Wall Street Journal, boli takmer 16 hodín trvajúce rokovania napäté a náročné*'(pluska.sk, 12.02.2015). Again, both examples are probably translation failures, as they refer to foreign topics; however, this failure can grow into spoken colloquial language. In Slovak language, as analytic language, are more natural inflectional morphemes which can substitute phrases and can give an emphasis and quantity or quality. So the English phrase '*kilometres long*' in Slovak can be substituted by '*kilometrový*', without '*dlhý*' that is not necessary to emphasise as it is logical that the fence was built along the borders between Latvia and Russia and its length is 23 kilometres not its width.

In the second example, we deal with the same problem- '*hodín trvajúce*' sound quite English as well. In Slovak language, again, if something '*is 16 hours lasting/long*' it is '*16 hodinové*', where the morpheme –ové gives the noun function of noun as well as the quantity, thus the meaning of the phrase is still the same.

Slovak language has a function that thanks to prefixes and suffixes we can make from one word whole semantic unit, which is not possible in languages such as English. So for example: '*13 inšpirujúcich fotografií, ktoré vás presvedčia, že musíme urobiť svet lepším miestom*' (najky.webnoviny.sk, 13.12.2016), has English structure. Underlined phrase means in English '*make the world better place*', which basically makes sense in Slovak language as well, however, as already mentioned above, in Slovak we can replace by simple '*zlepšiť svet*' which, in fact, sounds more natural.

3.4 Hybridization on the lexical level

Problem of Slovak language vocabulary is that some words are not so much variable and economic at the same time as it is in English. Just by looking at the simple '*outfit*' we are offered various meaning in various contexts. Let us look at following use of this word in the Slovak woman magazine Eva (4/2016):

"*KOMUNIKUJTE PROSTREDNÍCTVOM OUTFITU*"(p.18). In this sentence the word 'outfit' can be replaced by the already existing equivalent in Slovak language '*oblečenie*' meaning in English '*clothes*'. The meaning is same and it is still economical.

„*JEDNODUCHÝ OUTFIT OŽIVTE ZÁUŠNICOU*"(p.28). Here the '*outfit*' refers to not only clothes but also whole appearance; therefore it can be replaced by Slovak '*výzor*', '*zovňajšok'* or '*vzhľad*'. Also interesting is that this word penetrated language not only in its original form but it has started to become a nativised as users started to use inflectional morphemes with it. We may say that use of this word is just for fashionable purpose as in many other cases.
With technological advances comes fast spread and exchange of information. In connection with that, another example of hybrid elements are neologisms; they are so new that language users cannot react on them and they simply borrow them from original source language. We found many of them among our samples:

"*Na ich úpravu používa liphybridy, špeciálne rúže s vysokou pigmantáciou v neobvyklej palete...*" (source: Eva, April 2016, p. 18). Many of English speaking people could imagine what may be '*a liphybrid*', however, a person who do not speak English may not understand it without the following explanation that the product is a special kind of lipsticks with high quality pigmentation and unusual colouring. However, there is no equivalent in Slovak language for this neologism and therefore there is a high probability that '*liphybrid*' will become a part of Slovak vocabulary.

Previous two samples show two reasons why hybrid elements enter the language. First one with wider semantic variability; and second one neologism with zero equivalence. Next examples are hybrid elements entering the language, which already have equivalents in Slovak. Words such as '*Zanechajte tú správnu fashion stopu'*(Eva, April 2016, p. 20), therefore '*módnu*'; '*Story 1*'(Eva, April 2016, p. 55) as '*príbeh*'; '*Basic- á la Piňa Colada*'(Eva, April 2016, p. 90) is '*základ ako*'. '*Vetu známeho songu pokojne zmeňte spievajte si ju celé leto*' (Emma, August 2016, p. 16) thus '*piesne*'; '*Happy days7 vecí, ktoré musíte toto leto stihnúť*" (Emma, August 2016, p. 20) as '*šťastné dni*' etc. have full equivalence in Slovak language, ' and therefore there is absolutely need to use their foreign form. However, their use in fashion and lifestyle magazines is purposeful as they sound more cool and fashionable.

In 2014 commercial television JOJ aired TV programme called '*Kukátko*'. The programme was an improvised play of several actors who depicted neighbours. The word '*kukátko*', in English '*peephole*', symbolizes here the connection between actors and audience as it can interrupt and change the play. However, the name of the programme is not correct. '*Kukátko*' is the example of bohemisms in Slovak language and the correct equivalent is '*priezor*'.

Many Slovak children love '*lízatká*', in English 'lollipops'. But not many of them have knowledge that it is another bohemism and correct form is '*lízanka*'. The same goes for many other such as '*kľud*' which indeed sounds more Slovak then standard *'pokoj*', but again the first one is just another bohemism. To the list we can add word '*zdieľať*" which is widely used among Slovak native speakers, however, not many of them know that it is from Czech word '*sdílet*' and again it is not considered to be standard or in anyways correct. Social media are full of possibilities to share their content by a share button which is also translated in Slovak to '*zdieľať*". In this case the question stands out, what should a native speaker use then if '*zdieľať*" is not correct? Jazykovaporadna.sk, a project of Ľ. Štúr Institute of Linguistics Slovak Academy of Sciences, explains that its Slovak equivalent closely depends on the context.

3.5 Hybridization by code-mixing and switching

The fact that hybrid language is becoming fashionable and can be a way how a particular group distinguishes themselves is clearly visible on the example of Slovak mobile network provider 'FunFón'. Its whole campaign is build up on using hybrid language and has accelerated after they have become a network provider for foreign students. Since then we can observe numerous hybrid language postings on their Facebook wall, such as the following:

<23.2.2017 9:45 *Môj face nemá time na teba. Ja si radšej with Funfón Spojka zavolám s boyfriend, ktorý ma cení: http://bit.ly/Funfon-Spojka. When you meet jeho matka a ona says: 'Oh takže to s tebou always volá cez facetime', but ty máš android...>*
<28.2.2017 10:45 *Pozor ale na tie cookie, nech nemáš zubiská vybíjané jak Oblina. When you zjedol posledný cookie, but tvoj brother to schytá for you...>*
<16.3.2017 18:15 *Matematický príklad: Koľko girlfriends môžeš mať, keď máš Centofka a voláš všetkým only for cent za minútu? Si vyrátaj: http://bit.ly/2l82n2u. When you voláš svojej girlfriend but you pomýliš si her name with tvojou druhou girlfriend.>*
<19.3.2017 18:15 *Mruchty sa do Kingdomu vrátil z Ameriky a už rozdáva múdrosti po english. When you sadneš si in MHD but you see babka so you must nechať her sadnúť si.>*

Even though, in the area of advertisement use of colloquial and stylistically marked language is allowed, this kind of hybrid language, on the other hand sounds kind of disturbing. Still hybrid language definitely catches the attention and serves as a good marketing tool.
Code-switching is very often used by English second language (ESL) speaker and bilinguals in their communication, however, mainly in their private conversation with other ESL speakers. The table 5 shows several examples of code switching from personal conversation.

Table 1: [Samples of code switching and code mixing] [Author's representation]

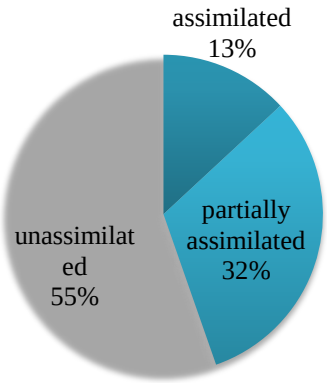
31.10.2016 19:42	*prepáč. Akosi ma nenapadlo ti to povedať a myslela som, že máš full víkend. A tie problémy s wifi tak reku nejdem ťa otravovať.*	shorter variant
24.12. 2016 18:42	*- To vazne?* *– Ano to really :D*	shorter variant
1.1.2017 22:14	*Aj si sa venovala skole cez holiday?*	habit, more cool
1.1.2017 22:21	*A neskúsime aspoň babám, pati, barbare, miske atď napísať či nevedia shareovať handouts výmenou za ten náš?*	laziness to use native equivalent
9.1.2017 18:38	*Tak aby si vedela, tvoj Jesus je už tu*	habit, more cool
19.1.2017 18:25	*Ten rozvrh je inak crazy*	shorter variant
22.1.2017 17:10	*Potrebujem tyzden chill minimalne*	habit, more cool
8.2.2017 21:05	*sa dívam, že čo za homelessa ma to zdraví*	habit, more cool
9.2.2017 17:29	*Tak ale they better nahrat co najviac* :D :D :D	laziness to use native equivalent

While most of the time hybrid language by means of code switching was created only due to its slang function, on the other hand, none of the extracted parts are due to lack of equivalence. From observing conversations and communication with authors of samples we can assume that motivation to use hybrid language is either habit or it sounds more cool when a speaker uses hybrid elements (12 speakers) or it is a kind of laziness (8), as often English equivalents are shorter than native ones; or because it offers shorter variant (4). From the sociolinguistics point of view, speakers can express by use of hybrid elements and code switching and mixing that they belong to specific social group (students, bilinguals etc).

