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Theoretical and empirical aspects of helping

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PREFACE

The idea in the background of the origins of this monograph developed for more than one year in connection with the Curriculum Studies Research Group, with registered office in Bratislava, the Slovak Republic. The small group, freely joining researchers mainly from universities of the Czech Republic and other countries not only of the European Union, is primarily focused on the issues of education data mining and of communication of results of scientific research. The e-conferences organized by the Curriculum Studies Research Group for four years already present also regularly the results of scientific results related to human helping, prosocial behaviour, volunteerism, empathy or shaping of prosocial behaviour by external circumstances.

The main arguments for origination of this monograph included strengthening of the status of research of helping, prosocial behaviour and altruism in the Czech Republic, as well as the need to present relevant research results that would react to open discussion of a number of tragic cases of not helping people in situations when they needed it.

The term “helping behavior” usually designates a voluntary behaviour related to doing a good deed to another person. This short definition can be found in the concepts of helping by many authors, including e.g. Batson, Bierhoff, Piliavin, Davis, Rodin, Hoffman, Karylowski, Perner, Dovidio, Snyder, Omoto, van Vugt and others. The helping persons may indeed incur mental, time, financial or other costs; but the focus does not consist so much (e.g. as compared to courageous civil behaviour) in the negative social consequences of the provided help. The helping person can rather expect gratitude of the victim and of potential onlookers.

Readiness to help has a great number of names in literature. The situations in which helping is studied are similarly variegated. The thing is that the helping processes constitute a very large category of human behaviours – from doing minor favours to involvement in volunteer activities to spontaneous intervention in emergency situations. In the wide range of helping, help is distinguished for example by the help-triggering source (spontaneous and responsive behaviour), or by time perspective (one-off, short-term and highly time-demanding behaviour), or by the degree of effort. On one hand, people give coins to beggars sitting on the sidewalks, draw attention to lost keys or money. On the other hand, they dive into water to rescue a drowning person or donate bone marrow to save somebody's life. Low-cost help takes place daily; on the other hand, people providing high-cost help cannot be seen every day; they become heroes and get awards and recognitions. There is also planned formal help related to moral principles (e.g. visits to an ill person), spontaneous informal help determined by sympathy, compassion, or direct help (guiding a handicapped person across the street) or personal help to friends and family. The wide range of forms of helping includes also indirect or anonymous help (donations to charity for unknown people). But all helping people invest their effort, time or money, regardless from amount. Help with high and low costs represents different forms of helping (prosocial behaviour), but all of them share its basic characteristics.

The variety of kinds of helping is matched by the variability of the contents of the individual chapters of this monograph. The team of authors summarized some results of the implemented research projects and made use of long years of research in the field of helping or of practical experience in helping professions. Helping behaviour represents a topic entering several scientific disciplines; but the monograph focuses particularly on social-psychological aspects.

České Budějovice, December 2015 *editor*

INTRODUCTION

This publication deals with the issues of helping, or with some aspects of so called helping professions in context with the present, characterized by obvious individualism rather than by altruism and affiliation, qualities expected to be found in people active in helping professions. The present society is linked with different attributes, including escalated consumerism, alienation, high plurality of opinions and attitudes (missing anchoring) and, particularly, boundless liberalism relativizing basic (atemporal) values that have been valid for centuries. When solving problems, we often come across simple solutions (so called reductionism), narrowed view on the given problems, missing ability to notice the connections. Then, people can simply get the wrong impression that they are allowed to do almost anything to satisfy their subjective needs and wishes, as if no limits exist. They do not realize that boundless freedom provokes great uncertainty, because if everything is allowed, we lose the feeling of security and safety, among other things. Omnipresent absence of awareness of responsibility is the consequence, leading to challenging of one of the basic ethical imperatives - that a person is not allowed to do everything he or she can do.

How will people who are beyond the above stated trends thanks to prosocial behaviour, to their honest endeavour to help others, to give them not only professional but also generally human support, succeed in this context? The authors of this publication deal with some of these questions.

Professional helping is discussed in the chapter dealing with the issue of psychological intervention, or psychological counselling and psychotherapy, including the demands imposed on the profession of psychologist (as for assessment and feeling). Attention is paid also to peculiarities of the personality of so called helpers, to whether they differ from the prevailing current lifestyle. Volunteers play an irreplaceable role within the helping professions. The publication contains two chapters devoted to them; first in context with the professionalization of organizations of the civic society, and second, from the perspective of their motivation to volunteerism. The issues of intergenerational sharing within an organization (accentuation of generation differences) as well as the issue of immigration, very relevant today, are included as well. Specifically, the issue of social support among Polish immigrants living in the Czech Republic is presented here. The chapter discussing efficient helping through accurate diagnostics is noteworthy too. It applies in general that high-quality diagnostics is not only a basic precondition of efficient therapy but that it also allows identifying the emerging risks and assessing them adequately.

Face to face with relevant problems (e.g. the migration crisis, terrorism, xenophobia, populism, fundamentalism, etc.), the Jewish-Christian tradition of Europe is remembered. However, in the spirit of these traditions, each person is reflected as a free and creative human being, responsible for their life at all levels (responsibility to oneself, to others, but also to the rules of existence that surpasses us). Anchoring of the human (integrity of personality, congruence) and awareness of responsibility are undoubtedly an indispensable precondition of successful practice of helping profession. But at the same time, they also constitute an efficient prevention of potential origination of the burnout syndrome, but also of the undesired "flight" of the helper from himself/ herself to helping professions (see so called helper's syndrome). Instead of helping, dangerous manipulation of clients (patients) may occur, which is in sharp contrast with the basic mission of such professions.

Jiří Jankovský

Part I

HELPING AND HELPERS

1

HELPING AS PART OF PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

Karel Paulík

INTRODUCTION

The issue of mutual helping of people can be observed at different levels and from different angles of view. The forms and quality of help are also diverse, from lay help by friends and acquaintances to qualified help by competent professionals. This chapter deals in detail with issues related to professional help to the human within psychological intervention at professional level. We pay attention particularly to two forms of professional help based on professional intervention: psychological consulting and psychotherapy.

Both psychological consulting and psychotherapy are based on help provided by a person meeting specific preconditions to a person who needs such help for any reasons. They complement specifically the phenomenon of helping and mutual support that can be considered one of the essential attributes of human society, resulting from social solidarity. Each member is confronted with the need to adapt to the life conditions of the respective society. In that process, individual differences occur also in the sphere of human abilities to care efficiently for oneself or for one's related persons. Each social entity must make provisions for incidence of individuals who are more or less weakened in that regard and depend on the others. Helping to such people includes altruism and prosocial behaviour (compare Reykowski, 1979). As is known from the history, such help has passed a development (see e.g. Matoušek et al., 2001) showing signs of randomness, lack of organization, lack of systematic nature, as well as the effort to handle helping systematically, using theoretical knowledge, and respecting specific principles. A natural source of mutual solidarity and help has been the family and the family community from time immemorial. Professionalization of helping can be considered a specific completion of the effort for efficient development of helping people, although professionalization in itself may not automatically mean only positive contribution. Professional help provided to individuals or groups of persons who, for some reasons, are not able, cannot or don't want solve satisfactorily more or less serious problem situation of different kind is a part of job content of helping professions. The essence of the concept consists, according to psychological dictionary (e.g. Hartl & Hartlová, 2004, p. 185), in practical, theoretical and research focus on "helping others, identification and solving of others problems and on acquisition of new knowledge on the humans and their life conditions so that the help can become more effective". If inspired by Reykowski (quote), we can state that it is particularly helping to specific people, groups or even institutions, focused on elimination, prevention of and protection against damages (provide information, advice, instructions, inspire to behaviour and experience changes, calm down, encourage, distract, amuse, support, express understanding, sympathy, etc.).

PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP, ITS ESSENCE, GOALS AND PROBLEMS

Both professional intervention forms, psychological consulting and psychotherapy, have some similar and some different features (see e.g. Paulík, 2009, Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010). Both can be considered applied scientific disciplines (constituting a study discipline or branch and professional specialization) with own theoretical base taking into consideration interdisciplinary context. In this regard, they can be classified into general forms (theories, data acquired by research, methods) and special application theories and knowledge from research and methods for individual types of difficulties and problems. A set of professional activities is used in their application (intervention methods and procedures based on psychological diagnostics). Differences between psychological consulting and psychotherapy are seen particularly in the seriousness of the problems solved, in the "depth" and duration of the professional intervention, in the degree of the expected client's involvement, or in the environment in which the intervention takes place, etc. But the differences need not always be substantial, particularly when highlighting the intervention goals from practical perspective. Additionally (see e.g. Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010), the contents of the concepts of consulting and psychotherapy are understood differently in different countries. They mingle mutually both in theory and in practice. The difference of psychological consulting and psychotherapy from a number of other professional activities can be seen (compare Kratochvíl, 2012) in the object (problem, difficulty, disorder), subject (qualified person), intervention tools (psychological tools), in goals (problem solution, elimination or mitigation of troubles and elimination of their causes if possible) and in the processes taking place (positive changes of behaviour and experience).

In general, the psychological help of psychotherapists and consulting psychologists consists in activities aimed at change (improvement) of undesirable conditions of persons who, due to subjective or objective obstacles, cannot or don't want to solve their more or less serious problems at satisfactorily adaptive level. A specific feature of psychological help consists in application of psychological means. They include (compare Paulík, 2009) e.g. contact and interaction, creation of relationship based on mutual confidence, paying of attention, kind acceptance, with understanding, empathy, respect, patience, provision of advice, instructions, examples, information, including feedback, etc. All that is contained at some degree also in the help provided by lays or in helping activities implemented in good faith by professionals in other branches not primarily focused on psychotherapy and consulting (general practitioners, teachers) and not specially trained in them. Such help, including different information, advice or instructions can be termed implicit consulting (Paulík, 2009). Such way of helping includes also varied risks consisting e.g. in some randomness, lack of systematic character or even problematic character of the advice provided, due to lack of the necessary professional competences. Professionals provide help on scientific base (best practises) and are also bound by the obligation to respect the relevant legislation and ethical standards. Their activities are based, if possible (see e.g. Paulík, 2009), on supporting the client's own resources to manage bigger or smaller life challenges.

When looking at the help provided within psychological consulting and psychotherapy in more detail, several more or less unclear aspects can be found. It can be seen, for example, that the expected more intensive interconnection of the academic world and practice (Výrost, 2012) has not been fully met, both at shaping the theoretical base and at applying professional helping methods, and in the issues of the required qualification of the respective professionals. The present era is characterized by increasing number of different theoretical psychotherapeutic consulting directions and methodological procedures created by developing and differentiating the existing ones and declared as completely new ones, which makes the situation in this area somewhat unclear. Additionally, the directions and methods are not always adequately theoretically supported, methodologically substantiated and with more beneficial effects than the existing theoretical frameworks and methods (compare Kratochvíl, 2012). The situation around the requirements on competences and professional preparation of consulting psychologists and psychotherapists, different in different countries, is not quite clear and transparent either. The European Association of Psychotherapy (EAP), acting in Europe since 1990, has formulated some requirements on qualification for the profession of psychotherapist, which contribute to the development of psychotherapy in a number of countries, but it does not have the power to assert unique requirements on procedures in that sphere. In different countries, more or less rigorous and liberal opinions can be found (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010) with regard to the question who and under which conditions can practice psychotherapy or psychological consulting.

In connection with professional psychological intervention, concepts like consultant, therapist and patients, or client, are used, but they are not always unambiguously defined. We do not consider their detailed specification indispensable for our purposes either. In the following text, we are going to use them as more or less equivalent. If understanding psychotherapy as professional occupation, as a complex of different activities, we can state without problems that a consulting psychologist, similarly to the psychotherapist, carries out therapeutic interventions according to the needs and circumstances, in compliance with the respective competences, and the interventions constitute an organic part of psychological consulting intervention, together with other procedures. Similarly, the psychotherapist's work includes consulting in form of common advice, instructions, suggestions or intervention without deeper therapeutic intention.

Some drawbacks may occur in individual states of the actual therapeutic and consulting process. At the very beginning of the process, mistakes may occur when diagnosing the problem, for example due to a possible attribution error or first-impression error (compare e.g. Jůn, 2010). That may lead to choice of inadequate methods and to application of inadequate procedures, as well as to determination of less than optimal duration of professional psychotherapeutic or consulting intervention with premature or late termination.

Another, theoretically and practically serious, problem consists in specification of a general goal of professional psychological intervention, i.e. change of the undesirable situation of the client and the concepts terming the respective characteristics. When thinking about more detailed characteristics of the change at which the consulting intervention should aim, different options are available. The change may concern individual parts of the client's cognitive functions (way of reception and processing of information), emotional processes, attitudes, behaviour patterns, orientation, etc., or the whole personality, respectively. We can ask why and to whom the above stated change is desirable or by whom and how the change of the client's situation is determined. In professional psychological intervention, we can come across involuntary clients who often are not interested in the given change and help. In such case, someone else decides of the need of help, and the question is how the help is accepted. A starting point for the relevant helping professional usually is a specific conception of the standard, that may be influenced also by other factors (habits in the given workplace, commercial interests, ...). Even the effort to solve rather own problems cannot be excluded as motivation to help, as for example Schmidbauer (2008) describes in the helper's syndrome. The thinking about the actual therapeutic change can also be based on the determination of what is undesirable, accentuating the characteristics of what should be changed or eliminated; it can also be focused on the description and analysis of the result, i.e. of the situation to which the change should arrive. The determination of causes, problems and their causal relations is quite difficult. The theoretical bases of the authors of such characteristics (see for example Prochaska, Norcross, 1999) may be considerably different (e.g. behaviouristic base against existential or humanistic bases). The very delimitation of problematic behaviour as a frequent phenomenon in education, health and social services is connected with the open question about what are its criteria and who determines them. If this matter is not clear, doubts about the chosen methods of correction may arise (compare Jůn, 2010). The international Classification of Mental and Behavioural Disorders, the Clinical Descriptions and Diagnostic Guidelines and the Diagnostical and Statistical Manual (DSM) are examples of the effort to establish the criteria for determination of the main clinical signs and characteristics of mental disorders and behaviour disorders, including description and diagnostic guide in clinical area. But even these descriptive and classification manuals are not free from problematic moments. The critics point out some drawbacks. Particularly DSM shows insufficient scientific documentation of some included nosological units (see e.g. Pečeňák, 2014), as well as some problems related to the connection with medicamental therapy or to their inadequate application e.g. in justice or in HR decisions (see video presentation on DSM at: www.youtube.com/watch?=Y19Gp35Tq3k).

The undesirable situation is usually characterized by more or less general concepts like personal problem, mental disorder, disease, depression, anxiety, strong dissatisfaction, etc. (for more detail see e.g. Paulík, 2002, 2009). Their delimitation is not always quite simple. If using the concept of personal problem for general designation of an undesirable condition, as is frequently done, we understand it (Paulík 2009) as a "situation whose character is unpleasant to the human, therefore the human has motive to change it. In other words, the human is motivated to solve the problem. Other features of problem include the fact that the options currently available to the individual for adaptive mastering of the problem situation are not sufficient for its adequate solution under the given circumstances, and therefore the need of a distinctly increased effort and of search of other ways or options arises, including searching help in the surroundings. Human life brings a lot of problems that cannot be analyzed or classified from different perspectives. Frequent problems include own disease or disease of family members, limited satisfaction of individual needs, problems in interpersonal relations with frequent conflicts and misunderstandings, etc." When characterizing in general the opposite to health, concepts like disease and illness are commonly used to designate some level of damage, disruption or destruction of physical or mental functions important for life. With respect of disease, rather objective view, usually representing a specific diagnose is stressed. Rather subjective experiencing of currently impaired health condition is expressed by illness. But we can come across a number of other concepts in the given context (compare Baštecká, Goldman, 2001; Kebza, 2005), used to accentuate different degrees and signs of impaired health. For example a condition of potential damage (restriction of some function, pain, inconveniences) without obvious objective cause is termed malady. Acute or chronic disruption of health condition is expressed also by concepts like sickness, disorder, disability, impairment, handicap, injury, etc. The grasp of a situation of undesirably disrupted health condition is further complicated for example by the influence of cultural and social conditions. What is considered a disease in specific conditions, need not be understood in the same way in other conditions.

When describing characteristic features of a desirable change, different levels of generality of utilizable concepts are used. The quantitative perspective may represent different degrees of improvement, consisting in mitigation or even elimination of undesirable features. The qualitative concept means a substantial change that can be represented by reaching a specific optimum, standard or ideal. The optimal or ideal resulting condition of professional psychological intervention can be expressed by concepts like mental health, social functioning, or well-being. Such characteristics are, in general, conceptually extensive and their contents are variously determined (see e.g. Navrátil, 2001; Kebza, 2005; Mareš a kol, 2006; Diener et al, 2009, etc.), describing in principle positively experienced phenomena, with accent on specific features and perspectives and some relation to reaching of mental balance (equilibrium). (Paulík, 2010). The concept of mental health can be an example of summary expression of the optimal goal or result of psychological intervention (desirable change of the client's situation). WHO defines health as a relatively optimal state of physical, mental and social well-being, with preserved optimal function of the personality as a whole and of its individual subsystems in all social roles and environment changes.

The operationalized WHO characteristics of health from 1999 includes decreasing mortality, morbidity and negative consequences of diseases and disorders and increasing feeling of health. It includes implicitly the assumed ability to cope with the relevant challenges (stresses).

The characteristic features of healthy, integrated, internally balanced personality include also mental and social maturity. It consists in accepting of and coping with the relevant social roles (fulfilment of requirements and expectations imposed by the social environment in connection with a specific social position).

Mental and social maturity is involved in achievement of the feeling of fulfilment of one's potential, well-being and happiness, characteristic to broadly conceived mental health. The assessment of mental health can rely upon the presence of the following features (see e.g. Míček, 1984).

- Realistic assessment of the world and of oneself.
- Reasonable independence.

- Ability to achieve subjective satisfaction.
- Ability of self-fulfilment.
- Ability of effective adaptation in given circumstances. Effective adaptation consists not only in adaptation to the surroundings but also in active adaptation of the surroundings to one's potential and ideas (provided the others are not substantially affected by the implementation).
- Balance of individual constituents of personality – biological (healthy regime), social (relations to people based on mutual respect to rights), mental (development of cognitive, emotional and effort qualities) and environmental (respect to surroundings) constituents.

The essence of therapeutic change is specified by S. Rogers (1995 etc.) who expresses it as reduction of the difference between what the client is and what the client would like to be, which is accompanied by reduction of physiological and mental tension and discomfort. That is related with the shift of goals and ideals to more realistic and easier realizable ones.

According to Norcross and Prochaska (see Paulík, 2009, pp.16–17), the change of an undesirable to a desirable situation is induced in principle by the following means:

- Expansion of consciousness – by increasing extent and quality of knowledge, by acquisition of experience through observation of reality, own experience and shared experience of other people, provision of information, clarification of facts, increased perceptiveness (against "blinkers"), etc.
- Catharsis – induction and letting off emotions, support to letting off spontaneous emotions.
- Selection – application of free choice of behaviours and experiencing in a specific situation under awareness of consequences and assumption of responsibility for them.
- Conditioning

(1) Stimuli are changed in order to change the conditioned response to them.

(2) Change of response to the given stimulus) is induced (under use of so called counterconditioning = the individual learns to react to the given stimulus in other manner, while the new desirable response is positively strengthened and the original undesirable response is negatively strengthened; another option consists in extinction = gradual subsiding of the response that is not strengthened.

The processes are based on support to the client's fundamental forces (resources) for mastering the undesirable situation, particularly in order to:

- improve, develop, deepen the self-cognition,
- clarify (+ possibly modify) short-term and long-term goals,

- learn to know the essence of the existing problem – name it, focus on its character and sources,
- support the awareness of freedom and responsibility,
- assess realistically both oneself and the surroundings.

The actual change of the client's situation may concern the personality as a whole or its individual structural or dynamic components. According to traditional classification, the cognitive sphere concerns for example new information, knowledge and experience, new view of oneself and of the surrounding world (re-labelling), increasing perceptiveness against "blinkers", etc. For example Prochaska and Norcross (1999) mention the expansion of consciousness in this context. In cognitive sphere, the change concerns the general orientation of the personality, attitudes, behavioural patterns, including auto-regulation. Prochaska and Norcross, (op cit) speak of selection (free decision-making on adequate actions under awareness of own responsibility) and conditioning. In emotional sphere, the change is manifested in emotional reactions (including changed experiencing of physical feelings) and experiencing of emotions, which can be achieved e.g. by mediation, positive emotional corrective experience, focusing, abreaction or catharsion (compare Vymětal et al., 2004).

The probability for the desirable change to take place increases "where the client is ready to change and the therapist is able to establish a high-quality therapeutic relation with the client" (Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010, p. 35). The degree of the client's problems is important, and particularly the first stage of professional intervention is essential (approximately the first five sessions). At present, the quality of the therapeutic condition is often considered the crucial factor of success of professional psychological intervention.

Additionally to general delimitation of ideal intervention result, specific criteria for assessment of the change that was to be achieved through professional intervention are important. Satisfaction with life and with oneself, both current or habitual, is sometimes applied as a relatively easily ascertainable (by questioning) indicator of the client's problem solution, sometimes more or less obvious from behaviour; the satisfaction is also a part of the constructs of quality of life (compare e.g. Kebza, 2005), well-being or mental health. The clients' satisfaction with the development and results of consulting activities is also considered an indicator of efficiency, for example in different programs of group consulting. Nevertheless, the declared satisfaction with achieved results (given for example as reason to terminate the consulting process) cannot always be considered a sufficiently reliable indicator. There can also be situations when the client wishes to terminate the contact with the consultant for example due to feeling of uselessness, futility of the effort, resignation, etc. Sometimes, the client's assertion that his/her situation has improved to a satisfactory level can be based rather on gratitude for the care and effort or on regret about unsuccessful effort to help, etc. But in practice, there are also situations when the client, for some reason, does not want to terminate the therapy, although it would be pertinent for “objective” reasons, and wants to continue it for example due to transference, etc. In such situation, the consulting relation should be tactfully terminated.

Another indicator can consist in improvement of some (e.g. social) skills tested before and after a specific intervention consulting or program. (see e.g. Hargašová et al., 2009). Its weight can be limited by the fact that the client was possibly affected also by other factors than those included in the program.

Another possibility to determine a suitable indicator of effect of consulting intervention consists in operationalization of a general construct related to desirable results of psychological intervention and creation of an applicable method to measure it. The IHA and IHB inventory (Kulka, 2012) can be an example: it was created to ascertain the degree of the construct of happiness both in habitual and in current form. According to the author, the inventory can differentiate different profiles of the clients’ problems, allowing comparison of the state before and after the psychological intervention.

Relatively easily perceptible indicators of positive effect of psychological intervention consist in reduced complaints, return to work and adequately adaptive behaviour at work, offered by H. J. Eysenck (1952). But its third indicator - successful social adaptation, its quite problematic for determination of its degree.

EFFICIENCY OF PROFESSIONAL HELP

One of the substantial issues related to induction of desirable change in the client’s situation with the help of psychological professional intervention (additionally to identification of the substance or characteristics of change and criteria for its assessment) consist in the efficiency of the results achieved**.** The current economic trend striving for reduction of non-productive costs can be seen even in the area of professional psychological intervention. Mental problems of persons in productive age cause considerable economic losses worldwide. Therefore efficient qualified help aimed at restoration of their ability of full work performance is highly desirable. Stress is put also on reduction of financial demands of professional psychological interventions. That pressure relies, among other things, upon comparing the achieved effects with the invested costs. But verification of efficiency of individual therapeutic methods or directions is very difficult. A whole number of facts must be taken into consideration for comprehensive assessment, particularly the quality of the result (the scope and depth of change, its contribution to the client and to the society), as well as total costs for its achievement (the necessary time, intensity of involvement of all intervention participants, the demandingness of the consultant’s or therapist’s professional preparation, operation costs of consulting facilities, etc.). In this context, primarily the quality of the result (healing, solved problem) is considered, possibly together with the necessary duration and material provision of the intervention.

The importance attributed to the issue of efficiency of professional psychological intervention has been the topic of interest for a long time. The interest in this issue increased in professional circles in the 1950s probably thanks to the publication of a crucial article by H. J. Eysenck (1952) and it is apparently supported also by economic interests of the present (for example in connection with payment for psychotherapy by health insurance companies). Eysenck expressed doubts on evidential force of the effects of a specific therapeutic procedure in view of possible healing (spontaneous remission) even without therapy (according to Eysenck, more than 70% improve within two years, and up to 90% within five years). His assumptions were not fully confirmed by later verifications (e.g. Vymětal et al., 2004), but the possibility of some improvement of the client's condition without professional intervention is probably realistic.

Desirable changes are achieved by different methodological procedures in professional psychological intervention. It can seem paradoxical (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010) that the psychotherapists working in different manners achieve, in essence, the same results. That is probably related with the fact that, in spite of existing differences, common general therapeutic factors can be found in the background of different therapeutic directions, not directly related to the therapist's theoretical foundations (compare Prochaska & Norcross, 1999); such factors can be attributed about 30% share in the achieved positive result of the therapy. With about 40% falling upon spontaneous remissions, approximately 15% are due to specific factors of individual psychotherapeutic directions and the methods applied by them (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010).

Common factors include particularly the therapist's personality (the therapist's therapeutic orientation and the respective skills, behaviour, appearance and handling of the client, including reactions to the client's behaviour), communication, the relation developed with the client and the methods applied. Other common factors include (Prochaska & Norcross 1999) the client's positive expectation (placebo) and the very fact that the client is given special attention by the therapist (Hawthorn effect). The placebo effect plays an essential role in some therapeutic methods (e.g. in systematic desensibilization, up to 50% share in the result is reported); nevertheless, professional psychological intervention is more efficient than procedures relying only upon the placebo effect.

Specific factors of different consulting and psychotherapeutic procedures influence the efficiency of the methods used in therapy, prevention and rehabilitation of different problems and disorders in different ways. Specific methods lead to achieve more favourable results at specific syndromes.

In all types of therapy, the therapist's personality and relationship with the client finds application as a therapeutic tool. All therapist's qualities don't have the same importance for the efficiency of the therapy (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010). For example the ability to encourage the client, to facilitate a change, the ability of self-reflection, etc. are essential. The age, duration of practical experience or ethnic origin have less significance.

Responsible selection of methods of professional psychological intervention cannot do without the knowledge of what they act upon and with what effect, in order to avoid exposing the client to an unacceptable danger. Exact verification of the efficiency of a specific procedure of professional psychological intervention is methodologically difficult, as it must meet strict criteria. One of the options of assessment of the efficiency of a specific therapeutic procedure consists in secondary analysis of the results of a considerable number of studies, under use of box count procedure or meta-analysis (compare Vymětal et al., 2004). Another option of verification of therapy efficiency consists in experimental research. In case of box count, individual therapeutic procedures are divided into groups (boxes) by whether their use leads to achieve positive, negative or insignificant results. Meta-analysis compares the results of different studies of efficiency of psychotherapy, converting them to comparable quantities. The efficiency degree has the role of a dependent variable in such case. Independent variables include the intervention method, type of disorder, etc. The efficiency of intervention is determined by subtracting the changes achieved in the control group from the average changes achieved in the group under therapy. The result is divided by standard deviation of average values measured in the control group.

A number of meta-analyses of efficiency of psychological intervention has been published. For example Kratochvíl (2012, p. 348) summarizes the results of six studies of effects of psychotherapy, carried out in 1963–1994, as follows: They confirm the efficiency of behavioural, rational-emotional, cognitive-behavioural psychotherapy and other forms like Rogerian, dynamically oriented, interpersonal psychotherapy. They suggest that the effects of different therapeutic interventions are differentiated with regard to the patient types and problems, as well as to the mechanisms used to achieve the results. Further, the studies demonstrate the influence of non-specific factors, but such factors (e.g. placebo) are usually less efficient than the specific procedures. For example in the 1990s, an extensive meta-analysis including 3500 different studies published in professional press was carried out (Grave, Donati & Bernauer, 1994). The results support the assumption of higher efficiency of psychotherapeutic procedures as against placebo or situations without therapy. The changes achieved by different intervention procedures differ rather by quality than by extent. Attention in professional circles was captivated particularly by the statement on superiority of cognitive-behavioural therapy over other therapeutic procedures. Short-term or middle-term (under 100 hours) dynamic therapy, Rogerian therapy, gestalt and systemic family therapy were evaluated as relatively efficient too. Relaxation and meditative procedures and hypnotherapy seemed to be efficient techniques. The results found by Grave et al. are a little relativized by later meta-analyses. For example the results found by R. Eliot (1996) did not support superiority of cognitive-behavioural therapy over Rogerian therapy. Another extensive meta-analysis, including 375 studies of efficiency of psychotherapy, was carried out by Smith & Glass (1977). They found, among other things (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010), that after a psychotherapeutic intervention, the person under therapy was better off, on average, than 75–80% persons without therapy. Psychotherapy had the highest effect in anxious patients. The most efficient therapeutic approaches included systematic desensibilization, behaviour modification and rational-emotional therapies. Such conclusions were supported also by a follow-up check (Landman & Dawes, 1982). Thus it seems that many meta-analytical studies of efficiency of psychotherapeutic interventions prove the efficiency and justifiability of professional psychological interventions, in spite of some drawbacks and controversial moments (influence of theoretical orientation of the researchers, uncontrolled effects of intervening variables, limits of representability, etc.). As Vymětal et al. (2007) summarizes, the efficiency of psychotherapy probably rises if applied in specifically indicated cases. For general indication, the rule of thirds applies, which means that the patients who have finished the therapy always include one third of persons who have achieved distinctive, partial and insignificant effect, respectively.

In experimental verification of efficiency of a specific consulting or therapeutic intervention, the use of control groups is considered necessary. Clients with a specific diagnosis are randomly divided into groups. Additionally to the group (usually consisting of patients with one diagnosis) on which the therapeutic procedure under verification is applied, there are further groups, so called control groups, on which the relevant procedure is not applied – they are provided only with a placebo, no therapy (e.g. patients who are waiting for the therapy are included here), or they are treated by another therapeutic method. The actual therapeutic procedure under verification must be described in detail, step by step. Development according to a manual is useful. Also the therapists' competence (knowledge, experience) is taken into account. Great attention is also paid to the method of measurement of the results achieved (operationalization). The results are evaluated by professionals who were not involved in the research in question and do not know the classification of individual patients into the respective groups. The persons under research usually include patients with one diagnosis (see e.g. Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010).

But even a strictly validated experimental research of efficiency of psychological intervention in solution of mental problems of a human individual is not free from problems. They include for example somehow artificial situation, differing from real therapy (compare Seligman, 1995; Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010). The participants of the experiment have only one diagnosis, the therapy takes the same time for all of them, the therapist is specified in advance (randomly), the therapeutic procedure is identical for all patients, etc. But in real life, the individuals usually do not have only one isolated problem and they often select the therapist by themselves; the therapists modify their proceedings according to circumstances, etc.

The proofs of efficiency of psychological intervention can be obtained also in another way, e.g. by examining the opinions of the public. One of such studies carried out by the American Consumer Reports magazine (Nielsen et al., 2004) supported the assumption of efficiency of psychotherapy. Out of seven thousand respondents, 4100 persons reported having searched professional psychological help, and 87% of the persons characterizing their condition before therapy as very bad stated improvement. Although strict scientific principles were not observed in that case, the results can be paid attention and taken into question (compare Seligman, 1995; Hilsenroth, 2007).

Professional circles agree that psychological professional intervention is more efficient than no therapy and placebo, although it may lead to deterioration of the condition in some 5–10 cases. The efficiency of psychotherapy is related to its duration. The respective positive change of the client's condition tends to last quite long (Lambert, 2001).

Efficiency is definitely shown (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010) by therapeutic affiliance, empathy and agreement on goals and cooperation, as well as cohesion in group therapy. Further, positive insight, congruence and sincereness of the therapist, provision of feedback, rectification of conflicts in therapeutic relation, the therapist's self-revelation, therapeutic work with counter-transference, and quality of relationship interpretation are probably efficient. On the client's side, resistance and level of problems are empirically evident for the therapy result; and coping style, change stages, expectation, and assimilation of problematic experience are probably efficient.

SUBJECTIVE ASSESSMENT AND EXPERIENCING OF WORK AND ITS CONDITIONS BY HELPING PROFESSIONALS

The therapist's personality constitutes one of the crucial factors in psychological consulting and psychotherapy based on therapist-client relation. The desirable general preconditions include (compare Vybíral & Roubal eds., 2010) human congruence, empathy, prevailing attitude of caring, obligingness, and warmth. Important is the therapist's ability to facilitate change in the client's situation, to accompany and encourage the client, the ability to name the client's problem and the current therapy development at proper time and in a way understandable to the client. Also the ability of self-reflection and the effort to eliminate own drawbacks and limitations are indispensable. It is indisputably very challenging to meet all the above stated and other potential requirements.

Theoretically, objective and subjective dimension can be distinguished in the demands placed on the therapist. The objective dimension consists in the duration of intervention, the client's behaviour (the demands placed on the therapist rise when working with a non-cooperative client, aggressive client), the amount of clients, the difficulty of the methods applied, the complexity of the cases solved, etc.

The subjective dimension is connected with assessment and experiencing of the client's situation by the therapist. In view of the character of the client's problems solved, usually connected with disgrace, difficulties, suffering, an important role in the professional helping process falls upon emotions related with the therapist's involvement. Emotional experience plays an appreciable role also in the development of the client-therapist relation. The clients often expect human acceptance and understanding of their situation from the therapists. People in need, often in unfavourable, subordinated or dependent position, usually show increased degree of sensitivity to displays of sympathy. The ability to understand exactly the client's personality, primarily the client's experiencing and current feelings (empathy) on the background of highly diverse problems and personal equations, including the ability to express it to the client verbally and nonverbally (compare Koščo, 1987), is considered important even by the helping professionals themselves. That can be illustrated by research results. For example in a research carried out on nurses (N 266) and female social workers (N 107) in old people's homes (Kopřiva, 2011), affection, patience, and empathy were named as desirable preconditions of helping professionals even more frequently than expertise. However, the respective emotional processes are usually related with increased mental strain (compare e.g. Wlczek-Ruzsiczka, 2010; Tichý, 2011). Its intensity or duration often achieves a stress level, if understanding stress as increased strain, acutely or chronically exceeding the adaptation capacity of the human individual (compare Paulík, 2010). Long lasting exposure to stress may have negative consequences, including emotional exhaustive burnout syndrome or working dissatisfaction and reduced work performance.