FINDINGS

The linguistic analysis showed that among 168 samples of lexical hybrids 22 of analysed ones were assimilated (loan words semantically, grammatically and orthographically or phonetically assimilated), 53 partially assimilated (missed one criteria of complete assimilation) and 93 unassimilated (barbarisms, did not meet requirements to be completely assimilated). The results can be seen in the Graph 1:

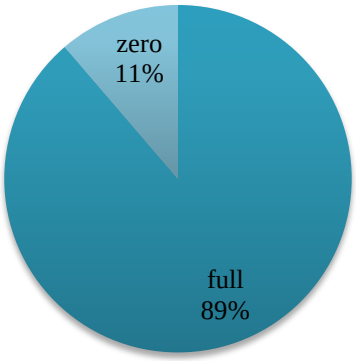
Graph 1: [Assimilation of lexical hybrid elements] [Author's representation]



These results show the highest number of the samples is either neologisms or loan words and calques, e.g.: '*Beauty Focus:Pery ako umelecké dielo*' (Eva, April 2016, p. 18), which are not assimilated and represent 55% percent of total. Then 32% of samples are partially assimilated words, thus words that are assimilated either grammatically: '*Na contouring tela používaj výhradne samoopaľovacie spreje*' (Eva, April 2016, p. 107); or semantically: '*Kylie nebola imúnna voči striptíz looku svojich sestier, a tak si frčí na štýle tej najznámejšej, Kim* '(Eva, April 2016, p. 148); or orthographically/phonetically: '*Online koučing*' (Eva, April 2016, p. 104). And lastly, 13% of total number of samples are assimilated words, such as '*Biznismen z móla*' (Emma, August 2016, p. 56), which are assimilated both grammatically, semantically and orthographically/phonetically as well as they have become a part of Slovak standardized vocabulary (they can be listed in the dictionary of Ľ. Štúr Institute of Linguistics Slovak Academy of Sciences).

Simultaneously, we have compared samples according to their lexical equivalence. Out of 168 samples 149 have their Slovak equivalent or we were able to create equivalence, e.g. '*It Girl'* is a neologism and therefore there was no equivalence to it. As we stated at the beginning of the research, we tried to find ways how to avoid complete borrowing of a word. We have come up with Slovak equivalent '*vyvolené dievča*' because it refers to the same notion, a girl who is attractive, rich and spends whole time socializing. On the other hand, only 19 of 168 samples have zero already existing equivalence and we were unable to create an equivalent. The results can be seen in the Graph 2:

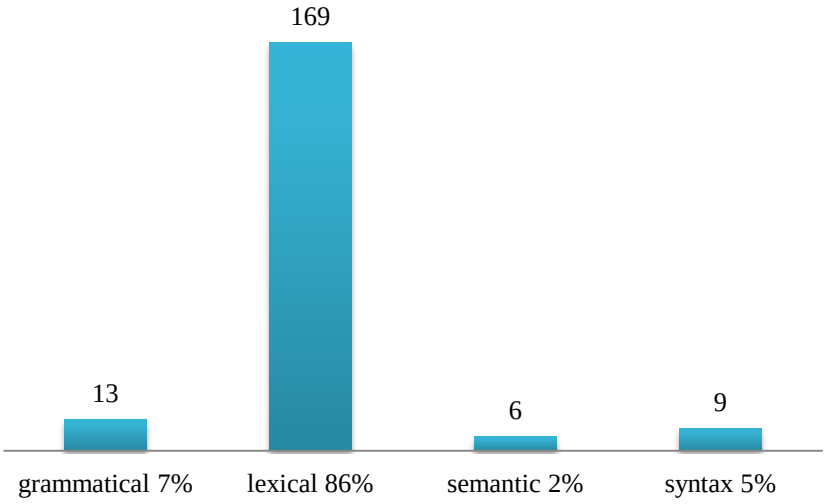
Graph 2: [Lexical equivalence] [Author's representation]



These results support our theory that we can avoid using hybrid elements in Slovak language as we have been able to offer possible Slovak equivalents to 89% of them and only 11% of them were so specific that it is better to loan them entirely. They are overused and mainly because they are stylistically marked and specific for some group.

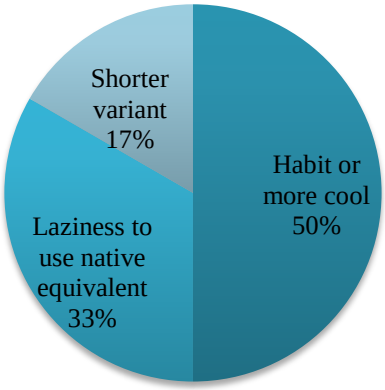
Lastly, the highest number of hybrid elements has been found on lexical level. Unfortunately, we were not successful to acquire enough of other types of hybrids as they apparently are not so frequent. However, after the lexical level (86% of samples) the most frequent is hybridization on grammatical level (7% of samples) and then hybridization on syntactic (5% of samples) and semantic level (2% of samples).

Graph 3: [Hybridization on particular levels] [Author's representation]



The sociolinguistic analysis based on 28 samples of code switching and code mixing shows that hybridization is present in everyday speech of Slovak native speakers and its motivation is not absence of equivalents, however, it is either habit or it is more cool (12 samples of 24), or laziness to look for native equivalent (8 of 24 samples). The Graph 4 show results in percentage:

Graph 4: [Motivation to use hybrid language] [Author's representation]



Finally, at the beginning of the research four hypotheses were stated. After the analysis, following conclusions have been summarized in the Table 6.

Table 2: [Results of hypotheses] [Author's representation]

Hypothesis	**Results**	**Proved/Disproved**
Hybrid language is predominantly made on the lexical level	169 samples on lexical, 13 on grammatical, 9 on syntactical, 6 on semantic level	proved
The reason why hybrid elements on lexical level are used is their zero equivalence	only 19 samples had zero equivalence; 149 samples have full equivalence	disproved
The highest number of hybrid elements is partially assimilated	The highest number of hybrid elements is unassimilated (93); partially assimilated have been only 53 samples	disproved
Hybrid language cannot be avoided but they are uselessly overused	149 samples have full equivalence their use is purely stylistically marked, in other levels of hybridization all of them had Slovak equivalent	proved
Primary motivation of hybridization is laziness of speakers to choose native equivalent	Half of 24 samples proved that primary motivation is either habit o it sounds more cool	disproved

Based on the research it was found out that hybridization is already present in Slovak language proved on 225 samples. Also hybridization of Slovak language is done mainly on lexical level, even though, it is not necessary to use foreign vocabulary as Slovak language can create its own equivalents. So hybridization is not made because of the lack of the equivalence, however, it is highly fashionable trend not only in personal communication but in media as well.

CONCLUSION

Hybridization of languages has been here since the mankind. With constant contact between nations and struggles for territories languages have been in contact and influenced each other. Dominant nations brought their language and culture to submissive cultures what can be seen in for example, South Africa, America as well as in Asia. In present days English became a dominant one; and as the global language is the language of media, business and considered as a lingua franca. Thanks to it, not only that most of inventions are named in English, also it has become a necessary tool of communication and an important factor in job requirement. Therefore more and more people are being at least bilingual with English as a second language. All these factors are soil for a process of language hybridization.

The research started in October 2016 and lasted until April 2017. The first part of the research consisted of collecting data for the research. At the beginning 100 samples were collected and they were simultaneously collected and analysed throughout the whole research. In the end total 225 samples were collected. 197 samples were used for the linguistics analysis, where hybridization on levels of syntax (9), grammar (13), semantic (6) and lexis (168) were closely analysed. The most significant hybridization and most of hybrid elements were found on the lexical level as it has been assumed at the beginning of the research. The lexical hybrids were also carefully observed and through their degree of assimilation and their equivalence. It was found out that the largest group of lexical hybrids (loans) was unassimilated (55%) and 89% of 168 samples had full equivalence in Slovak language and therefore they could be avoided. To all hybrids were offered possible solutions to avoid hybridization. Only 19 samples were with zero equivalence and therefore a solution could not be offered, even after an attempt to create own and new equivalents. Out of 225, total 28 were used for the purpose of the sociolinguistic analysis. These were samples of code switching and code mixing. Samples were collected from personal communication (24) and social network campaign (4). 24 samples of personal communication were used to a small sociolinguistic research to find out speakers' motivation to use hybrid elements. Lastly, four examples show the way how hybrid language can be used as a marketing strategy.