Strain at stress level is often caused also by the fact that during the therapeutic intervention, the relevant professional cannot do without concentrated volitional effort focused not only on the client and the client's situation and behaviour but also on control of own behaviour and experiencing and choice of adequate procedures and techniques. The strain accumulates during the work day, week and during longer periods, requiring high adaptation effort. Factors involved in the therapist's increased strain include also disruption of the boundaries between the client and the therapist, manifested by excessive control of the clients on one hand and by sacrificing oneself for the clients on the other hand. Besides, the thoughts about the clients' problems and about solution of complicated cases may disrupt the therapist's life out of work, increasing the emotional fatigue.

Let's state for illustration some findings of the studies implemented by the author or under his participation (Paulík, 2001; Tylová, 2007). Our results, similarly to the results of some other authors (Matoušková, 2003), show for example that psychologists, psychiatrists and other professionals participating in professional psychological intervention characterized subjectively their strain related to the practice of their profession as relatively high. That conclusion is supported by data showing that the explored professionals:

- perceive the demandingness of their job as higher than that of other professions or that of university studies (compare Paulík ed., 2012),
- experience their strain related to working activities as higher than the strain resulting from the demands of common life out of job,
- as compared to other professions, there is also a relatively high percentage of individuals stressed by their work demands – a fifth of the respondents reported extreme strain, and other almost 50 percent stated a very high work strain.

The results of the above stated studies supported the assumption of negative connections of high work demands with work satisfaction and subjective quality of life. Among other things, connections between experienced work strain and duration of exposure were found (the amount of perceived work strain is directly proportional to increasing duration of the profession observed).

According to our respondents, the sources of increased strain of psychological professional intervention consisted primarily in misunderstandings and problems in cooperation with the clients, problems with legislation, excessive administration, organization problems and insufficient financial reward, respectively. The responding psychologists assessed their general working strain at a five-point scale.

PREVALENCE OF WOMEN IN MANY HELPING PROFESSIONS INCLUDING PSYCHOLOGY

When viewing the helping professions from gender perspective, the superior number of women over men is evident. That superiority can be seen both among the employees and among the students preparing for the practice of such professions at the university (see e.g. Paulík, 2005). When asking after the motives of that situation, lasting for many years already, there are several possible answers. If setting aside terminological and factual problems related to the use of the concepts of sex and gender (see e.g. Paulík ed., 2012), differences in broader social-cultural and psychological context come into consideration also at biological level. When trying to understand the motives of greater interest in helping professions among women, we can recall (without wanting to assign them essential significance and to generalize groundlessly) also the common simplified concepts of typical characteristics of women, anchored in general awareness of broad public, like gentleness, sensibility, emotionality, solicitude or caring tendency, which constitute, in principle, the contents of women gender roles. The concepts of the contents of woman's gender role are relatively widespread in public awareness, although it is problematic to accept them (compare Vybíral, 2005), as they are based on unfounded and often mistaken assumptions and stereotypes. They actually may have some influence on the approach to and acceptance of gender roles. The acceptance of a role based on relatively well established stereotypes could be reflected in the approach to helping other persons and it could play some role also in influencing the choice of profession. For example in our study (Paulík, 2005), women reported almost twice as frequently as men that their choice of a helping profession was motived by help to other people who need it. Women, unlike men, were influenced in their decision-making of choice of profession also by positive opinion of other persons from their surroundings (often of persons who were also active in helping professions). The concepts of specific characteristics, probably influencing the choice of profession, could be supported by some indications of differences of women from men, consisting (see e.g. Paulík ed., 2012) for example in the anatomical arrangement of female brain or in the functions of the hormonal system. The development of female tendencies to help others might be facilitated, at least hypothetically, for example by more massive neuronal interconnection of both brain hemispheres in corpus callosum, offering preconditions for integration of rational and emotional aspects of the situation and for the ability to perceive multiple aspects of phenomena at the same time. That could, theoretically, benefit the quality of estimate when evaluating people in different situations. The female tendency to kind, friendly, understanding, helping and caring behaviour could be further related (compare Taylor, 2006) with the calming influence of oxytocin in hormonal reactions. A similar response was even observed in men when oxytocin was applied artificially to them. As Taylor states, oxytocin does not have such effect every time but only in strain related to problems in social relations, and additionally, its effect is reinforced by estrogen. In general, the variability of responses to stress is bigger in women than in men. In men, the testosterone stimulates active dominant or even aggressive behaviour; therefore the fight/flight response is common in them. On the contrary, women show such behaviour less frequently, and "tend and befriend" behaviour prevails in them.

Another, quite logically explainable motive of predominance of women employed in helping professions may consist, after all, in higher level of fluctuation tendencies of men, which may be related to their lower satisfaction with material equipment of the workplace and primarily with the salary (Paulík, 2005).

ETHICAL ASPECTS IN PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP

Helping professions rank among professions that are highly ethically exposed. The work of consulting psychologists and psychotherapists is governed by a broad set of rules, standards and regulations. The relevant principles of professional ethics of psychotherapy and psychological consulting are incorporated in rules and standards characterized by different levels of generality and extent. The best known standards include the Ethics Code of the American Psychology Association (APA) and of the British Psychological Society (BPS). The European Meta-Code of Ethics and the Charter of Professional Ethics (Carta Ethica) are also widespread in Europe. Our country has established sets of rules and standards for different helping professions. They are usually based on general standards established in the world or in Europe.

The area of professional practical applications of psychology has a number of ethical standards, e.g. Strasbourg Declaration of Psychotherapy of 1990 or the Statement of Ethical Principles of the European Association for Psychotherapy (EAP). The Czech Republic has for example the Codes of Ethics of the Czech Psychotherapy Society (http://psychoterapeuti.cz/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=318, Association of Clinical Psychologists, helpline workers, etc.

The Strasbourg Declaration of Psychotherapy of 1990 includes five principles:

(1) Psychotherapy is an independent scientific discipline, the practice of which represents an independent and free profession.
(2) Training in psychotherapy takes place at an advanced, qualified and scientific level.
(3) The multiplicity of psychotherapeutic methods is assured and guaranteed.
(4) A full psychotherapeutic training covers theory, self-experience, and practice under supervision. Adequate knowledge of various psychotherapeutic processes is acquired.
(5) Access to training is through various preliminary qualifications, in particular human and social sciences.

The Statement of Ethical Principles of EAP is binding to all members of the organization. Individual national professional psychological associations reflect it in their own ethical standards. The Statement consists of a preamble and of nine parts characterizing the individual basic ethical principles (http://www.europsyche.org/cms-tag/150/regulations).

(1) responsibility (2) competence (3) moral and legal standards (4) confidentiality (5) Welfare of the consumer (6) professional relationship (7) public statement (8) assessment techniques (9) research.

In spite of great effort devoted to preparation of ethical standards, rules or principles, they do not offer any guide for unambiguous solution of all problems related to professional psychological intervention. Even the most elaborated ethical principles are not able to cover all nuances of specific situations and to provide unambiguous instructions how to proceed under the given circumstances. Thus the therapists, in their everyday work, may face a number of ethical problems and dilemmas and, in specific cases, some generally acknowledged principles may conflict. For example, provision of help to the client may conflict with the need to control; in other words, the help conflicts with application of some degree of power. The therapists may also get into conflict of different roles played by them, as well as into conflict of interests. Another example may consist in the dilemma in the area of respecting the confidentiality of information from the clients. The obligation to keep secret everything the client confides us is taken for granted and it is usually explicitly confirmed by most ethical codes of helping professions. But exceptional situations may arise in which secrecy would conflict with law (see e.g. Procházka, Šmahaj & Kolařík, 2012). For example in the Czech Republic, the Act (Criminal Code No. 40/2009 Coll., as amended) imposes the duty to foil a criminal act (§ 367) to anyone who learns about it trustworthily and to report it (§ 368) to the competent authorities. No exceptions from law usually apply to psychologists active in the area of professional intervention, and potential failure to report criminal behaviour of their clients to the competent authorities could constitute a crime. An extensive list of crimes to which reporting duty applies is included in Chapter two of Part ten of the Czech Criminal Code. However, from the client's perspective of from the perspective of "common sense", the professional's behaviour respecting in principle the relevant legislative standards may seem inappropriate and violating mutual confidence. In similar cases, the decision about which action is ethically more acceptable is complicated and very difficult. Good intentions often don't suffice, and in spite of every effort to achieve balance between specific facts and universal principles, the goals and means may be confused.

CONCLUSION

This chapter deals with some issues related to provision of professional psychological help to persons who, for some reasons, cannot or don't want to solve their problems at adaptive level. It is focused particularly on two forms of professional psychological intervention: psychological consulting and psychotherapy, which have both differences and similarities, differing also by their object (problem, difficulty), subject (qualified professional) and goals (problem solving, prevention and potential elimination of causes). Both psychotherapy and consulting can be considered applied scientific disciplines with own theoretical base considering interdisciplinary context and finding application as a discipline of professional preparation and in professional specialization. Differences between psychological consulting and psychotherapy are seen particularly in the seriousness of the problems solved, in the "depth" and duration of the professional intervention, in the degree of the expected client's involvement, or in the environment in which the intervention takes place, etc. But the differences are not always viewed in the same way, and in different countries, the terms of consulting and psychotherapy mingle. We are focusing here particularly on some theoretical issues, which are, on principle, identical to both disciplines. They include particularly the essence and goals of consulting and psychotherapy, generally consisting in inducing change of the client's undesirable situation to a desirable situation. It is difficult to specify the form, depth, extent and purpose of such change, both from the perspective of its contents and conceptual depiction, and from the perspective of determination of its criteria and of the question who determines its need and form. Other difficulties are related to the determination of the efficiency of the effort to achieve the above stated change. The actual results of professional psychological intervention must be measured by the costs invested in their achievement. The assessment of efficiency of a given intervention procedure in psychotherapy and consulting is complicated by effects of other intervening variables, not directly related with the methods specific for the specific procedure. It is methodologically very difficult to meet the strict demands on scientific assessment of efficiency of psychological consulting and psychotherapy. Secondary analyses of a greater number of studies are used, evaluating their results by box count or meta-analysis. Experimental research takes for granted the use of control groups without therapy (or with another therapy) or control groups influenced only by a placebo. But such procedures have their pitfalls, e.g. thanks to the difference of experimental procedure from the conditions of common therapeutic practice. The research results achieved, as well as the experience based, among other things, on examination of the opinions of the public, bring convincing proofs of the efficiency of psychological consulting and therapeutic procedures. The demands placed on the professionals in connection with their professional interventions are high from objective and subjective perspective and are difficult to meet. The objective perspective includes a set of demands on professional performance, including a lot of working acts, their distribution in time, the extent of information that must be considered and processed, the probability of mistakes and errors, the need of professional self-reflection and autoregulation. The subjective side of professional demands is based on perception and experiencing of the conditions in which the professional works, including the characteristics of specific cases and work with them. A specific aspect of demands in helping professions consists in permanent contact with people in oppressive undesirable situation, whose problems often provoke strong emotions. In general, the jobs of psychotherapists and consulting psychologists can be considered very demanding both as seen by their protagonists and as compared to other professions. From gender perspective, it is striking that considerably more women than men work in them. Theoretically, the explanation of that fact can be searched in some biological particularities of women and men, as well as in acceptance of gender roles in spite of some mistaken stereotypes in their development. Psychotherapy and psychological consulting rank among strongly ethically exposed professions. There are many standards regulating the professional work; they differ by the degree, their specialization, the level of bindingness or the elaboratedness of details. But even the most sophisticated detailed standards cannot cover all pitfalls of specific work situations; therefore common sense and feeling is needed, additionally to their knowledge, for their creative application in everyday lie.

2

ARE HELPERS “PERVERSE”?

Jiří Šimek

Helping people in need is appreciated as a praiseworthy activity in all human societies. Our civilisation also has been considering care for poor and ill people a virtue, not to say obligation since its dawn. Christian culture bestowed the hallmarks of a kind of sanctity on helping one’s neighbour; some monastic orders carried out such activities systematically. So helpers in the broadest meaning of the word are present among us from time immemorial. Helping in modern meaning of the word, i.e. more or less organized assistance to people in need outside religious and health-care institutions has emerged relatively recently, in the course of the second half of the 20th century. It emerged in a time when the prestige of religious societies was low already and Red Cross organizations focused primarily on health-care area and on helping people who became victims of war conflicts and disasters. People who wished to help outside such delimitations found solution in modern helping. From this perspective, helping does not constitute any problem. But the modern era has brought some broadly accepted concepts of the human, the human development and social relations that cast doubt upon the natural character of helping the neighbour. Within those concepts, altruism seems to be a strange aberration that cannot be quite well explained by development theories and may be perceived even as an obstacle on the way towards better and better prosperity of human society. It would not be good to refuse the theories as historically outdated. First, they are actually not outdated, as their paradigms are still valid in scientific and economic circles, although with many corrections; and second, the broad acceptance of such modern theories of human also means that they have a high information value and explain well a number of phenomena. This text strives to take the modern theories of human seriously and to show critically the limits of their validity as for altruism and helping. Its second part tries to identify positive motives for volunteerism.

One of the essential features of modern era consisted in the belief that “a general natural law, cognizable by all people through their intellectual powers, exists in the world”. (Grenz 1997, p. 73) To avoid mistakes and errors when discovering that law, the correct method guaranteeing the truth of the cognition must be applied. Science has become such correct method, able to bring reliable and objective information on the world. It need not be lengthily described how the scientific cognition of the world and the related development of technologies transformed the human world. All of us have experienced the changes in transport, interpersonal communication, information technologies and information flows and witnessed the increasing comfort and safety of everyday life of people in our civilization, as compared to all preceding eras. It is not surprising that the scientific model of the world, coming from natural sciences and based on scientific reduction and on mathematical abstraction of space and time, has become the prevailing model in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. (Patočka, 1992) But, as we can see today with more and more urgency, the potential of human reason is limited.

That’s why human, when getting to know the world, tends to create paradigms (Kuhn, 2012), which constitute a simplified interpretation of the ascertained facts, but are consensually accepted, first among scientists and later in broader society too. Of course, the paradigms and the resulting scientific theories develop; sometimes even a scientific revolution occurs, like for example the “Copernican revolution” in the conception of the universe or the acceptance of Einstein’s theory of relativity. In view of the fact that a scientific theory or paradigm always cover only a part of human experience, we should not be surprised by the fact that wherever a prevailing paradigm comes into contact with very complicated phenomena, like human freedom, meaning of life or altruism, the paradigm fails. Then there is no other choice than recognize the limited character of the paradigm or cast doubt upon the obvious reality. The reasons why we humans prefer to stick to paradigms in such complicated situations were vividly described by Zygmunt Bauman in his essay “Morality without Ethics” (Bauman, 2006, p. 120). The alternative to paradigms consists in “chaos”, “absence of foundations” in our concept of the world. That provokes anxiety quite naturally, maybe more among intellectuals than among ordinary persons; therefore intellectuals stick more to their schemes. From that perspective, postmodern era is a complicated process in which all of us gradually get accustomed to uncertainties in our concepts of the world.

Altruism and the related helping rank among complicated phenomena; it is therefore not surprising that they are difficult for us to understand. They are complicated by two important paradigms embedded in the foundations of modern scientific theories. They are often discussed in politics and constitute an integral part of world view of many people outside science and politics. Specifically, they are: Darwin’s theory of evolution of species, particularly the theory of natural selection as the fundamental mechanism of evolution; and the thesis of invisible hand of market, often referred in politics and based on the belief that if everybody follow selfishly their personal goals, the whole society benefits from it.

Darwin's theory of natural selection was developed in the nineteenth century, in the era of developing capitalism when economic success of capable persons and marginalization or even death of incapable ones constituted everyday experience of people of that era. When looking at nature in unbiased manner, it could be observed that some less adaptable species ceased to exist, while the more viable successfully reproduced; the viability of rabbits even started an environmental disaster in Australia. But even today, the theory of natural selection explains understandably the diversified nature of living creatures in nature and human evolution. Even today, the human experiences success of the capable and disasters of the incapable. The theory of natural selection remains valid. Only, like in many other areas, the twentieth century showed that the reality is more complicated and cannot be explained by one theory. Environmental movements and the recognized need to protect some plant and animal species led to the discovery of the ecosystem as a "functional system of living and nonliving components of the environment, interconnected by exchange of substances, flow of energy and passing of information, influencing each other and developing in a specific space and time" (Příroda.cz). Certainly, the mechanism of natural selection works here too, but there is also another mechanism, the ability to cooperate, that cannot be denied. If abstracting from cooperation as an evolution force, altruism becomes a difficultly explainable phenomenon, as was illustratively demonstrated by Zrzavý (1999) and Macholán (1999) in their dialogue in the Vesmír Journal. The restriction of the explanation on the paradigm of natural selection forces us to seek selfish motives even in situations where they are obviously secondary. A nun caring for ill people does not increase her own biological success or her social prestige by her effort. But she constitutes an important element in the system of cooperation.

It is indisputable today that developmental pressures in human society are created also by culture. If remaining in the scientific or scientist framework, we must mention Karl Popper and John C. Eccles who admit in their book The Self and its Brain (1977) that, additionally to the mental and material world, there is also a third world (World 3) – the world of ideas, theories and concepts, created and shared by us humans. They confess honestly that they cannot say anything more about it than that it exists; but they explain a great number of phenomena by the existence of World 3. They show illustratively how World 3 finds application in transformations of World 1 (material world) and World 2 (human soul); therefore it must really exist. But the authors do not put real existence on a par with material substance. If admitting culture as an evolution force, we will not have any problem to explain altruism. The willingness to sacrifice something own for the benefit of another person constitutes a traditional part of our culture, markedly accentuated in the period of dominance of Christianity in recent two millennia. But the weakening influence of religious societies in our culture leads to weakening appreciation of altruistic behaviour in recent centuries. Therefore the relevant issue of the present does not consist in explaining why people behave altruistically, but in preserving altruism even under the new conditions.

In recent centuries, altruism has got into a conflict also with the second important paradigm of the present, i.e. with the thesis on the invisible hand of market, often expressed by the sentence: "If the humans follow their egoistic material interests, they benefit the whole society." The thesis on the invisible hand of market is more lively in the post-communist countries in which the state dirigisme and its ideology prevailed until the 1990s, depreciating the spontaneity of social processes and thus of the market not only in theory but primarily in practice. It is therefore understandable that for example the strongest right-wing party of the Czech Republic used the thesis on the invisible hand of market as the flagship of its ideology in the 1990s. In the course of time, the world economy, but also the economy of the post-communist countries has brought an experience of correction, similar to the theory of natural selection. The invisible hand of market works, it is a significant foundation of economic thinking, but it is not the single mechanism, as other forces, acting sometimes in synergy, sometimes in antagonism, must be considered as well. As Bajgar (2011) states: "Economics is not a science about the functioning of the invisible hand of market any more, but it is a science about situations in which the invisible hand of market fails."

But in the meantime, the material richness of our society has increased, people are better and better, they live in more and more wealth and safety. Surprisingly, the present human is not more and more satisfied, proportionally to the increasing wealth, but wants more and more. The foundations of the present consumerism contains extreme hedonism; we have forgotten the recommendations of the ancient Stoics about adapting our needs to the existing potential. Too many people believe that growing consumption will bring happiness (Sedláček, 2012). An old Czech proverb states that "the full does not believe the hungry". In connection with that folksy wisdom, selfishness increases and willingness to altruism decreases in the consumerist society. Therefore helpers, but also members of all helping professions face not only the subsiding paradigms of natural selection and of the usefulness of selfish following of own goals, but also the increasing atomization of the society and the decreasing interest in the needs of the less successful persons.

Nothing in the present world is unidirectional; therefore we can see, parallelly to the increasing selfishness, also an appreciable number of people who see one of their important human tasks in helping others. It is pleasing that whenever a public event is organized to support people affected by a disaster or illness, a considerable amount of funds is collected. The numbers of volunteers go rather increasing too. Therefore we should not limit ourselves to the discussion on modern paradigms, but we also should ask about positive motivation, i.e. why people help others out of altruistic motives.

Frans de Waal (2009) quotes the American scientists who dealt with the question whether signs of morality could be found among the primates already. They made an experiment that demonstrated that primates really have some sense of justice. In the first step, two apes were taught to carry out a specific task and were rewarded by a piece of cucumber that made a good award to each of them. Afterwards, they carried out the same task in adjacent cages where they could see each other. As long as both apes got the cucumber for the fulfilled task, everything was all right. But then one ape got a piece of cucumber as always, while the other got a grape, which is substantially more appreciated by apes. The ape that had received mere cucumber got visibly angry, threw the cucumber away and rattled the bars. Some sense of justice is obvious here.

If we acknowledge that even the primates have a simple morality, then the question about the difference between human and lower creatures arises again. Traditional classification of human motivations into reasonable, moral soul and unreasonable passions loses its substantiation. For long years, the experience of psychoanalytical psychotherapists has shown the importance of instinctive and emotional motivations for the decision-making process of the human. The neurophysiology of the limbic system also shows similarity of basic motivational circuits of the human with motivational circuits of lower mammals (Koukolík, 2014). Aristotelés (2000) assumed, based on mere experience that the human has, additionally to human soul, also the animal soul and vegetative soul. Today we can state that the human functional regulations of body growth and passions are similar to the regulations of lower living creatures. Thus the human basic motivational equipment is similar to that of lower mammals. The essential difference does not consist in the structure of motivations but in the processing of the motivational pressures and in the ways of satisfaction of needs.

The human is still able to eat by simply chewing and swallowing some raw food, but that is rather exceptional. Usually, the human cooks the meal, combines the ingredients, seasons them, finally serves them on a plate and eats them with knife and fork. Meal has acquired even a ritual and symbolic meaning. We organize feasts at different occasions and satisfaction of hunger is a completely secondary goal. Sexuality is also developed to very varied forms by the human; it has become primarily a part of man-woman relations and recently, it has been more and more separated from its original reproduction role. Contraception tries to completely separate the social and biological roles. From that perspective, we can view even morality as a complicated elaboration of originally simple social needs whose basic structure is shared by us with other primates. The human has developed the human social relations and thus also the ways of satisfaction of social needs to such a complicated form that many people have problems with understanding them. Therefore people develop moral rules both at individual and at social level.

So we need not seek the human value and dignity in something unique, completely inaccessible to lower creatures. The human exclusivity consists in the way of processing of the stimuli coming from the instinctive circuits. As Pico della Mirandola (2006) states, the moral value and dignity of the human can be seen in the possibility of choice. In modern language – the humans can live by instincts from day to day similarly to the primates, get close to the image of the devil by bad intentions, or strive to develop their personality, more or less successfully, in order to align their own motivational structure with the demands and needs of the community in which they live.

Another American author, Dan Ariely (2012) and his colleagues asked the question how human morality works. The authors prepared a protocol with twenty tasks, designed so that not more than four of them could be fulfilled in the given time. They submitted the protocol with the time limit to the students in a lecture room. At the end, they asked to students to first shred their protocols and then to go to the secretary to get a reward – they would get one dollar for each fulfilled task. As the protocol had been shredded, it could not be verified how many tasks the student had actually solved. Based on liberal economic theories of human, they expected that the students would most frequently ask for an amount close to twenty dollars. They were surprised by seeing that the students asked for six dollars on average. The same occurred when the same experiment was repeated, not only in USA but also in Italy. The authors came to the conclusion that the human has implied need to stick to moral principles and fulfils the idea, with certain small reserve, even without any external supervision. Probably, all humans have their own ideal idea about how they should behave, and they behave according to that idea. So morality is own to the human as an individual; it does not result only from social pressures.

To be a moral human brings some satisfaction; to act in contradiction with own moral leads to unpleasant feelings. This generally human reaction is called conscience. Although each human has an own experience, the conscience is difficult to define and the interpretation of that phenomenon is by far not unified. Socrates had his daimonion; the medieval Christian perceived the Creator's warning voice or of the guardian angel in his conscience. The modern behavioural psychological schools emphasize the process of learning; psychoanalysis describes the origination and development of conscience as a complicated process starting in the oedipean period; so called ego ideal plays its role. The ego ideal is built during the process of education, in interaction with the parents and other educators and according to real or literary models. Thus conscience is an important motivational force, consisting in the fact that all humans need to live in harmony with their ideal pictures, to be able to defend the way of their existence before themselves and to be able to perceive their lives as meaningful. In spite of all more or less successful attempts to describe and understand the phenomenon of conscience, a lot of unclear or even mysterious issues remain. Immanuel Kant summarizes his experience in the famous sentence: "Two things fill the mind with ever new and increasing admiration and awe, the oftener and more steadily we reflect on them: the starry heavens above me and the moral law within me" (Kant, 1996).

To understand volunteerism and human altruism, we also can return to the Aristotelian concept of eudemonia as the telos of human life. The time in which Aristotle lived resembles our present in many regards. The standard of living of the Athenian burgers was very good as compared to other cultures and the influence of religious societies decreased. With regard to the weakening authority of the priests, other natural sources of morality had to be searched. Aristotle clearly saw that if we did not accept any of the religious confessions, we could not determine any human behaviour as mandatory. There was nobody to determine it. People usually behave morally, somebody more, somebody less; the question is what motivates the human to behave morally and what is in conflict with the ideas of morality. From that perspective Aristotle, in his Nicomachean Ethics (1996), sees different natural goals of human life and asks which is better and which is the best. All human actions are directed to some good. The question is therefore which good is the best or the highest. Aristotle calls the generally highest good in human life eudaimonia (εὐδαιμονία), which is translated by Antonín Kříž into Czech as "blaženost" (literally "bliss"), in English the term was usually translated as "happiness". But people do not agree on what that word means. Aristotle submits a critical list of different concepts of happiness and then explains his own concept. Happiness is the highest good, as we strive for it "for itself and never for anything else" and as that good "suffices to itself". Good feeling grows from fulfilment of a task; the human can fulfil the task well, better or the best. Happiness, for its part, grows from good fulfilment of the task of the human as a human, which is the "the true activity of the soul and conduct in concordance with the reason, all that in a good and beautiful way in a capable man." And as for motivation, virtuous actions "are pleasing to themselves". Life of a virtuous human "does not need delights as some appendage, but has delight in itself".

Other versions of life are not discredited in Aristotle's concept. They are also possible, have also their values and are deliberately implemented by many people. Virtuous life is the best of them, and therefore the most recommendable.

If attempting to use the modern philosophical vocabulary, we can say that the humans reach moral attitudes from conceiving their lives as a whole. We can find many partial, temporary goals and behaviours leading to achievement in human life. But we cannot remain with simple goals and motives, as human life is also a whole we schedule again and again in its course, implementing our schedule as circumstances allow us. Morality consists in good (beautiful) implementation of our own life (own story). That motive can be found in Erik Erikson's work (1999). Erikson sees a precondition of achievement of integrity, i.e. satisfaction (bliss) in old age in the ability to defend my life, as lived by me, before myself.

We can hardly motivate the human of today's secularized world, similar to the free citizen of Athens in Aristotle's time, to moral attitudes and to moral behaviour by promise or threat of settling some accounts at the end of life. So there is no other choice than positive motivation in the course of earthly life. Bliss, eudemonia (εὐδαιμονία) could constitute such positive motive. We can, similarly to Aristotle, show different other options of living human life. One of it consists in hedonistic search of attractive, more or less intensive adventures. When no more adventures are possible, the life could be terminated as quickly as possible with medical help. That version of human life does not seem bad. But it has some drawbacks. There are blind spots between the adventures. The human must get funds for the adventures. The human also must cope with the fact that such life lacks meaning, and the question about meaning reemerges, for mysterious reasons (some inborn mechanism will be present here). But bliss need not be defined as a series of pleasures and delights, but as joy about good life. The human does not need to be perfect. Everybody has slightly different talents and interests; everybody mixes with another human community. The thing is to bring everything together so that it makes sense to "me". In this concept, eudemonia consists in balance of needs, wishes and implemented potential. That is open both to a cleaning lady and to a university professor. All I need is to do something I enjoy at least a little and to have some friends I feel good with. Additionally, I must of course elaborate behaviour patterns, or virtues, that help me to implement my version of life. Then, bliss grows from the feeling that "my life is getting on well". McIntyre (2004), who is trying to revive Aristotelian moral of virtues, reminds the classification of good into external good, consisting in fame and money, and internal good, consisting in delight about the actual activity, about playing a musical instrument, or about good life. Internal good is what primarily motivates the human to live well.

From psychological perspective, volunteers differ from other people, they are more empathic, more compassionate, more willing to help (Záškodná et al., 2013). From philosophical perspective, they resist the prevailing consumerist way of life and their philosophy of life does not consist in hedonism. They are aware of their social needs and implement them in form of helping people in need. Their ego ideal includes helping as a desirable, appreciable quality. Good interpersonal relations and willingness to help constitute an important part of the meaning of their life. To them, good life means respecting also interests and needs of other people, besides their own interests.

3

HELPING WHOM? VOLUNTEERING, GIVING AND PROFESSIONALIZATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANIZATIONS

Pavol Frič and Martin Vávra

INTRODUCTION

To help citizens solve their problems is normally seen as the principal aim of civil society organizations (CSOs). Many people take it for granted that the actions of CSOs benefit the common good, or at least some parts of the general population, by advocating the interests of oppressed and marginalized groups, contributing to the growth of local communities, and increasing the quality of public life for ordinary people. CSOs are often called "schools of democracy,"[1] generating trust among citizens and fostering social capital. Finally, they are regarded as effective service providers that enjoy a special competition advantage against the business and government sectors.

Many people believe that CSOs can help perform some of the difficult functions of the welfare state in post-industrial society and, at the same time, create opportunities for meaningful participation of citizens in making decisions on issues of common concern. They are expected to help citizens take public affairs into their hands, articulating and communicating their opinions, attitudes and interests. In post-communist societies such as the Czech Republic, CSOs are also typically associated with the vision of reviving civic virtues and building democracy.

In short, helping is part of CSOs' job description. Actually, they are supposed to make sure society has a well-working sphere of *pro bono* helping or philanthropy. With the

[1] For example, in the spirit of Alexis de Tocqueville, American sociologist Robert Putnam (1992) regards CSOs as schools of democracy, i.e. places where citizens are socialized into the values and norms of democratic life. From this perspective, CSOs appear as important nods from which those values and norms are disseminated to other parts of society.

help of independent media, CSOs should help spread the ethos of philanthropy and make room for philanthropy in society by cultivating the values of giving and volunteering. They should form patterns of philanthropic behaviour and promote such informal rules of behaviour that make philanthropy legitimate. At the same time, they are expected to be involved in the process of social control over these rules, "punishing" breach and rewarding abidance. One can say that without CSOs and their cultivation of public life, philanthropy would not have such a massive character which is typical of it in society today.

To promote the common good, philanthropy and volunteering in common interest requires long-term effort, concentration, time and skills. It is generally believed that the involvement of experts and professionals in CSOs makes their work in common interest more effective. Professionalization and expert involvement should help CSOs improve the help they provide to people in the community. Their effectiveness in promoting the common good also lies in the focus of certain academic theories. Especially economic theories try to account for the origins of CSOs in instrumental terms, considering CSOs as more-or-less effective agents for meeting (part of) citizens' demand for public goods (Weisbrod, 1977). Economists regard CSOs as service providers catering to people's needs.

Sociological and political science theories have more in common with the framing of political agenda, regarding CSOs as pursuing interests, advocacy or mobilisation (social movement) organizations. CSOs are seen as necessary instruments for defending the interests of a social group or society as a whole. Social movement theories trace the origins of CSOs in the "natural history" of social movements. In the initial phases of their spontaneous development, social movements are under a strong pressure to improve their effectiveness or achieve success in defending the interests of their members or followers. The most known theory of this type is the resource mobilization theory (McCarthy & Zald, 1973, 1977; Klandermans, 1984; Edwards & McCarthy, 2004) which builds on the fundamental assumption of conflict theory that society is composed of larger or smaller groups that compete for scarce resources. It is argued that only those who can gain resources professionally succeed in this competition. That is why social movements, as defenders of interests of particular collectives or groups striving to achieve (or prevent) social change, establish formal organizations and thus create a favourable environment for professional work and full-time careers of capable managers.

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF THE CZECH CIVIL SECTOR

CSO professionalization is part of a more general process of social modernization, with growing division of labour, specialization of activities, formalization of proce-

dures etc. It requires a more complex and hierarchic organizational structure with managerial decision making. Project management, specialization, formalization of rules, systemization, rationalization and bureaucratization of their operations tends to turn them into professionally managed institutions. Their funding targets can never be reached with just membership fees, and fundraising must be handled effectively by experts. The professionalization strategy has earned CSOs access to European funds.
Public grants for professionalization were initially based on the idea that CSOs need to "build the capacities" they had lost in the long era of communist darkness and could not manage to develop on their own after the regime change. Capacity building was supposed to stabilize the civic sector, increase its sustainability and help CSOs implement projects autonomously. Professionalization appeared as the most favourable strategy of attaining these goals.

As CSOs are becoming more professional, they tend to hire more employees, introduce modern management methods (including programme management) and "projectify"[2] their operations. The level of professionalization of the Czech civic sector is gradually growing, as evidenced by the long-term increase of the number of employees in CSOs. This trend was only broken by the financial crisis of 2008 that hit the Czech Republic strongly and caused about 10,000 CSO employees to lose their jobs within a single year.

Table 1. Employment in CSOs in the years 1999–2011

Year	**1999**	**2001**	**2003**	**2005**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2011**
Employees	23,108	33,232	36,555	42,033	53,521	54,113	43,950	49,248

Data: CZSO. Figures include trade unions and churches & religious organizations.

The highest level of professionalization was found among foundations, service CSOs[3] and churches, with more than two-thirds having at least one paid employee. In contrast, traditional clubs rank the lowest (only every fourth one has any employees). The gap of professionalization between service CSOs and clubs is immense. The segments of old and new advocacy CSOs exhibit similar levels of professionalization, namely around 50%.

[2] Fundraising efforts focus on writing project proposals and applying for grants. For the social effects of projectification as a method of distribution of public funds in post-communist countries, see Kovach & Kucherova 2006, 2009.

[3] For better understanding of inner diversity of the particular types of CSOs, see Table 4.

Table 2. Does your CSO have any paid employees?

Per cent	Yes	No	Total
Traditional clubs	26	74	100
Service CSOs	71	29	100
Traditional advocacy CSOs	51	49	100
New advocacy CSOs	35	65	100
Foundations	79	21	100
Churches & religious organizations	67	33	100

Source: Volunteering 2009, N = 3811.