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US PUBLIC OPINION ON THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS IN THE VIEW OF GALLUP POLLS AND THE NATIONAL OPINION RESEARCH CENTER AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO (NORC)

Elżbieta Pieniążek-Niemczuk

Abstract

The Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962 has been widely examined; although scholars paid a vast amount of attention to its major events, the successive diplomatic moves, and its (possible) outcomes, an issue which seems to have often been neglected is the human dimension of the events. Nowadays, surveys are accessible that can help us to understand the feelings and attitudes that were dominant among US citizens during the events of 1962. In the following study, I will present how the US public opinion reacted to the crisis, and what feelings and attitudes were dominant among US citizens, as well as how President Kennedy and his time in office are evaluated nowadays. The study is based on survey data, which is drawn from two sources – *Gallup Polls* and surveys conducted by the *National Opinion Research Center* at the University of Chicago (NORC).

Keywords: *Cuban Missile Crisis, 1962, polls, surveys, US public opinion*

1 US PUBLIC OPINION ON CUBA BEFORE THE MAJOR EVENTS OF 1962

Even before the outbreak of the crisis, Cuba posed a potential threat to the United States and required constant watchfulness from the American government. However, it is striking that before 1962, Cuba was not of much concern for American citizens. As was noticed by Tom W. Smith, from the moment when Fidel Castro overthrew Batista, i.e. from 1951 until1961, as little as 5 percent of the American people perceived Cuba a real threat to the United States and considered it as a highly important issue that ought to be dealt with. [1]

Nonetheless, overthrowing the Cuban leader's regime became most crucial for the CIA. Cautious of this, Castro chose to tighten his relationship with the USSR. His aim was receiving the political support essential to introduce changes in Cuba as well as obtain protection. The CIA trained and armed a group of Cuban emigrants that were supposed to give rise to a revolution against Castro's regime, but the attempt failed and it had severe consequences.

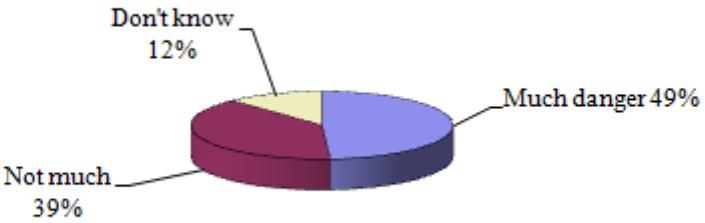
This threat to the USSR's ally encouraged Khrushchev to place nuclear missiles in Cuba. [2] The action led to a tense confrontation between the USSR and the United States. The crisis of 1962 lasted from October 14 till November 20, but the first 13 days of the crisis were the most tense. Many scholars regard this moment as the moment in history when the Cold War was the closest to becoming nuclear war.

The perceptions of US citizens with regard to Cuba changed in May 1961, but only to a negligible extent – at this time, 9 percent of US citizens thought of Cuba as a burning concern. This small increase was the imminent result of the Bay of Pigs invasion that occurred on April 17-18. From that moment, the anxiety level started decreasing again until less than 2 percent of Americans considered the relations with Cuba to be a serious issue. [3]

However, the public attitudes started to deteriorate in late August, when an increasing number of news reports began mentioning the Soviet involvement in placing offensive missiles in Cuba. In the view of these news releases, President Kennedy had no other option but to address his nation and refer to the situation, which he did during a press conference on September 13, 1962.

The President started his address with a description of the events which had initiated the crisis, i.e. the USSR sending supplies and technical staff into Cuba. He continued by stating that the United States would take action against Cuba only if necessary. [4]
Kennedy's announcement certainly did not help to ease the concerns of US citizens. Quite to the contrary, it heightened the feelings of anxiety and this was visible in the survey conducted shortly thereafter. In the Gallup Poll that was carried out on September 25, it was found that 94 percent of Americans were now aware of the US troubles with Cuba, of which 24 percent mentioned Cuba as the country's greatest problem. [5]
Another presidential speech, this time announcing that the USSR had placed nuclear missiles in Cuba [5], only made the public concerns deeper, and the decision to introduce a quarantine of Cuba was pronounced by the President. The American citizens were mainly afraid of a confrontation with the Soviet Union. The survey data shows how the attitudes toward the current US foreign policy dramatically changed – from 35 percent of citizens declaring their concern about this policy in August 1962; to 72 percent in November 1962. [6]
A number of surveys conducted between 1950–1960 prove that nuclear anxiety was a frequently reoccurring fear among Americans. This fear often rose and fell throughout this time. For example, during the Korean War, the level of anxiety was considerable and it is estimated that 76 percent of American citizens feared another global war. Nonetheless, their worries again decreased, and by August 1959 only 19 percent of Americans expected war within next 5 years. In a survey conducted between June 23 and July 2 in 1961, the American society was asked whether they expected war, and this is how they responded.

Gallup: Would you say there is much danger of world war or not much danger?[7]



2 CHRONOLOGY OF THE MAJOR EVENTS OF THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS [1][8,9]

- October 14 – a U-2 plane discovers Soviet missile installations in Cuba.
- October 16 – President Kennedy is informed about the missiles and calls the first meeting of ExComm.[2]
- October 17 – a U-2 flight reveals more missiles in Cuba.
- October 18 - President Kennedy and the Soviet Foreign Minister, Andrie Gromyko, meet at the White House. Gromyko rejects the assertion that the Soviets had placed the missiles in Cuba.
- October 19 – Kennedy discusses military options with the Secretary of Defense, Robert McNamara.
- October 20 – ExComm members cannot reach a unanimous decision – part of them advise a blockade of Cuba, while part of them support taking stronger action.
- October 22 – Kennedy addresses the nation and announces his decision to introduce a quarantine of Cuba.

[1] Chronology of major events of the Cuban Missile Crisis was taken after Mark L. Haas [8] and Paul J. Byrne [9].
[2] ExComm (The Executive Committee of the National Security Council) was a group of experts who advised President Kennedy during the Cuban Missile Crisis.

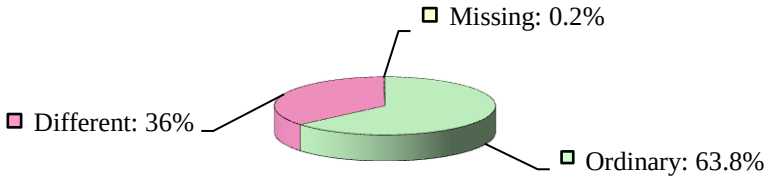
- October 23 – The decision to quarantine Cuba receives the approval of the Organization of American States.
- October 24 (morning) – All the ships heading in the direction of Cuba either stop or change their direction.
- October 24 (afternoon) – Soviet ships reach the US blockade line.
- October 26 – The US navy halts and boards the ship Marcula.
- October 26 – President Kennedy receives a letter from the Soviet leader, in which he promises to remove the nuclear missiles in exchange for a promise by the US leader that Cuba will not be invaded.
- October 27 – A message from the Soviet leader arrives. Again he promises to remove the missiles in exchange for the assurance that the United States will not invade Cuba, and to remove the Jupiter missiles from Turkey.
- October 27 – An American U-2 mistakenly flies into Soviet airspace. American fighters escort it back to the United States.
- October 27 (noon) – An American U-2 is shot down over Cuban territory during an attempt to get updated pictures of the missiles.
- October 27 (7:45 p.m.) – Robert Kennedy meets with Dobrynin. During the meeting, the issues of the Jupiter missiles and Cuba are discussed
- October 28 (morning) – Radio Moscow announces that the Soviet missiles will be removed from the territory of Cuba, in exchange for Kennedy's promise not to invade the country.

3 IMPACT OF THE EVENTS OF 1962 ON US CITIZENS

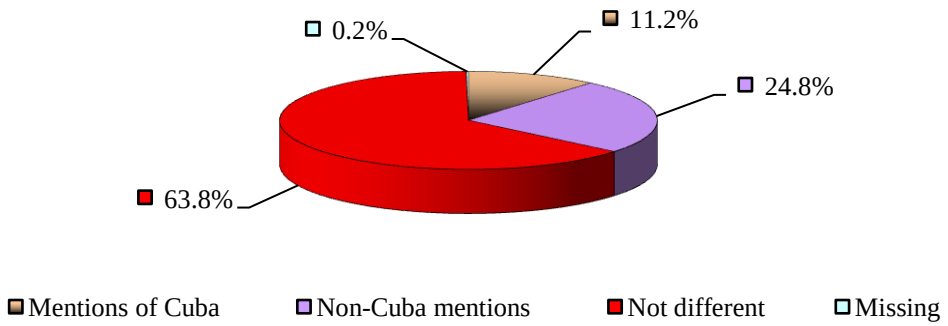
To better understand the feelings of American citizens toward the Cuban Missile Crisis, it is essential to examine whether it had any essential impact on their lives. It can be assumed that, at the time, Americans were exposed to (some) stress related to their country's international policy.

Nuclear anxiety was present in the minds of millions of Americans; for example, on the night when President Kennedy addressed his nation revealing the USSR's intentions toward the United States, the American citizens had every reason to feel anxiety and to be afraid, even more when the US President clearly presented the situation that America was currently facing. However, the NORC research that was conducted between October 27 and November 4 in 1962 suggests that in fact, there was not as much concern as could be expected. Most American citizens did not notice any remarkable changes to their lives during the events of 1962. Only 36 percent noticed some disruptions during the week of the crisis. What is even more striking is that only 11.2 percent of those who said that it was a week that was different from others mentioned the Cuban crisis as the direct cause of this disruption. [10]

NORC458S, 10/27-11/4/62 - Thinking back over the last week — for instance, taking the things that happened to you and your family during the week and the things that happened at work and during your leisure time—would you say that it was an ordinary week or was it different from most weeks? [11]

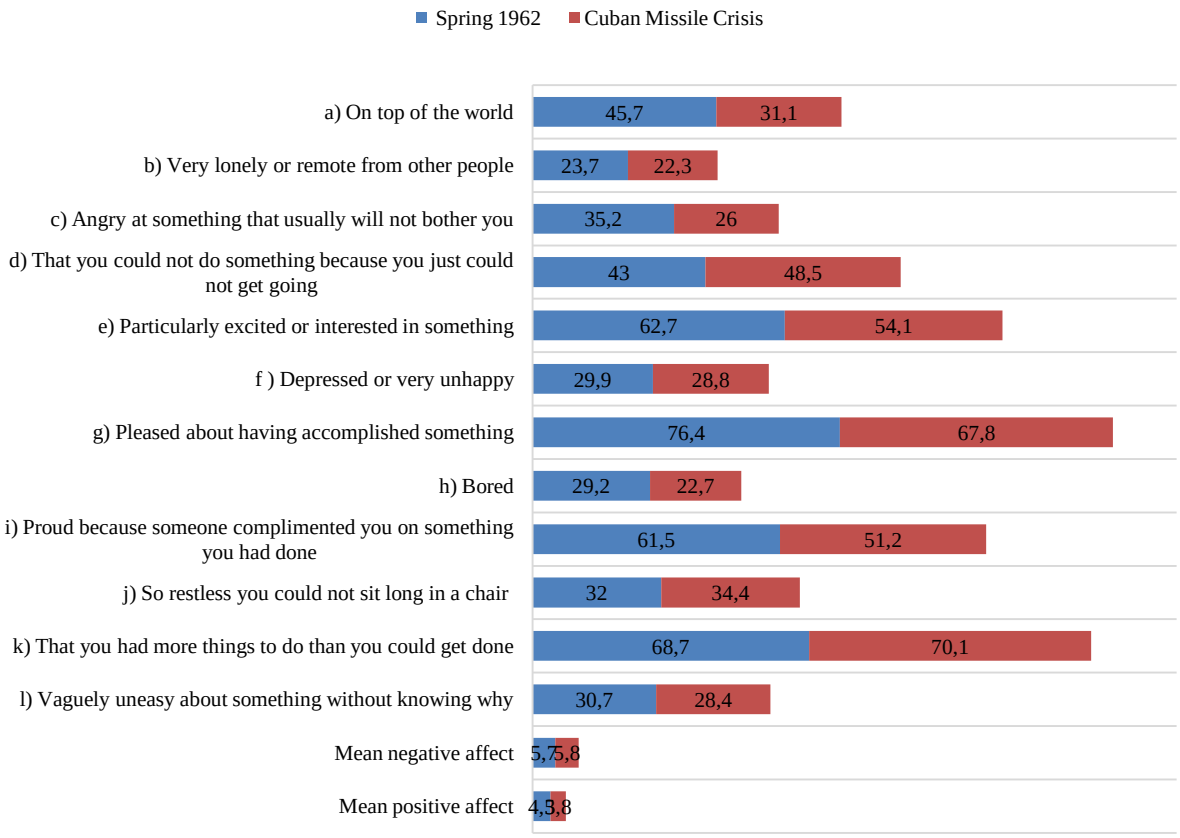


[if "different," ask:] What made it so?



Nonetheless, when the Americans were asked to describe how they felt during the tensest week of the Cuban Missile Crisis, their responses were as follows:

NORC446SF-LF and 458S - We are interested in the way that people are feeling these days. You will be given a card which describes some of the ways people feel at different times, and you are to tell whether you felt like that during the past week. [if "ask," ask:] How often did you feel that way? [once/several times/often; percent experiencing feeling and change in percentage points]. [12]



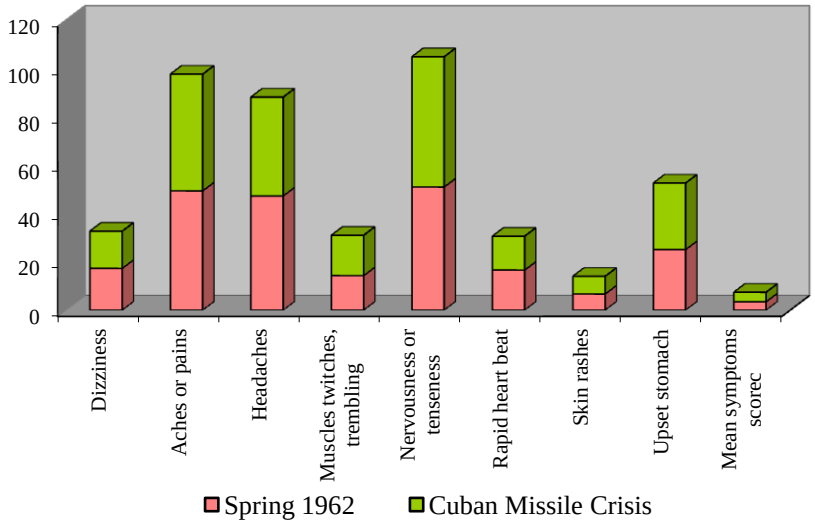
As the diagram shows, the feeling of positive affect fell from 4.5 in spring 1962 to 3.8 during the Cuban Missile Crisis. On the other hand, the feeling of negative affect rose in the same period. Moreover, the conducted surveys also prove that the negative affects of the crisis did not increase during the same period dramatically. Only a slight rise can be observed, with three out of eight possible responses mentioning negative feelings. These included:

1. inability to do things (d),
2. inability to remain at rest (j), and
3. having too many things to do (k)

The remaining five negative feelings: being lonely (b), angry (c), depressed (f), bored (h), as well as uneasy (l), fell during this period.

The aim of the next diagram is to present the psychological response of the US citizens to the crisis. An extensive range of the most frequent answers given to the surveyors is presented. As will be shown, most of the responses were rather moderate. Thus, it can be claimed that the events of 1962 did not exert a significant impact on the lives of Americans.