THE DARK SIDES OF PROFESSIONALIZATION

Academic theories presuppose that professionalization of CSOs is an answer to the need of effective coping with problems and sustainable existence in a given environment. Economists emphasize the ways professionalization helps CSOs better manage their activities, improve their services and compete with service providers from the business and public sectors. In other words, professionalization not only helps CSOs perform better in promoting the good of others, but also enhances their self-sufficiency and sustainability. Success in helping others comes hand in hand with their own success. Often this results in an implicit assumption that professionalization is good for CSOs and hence also for the civic sector and society as a whole.

Nevertheless, other authors have exposed the dark sides of CSO professionalization, arguing that too much can be harmful. For example, Paul Dekker emphasizes the negative effects of professionalization in terms of homogenizing an organization's orientation (on a single issue) and limiting its focus to the interests of membership (or staff). As a result, organizational culture becomes less inclined to democratic values and public interest (Dekker, 2009). CSOs are losing the aura of moral leadership that used to be so attractive for the public. In the process of professionalization, CSOs tend to submit to the imperatives of professional management, at the expense of internal democracy, in order to safeguard their long-term sustainability. It is increasingly clear that CSOs, mainly new and professionalized ones, do not have to, and often do not want to, rely on broad membership in their efforts to raise funds from the public hand. They prefer educated staff that is easy to manage, and they are reluctant to invite the public to co-decide about the orientation of their activities[4]. Formalization of employ-

[4] This is confirmed by recent evidence on the new advocacy segment (Navrátil & Pospíšil, 2013). More specifically, as typically noted by Císař & Vráblíková's respondents, the professionalization process among women's

ment relations often makes the organizational culture less cordial, de-motivating members and volunteers from cooperating with the NGO's highly professionalized management (Šťovíčková & Jantulová, 2005).

Professionalization and the financial resources that come with the process create an environment in which CSOs depend on certain government bodies or businesses that control those resources, and in which CSO professionals are inclined to elitism. As mentioned above, the process of professionalization affects primarily service providers, transforming them gradually into a kind of private service enterprises that are subsidized by the government. The track of professionalism entails commercialization, making the CSO prioritize private interests of their professional management and staff at the expense of helping the weak and vulnerable. New service CSOsmay behave like any other commercial supplier of services that are in demand. Social enterprises transform into regular businesses and market share becomes their primary concern. Nevertheless, it is hard to predict where the process of commercialization is going to take new service organizations and how far they are going to depart from their original mission of promoting public interest.

Elitism arises as another threat as CSOs become increasingly professionalized and institutionalized by taking root in the sphere of public administration. Their exclusiveness is derived from their privilege of working side-by-side with public administration, something individual citizens or non-professional CSOs cannot attain. Their incorporation into different institutions of public policy at the national, regional and European levels, along with their professionalism, gives them resources that do not depend on public opinion and enables them to attain their (service provision or advocacy) goals even without public participation. In the pursuit of their activist mission, they mostly interact with policy elites and sub-elites, and thanks to their high level of professionalism, they can choose between competing with them and playing on the same team. Based on the practice of exchanging professional knowledge and expertise for influence on the policy-making process, this type of civic engagement has been termed "transactional activism" (Petrova & Tarrow, 2007).[5]

In practice, transactional activism evokes the idea that CSOs and their leaders are the avant-garde of civil society. They can represent people's opinions because they have a

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rights CSOs increases their distance from volunteering and informal friendship relations, bringing them closer to a business-like modus vivendi (Císař & Vráblíková, 2010).

[5] The phenomenon of transactional activism can be traced back to the early 1970s when mass social movements in the US (minority rights, pacifism) gave birth to a number of distinct and independent professional organizations. Those organisations set their own course, and their leaders became professional citizens and executive officers. The role of mass grassroots activism declined as the success of US social movements became increasingly dependent on civic leaders' managerial skills, and in particular on their ability to mobilize financial, information, expert and material resources (McCarthy & Zald, 1973).

firm professional grasp of social issues; in fact they understand people's problems better than the people themselves. The leaders of professionalized new CSOs are gradually forming a new civic elite (professional citizens, expert citizens) and taking an advantageous, relatively autonomous position between ruling elites and ordinary citizens. The institutionalization process in the segment of traditional clubs, as opposed to new CSOs, is not associated with high levels of professionalization because it is primarily taking place at the local level where transactional activism is an irrelevant strategy. In this segment, the privileged position of brokers between citizens (members) and ruling elites is typically reserved to a few top managers of national-level umbrella associations (unions).

VOLUNTEERING AND PROFESSIONALIZATION

In short, given the unintended consequences of successful professionalization of Czech CSOs, one has to question the alleged linear relationship between professionalization and better performance in promoting the good of others. There is no doubt that professional service provision guarantees better effects than amateurism. Yet the common good CSOs seek to promote cannot be reduced to delivering welfare services in more skilful and efficient ways. They also expected to be more empathetic and friendly to users than government-sector or business-sector providers; and to bundle with their services the added value of volunteer work and philanthropy. In other words, CSO professionalization is closely associated with promoting civic engagement and advancing the civil society itself. The common good CSOs deliver involves not only services for the needy but also growth for civil society as such – thanks to the room they make for citizens to express their civic mentality. Hence one can ask the following questions about the national and European policies of CSO professionalization: besides making CSOs sustainable, are those policies also advancing civil society? Does successful professionalization imply success of civil society as a whole? Or, considering the dark sides of professionalization outlined above, is professionalization rather undermining CSOs' potential to promote the common good of civil society? In order to answer these questions, we will attempt to test the relationship between CSO professionalization and benefits to civil society. We will estimate those benefits:

1. using time-series data on the how people volunteer for and donate to CSOs (we will measure the CSOs' benefit to civil society on the growth or decline of volunteering and giving),
2. measuring the attractiveness of particular more or less professionalized categories and types of CSOs for volunteers and individual givers.

The benefit to civil society created by CSOs will be indicated using data from social surveys on volunteering and giving in the Czech Republic[6]. The data indicates that the proportion of formal volunteers (working for a CSO) in the Czech society has been stagnating[7] since the early 1990s. According to the European Values Survey, 29% of Czechs volunteered in 1991 (as cited in Petrová Kafková, 2012, p. 219). Surprisingly, the total proportion of volunteers did not change till present time, and the EVS of 2008 once again indicated the value of 29%. This proportion of individuals volunteering for CSOs was confirmed by other studies as well (e.g., Frič & Pospíšilová, 2010).

Table 3. Organized volunteers as a percentage of the total Czech population

1991	1999	2005	2008	2009
29	33	27	29	30

Source: EVS 1991, 1999, 2008, CESES 2005, Frič & Pospíšilová VHD 2009.

As mentioned above, professionalization has been an ongoing process in the Czech civic sector. At the same time, the largest part of the volunteer population (two-thirds) still works in the least professionalized segment of traditional clubs, while relatively few people volunteer in the most professionalized segment of service organizations. Therefore, is the level of volunteering for CSOs associated with the process of CSO professionalization?

[6] “Patterns and Values of Volunteering” 2009, a representative survey of the Czech Republic’s adult (15+) population, is our primary data source. Additional data sources include “General Public as a Modernization Actor” 2005 and “General Public as a Modernization Actor II” 2008, both representative surveys of Czech adult population aged 18+. All these datasets are available online from the Czech Social Science Data Archive at http://nesstar.soc.cas.cz/webview.

[7] According to CZSO data, the number of volunteers in CSOs has been rather stable, declining slowly from 26,949 people in 2008 to 25,815 in 2011. However, the reliability of this data is questionable, considering the high volatility of the volunteer population measurements between 2005 and 2007. Moreover, the fact that the CZSO counted twice as many employees as volunteers suggests that its definition of volunteering is too narrow and deviates from standard definitions. See Frič & Pospíšilová (2010: 66–7) for a more detailed discussion of this problem.

Table 4. Professionalization of CSOs and volunteering

Categories of CSOs	Proportion of respondents who work as volunteers in respective category of CSO	Proportion of respondents – volunteers who declared that their organization has employee(s)	Types of CSOs	Proportion of respondents who work as volunteers in respective type of CSO	Proportion of respondents – volunteers who declared that their organization has employee(s)
Traditional leisure clubs (hunters, fishers, etc.)	4.6%	27.5%	**Traditional clubs**	19.5	25.6%
Cultural organizations	4.7%	36.5%			
Youth organizations	1.2%	33.3%			
Volunteer firefighters	4.4%	9.5%			
Sports club or association	4.7%	34.2%			
Other recreation or leisure organizations, associations and clubs	1.3%	11.8%			
Women's organizations	1.6%	19.4%			
Trade union	0.8%	62.5%	**Traditional advocacy**	1.7	51.4%
Political organizations	0.7%	46.7%			
Professional or trade association	0.4%	25.0%			
Social service organizations	2.7%	79.6%	**Service**	5.7	71.1%
Health care organizations	2.2%	75.0%			
Education and research organizations	1.5%	48.1%			

Organizations protecting the environment or animal rights	1.4%	32.5%	**New advocacy**	2.0	35.3%
Organizations protecting rights and interests	0.6%	45.5%			
Foundations, promotion of volunteering and philanthropy mediation	1.3%	78.6%	**Foundations**	1.3%	78.6%
Churches and religious organizations	2.1%	67.3%	**Churches**	2.1%	67.3%

Source: Volunteering 2009, N=3811.

We can say that the effects of professionalization on volunteering are ambivalent. On one hand, volunteers are demotivated by the unfriendly image of CSOs due to professionalization. On the other hand, they are lured by CSOs' professional management of volunteer needs. They tend to stay in an organization which meets their individual requirements and uses their individual qualities, one which manages any issues related to their volunteering professionally. Better suited to individualized volunteering, professional methods of volunteer management (including recruitment, training, guidance and coordination) have a demonstrated positive effect on volunteer retention (Frič & Vávra, 2012). More professionalized CSOs are in a better position to meet volunteers' requirements. *"Professionalization of volunteer management seems to be an answer to volunteers' growing demands. At the same time, it is precisely the regime in which such demands are considered legitimate, and thus allowed and institutionalized"* (Pospíšilová, 2010: 178). The importance CSOs ascribe to volunteering also grows with the degree of their professionalization.

This means that CSO professionalization is closely associated with individualization of civic engagement in post-industrial, information societies. Professionalization helps create institutional opportunities for an increasingly individualized participation of citizens in CSO activities. Socialization into individualized problem solving is referred to in the literature as "institutionalized individualization" (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002). Basically structural in nature, the phenomenon is driven by the kind of institutional environment which prefers and promotes individualized forms of civic participation. For example, CSOs shape the opportunities for participation and volunteering by motivating both existing and prospective volunteers to making individual choices, not by setting collective rules, boundaries and restrictions. They provide a range of options and leave it to the citizen to choose from them.

The individualization trend in volunteering was well described by Hustinx & Lammertyn. In their texts about the emergence of reflexive volunteering (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003, 2004), they consider individualization as the main vehicle of the ongoing dramatic transformation of volunteering styles. There are tendencies to deeper secularization, weaker neighbourhood (community) and family ties, and higher levels of individual mobility, time stress, flexibility (destandardization) of production processes and labour market insecurity (part-time jobs and self-employment instead of employment contracts). As a result, the collective basis of individual life courses erodes and people are faced with the increasing challenge of making decisions and coping with life situations autonomously. Under the circumstances of late modernity, people are forced to act as the managers of their own biographies.

On the other hand, individualization comes hand in hand with highly desirable values such as freedom of choice, personality development, better qualifications, broader horizons and career development. This is, according to Hustinx & Lammertyn, the reason of the rise of a reflexive, individualized style of volunteering at the expense of collective styles. The reflexive volunteers of today are different than the traditional collective volunteers. They are rather oriented to projects and attainable goals, not to an organization. They require high levels of autonomy and freedom in their roles, unwilling to commit to CSOs through formal membership. Reflexive volunteers openly formulate their "selfish" demands, pick volunteer projects of their preference and push CSOs towards more flexibility (Hustinx & Lammertyn 2003, 2004).

A look at the internal structure of Czech volunteering (Table 4) suggests that a dominant share of all volunteers in the Czech civic sector continues to work for clubs (sports, recreation, culture). Volunteering for CSOs is closely associated with CSO membership. An overwhelming majority (91%) of formal volunteers working for a CSO are simultaneously its members (Pospíšilová, 2010: 154). In other words, the traditional collective type of volunteering is predominant in the Czech Republic (Frič & Pospíšilová, 2010). As long as we understand formal volunteering as CSOs' capacity to provide opportunities for individual civic participation, we must be able to accept the perhaps surprising fact that traditional clubs, the least professionalized segment of Czech civil society, have by far the largest capacity to mobilize[8] citizens for collective action. Only 15% of all organized (formal) volunteers are available to the entire advocacy segment, which typically mobilizes for protest.

[8] Here, mobilization is meant to cover not only participation in collective protest but also participation in community events, in solving specific public issues, in charity events etc. For example, William Gamson refers to mobilization as *"a process of increasing the readiness to act collectively"* (Gamson, 1975). After all, civil society literature treats the concept of mobilization much more broadly, and resource mobilization theory as well distinguishes between different resources social movements can mobilize to attain their goals (Edwards & McCarthy, 2004).

In international comparison, the overall capacity of Czech CSOs to provide opportunities for voluntary participation appears satisfactory, especially thanks to traditional clubs. With a 29% share of volunteers in total population, the Czech Republic ranks eighth among European countries. It ranks significantly higher than all post-communist countries of the region except Slovenia, and also higher than countries like Austria, France or Germany (based on data from the European Value Studies of 2008–2010).

GIVING AND PROFESSIONALIZATION

In addition to volunteering, citizens can help CSOs promote public interest by giving them individual donations for the purposes of charity, philanthropy and common interest. By engaging in philanthropy, citizens as well as CSOs both create and define what is good for society: *"We have argued that philanthropy plays an essential role in defining, advocating and achieving the public good. Philanthropic actions are a key part of the ongoing public deliberation about what the public good is and how best to pursue it"* (Payton & Moody, 2008: 156) Thus, the ability of CSOs to organize philanthropy and engage in it fellow citizens seems to be essential, and at the same time, one can reasonably expect it to depend considerably on CSO professionalization.

How was the level of giving in the Czech Republic affected by the process of CSO professionalization, including the growth of different forms of civic sector fundraising? Unfortunately, highly convincing evidence such as a time series on individual giving is not available. The Czech Statistical Office reports a growth since the year 2000 in both the number of individuals (natural persons) donating and the total amount of donations (although the year 2008 marked an important drop in both statistics, similarly to the statistic of employment in CSOs). However, its sample is not representative because it consists merely of individuals who declared their donations officially to claim a tax credit, while a STEM survey of 2004 indicates that tax credits are claimed by only a small part, namely 18%, of individual givers.

Our account of the evolution of individual giving in the Czech Republic remains ambiguous even when we take into account sociological survey data. Different studies measured the phenomenon using different methodologies (sample size, sampling methods and interviewing instruments). Although all of these questions referred to giving over the past 12 months, they differed in wording, and in particular in their definitions of the act of giving and those who are given. As a result, there is a relatively high level of oscillation in the time series (see Table 5). For example, STEM data for 2012 indicate a dramatic increase of giving, yet one has to take into consideration the extremely broad formulation of the question: "Do you sometimes donate an amount of money to charitable or philanthropic projects?" The exact beneficiaries were not defined, and thus some respondents who agreed may have donated through channels other than CSOs. In contrast, the questions asked in earlier studies listed in Table 5 (including a STEM survey of 2004) were limited explicitly to donating through organizations.

Table 5. Proportion of total population donating based on different authors' surveys

	2000	2003	2004	2005	2008	2009	2011	2012
STEM	**43**	x	**47**	x	x	x	x	**54**
CVVM	x	**31**	x	**44**	x	x	x	x
CESES	x	x	x	x	**28**	**30**	x	x
GfK Verein	x	x	x	x	x	x	**20**	x

x = not available
Sources: STEM's Civil Society 2004; Public Opinion Research Centre, Department of Sociology, Czech Academy of Sciences; Center for Social and Economic Strategies, Faculty of Social Sciences, Charles University in Prague; and GfK Verein.

In any case, all measurements except for the most recent one indicate a long-term decline of individual giving, which is contrary to the expectations based on the trend of growing professionalization among Czech CSOs. What is almost a continuous decline of individual giving to organizations is also indicated by the relatively more reliable World Giving Index (WGI), of Gallup's World View World Poll, for the past five years. Even though Gallup inquired about giving in the past month, making the data more vulnerable to year-to-year oscillations, in fact it indicated a rather moderate decline of the number of givers as a percentage of Czech population. Moreover, the trend of individual giving in the entire region – with decline or stagnation in each of the four Visegrad countries – runs contrary to the expectations based on advancing CSO professionalization.

Table 6. Donated money to an organization in the past month

%	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Czech Republic	31	29	27	22	21

Hungary	22	20	26	21	24
Poland	42	39	28	32	21
Slovakia	29	25	37	33	30

Source: WGI, Gallup's World View World Poll, N=>1000 per country.

Table 6 indicates a shrinking population of regular individual givers, rather than a decline of the overall rate of giving. Gallup's monthly prevalence of giving tends to represent the population of regular, rather than occasional givers. The problem is that the goal of professionalization is for each CSO to establish the largest possible pool of regular givers as a basic condition of sustainability. A more extensive basis of individual givers provides CSOs with a stable source of income. Regular individual giving enhances their sustainability and independence from the public sector as well or big private sponsors.