NORC446SF/LF and 458S: You're going to be shown a sheet that tells about different troubles or complaints people sometimes have. For each one please tell how often you were bothered by such a complaint during the past week . . . [not at all/one or two times/several times/nearly all the time; percent with symptom and change in percentage points]. [13]



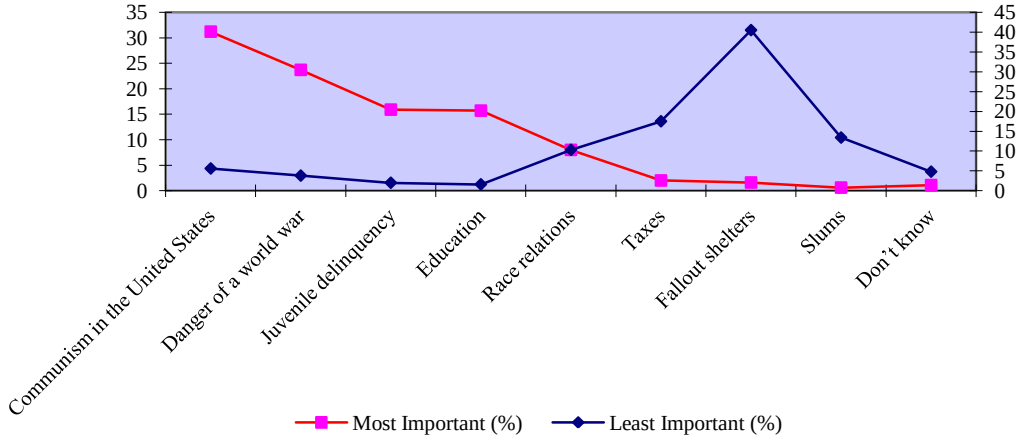
Looking at the evidence produced by the polls, it can be noticed that the events were important for many Americans. Generally, the amount of positive feelings fell during the crisis. However, the US citizens were not damaged by their concerns over the current situation nor weakened by their fear and nuclear anxiety, and it can be claimed that they stayed relatively intact during the happenings of 1962.

4 US PUBLIC OPINION ON CUBA IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE MAJOR EVENTS OF 1962

The survey data reveals another interesting finding – namely, that the crisis of 1962 did not result in any change to the US public's opinion on the issue concerning sending American troops to overthrow Castro. The vast majority of US citizens believed that such an action would lead to an open war with Russia. Although the Americans generally considered the Castro regime to be harmful and believed that the spread of communism should be stopped, at the same time they were afraid of the possible consequences that a strict military action would entail. For this reason, the majority of US citizens were opposed to the idea of sending American troops to deal with the communist leader. Even during the most critical moments of the crisis, only as much as 10 percent of Americans stated that they would favor a belligerent action, such as a bombing or invasion. [14]

One of the reasons for such an approach from the US citizens to the issue of military intervention in Cuba may be the fact that, although the American citizens were concerned about the prospect of nuclear war, they were not overwhelmed by this fear. In January 1963, NORC conducted another survey at a time when the Cuban Missile Crisis was coming to an end.

NORC/SRS100, 1/63: Now, of these issues, which one do you feel is the most important facing the country today? Which one is the least important? [15]



The responses obtained from the American citizens may be considered surprising. Out of a choice of eight issues, the vast majority of Americans indicated communism in the United States as the major problem needing to be dealt with. The danger of war was mentioned in second place; while juvenile delinquency, education, race relations and taxes followed these chief concerns.

5 EXAMINATION OF SURVEY DATA ON THE PAST AND PRESENT EVALUATIONS OF KENNEDY'S PRESIDENCY

An interesting claim can be made after a careful examination of the available survey data, which is that the Cuban Missile Crisis contributed to many Americans believing firmly that their country was winning the Cold War, and thus that the struggle with the USSR would result in a positive outcome on the US side. Americans held the strong presumption that the time had come when Soviet power would decline. Much of this belief can be attributed to President Kennedy and his policy on Cuba. Almost all his decisions gained the immediate approval of the citizens; thus, it can be claimed that the American society appreciated Kennedy's way of handling the crisis.

The Cuban Missile Crisis also changed the public's basis for their evaluation of President's Kennedy overall performance i.e. not only on the international scene, but also in dealing with domestic matters. During his presidency, the approval for his actions averaged 70 percent. [16] Yet despite the fact that Kennedy's presidency was marked with important incidents like the crisis of 1962 and the Bay of Pigs invasion, not many historians mention him as among America's greatest presidents. Instead, they are more eager to assign his great, unfading popularity among US citizens to his tragic death rather than to any specific achievements. Nonetheless, when contrasted with other US presidents, Kennedy appears high in the rankings of the most popular American leaders.

The Gallup Poll conducted in 2010 showed that 85 percent of Americans pronounced approval for Kennedy's time in the office. Moreover, Kennedy is seen by many US citizens as an outstanding president and a skillful politician. The president frequently appears high in public rankings of the greatest American Presidents: in 2000, Kennedy placed first, before

Abraham Lincoln and Franklin Roosevelt; and in 2011, he took fourth position after Ronald Reagan, Abraham Lincoln and Bill Clinton. [17]

6 CONCLUSIONS

During J. F. Kennedy's presidency, the United States was involved in various international conflicts; however, the crisis of 1962 was without a doubt the most important one for the president himself, and was one of most serious in the country's history, creating a real and present danger to the American nation security.

The crisis also forced the leaders of two powerful countries – the USSR and the United States – to take dangerous and forceful actions. One example was the imposing of the quarantine on Cuba, a development which had never been practiced before. Its possible outcome and consequences were in fact difficult to foresee. One, highly undesired, outcome could have been an immediate declaration of war. It also has to be stated that the American leader did not wish to use more force than necessary, but on the other hand wanted to ensure that the country's objectives were clear. The Soviets needed to know that the Americans were prepared to defend their country.

The Gallup Polls and the surveys conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) have helped to reveal what the American citizens felt during the crisis of 1962. It can be concluded that, although the American nation was affected by these events, they were neither terrified nor overwhelmed by nuclear anxiety. On the contrary, the US citizens proved to be tough in the face of the Kremlin-Washington confrontation. They supported President Kennedy in his actions toward the USSR and Cuba, and they proceeded with their daily routines. What is more, most Americans still consider the crisis to be one of the most important moments in their nation's history, and President Kennedy takes a high position in presidential popularity and achievement rankings.

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PROTECTION OF THE ENIVRONMENT THROUGH EU CRIMINAL LAW

Szymon Śniady

Abstract

This dissertation raises the subject of environmental protection provided by EU criminal law. In the paper, not only the author analyzes the historical development of international regulations regarding environment protection through criminal law, but also consequences of the latest regulations proposed by the Council of Europe and the European Commission.

Keywords: *enivronmental law, environmental protection, criminal law, eu law*

1. Introduction

The study investigates not only one of the most important, but also one of the fastest developing areas of European Union's legislation: protection of the natural environment. The first part of this study focuses on the history of the international environmental criminal law. Afterwards, the author reviews the development of the EU legislation imposing on the member states the obligation to secure effective penalization on environmentally harmful activities, concluding with the summary of currently binding EU regulation on the environment protection provided by the criminal law.

2. Historical background

Year 1969 is being considered as the beginning of the worldwide movement towards environment protection. In that year a report titled "The problems of human environment", also known as "The U Thant report", was published at the United Nations General Assembly session.[1] Among other things, the report pointed out that the growing necessity of environmental protection has to be implemented in national criminal laws.

The issue was raised in many international conferences, such as the 11th Congresses of the International Association of Penal Law in 1979 in Hamburg [2] or the 1992 Rio Conference, unfortunetly it took a long time since the first discussions to the first real legal actions to regulate the international environmental criminal law.

3. First international tries

In 1996, International Law Commission proposed Article 19 of "Draft Articles on State Responsibility". This legal provision founds "*serious breach of an international obligation of essential importance for the safeguarding and preservation of the human environment*" as an international crime.[3]

Moreover, International Crime Court Statute in Article 8 defines "*intentionally launching an attack in the knowledge that such attack will cause (...) severe damage to the natural environment which would be clearly excessive in relation to the concrete and direct overall military advantage anticipated*"[4] as a war crime.

[1] Radecki W., (2009), Problemy ekologii vol. 13, nr 6
[2] http://www.penal.org/IMG/RICPL%201979.pdf
[3] Draft Articles On State Responsibility
[4] The Statute of International Crime Court

4. The Council of Europe Convention

The first European attempt to regulate the international criminal environmental law was made in 1998, however not by the European Union. In Strasbourg, the Council of Europe prepared the Convention on the Protection of the Environment through Criminal Law[5]. Article 2 of the Convention states that "*Each Party shall adopt such appropriate measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences under its domestic law*" a number of acts where they cause or are likely to cause damage to the quality of the air, soil, water, animals or plants, or result in the death of or serious injury to any person "*when committed intentionally*." Article 3 obligated Parties to find as criminal offences also negligence actions. Moreover, the Convention dictated to "*establish as criminal offences under its domestic law aiding or abetting the commission of any of the offences*." Article 9 of the Convention introduced corporate liability, but paragraph 3 leaves flexibility in that matter and allows States not to apply it.

Unfortunately, though the Council of Europe is important European organization associating all but one states of Europe, its political and legal power is not as strong as it can be seen. Although authors of the document made conditions of entering into force very easy to fulfill (only 3 ratifications were required) only one state did that (Estonia in year 2002). Thus, the Convention has never entered into force.

5. The Danish initiative and the Commission proposal

In 2000 the first steps towards introduction of the criminal environmental law in the European Union law system were taken by the so-called "Danish initiative". The government of Denmark presented a project with a view to adopting a Council Framework Decision on combating serious environmental crime[6]. It was based on the 3rd pillar of the EU Treaty: Police and Judicial Co-operation in Criminal Matters.

In March 2001, the European Commission, which is consisting of European commissioners (officials who do not represent their home states, but the whole EU), adopted a draft Directive on the protection of the environment through criminal law[7]. The draft of the Directive was based on Article 175(1) EC, belonging to the first pillar of the EU Treaty – the Community Method. The draft indicated that any act committed intentionally or out of serious negligence which breaches the Community rules protecting the environment is treated as a criminal offence in EU Member States' criminal law. Criminal penalties were required to be "*effective, proportionate and dissuasive*"[8], including imprisonment. The Directive has not been enacted into force.

The European Union Council, which consists of the member states' representatives, had other views on regulating the criminal environmental law. The Council transferred part of the proposal for Directive to the Framework Decision and finally adopted it on January 27th, 2003.[9] The Framework Decision was based on Articles 29, 31(e), 34(2)(b) EU, which means that it was placed in the 3rd pillar, as the Danes proposed.

The European Commission filed a claim to the European Court of Justice in Luxembourg. The Commission claimed that the Framework Decision exceeded Council's powers. It must be remembered that until the Treaty of Lisbon in 2009 there was a three-pillar structure of the European Union. Hence, the European Commission did not dispute the matter of the Framework Decision, but its legal basis. In current legal status there would be no issue of that

[5] http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/172.htm
[6] Onida M., (2004), Europe and the Environment, Europa Law Publishing, p. 46
[7] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/smartapi/cgi/sga_doc?smartapi!celexplus!prod!DocNumber&lg=en&type_doc=COMfinal&an_doc=2001&nu_doc=139
[8] http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/environment/general_provisions/l33148_en.htm
[9] Onida M., (2004), Europe and the Environment, Europa Law Publishing, p. 49

kind at all. In the case C-176/03 the European Court of Justice adjudged that "*Framework Decision 2003/80 on the protection of the environment through criminal law, being based on Title VI of the Treaty on European Union, encroaches upon the powers which Article 175 EC confers on the Community*"[10] and annulled Council Framework Decision[11] on September 13th, 2005.

6. Directive 2008/99/EC on the protection of the environment through criminal law

After these failures in enacting legal document harmonising environmental criminal law a major change occurred in late 2000s in the European Union's legislature. On November 19th, 2008 the European Parliament and the Council adopted the 2008/99/EC Directive on the protection of the environment through the criminal law.[12] The Member States were required to transpose the Directive into each one national law until December 26th, 2010.[13] Paragraph 3 of the Preamble states, that the criminal penalties "*demonstrate a social disapproval*", especially in comparison to the sanctions in administrative and civil law.[14], what confirms the growing expectations of the European society to apply criminal penalties for environmental crimes. It should be highlighted that EU directives set only a minimum standard. Thus, that does not preclude the Member States from maintaining or introducing more severe legal instruments in the environmental criminal law than adopted in the Directive.

7. Nine conducts

Article 3 of the Directive enumerates nine conducts, which EU Member States shall consider a criminal offence, when committed intentionally or even with serious negligence. These conducts are:

1. *the discharge, emission or introduction of a quantity of materials or ionising radiation into air, soil or water, which causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;*
2. *the collection, transport, recovery or disposal of waste, including the supervision of such operations and the after-care of disposal sites, and including action taken as a dealer or a broker (waste management), which causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;*
3. *the shipment of waste, where this activity falls within the scope of Article 2(35) of Regulation (EC) No 1013/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 14 June 2006 on shipments of waste and is undertaken in a non-negligible quantity, whether executed in a single shipment or in several shipments which appear to be linked;*
4. *the operation of a plant in which a dangerous activity is carried out or in which dangerous substances or preparations are stored or used and which, outside the plant, causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;*
5. *the production, processing, handling, use, holding, storage, transport, import, export or disposal of nuclear materials or other hazardous radioactive substances which*

[10] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:62003J0176:EN:HTML

[11] http://curia.europa.eu/juris/document/document.jsf?text=&docid=59714&pageIndex=0&doclang=EN&mode=lst&dir=&occ=first&part=1&cid=274098

[12] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32008L0099:EN:HTML

[13] Radecki W., (2011), Biuletyn Parków Krajobrazowych Wielkopolski Zeszyt 17(19)

[14] Radecki W., (2010), Problemy ekologii vol. 14, nr 1

causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;

6. *the killing, destruction, possession or taking of specimens of protected wild fauna or flora species, except for cases where the conduct concerns a negligible quantity of such specimens and has a negligible impact on the conservation status of the species;*
7. *trading in specimens of protected wild fauna or flora species or parts or derivatives thereof, except for cases where the conduct concerns a negligible quantity of such specimens and has a negligible impact on the conservation status of the species;*
8. *any conduct which causes the significant deterioration of a habitat within a protected site;*
9. *the production, importation, exportation, placing on the market or use of ozone-depleting substances*[15].

8. Inciting, aiding and abetting sanctions

Article 4 of the Directive points out also inciting, aiding and abetting conducts from Article 3 as a criminal offences. Article 5 of the Directive states that criminal penalties will be effective, proportionate and dissuasive. That provision is typical for all penal regulations of the European Union. For legal persons this legal act allows to introduce sanctions of a non criminal nature.

9. Liability of legal persons

The Directive in it's article 6 touches the liability of legal persons and other collective subjects without legal personality. In contrary to the Council of Europe's Convention, the EU Directive does not allow to make concessions. It obligates the Member States to introduce the criminal liability of legal persons for conducts mentioned in Articles 3 and 4, if the crime was committed for benefit of the legal person by "*any person who has a leading position within the legal person, acting either individually or as part of an organ of the legal person*". Paragraph 3 has crucial meaning, because it states that liability of legal person does not exclude criminal proceeding against natural persons who are perpetrators, inciters or accessories the conducts from Article 3 and 4 of the Directive.[16]

10. Directive 2009/123/EC on ship-source pollution

The European Union's regulation concerning the area of protection of the environment through criminal law is not limited only to the above regulations. I.e. the Directive 2009/123/EC amended Directive 2005/35/EC on ship-source pollution and on the introduction of penalties, particularly criminal penalties, for infringements. These Directives obligate the EU Member States to ensure that ship-source discharges of polluting substances are regarded as criminal offences, no matter if committed with intent, recklessly or with serious negligence[17]. The Directives provides exceptions, these rules are not to be applied to warships "*or other ships owned or operated by a State and used only on government non-commercial service*."[18] Similar to the Directive 2008/99/EC, here also any act of inciting, or aiding and abetting is considered as criminal offence. Moreover, the liability of legal persons is provided in the same way. Also the provision for criminal penalties is the same.

[15] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32008L0099:EN:HTML
[16] Radecki W., (2010), Problemy ekologii vol. 14, nr 3
[17] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32009L0123:EN:NOT
[18] http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/environment/water_protection_management/l24123_en.htm

11. Conclusions

Despite the long-lasting need, the process of creating the European environmental criminal law has started recently. Unfortunately, from the very beginning it had to overcome many obstacles, at first with huge difficulties. However, the late 2000s consensus in the European Union allowed adopting the first truly influencing acts harmonizing the area of the European environmental criminal law. Implemented by the Member States, the Directives ought to help in preservation of the environment in Europe. However, its effectiveness depends on the law enforcement in the national law systems. Although the first important and difficult step was made, there is still a need to intensify the harmonization of the European environmental criminal law. Furthermore, European legislators should incessantly monitor the situation in the European Union and try to seek a way to make required improvements.

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11. Radecki W., (2011), Biuletyn Parków Krajobrazowych Wielkopolski Zeszyt 17(19)
12. Onida M., (2004), Europe and the Environment, Europa Law Publishing
13. Radecki W., (2009), Problemy ekologii vol. 13, nr 6
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16. The Statute of International Crime Court

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INTERNATIONAL LIABILITY OF STATES AND OR OPERATORS IN THE FIELD OF ENVIRONMENTAL DAMAGE

Szymon Śniady

Abstract

This article deals with the subject of responsibility for damages caused against the natural environment. The author reviews different types of states' liability for damages caused against the natural environment introduced by the international customary and statutory law, envisaging also the attempts to define the term "environmental damage" and the liability of entities other than states.