An adequate pool of small individual givers helps legitimize a CSO as a representative of public interest. Donation campaigns targeting primarily small givers are "a crucial instrument of fundraising as well as reputation building for non-profit organizations" (Kalousová, 2014: 3). Unfortunately, the situation in the Czech Republic is rather grim, with individual donations comprising only 12% of the total revenue of Czech CSOs (Prouzová, 2014). Over the recent years, the country's WGI ranking has been among the worst in the EU. The low levels of individual giving suggest that CSO fundraisers prefer a small group of large donors over an extensive pool of small donors. The reasons remain unclear – the trend may be due to low levels of trust in CSOs and/or fundraisers' preference of easier, more attainable solutions. What we can rule out is any massive decline of trust in CSOs among Czechs over the past decade.

Let us now focus on the relationship between the level of professionalization in CSOs and the number of givers they recruit. Table 7 shows the proportion of respondents providing financial or in-kind donations to each category and segment of CSOs.

There does not seem to be any clear-cut relationship between level of professionalization and the ability to solicit donations (measured merely by the number of respondents who indicated giving money to a CSO in the segment; we still do not know the total amount of donations). With respect to the share of donations received by a given segment, there is no dramatic gap between service CSOs, in which the professionalization process is the most advanced, and the lowest-ranking segment of traditional clubs; traditional advocacy CSOs rank lowest in giving while their level of professionalization is average. Even when using a more detailed typology of CSOs,[9] no significant

[9] For example, the segment of traditional clubs contains categories such as recreation and community development; clubs cover the categories of clubwomen, firefighters, sports, culture, hunters, fishers, community gardeners, firefighters, and youth.

relationship between professionalization and the capacity to solicit donations can be observed.

The table shows that more professionalized organizations obtain more donations. This is a strong relationship, with a correlation coefficient of 0.619 at the level of civic sector segments (the relationship is not significant at the level of six main categories of CSOs). Indeed, amateur (or the least professionalized) organizations as a whole recruit more individual donors than highly professional foundations or service CSOs. Their power is in their numbers – and their numbers are sufficient to compensate for the deficit of professionalism. A negative relationship between professionalization and giving was observed among trade unions and political organizations (which are probably making up for the lack of donations by prescribing relatively high membership fees). As a rule, though, highly professionalized CSOs such as foundations or social welfare and healthcare organizations are the most attractive targets of giving. They have highly advanced fundraising operations and, backed by their professional media relations, they organize donation campaigns frequently. By enhancing philanthropy (individual giving) among citizens, their professionalism has a positive effect on the amount of good they produce for civil society.

Table 7. Professionalization of CSOs and individual giving

Categories of CSOs	Proportion of respondents who gave money or gift to respective category of CSO	Proportion of respondents – volunteers who declared that their organization has employee(s)	**Type of CSOs**	Proportion of respondents who gave money or gift to respective type of CSO	Proportion of respondents – volunteers who declared that their organization has employee(s)
Traditional leisure clubs (hunters, fishers, etc.)	2.9%	27.5%	**Traditional clubs**	10.7%	25.6%
Cultural organizations	2.3%	36.5%			
Youth organizations	0.7%	33.3%			
Volunteer firefighters	2.2%	9.5%			
Sports club or association	2.1%	34.2%			
Other recreation or leisure organizations, associations and clubs	1%	11.8%			
Women's organizations	0.8%	19.4%			

Social service organizations	4.3%	79.6%	**Service**	8.6%	71.1%
Health care organizations	4.3%	75.0%			
Education and research organizations	1.3%	48.1%			
Trade union	0.3%	62.5%	**Traditional advocacy**	0.7%	51.4%
Political organizations	0.3%	46.7%			
Professional or trade association	0.1%	25.0%			
Organizations protecting the environment or animal rights	1.8%	32.5%	**New advocacy**	3.2%	35.3%
Organizations protecting rights and interests	1.5%	45.5%			
Foundations, promotion of volunteering and philanthropy mediation	9.1%	78.6%	**Foundations**	9.1%	78.6%
Churches and religious organizations	3.8%	67.3%	**Churches**	3.8%	67.3%

Source: Volunteering 2009, N=3811.

It is reasonable to assume that this is because professionalized CSOs are able to create more tailor-made conditions for individual givers, compared to amateur organizations that tend to emphasize collective activism. Professionalized welfare CSOs have pioneered the institutionalization of individualized giving in the Czech Republic, primarily through mobile donating, which has become perhaps the most frequently used form of giving. In addition, on-line giving platforms and peer-to-peer fundraising tools are on the rise (Kalousová, 2014: 4).

The overall rate of individual giving is decreasing despite high levels of trust in CSOs among the general population and despite the professionalization and institutionalization of individualized giving. We believe this is caused by the decline of giving in the segment of traditional clubs, which has been facing a long-term decline of membership (Frič et al., 2014) combined with a strong correlation between giving and membership. Yet slow professionalization is probably not the only factor responsible for the flight of club members. There are also contextual factors preventing people from giving, for example, the global economic downturn.

CONCLUSION

In the beginning of our text, there was the question whether professionalization works as a vehicle of common good by enhancing the development of the civic sector as well as civil society in general. In spite of the progress of professionalization (as indicated by the growing number of people employed in CSOs), the evidence gathered during the past two decades indicates a stagnation of volunteering and a decline of giving. The professional face of CSOs is not more attractive to volunteers than the amateur face. At the same time, professionalized CSOs are much more likely to recruit givers. There is an ambiguous relationship between CSOs' professionalization and their capacity to promote not only their own sustainability or the welfare of their clientele, but also the common good of civil society. In any case, though, the above evidence exposes the rose-tinted glasses of a technocratic approach to developing the civic sector and civil society in general. Professionalization does not automatically result in the growth of civil society. Especially the domain of volunteering reminds us that civic engagement cannot be replaced by streamlined fundraising methods. What is more, on the scale of civic engagement, volunteering ranks higher than giving because it requires individuals to regard public affairs with more attention and care.

Economic theories explain professionalization as a way to become competitive in the service market. Resource mobilization theory emphasizes professionalization as a way to improve access to public resources. In short, professionalization is a result of environmental pressures: it is taking place because the market or the public hand demand expertise, transparency and accountability (plus standardized service provision). It seems that CSOs have no other choice; they are entrapped and they can either professionalize and obtain resources at the expense of commercialization and bureaucratization, or retain their authenticity and live the simple and short life of amateurs.

Does this mean that professionalization is the only way CSOs can adapt to environmental pressures? We intend to argue that the answer is no – CSOs are not entrapped – on the case of volunteer firefighters as a specific category of traditional clubs. Membership in volunteer firefighter organizations is not declining, and an overwhelming majority of Czechs (93%) consider them an inseparable part of life in the community (SANEP 2013). They have an extensive network of local chapters,[10] covering 96% of municipalities with a population of 2000 or less (Perlín, 2004). And that's all despite the fact that volunteer firefighters are the least professionalised type of organization. In Volunteering 2009 survey only 9.5% of respondents active as volunteers in some firefighters organization declared that their organization has employee(s).

[10] As of January 1, 2013, the Firefighters Association of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia reported a total of 7,810 volunteer firefighter squads (Štukhejlová, 2013).

Why are volunteer firefighters so successful? In contrast to service CSOs, which prefer the strategy of professionalization, they pursue a strategy of community development and cooperation. They devote their leisure time to cultural events and parties, which do not lie in the heart of their mission. They exhibit the highest level of sociability of all rural CSOs in the Czech Republic (Perlín, 2004). Volunteer firefighters perform a function that is latent at first sight, namely to support community life, build social capital and create opportunities for strengthening the cohesion of local community (Sadílková, 2014).

The community development and cooperation strategy of Czech volunteer firefighters is highly successful and worth pursuing by clubs or other types of CSOs as well. Local community development is also a good reason for the state or different parts of public administration to support sports, culture and recreation clubs. It is symptomatic that different forms of professionalized public participation at the local level (community planning, spatial planning, social services development, strategic governance etc.) that have been transferred from, initiated by and supported by the EU are only slowly starting to involve traditional clubs, and remain mostly the domain of service CSOs.

We can use trade unions as counter example to the case of volunteer firefighters. Recent history of unions shows their declining usefulness for civic life of individuals and groups. Trade unions represent a relatively highly professionalized part of the civic sector, but the number of their members over the past 25 years has fallen sharply (Frič et al., 2014). Additionally, the unions do not provide much space for the participation of volunteers or donors. Their attractiveness for donors and volunteers is very low. Unions´ activities are focused on interests of its members (employees) who pay membership dues for protecting their interests. Between professionalized leadership of unions and "ordinary" trade unionists there is a contractual relationship based on market principle. Union officials prefer transactional activism and that´s why they rely more on providing legal expertise and lobbying than mobilization of union´s members. "Especially major trade union organizations perceive their own role in development of trade union membership in area of legislation ... and in the advancement of the union's image" (Mansfeldová & Kroupa, 2005: 156). In present economic and political environment we can't expect that their significance could increase without becoming more attractive for wider range of (potential) members, volunteers and donors.

The data examined indicate that professionalization is not a panacea or the only way of promoting the common good of civil society. The current emphasis on professionalization by both policymakers and civic sector leaders is perhaps too one-sided, obscuring another important aspect – community embeddedness, that shapes the development of civil society today.

4

MOTIVATION TO SHORT-TERM VOLUNTEERING HELPING AND PROSOCIAL PERSONALITY DISPOSITIONS

Zdeněk Mlčák

INTRODUCTION

Etymological origin of the term “volunteering” can be traced down to Latin words “voluns” (willing) or “velle” (wishing). D. Haski-Leventhal (2009) claims that volunteering came up as an object of scientific examination for the first time in 1957 in the USA when D. Sklis published the first publication on organized volunteering. He perceived volunteering as a voluntary behavior unmotivated by any material reward. This view of voluntary decision and independency of material rewards has been accepted by relatively broad circle of later authors (see e.g. Van Til, 1988); however, there are authors who – while delimiting the term – underline the importance of psychological rewards emerging from volunteering (see Haski-Leventhal, 2009). For instance, D. H. Smith (1981, pp. 22–23) assumes it to mean a behavior “basically motivated by an expectation of psychological reward of various kind as a result of activity with higher market value than any reward gained from such activity”.

On the whole, volunteering is a heterogeneous phenomenon and involves a very broad spectrum of diverse activities such as caring for handicapped persons, helping children with their homework, visiting lonely elderly people in retirement homes, charity fundraising, working with children and the youth, political, ecological and rescue operations or unpaid participation in various kinds of research. It is also a phenomenon bearing high moral, social and economical potential (in detail see Mlčák, 2010). Owing to its diversity it can be viewed through prisms of a number of scientific disciplines including psychology, sociology, philosophy, theology, medicine, pedagogy or economy.

In the terms of psychological discourse, volunteering has been delimited by L. A. Penner (2002) by four defining attributes: 1) a long-term character, 2) methodicalness, 3) facultativeness, and 4) organizational context. According to this author, volunteering means “a long-term, methodical, prosocial behavior that brings benefit to other people and that takes place in an organized environment” (Penner, 2002, p. 448).

In the context of socially psychological issue of volunteering the motivation of its actors has been primarily examined. Relatively little study was made on the role of prosocial personality factors and their connections with motivational aspects, especially concerning (yet short-time) volunteers. The aim of this article is to explore the relationship between the motivation and selected personality factors which are traditionally included in the five-factor personality model.

MOTIVATION TO VOLUNTEERING

One of the psychologically relevant issues in relation to volunteering is a process during which people become volunteers. According to J. Wilson (2002) it is more often people, whose parents have had volunteering experience, who become volunteers. Foreign research shows that volunteers appear to have reached a higher level of education, higher working and socioeconomic status, are more often religiously oriented and are more politically engaged compared to the control samples. Women more than men and married women rather than single ones devote themselves to volunteerism. It was found that volunteering activities tend to decrease during the turn from adolescence to early adulthood and then increase to its peak during middle age. It was also found that the number of volunteers grows with increasing age and manifestations of religious orientation. In the context of North America it was found that women participate in volunteering activities mildly more than men, however, global gender differences were not found in Europe. Young women devote more time to volunteering than men, in older age it is on the contrary.

Little effort has been made in research of volunteering in Czech Republic so far, with an exception of research outcomes acquired by P. Frič and his colleagues (Frič & Pospíšilová et al., 2010). This research performed on a representative sample of 3811 Czech citizens over 14 years of age showed that concerning volunteering, Czech Republic can be assigned to economically and socially more developed countries of the European Union. This research showed that 38% of Czech citizens over 14 years of age participate in informal volunteering and 30% in formal volunteering performed through various social organizations, and that this number has had an increasing trend in recent years.

Another psychological issue is the question why people remain devoted to volunteering activities in long-term time horizon. According to the processual model of volunteering by A. M. Omoto and M. Snyder (1995, 2002) it is gradually experienced motivational changes that play an important role in devotedness to volunteering; motives initiating volunteering activities can be sorted into five categories: a) values, b) understanding, c) personal growth, d) concern for the community and e) increase of self-respect. However, beside these motives, devotedness to volunteering is influenced by subsequent volunteering experience, contentment regarding volunteering activities and a number of other variables related to the organizational framework of volunteering.

Another explanation is offered by the model of role identity by J. Piliavin and her co-workers (Grube & Piliavin, 2000). This model works on a presumption that individual's self concept consists of a system of identities based on social roles. The role of a volunteer arises from one's expectations concerning opinions of significant others concerning him or her. The more the others link an individual to a certain role, the more this role becomes an integral part of his or her self concept. The individual subsequently tends to behave in a manner congruent with his or her role identity of a volunteer. Constant strengthening of role identity in the field of social interactions then preserves one's volunteering activity. Accepting the role identity is, however, conditioned by a number of organizational factors, as some authors point out (see e.g. Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007).

L. A. Pennner (2002) attempted to integrate both mentioned models into his conceptual model of influences on long-term volunteerism. This model shows that volunteering is strongly influenced by an interaction of dispositional and organizational parameters. The initial decision to become a volunteer is much more influenced by dispositional factors than by situational ones. These dispositional parameters include some of the personality traits, values, attitudes and motives. When an individual decides to become a volunteer, he or she creates himself or herself a role identity of a volunteer by identifying himself or herself personally – to a certain degree – with volunteering. Organizational parameters include volunteer's experience regarding how he is treated by the organization and the organization's reputation.

The so-called functional approach is used to study volunteerism. Its goal is to identify functions and motives encouraging individual's volunteering activities. These functions can involve a broad specter of motivational constructs such as attitudes, values, reasons, purposes, plans etc.

E. G. Clary and her colleagues (Clary & Snyder et al., 1998) state that volunteers satisfy a certain complex of motives that are significant for them by their volunteering. Her concept presumes that identical volunteering activities can be based on different configurations of motives and vice versa, that different volunteering activities can be based on analogical motives. These motives are related to six categories:

1) Values (VA) – a possibility to express values regarding prosocial or altruistic concern for others.

2) Understanding (UN) – a possibility to get new opportunities to learn and to develop specific abilities and skills.

3) Social function (SO) – an opportunity to create and maintain interpersonal relationships with others, an occasion to be with them and jointly participate in favored activities.

4) Career (CA) – an opportunity to gain an advantage for getting future job and to acquire skills needed for advancement in one's career.

5) Protective function (PR) – a possibility to strengthen one's ego, to escape from negative feelings or to reduce guilt sourcing from the feeling that a volunteer has been gifted with more luck than the persons he helps.

6) Encouragement (EN) – an opportunity for personal development, gaining self-respect or reaching feelings of personal significance.

VOLUNTEERING AND PROSOCIAL PERSONALITY DISPOSITIONS

Psychological exploration of volunteering involves also an application of the dispositional approach whose aim is to identify specific personal characteristics or traits that co-decide in one's becoming a volunteer.

Application of this approach is closely related to a broad stream of exploration of so-called prosocial and altruistic personalities. It was until the 1980s that strong doubts regarding the possibility of factual existence of prosocial personality prevailed in scientific circles. These doubts have remained present in works of some authors in a somewhat weakened version according to which prosocial behavior is predominantly determined by situational conditions and only minimally by personality characteristics (see e.g. Pietromonaco & Nisbett, 1982; Ross & Nisbett, 1991). In recent years, however, the possibility of existence of prosocial personality has been strengthened by a number of reliable evidence sourcing from psychological study of exceptional individuals who managed to behave prosocially even in extreme and life-threatening conditions and from the exploration of individuals who show stable and significant manifestations of prosocial behavior towards other people in their daily life.

The decisive definitional attribute of prosocial personality is an effort to bring benefit to other people. L. A. Penner and M. A. Finkelstein (1998, p. 526) state that prosocial personality can be characterized by "a constant tendency to care about other people's well-being and rights, to experience concern and empathy towards people and behave in the way that brings benefit to them". D. A. Schroeder and his colleagues (Schroeder

& Penner et al., 1995, p. 171) characterize prosocial personality as “a complex of characteristics that predispose person toward beneficial and prosocial thoughts and behavior”.

Several authors attempted to identify basic characteristics of prosocial personality on the base of empirical investigation of individuals who manifested extraordinary forms of helping behavior. One of those is a classic study by S. P. Oliner and P. M. Oliner (1998) who analyzed personal characteristics of people who had saved Jewish citizens from death in Nazi Germany during the WWII. These authors compared personal characteristics in a sample of 231 saviors and a control sample of 126 individuals with same demographic parameters such as age or social status. Saviors – compared to those belonging to the control sample – were more friendly with Jews, showed a higher degree of family support, engaged themselves more in resistance movements and were directly asked for help by other people. Retrospective interviews brought evidence that their acceptance of universally valid ethical rules was higher than in people in the control sample, they manifested stronger inclination towards personal and social responsibility, were less egocentric and their perception was more affected by internal locus of control. These individuals identified themselves more strongly with their parents who at the same time were their moral models. They evaluated their parents as good-hearted individuals who used little physical punishment in their upbringing and preferred educational explanation. They manifested higher level of empathy and higher concern for other people. In comparison with the control sample they showed higher level of belief that they can affect what is going on around them and their behavior (self-efficacy). They showed lesser degree of respect towards authorities and material values. These people were proud of their helping behavior after the end of the war and engaged themselves more in community-related work compared to persons from the control sample who more often felt guilty in the aftermath of the war.

Several critical objections concerning results of this exceptional study have been raised. Some authors (see Schroeder & Penner et al., 1995) state that outcomes of the study could have been distorted by the fact that in the time during which the data were collected the saviors had been already perceived as socially appreciated heroic personalities, therefore their personal characteristics could have been significantly influenced by their past deeds and the positive social evaluation they caused to emerge.

Different explorations in which helping individuals were examined have been used to find characteristics of prosocial personality. Research concerning people giving first aid in car accidents (Bierhoff, Klein & Kramp, 1991) showed that such persons manifest some identical personal characteristics as those in the previously mentioned study, especially higher degree of social responsibility, emotional empathy and internal locus of control. In addition to that, a lesser degrees of egoism and hostility and higher degree of faith in a just world were found in these people.

Studies investigating personal characteristics of blood donors (see e.g. Boe & Ponder, 1981) showed that donors tend towards altruistic help, self-sacrifice and show a strong need of appreciation.

A higher level of faith in people was found in kidney donors compared with people who never donated a kidney (Simons, Klein & Simmons, 1997; as cited in Piliaving & Charng, 1990).

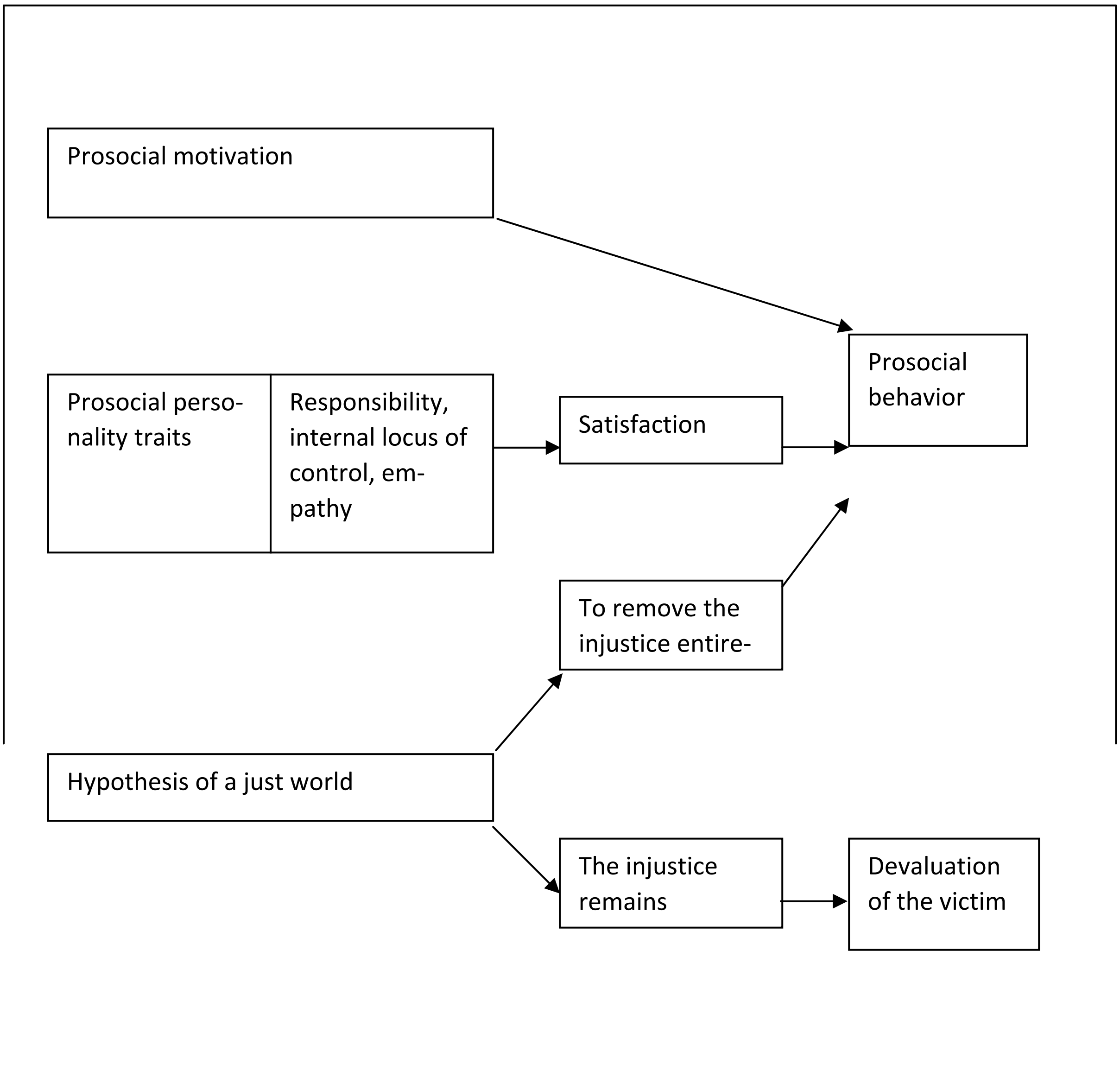
An interesting finding gained in Jew saviors, blood donors, kidney donors and people actively intervening in criminal deeds was a fact that all of them demonstrated a higher level of acceptance of danger compared to the control samples.

Several studies proved a positive relationship between dispositional empathy and helping. Dispositional empathy represents a consistent tendency to react emotionally towards emotional experience of others and to understand their viewpoints. Higher level of empathy was found e.g. in volunteers (Allen & Rushton, 1983; Rushton, 1984) or psychotherapists (Otten, Penner & Altabe, 1991). Some studies (see e.g. Staub, 1974) found a positive relationship between feelings of responsibility for other people's prosperity and prosocial behavior.

Further characteristics, such as concern for other people's prosperity, higher degree of self-efficacy and lesser degree of Machiavellianism have been additionally included to prosocial personality characteristics by various authors (see e.g. Omoto, Snyder, 1995; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). R. A. Baron and D. Byrne (2000) state that prosocial personality demonstrates much broader radius of personal characteristics involving stronger need of appreciation, interpersonal confidence, emotional positivity, sociability, friendliness, prosocial self-scheme, emotional stability, belief in a just world and social responsibility. Prosocial personality manifests also internal locus of control and low levels of aggressiveness and egocentrism. It is typical of generativity (i.e. faithfulness to one's personal story) and willingness to act.

On the base of theoretical contemplations and acquired research findings, a **model of prosocial personality** has been made by W. Bierhof (2006). According to this model, prosocial personality consists of 1) prosocial motivation, 2) prosocial personality traits and 3) a vision of a just world (see Scheme 1). Prosocial traits involve social responsibility, internal locus of control and empathy. Hypothesis of a just world expresses a generalized expectation that people always receive what they deserve (Lerner, 1980; as cited in Bierhoff, 2006).

Observing another person in difficulties which he or she does not deserve questions subjective premise of the observer and can initiate help aimed toward this person or lead to his or her deliberate devaluation.



Scheme 1. Model of prosocial personality (Bierhoff, 2006, p. 341; edited by ZM)

L. A. Penner and his colleagues (Penner & Fritzsche et al., 1995) attempted to find characteristics of the so-called prosocial personality. On the base of meta-analysis of past research outcomes and factor analysis it was found that the structure of prosocial personality involves two significant factors: other-oriented empathy related to cognitive and emotional aspects of helping other people and helpfulness expressing a higher degree of self-perception of one's usefulness and competence and involves behavioral aspect of helping.

These authors found that individuals with high level of empathy oriented towards the others experience a higher level of responsibility and concern for other people's benefit. Individuals with high degree of willingness to help experience feelings of discomfort in situations where other individuals experience distress. Such an empirically deduced description of prosocial personality is similar to that described by different authors in relation to personal characteristics of other people's rescuers. An instrument developed by the cited authors to measure prosocial personality traits is called "Prosocial Personality Battery" (PBS). Further research showed (Penner & Friztsche, 1993) that factors included in PBS are capable of differentiating not only between volunteers and individuals with no experience of voluntary work, but also between short- and long-term volunteers. L. A. Penner (2002) found in another research involving a relatively numerous sample of volunteers ($N = 1100$) by the mentioned method that both factors are positively related to an amount of organizations in which the volunteers had worked, to a total time of volunteering and to their working time. These variables were positively associated also with the intensity of participants' faith, their age, education and wage.

Other authors assume (Rushton, 1981; Batson, 1991) that volunteering is associated with altruistic personality characterized by tendency to help others selflessly, i.e. without expecting any external psychological reward. Characteristics of altruistic personality include higher degree of acceptance of moral values, social responsibility and higher levels of emotional and cognitive empathy. A number of authors are convinced that it is altruism that is the most significant predictor of volunteering (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Mowen & Sujan, 2005). W. Tietze and H. W. Bierhoff (Bierhoff, 2001) state that a complex of both altruistic and egoistic motives participate in maintaining volunteering activities while altruistic motives are most significant during forming the primary motivation of so-called initial volunteers on the outset of their careers and egoistic motives are more significant in the process of maintaining commitment to volunteering in time.

Personal characteristics of volunteers working in the field of mental hygiene have been dealt with by N. J. Allen and J. P. Rushton (1983) who proved that volunteers manifest different personal characteristics compared to samples of comparable individuals who were never involved in volunteering activities. Volunteers abide by moral standards in regulation of their behavior more than representatives from control samples, their superego is stronger and their conscientiousness level is higher. They are more likely to accept so-called intrinsic religious faith. They are more self-accepting, more capable of expressing trust and openness in front of other people. They are more capable of questioning their thoughts and feelings. They are more carefree, emotionally more stable, more content with their life and more convinced that they hold external control over their life. They feel to be more self-efficient and they are more flexible and more independent in task situations.

Furthermore, volunteering is significantly related to dimensions of the five-factor personality model the detailed description of which has been made in another publication of present article's author (see e.g. Mlčák, 2010). G. Carlo and his co-workers (Carlo & Okun et al., 2005) proved that volunteering correlates with all of the dimensions of the five-factor personality model except for the dimension of neuroticism. According to these authors, volunteering is most strongly associated with agreeableness and extraversion. These connections have been consistently proved in a number of further studies. A. M. Omoto and M. Snyder (1995) consider the combination of extraversion and agreeableness as a general helping disposition. G. Carlo and his colleagues are of the opinion (Carlo & Okun et al., 2005) that the effect of these personal dispositions on volunteering can be not only direct, but also in a complicated manner mediated by another motives (i.e. attitudes, values, aims etc.).

L. A. Penner and his colleagues (Penner & Fritzsche et al., 2005) offer an empirical review of studies concerning the influence of volunteering on personality. These studies prove a generally positive influence on volunteers' psyche.

1) Volunteering in adolescence leads to a development of prosocial attitudes, values and personal identity and a higher probability that they will be engaged to volunteering in adulthood. Volunteering strengthens their self-respect, self-confidence and academic successfulness. At the same time it has positive effect on dangerous or anti-social behavior. Adolescents involved in volunteering activities are also less likely to abuse drugs, to have poor marks at school, to become pregnant, to commit criminal delicts or to be imprisoned.
2) Volunteering in adulthood positively influences one's psychological and physical health. It correlates with lower incidence of depression in persons over 65 and their better psychological well-being. Adult volunteers are generally healthier and live longer than those belonging to control samples. It is assumed that adult volunteers manifest better social interaction and lesser degree of alienation.

One of the possible explications of volunteering is represented by opinions based on J. Bowlby's attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth, 1973). This theory claims that a human being since its birth encompasses a system of behavior which motivates him to seek presence of people who provide him with safety. People who were better cared for in childhood more easily perceive and respond to other people's distress (Mikulinger & Shaver et al., 2005). There are empirical theories proving that so-called avoidant attachment is related to infrequent volunteering (Gillath & Shaver et al., 2005).

Volunteering can be also influenced by psychological sense of community postulated by B. Sarason (1974; as cited in Haski-Leventhal, 2009) as a feeling of belonging somewhere and being a part of a larger group. It was found that the relation between volunteerism and psychological sense of community is dialectic, i.e. that volunteering increases the sense of community and vice versa (Haski-Leventhal, 2009).

A developmental psychological approach has been used in examining volunteerism as well, based on an assumption that tendency to volunteering increases with age and therefore people become volunteers in old age. There are studies (Haski-Leventhal, 2009) that proved that a prominent part of adult volunteers had started volunteering already when they were adolescents. The decision to become a volunteer is more strongly influenced by social motives in adolescence than in adulthood.

Normative and value approaches have been used in examining volunteering as well. It was found that volunteering is related to a personal value of benevolence which S. H. Schwartz (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000) connects to one's focus on other people's profit, on responsibility, loyalty, honesty and an effort to help in emergent situations (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). P. Dekker and L. Halman (2003) claim volunteering to be associated with values such as altruism, solidarity, desire to do good, sense of justice and religious values. D. H. Smith (1994) found that volunteering is related to values of integrity, patriotism, democracy, political involvement and willingness to help others.

Some authors linked to social psychology, sociology or economy used the exchange theory to explicate volunteering. From this viewpoint, volunteers are understood as people who devote their time to help others with aim to gain both internal and external profit which involves personal satisfaction, prestige, positive evaluation, training, material benefits, social appreciation, better physical and psychological health (Wilson, 2002). This profit is counterbalanced by certain costs which volunteering demands such as invested time or necessity to endure negative social reaction sourcing from work with controversial communities.

RESEARCH GOAL, SAMPLE OF RESPONDENTS, METHODICS

Research goal was to examine mutual relationships between the dimensions of the five-factor personality model and partial motivations (functions) which stimulate volunteering activities in female students with voluntary experience.

Present investigation used chosen data from a sample of respondents of so-called research project B (for detail, see Mlčák, 2010) which took place in 2010 and involved 443 female high school students in total attending five high schools from the Moravian-Silesian Region (business academies in Nový Jičín and Ostrava, secondary nursing schools in Nový Jičín and Karviná and High School of Prof. Matějček in Ostrava). From this basic sample a sample of 140 female students who had volunteering experience was chosen. Duration of their experience was not taken into consideration in this research.

Dimensions of the five-factor model were diagnosed using the NEO five-factor personality inventory standardized by M. Hřebíčková and T. Urbánek (2001). It consists of 60 statements which respondents evaluate on a 5-item Likert scale (0 – strongly disagree, 1 – disagree, 2 – neutral, 3 – agree, 4 – strongly agree). This inventory allows diagnostics of five general personality factors:

1) Neuroticism (N) examines the level of adaptability or emotional stability. It enables distinction between individuals prone to psychic exhaustion, unrealistic ideals and individuals who are psychologically stable or resistant to psychological exhaustion.
2) Extraversion (E) (warmth, sociability, assertiveness, activity, seeking excitement, positive emotions) measures qualitative and quantitative aspects of interpersonal interaction of the individual, his or her activation level and need of stimulation.
3) Openness to experience (O) identifies active seeking new experiences, a tendency to uncover and tolerate the unknown.
4) Agreeableness (A) examines the quality of interpersonal orientation on a compassion-hostility continuum manifested in thoughts, emotions and actions.
5) Conscientiousness (C) (neatness, responsibility, endeavor to reach one's goals, discipline) measures the level of motivation and endurance of goal-oriented behavior and distinguishes between reliable self-demanding individuals and those indifferent and negligent.

Motivation to volunteering was measured via Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) by G. Clary, M. Snyder and their colleagues (1998). This questionnaire examines levels of mentioned 6 functions (motivations) that encourage volunteering activities. It consists of 30 questions evaluated by the individual in respect to their significance on a 7-item scale.

STATISTICAL OUTCOME ANALYSIS

Statistical outcome analysis began with calculating basic statistic parameters as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of examined variables

Variable	n	M	SD
N	140	26.043	8.076
E	140	35.921	7.073
O	140	26.571	5.768
A	140	29.957	5.954

C	140	29.071	6.527
PR	140	17.793	6.848
VA	140	22.264	5.275
CA	140	21.043	6.454
SO	140	17.843	6.087
UN	140	25.371	6.850
EN	140	22.179	6.789
VFI	140	126.493	31.539

Legend: N = neuroticism, E = extraversion, O = openness to experience, A = agreeableness, C = conscientiousness, PR = protective function, VA = values, CA = career, SO = social function, UN = understanding, EN = encouragement, VFI = total score, n = number, M = arithmetic mean, SD = standard deviation.