Keywords: *international liability, environmental law, environmental damage*

1. Introduction

The study is structured around the problem of the liability of states and operators for the environmental damage. First part of the essay briefly introduces the diversification of the types of the liability against the environmental damages. Secondly, the author comes to the explanation of the term environmental damage. Further, the analysis concerns the review of the general rules of the criminal law in area of environmental law.

2. Liability

According to professor Wiesław Lang's definition legal liability is a rule of bearing negative consequences by legal entities for actions or negligence recognized as not coherent with legal system, which are simultaneously assigned to the legal entity.1 Law doctrine distinguishes legal liability into three groups: administrative liability, penal liability and civil liability. Main purpose of legal liability is prevention from causing damages, compensation of already caused ones and repression by punishing responsible entity.

3. Liability diversification

Penal liability describes rules of liability for contravention and crimes against the environment. The main task of the penal liability is to punish the actual committer, what fulfils repressive and preventive (both individual and what is more important general ones) functions of law. Moreover, penal liability founds crimes against the environment as socially harmful and unlawful.

Civil liability is more focused on the interest of the individuals. Foreground function of civil liability is the compensation for the damages, both by restitution to previous condition, or what is much more often, by financial compensation. Civil liability can be based on the regime of risk (objective) or guilt (subjective).

Administrative liability is legal possibility of starting a action against legal entity, caused by its own act breaching a statutory duty form administrative law.[2] Administrative liability includes only these unlawful actions, which are regulated in administrative acts. What differs administrative from penal liability is the way it is executed. Public offices impose the penalties and court control of them is limited only to the situation of appeal.

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[1] Pojęcie, rodzaje i funkcje odpowiedzialności prawnej, (2009), Odpowiedzialność Prawna Za Szkody W Środowisku

[2] Hauser R, Boć J., Prawne formy działania administracji, Tom 1, p. 23, (2013), C.H. Beck

4. Environmental damage

There is no one legal definition of the environment. That makes term environmental damage very wide.[3] Most of the international treaties dealing with the environmental damage define segments of environment like flora, water, and climate; from that point the term environmental damage can be narrowed. For example European Union Directive 2004/35/CE Article 2 divides an environmental damage into three subgroups:

a) damage to protected species and natural habitats, which is any damage that has significant adverse effects on reaching or maintaining the favourable conservation status of such habitats or species. The significance of such effects is to be assessed with reference to the baseline condition,
b) water damage, which is any damage that significantly adversely affects the ecological, chemical and/or quantitative status and/or ecological potential,
c) land damage, which is any land contamination that creates a significant risk of human health being adversely affected as a result of the direct or indirect introduction, in, on or under land, of substances, preparations, organisms or micro-organisms.[4]

Sometimes treaties do not refer to directly environmental damage, replacing them with other terms. For instance, 1985 Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer[5] and 1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change use "adverse effects" for describing unwanted actions.[6]

5. Limit for the damage

Neither law doctrine nor law practice determines explicitly a minimum limit of the damage. Case law shows that the damage need to be serious and above the usual tolerance level. In Nauru Phosphates Case the ICJ said about "irreparable damage"[7], while arbitration tribunal in Trailer Smelter case referred to "serious consequences".[8]

6. State's liability

The issue of state liability is determined by customary public international law[9]. "Principles of state responsibility constituted a baseline enforcement system at the time when public international law begun to engage with the environmental concerns by applying general rules to situation involving environmental harm.".[10] The topic of states responsibility is regulated in International Law Commission Draft Articles on Responsibility of States for internationally wrongful acts.

The United Nation General Assembly adopted the document in resolution in 2002. Article 1 of the resolution states that "Every internationally wrongful act of a state entails the international responsibility of that state.", while article 2 defines a term "international wrongful act" as an action or omission which "Is attributable to the state under international law" or "constitutes a breach of an international obligation of the state". Article 3 states that "the characterization of the same act as lawful by internal law" does not have any matter in international law. Legal consequences of international wrongful acts are described in article 30; "to cease that act, if it is continuing and to offer appropriate assurances and guarantees of

[3] Kenig-Witkowska M., Międzynarodowe Prawo Środowiska, p. 139, (2011), Wolters Kluwer Polska
[4] Directive 2004/35/CE of the European Parliament and of the Council of 21 April 2004 on environmental liability with regard to the prevention and remedying of environmental damage, Official Journal L 143, 30/04/2004 P. 0056 – 0075
[5] Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer, Article 1
[6] United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, Article 1
[7] Certain Phosphate Lands in Nauru (Nauru v. Australia), ICJ, 1992
[8] Trail Smelter case (US v. Canada), UN Reports of International Arbitral Awards
[9] Krajl L., State Responsibility and the Environment, p. 7
[10] Stephens T., International Courts and Environmental Protection, p.65, (2009), Cambridge University Press

non-repetition", and in article 31 which force state to "make full reparation for the injury caused by the internationally wrongful act". Article 34 enumerates forms of reparation to restitution, compensation and satisfaction, while restitution has precedence before compensation when it is possible.[11]

7. Trans-boundary environmental liability

Precedential for trans-boundary environmental liability was Trail Smelter case. It was a dispute between USA and Canada, touching the issue of producing pollutions in one country and emitting them to the territory of another one. During arbitration, in 1941, the tribunal expressed the principle of good neighborliness, which forbids any state to use its territory in a way causing harm in a territory of neighboring state[12]. The International Court of Justice repeated this rule in Corfu case in 1949.

The principal of good neighborliness is a limitation of fundamental rule of the state sovereignty over its territory and natural resources.[13] The rule of good neighborliness is include in 1992 Rio Declaration on environment and development in Principal 2: "activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other states or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction" while Principal 13 encourages states to "develop further international law regarding liability and compensation for adverse effects of environmental damage".[14]

8. State's liability for non-officials

State is liable not only for its own and its own official's unlawful acts causing environmental damages. What is specific is that, according to the international covenants, state can be liable for actions of private entities, not controlled by the state. Example is Article 2 of the UN Convention on International Liability for Damage Caused by Space Objects: "A launching State shall be absolutely liable to pay compensation for damage caused by its space object on the surface of the earth or to aircraft flight."[15]

9. Liability of the operators

Civil responsibility of the environmental damage concerns operators, either in form of natural and juridical persons. In 2006 the International Law Commission draft principles on the allocation of loss in the case of transboundary harm arising out of hazardous activities term adopted by United Nations General Assembly operator is defined as "any person in command or control of the activity at the time the incident causing transboundary damage occurs".[16]

The matter of liability of the operators in regulated in state's inner law implementing international covenants. For long time international community points out the importance of law touching liability for environmental damage. The 1972 Stockholm Declaration in Principal 22 says about the necessity to "develop further the international law regarding liability and compensation for the victims of pollution and other environmental damage caused by activities within the jurisdiction or control of such States to areas beyond their jurisdiction" (also does later already mentioned Principal 13 of the 1992 Rio Declaration).[17]

Article 10 of the 1972 Convention On The Prevention Of Marine Pollution By Dumping Of Wastes And Other Matter statues that states should "undertake to develop procedures for the

[11] Resolution 56/83 adopted by the United Nation General Assembly
[12] Trail Smelter case (US v. Canada), UN Reports of International Arbitral Awards
[13] Shaw M.N., International Law, p. 851, (2008), Cambridge University Press
[14] 1992 Rio Declaration on environment and development
[15] Convention on International Liability for Damage Caused by Space Objects
[16] UN General Assembly Resolution 61/36
[17] Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, (1972), Stockholm

assessment of liability and the settlement of disputes regarding dumping" taking into consideration international rules of state responsibility for damage to the environment of other states.[18] Article 27 of the 2000 Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety force states to "adopt a process with respect to the appropriate elaboration of international rules and procedures in the field of liability and redress for damage resulting from transboundary movements of living modified organisms".[19]

Not always obligations from international treaties in the field of liability for environmental damage are concrete. Nevertheless, most covenants includes provisions defining illegal activities, damage, kind of liability, jurisdiction etc. On this ground some common rules can be observed. For instance, the regime of risk (however the regime of guilt is not completely abandoned) is nowadays dominating in international law, while in hazard activities the responsibility is absolute. The rule "polluter pays" is spreading in the international environmental law and the jurisdiction is usually granted to the court of the state where the pollution was produced.[20] Although more and more covenants are produced, main obstacle in execution of the liability of the operators is difficulty in proving the causation between the damage and adverse action. Second obstacle is states' unwillingness to ratify the treaties.

10. Penal liability

In 1996 the International Law Commission proposed Article 19 of Draft Articles On State Responsibility, which founds "serious breach of an international obligation of essential importance for the safeguarding and preservation of the human environment" as an international crime.[21] International Crime Court Statute in article 8 defines as a war crime a "intentionally launching an attack in the knowledge that such attack will cause … severe damage to the natural environment which would be clearly excessive in relation to the concrete and direct overall military advantage anticipated".[22] In 1998 the Council of Europe prepared the Convention on the Protection of the Environment through Criminal Law[23]. Article 2 of the Convention statues that "Each Party shall adopt such appropriate measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences under its domestic law" number of acts where they cause or are likely to cause damage to the quality of the air, soil, water, animals or plants, or result in the death of or serious injury to any person "when committed intentionally.". Although authors of the document made conditions of entering into force very easy to fulfill, only 3 ratifications were required, only one state did that. The Convention has never entered into force.

11. Conclusion

Despite the obstacles the matter of liability for the environmental damage has been improving for many years. Considerable impact on that has growing ecological awareness of people all around the world. Also the states' attitude to regulate has improved in producing plenty of international treaties regulating liability of environmental damage in different areas of the environment. What can be found bothering is lack of one binding covenant in the field of environment damage. That could eliminate the problems of diversity in law instruments in that field as also as overcome often states unwillingness to ratify the specified treaties.

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CHANGES IN THE GLAM SECTOR AT THE BEGINNING OF THE 21ST CENTURY

Malgorzata Budlewka

Abstract

Galleries and museums are known as the institutions responsible for transferring the knowledge and cultural heritage. For the last decades, they become the subject of the largest interest for the people studying the theory of culture, and - what follows - those institutions serve as a polygon for numerous transformations. The consumer of the museum's space has evolved, together with the surrounding space. The institutions themselves were forced to evolve, tuning into the establishment of the relation with the spectator, becoming more open to the connections with the contemporary world. The phenomenon was observed by Nina Simon, american curator and museologist. She has described it in 2010 and tagged it with the term: "the concept of a participational museum". Assuming that the visitor is an active recipient of the content presented in an exhibition, she rejects the notion that the visitor's role is to be an "empty vessel" into which the Knowledge can be poured. The approach of the full participation finds its place. Simon goes even further with her theory, saying that the recipient can freely comment and process the elements of the exhibition. Ipso facto, that recipient can influence those alteration processes. The group of the recipients has been vastly expanded - the museum's space potentially targets every human being.

Keywords: *museum XXI, 3rd museal revolution, Nina Simon, the media within the museums*

1 Introduction

"The cultural heritage belongs to us all. It has been created by everyone, for everyone. (...) When the cultural heritage becomes digitized, open and easy to share, it evolves into a common property. Always at hand, available on a daily basis. That heritage becomes the part of us." (1)

According to Nina Simon's idea, the museum is understood as a place, where people gather around an idea or a contents (2). Out of their own, the people participate in the dialogue that takes place between an artifact and its recipient. As the result, the visitor takes on a new role: the co-author of the exhibition. Through an integration with the other recipients and authors, the commentators orbit continuously around the same contents. As the result, the formula of the exhibition remains unchanged (3, 4). However, the observed dependency is much more complex than just the interaction with the exhibits. The participational museum implies the absorption and co-creation of the contents presented in the exhibitions. Thus, it turns into a space open for engagement, commentaries and criticism given by the recipients of the institution. The museal enterprises aim for the creation of bounds and relation, a permanent dialogue with the recipient. This form provides new, previously unknown chances for the creation of educational activities that enable co-working and knowledge sharing (5).). Robert Aldrich mentions another effect: a new curatorial policy and transformations of the methods of exhibiting artifacts (6). New social activities come to the foreground, the ones for which new forms of learning are produced (7).

2 The Internet and the social media

The access to the Internet and digital content has caused that an important part of the society spends significant amounts of time in front of their computers' or smartphones' screens. One

can say, that the activities in the social media are an inseparable part of many people's lives. Transferring a part of the museal activity into the zones of the virtual reality, an institution renowned for being contained strictly within a building, enters the world of digital displays. According to Merete Sanderhoff, sharing the museal resources on the Internet becomes essential and necessary. The knowledge becomes accessible for a wider group of recipients.
The social media open up not only to the recipients (understood as singular people) - they open up for every human being (8). Even the institutions themselves set up accounts and run portals by an active participation in the "life" of Facebook, Pinterest users or Twitter. Thanks to particular internet-marketing strategies being applied, the museums efficiently focus on themselves the attention of characters living the virtual life (including other institutions, societies and informal groups). The usage of the "folksnomy" technique enables easy content searching through the usage of keywords (8) and their combinations into related associative groups. The searches are logged and registered to particular internet accounts, owned by specific users. This enables companies to access those databases and send personalised content to the subscribers (9), depending on their activity or friends (10). Those marketing techniques empower better propagation of information about every product. From the museum's perspective, it can be an information about an event, workshop or exhibition. With the aid of specific tools, it is possible to gather data about the recipient and target him directly with the information.

3 New technologies

The museums continuously develop new communication channels, frequently with the aid of the technology (9). They are in constant search for new trends and through the usage of those new trends, the museums change their own form. The buildings occupied by the museums ceased to be the only place for educational and museal practices. Contemporary museums, through the usage of continuously emerging new technological solutions, liberate the functionality from the actual architecture that provides it. It is important to notice the digitalizational activities which transfer resources from archives to the virtual zone. Scrutinously catalogued artifacts are placed within online databases, which are easily searchable on the Internet. Multiple units of the GLAM sector have used this easy fact for occasional creation of new mechanisms, responsible for bringing the recipient closer to the artifact. An application developed by the Los Angeles Country Museum of Art serves as a proper example. With the aid of Snapchat the institution utilizes collections of paintings/pictures to create descriptions on the presentations of graphical artworks, in an unconventional way. The visitors use the application to create so-called Memes which they publish in the social media. This form, while being attractive for a young recipient, presents the actual artwork and draws attention to the museal unit itself.
Worth noting is the fact, that solely the ownership of the museal objects does not contribute to the process of education. Only the associated activities and artifacts decide upon the value of the process. It is a wide variety of practices that constitute the rank of the object and set its proper importance (10). Such activities can evolve in time, transforming exhibits into series of concepts and signs (11). Those series resonate and arouse associations, which can be adopted in further school and museal education (12), These activities become more individualized (13), resulting in a learning process that takes place on its own, while keeping the knowledge easily assimilable.
The digital world began to seep into the contemporary reality creating a new, fourth dimension.
Sharing the data and resources creates one of the standards in educational and cultural activities (14)

4 Movement tracking and monitoring systems

Apart from the internet marketing techniques, other methods are utilized to attract attention directly towards the cultural facilities. Navigation systems have entered the outdoor exhibitions. An application based on a blucasting system explains, what can be seen in the surrounding areas. It has been implemented in the Alhambra museum, Granada. An information about the facility entrance is transmitted directly to the passerby's smartphone.

Multiple schools are located far away from the museum facilities, or they do not possess enough financial resources to be able to familiarize the students with particular museums. Digital access becomes the chance for those schools to become acquainted with the content of the museums. From the museums' perspective, it creates a new channel to reach recipients in the schools where the museal offer was unavailable.

5 Summary

The possibilities created by the new technologies and digitalization, in association with the notion that the people have natural tendency towards sharing their experiences, feelings and visited places (15 are enormous in the digital perspective. They shift the museums and galleries into the new, virtual zone, where they reach their previous and new recipients in their personal realms, in compliance with the constructivist theory of teaching.

The spread of the digital techniques solves a problem of an important social challenge. Therefore, the sharing and digitalization of the collections has been declared one of the most important directions in the cultural policy of Europe (16). Being aware of the necessity to digitize those collections is not enough. This process should be conducted according to specific schemes - only defining the schemes and their popularization enables the possibility of flawless participation for the recipient.

6 Conclusion

The institutions frequently emphasise the financial aspects. In multiple countries, budget cuts in the cultural sectors are the main reason of fundraising from sources not associated with the state subsidies. One can speculate, that in a few years we could experience the museums as the places where one can *buy* culture. The commercial approach comes in a form that stimulates development and influences the relations between the institutions, society and visitors (17). While using the benefits of the technology to their advantage, the museums attempt to remain available for every visitor, regardless of the visitor's financial situation, in order not to disappear from the map of culture. Should the museums fight for their survival? Shouldn't we focus on supplying them with the highest amount of visitors possible? After all, "understanding of the art makes the world a better place, and sharing our digital resources is the realization of this notion" (18).

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