Data introduced in Table 1 show that from the viewpoint of intensity it is motivation focused on understanding that is most strongly represented and value-determined motivation as the second. Protective motivation is, on the contrary, represented the least from the viewpoint of intensity.

Next stage of statistical analysis saw a calculation of Pearson correlation coefficients between the examined variables and then gathered into Table 2.

Table 2. Correlation analysis of examined variables

Variable	N	E	O	A	C
PR	0.053	–0.084	–0.051	**0.309++**	**0.224++**
VA	0.070	0.007	0.060	**0.356++**	**0.253++**
CA	–0.028	–0.004	0.072	0.014	0.013
SO	0.025	–0.004	–0.068	**0.221++**	**0.190+**
UN	–0.038	0.072	0.126	0.165	0.114
EN	–0.034	0.021	0.000	0.160	0.058
VFI	0.007	0.002	0.028	**0.243++**	**0.167+**

Legend for Table 2 is identical as for Table 1. Symbol ++ marks correlation coefficients significant at the 0.01 level of significance and symbol + marks correlation coefficients significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

Outcomes shown in Table 2 imply that there is a statistically significant association between the levels of agreeableness and value-determined motivation, protective motivation, social motivation. The same connection, though somewhat weaker, has been found between the level of conscientiousness and motivational components mentioned above. The levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness also correlate with a total level of motivation to volunteering.

RESULT INTERPRETATION

Results gained in present research confirm some of the outcomes acquired in foreign studies; it is needed to say, however, that the sample was unrepresentative. While outcomes of foreign studies were obtained from individuals who had been working as volunteers in long-term time perspective, presented study involved also individuals with relatively short volunteering experience.

Acquired data prove that understanding-oriented motivation and motivation determined by values the volunteers identify themselves with are the most strongly represented motivations in female students' volunteering activity. Encouragement-oriented motivation, i.e. motivation oriented on personal growth and meaning, is also represented quite strongly. These results are in accord with some research findings concerning volunteers in foreign and domestic studies (see e.g. Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003; Frič et al., 2001) and correspond to so-called reflexive (individualized) volunteering paradigm. This paradigm is typical of short-term, unstable activity that is not firmly bound to membership in any organization and that is determined by individualistic values or biographical needs of an individual.

Reflexive paradigm of volunteering is the opposite of the older formely widespread collective paradigm of volunteering. In the Czech literature the ideal configuration of dimensions of collective and reflexive paradigm was described aptly by P. Frič and his colleagues (Frič et al., 2010, p. 41). Their idea is captured in the table 3 below.

Table 3. The ideal configuration of collective and reflexive volunteering pattern (Frič et al., 2010, p. 41)

		Collective volunteering pattern	**Reflexive volunteering pattern**
1.	**Style of volunteering participation**	Long term, stable, connected with membership in organizations of civil society	Short term, unstable, disconnected from membership in organizations of civil society

2.	**Volunteers motivation**	Normative and altruistic	Egoistic and hedonistic
3.	**Social capital of volunteers**	Supremacy of strong relation on community, high level of emotional undertone linkage on members of organization	Supremacy of weak relation on community, instrumental linkage on members of organization
4.	**Volunteer organization**	Local management, hierarchical organization	The high degree of professionalisation of volunteer activities in the organization
5.	**Cultural framework of volunteering**	Collectivism	Individualism
6.	**Social value and support of volunteering**	Residual approach – compensative and complementary view of volunteering	Emancipatory approach – volunteering like preferable value

The reflexive paradigm has begun being generally used in local conditions mainly after the year 1989. The reason was the fact, that volunteering stopped to be an object of idealization and goal of government grants. Volunteering organizations have become decentralized and adopted managerial way of their leading. These and other social changes facilitated change of motivation of Czech volunteers, that are in it still increasingly seeking mainly new experience and possibility of self-realization (in detail Frič et al., 2010).

Outcomes of the correlation analysis of examined variables give evidence of statistically significant relationship between factors of agreeableness and conscientiousness and total motivation of examined individuals to short-term voluntary activities in its value, protective and social components. Such outcome is partly consistent with findings mentioned earlier made by G. Carlo and his colleagues (Carlo & Okun et al., 2005). Achieved results highlight the importance of personal aspects of volunteering that were quite underestimated in the earlier literature.

CONCLUSION

In the context of present-day materialistically oriented and value-destabilized time period with society gradually dissociating into strongly separated individuals, volunteerism represents an irreplaceable phenomenon with high axiological, personally cultivating, social and last but not least economic significance.

This phenomenon positively contributes towards development of civil society, reduces antisocial behaviour, strengthens volunteers, mental health and heightens the chance of young people's professional success. The achieved level of volunteering is at the same time considered to be an indicator of overall health of society. The volunteering itself offers great variance of benefits, not only for functioning of the whole society, but even for individual and unforeseen benefits for the personality of volunteers. Achieved results of this study, even under local conditions, verify thesis about significance of personal dimensions of agreeableness, conscientiousness, which highly related to the value, cognitive and socially accepted components of motivation even towards short term volunteering activities. These results support thesis about general tendency of young beginning volunteers towards so-called reflexive volunteering paradigm.

Results of the presented study verify a proposition concerning the significance of personality dimensions of agreeableness and conscientiousness, closely related both to value, cognitively and socially anchored motivation components and to short-term volunteering activities in domestic conditions. At the same time, these results underline the relevance of employing the five-factor personality model in examination of volunteer personality.

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Part II

SPECIAL FORMS OF HELPING: SOLIDARITY, SOCIAL SUPPORT AND DIAGNOSTICS

5

INTERGENERATIONAL KNOWLEDGE SHARING IN AN ORGANISATION

Renata Kocianová

INTRODUCTION

The chapter deals with intergenerational sharing of knowledge in an organisation, with a focus on older employees but with an emphasis on the fact that knowledge sharing is mutual. Intergenerational knowledge sharing is certainly not a novel topic, but many recent facts are currently boosting interest in the issue. They include primarily population ageing and the related new concepts such as age management and diversity management. In this context, attention is paid to age diversity in organisations, particularly age discrimination and ageism in the work context, work abilities of older employees and their work preferences. There is distinct interest in so-called employee generations and the differences among them. The issue of intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organisation currently requires a reflection of these topics. Sharing of knowledge among generations in the workplace has not received much expert attention so far, although the research does yield some results. The chapter first focuses on theoretical basis of cooperation, learning and knowledge sharing in the evolution of management in the course of the 20th century. Attention is paid to a learning organisation, human capital and components of intellectual capital, and knowledge management in an organisation. After that, the concept of age management is described, and attention is paid to age diversity, age discrimination and ageism in the work context. By extension, the text deals with employee age group with a focus on the categorisation of employees as generations with their specific characteristics that is currently being elaborated. Intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organisation links both-way learning and sharing of knowledge of younger and older employee generations relating to work. Attention is paid to factors of knowledge sharing on the part of individuals and of the organisation, and possibilities of influencing knowledge sharing in organisational management.

COOPERATION, LEARNING AND KNOWLEDGE SHARING IN EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT[11]

A distinct interest in employee cooperation issues (typically in the context of social relationships) has been noticeable with the evolution of management as a scientific discipline since the early 20th century. We can mention representatives of so-called classic management schools (until the 1930s). Taylor (1911)[12] focused cooperation between managers and employees and emphasised the necessity to achieve a harmony in team activity – to achieve cooperation of people. Fayol (1949)[13] pointed out the importance of communication and recommended maintaining a climate for shared work and cooperation in teams. Weber's (1922a; 1922b)[14] bureaucratic organisation of management is characterised by an impersonal attitude to fellow employees, a requirement for impartiality and rational conduct in a system defined by rigid standards, responsibilities and a firm hierarchy. The human relationship school was important for the evolution of the social relationship issue in the work context; it pointed out the importance of satisfactory mutual relationships among members (belonging) and the management method understanding human behaviour (especially group behaviour) and supportive of interpersonal relationships (Koontz & Weihrich, 1998). May's (1933)[15] concept points out the importance of informal relationships and atmosphere in a work team and the necessity of respecting employees' social needs, and highlights that it is expedient to know the personal and group interests of the managed employees and be able to direct them. The human relationship school points out people's social needs in the work process (contact with other people, affection, recognition, information) and their satisfaction in the social environment.

In the following period of so-called modern (developing) management approaches (until the 1970s), the issue of employee cooperation was largely developed notably using social-psychological, systems and empirical approaches. Many papers originate from

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[11] See Kocianová (2012) on evolution of management since the early 20th century.

[12] Deliberations of Frederick W. Taylor, the prominent representative of so-called scientific management, are contained in the 1911 paper *Principles of Scientific Management*.

[13] Henri Fayol, a representative of so-called administrative management, published his opinions in a 1916 book *Administration Industrielle et Générale*, only published in English in 1949 as *General and Industrial Management*.

[14] Max Weber's influential works are *Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft* published in 1922 (in English as *Economy and Society: An Outline of Interpretative Sociology*) and *Grundrisse der Sozialökonomik* also from 1922 (translated to English as *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*).

[15] The book *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, summarising the opinions and recommendations of Elton Mayo, was published in 1933.

this period which pay attention to the meaning, forms and factors of cooperation. The area of social-psychological approaches elaborated on social and psychological aspects of work, needs and interests of individuals, communication and conflict in the work context, informal relations and their significance, developing work motivation theory, and other topics. The behaviourist approach made a significant contribution to management, as it focused on people's behaviour in organisations, accentuating integration, involvement and engagement of employees. In systems approaches, an organisation – as a complex open system – includes an active human component besides financial, material and information resources; all these component influence one another. Systems approaches highlight respect to integrity and reflection of all fundamental internal and external contexts of an organisation's functioning. Representatives of systems approaches include Barnard (1938)[16], who emphasised the human factor, arrangement of interrelationships among individuals and groups within an organisation; he regarded provision of systemic cooperation in a formal organisation as the primary task of management. Representatives of empirical approaches (which overlapped into the 1980s) analysed experience of successful organisations and managers with the objective to identify factors of success and drew generalised recommendations for managerial conduct. Empirical approaches pay attention to team work, conditions for opinion sharing and adoption, and consideration of fellow employees' proposals.

Many papers have been published since the 1980s, and many concepts were created, some of which have made significant impacts on the academic environment and the practice. Issues of team cooperation and mutual learning processes were elaborated. As for cooperation and knowledge sharing among individuals as well as in groups and organisations, of fundamental importance are those concepts that came to the fore in the 1990s, particularly the learning organisation, intellectual capital and knowledge management.

The learning organisation concept can be characterised by "… creation of new knowledge or viewpoints capable of influencing behaviour; it occurs in a wide institutional context of relationships inside an organisation. Learning occurring in an organisation is not a mere sum of learning of individuals and groups in the organisation; their systemic interconnection is crucial. Organisation learning theory deals with how people in organisations learn, examines how learning occurring in individuals and teams can be converted to the organisation's resource. The way in which learning occurs is influenced by conditions in the organisation and by its culture" (Kocianová, 2012, p. 59). Senge (1990; 1994)[17] understands learning not only as acquisition of information

[16] Chester I. Barnard's book *The Functions of the Executive*, published in 1938, is regarded as one of the most important works on management.
[17] Peter M. Senge greatly popularised the learning organisation concept in his 1990 book *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* and another book, published with a team of authors in 1994 as *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies for Building a Learning Organization.*

but as enabling an individual's change; he emphasises the context of a person's work and learning, and highlights team learning.

The notion of human capital has been elaborated since the 1960s (e.g., Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1964); the OECD too has contributed to its definition. Various definitions of human capital define it using knowledge, skills, abilities and properties for value generation, characterise it with innate preconditions, education, and influences of a person's family and social setting. Human capital is defined (see Armstrong, 2007) as a human factor of organisation co-created by people's abilities, behaviour and personal energy that they invest in their work. However, this capital is owned by people, not employers, who decide about its investment in order to achieve a goal. Human capital theory emphasises the added value that people contribute to the organisation; it perceives investment in people as beneficial.

The term intellectual capital, which made a widespread presence in the expert literature in the 1990s, can be defined as knowledge that an organisation has available (Kocianová, 2012). In addition to human capital, social and organisation capital are defined in connection with intellectual capital (as its components; e.g., Armstrong, 2007); these may be referred to by other authors using different names (e.g., social capital as customer capital, organisational capital as structural). In its structure, intellectual capital captures the fact that it is crucial whether individuals' knowledge is utilised and how.

Social capital has become an influential concept. Bourdieu uses it to denote the potential for successful action that an individual has available based on social relations. Coleman defines it as a useful tool accessible via social relations and created as a by-product (unintended) of our actions guided by the effort to achieve our own interests. Putman has linked social capital with reciprocity, the quantity of relationships among people, the self-organising ability and trust; he sees growth of social capital as a necessary precondition for happiness, health, functional democracy and prosperity. The OECD puts social capital on a par with human capital; it sees them as mutually complementary as a precondition and guarantee for well-being, which has an economic and a social component. Human capital is bound to individuals; social capital, to relationships among them, and both are advanced by learning (Kopecký, 2013). An organisation's social capital consists of knowledge generated by social interactions and relationships within the organisation among its employees as well as outside it (such as with suppliers); knowledge is generated by interaction among people. In people's co-operation, social capital enables application of the human capital potential.

Organisational capital comprises knowledge owned by an organisation. An organisation's knowledge is retained, contained in the organisation's databases, described processes, documentation, methodologies, etc. Human capital (individuals' knowledge) is owned by people (who decided on its application); their knowledge produces the organisational capital, which is not threatened in the event of an employee's departure: it already exists independently of specific individuals. The knowledge management is a key tool for developing organisational capital.

The term knowledge society is typically used with two basic meanings: in descriptions of current social changes (onset of knowledge society as a reality), and as an indication of the desirable future trend (knowledge society as an ideal towards which it is desirable to aim); both the possible meanings are frequently not distinguished. Deliberation on knowledge society developed in the 1990s (but the term itself was first used at the turn of the 1960s). Knowledge society theories follow directly or indirectly from several older concepts, including for example the post-industrial society theory of the 1970s and the information society theory, which has been evolving since the 1960s. "The notion of knowledge society is distinct from the term information society particularly in one important aspect. The idea of knowledge society wants to avoid economism and the one-sided interest in technologies. Normatively formulated theories of knowledge societies maintain that both their starting point and objective is the human being, quality of its life and development of all aspects of its potential. Moreover, the contents of the terms knowledge society and knowledge economy overlap to great extent (what extent precisely is a matter of interpretation) with the contents of the terms learning society and learning economy" (Kopecký, 2009, p. 34).

There has been a noticeable considerable interest in knowledge management issues in management theory and practice of organisational management since the mid 1990s. The knowledge management concept focuses on an organisation's development by sharing and using knowledge both inside and outside the organisation, acquisition of knowledge from those who have it, and its passing to those who need it. Knowledge management is based on the assumption that organisations' development is largely dependent on their ability to share and use information both inside and outside them. In the broadest possible sense, a knowledge organisation is founded over knowledge, with the management controlling the knowledge and thus increasing the competencies and performance of employees using it (Kocianová, 2012). Knowledge is multifaceted and complex, because it is both specific and abstract, explicit and implicit, general and individual, physical and intellectual, static and evolving, intelligible and coded (Armstrong, 2007). Knowledge that can be stored can move through an organisation via information systems and personal contact, such as meetings and workshops. The problem of knowledge management is the transformation of tacit (hidden, silent) knowledge (existing in peoples' minds, acquired by personal experience, difficult to express in writing) into explicit knowledge (systematically sorted and recorded). That said, informal knowledge represents a large portion of an organisation's knowledge. As stated by Sveiby (the first to define and classify the intellectual capital concept in 1988), the term knowledge management suggests erroneously that knowledge is an object that can be managed and controlled. However, knowledge owned by people cannot be controlled. Only the organisational infrastructure – the environment in which people work – can be managed in a way that it assists the movement and free exchange of knowledge, its acquisition, collection and utilisation. Organisational culture and human resources policy should create conditions and an environment that support individuals' interest in sharing their knowledge to the organisation's benefit (Kocianová, 2012).

AGE MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS

Age management at the organisational level refers to managing the age structure of employees in organisations, characterised by utilisation of abilities of employees of all age groups. In this context, age diversity in organisations, working groups or teams, and intergenerational learning in the workplace are particularly important from the age management point of view. The age management concept is not a unified one. Age management is viewed from the perspective of individuals, organisations (employers) and working groups or teams as well as a society-wide perspective; in all the approaches, the primary interest is in the age group over 50 years. Attention is paid to different thematic areas at different levels, some topics are elaborated at multiple levels, and viewed from different perspectives. At the level of individuals and in respect of ageing, age management focuses particularly on their needs, expectations and work abilities. At the organisation level, age management deals with the perspective of employee "ageing", discrimination and equal treatment; attention is focused on ageism in organisations, social responsibility of organisations, and related age management measures in the human resources management system. At the society level, age management focuses in particular on demographic trends, issues of health and quality of life, active ageing, lifelong education and learning, and age discrimination on the labour market in the context of employing of older people and departure from the labour market.

The focus on older groups of employees[18] has been elicited by the population ageing. For the coming decades, forecasts indicate decreasing numbers of the newborn and increasing numbers of the elderly, a prospect of extending work life due to the future need to employ older people as a solution to the decreasing numbers of young people. The Lisbon Strategy set a goal already in 2000 to increase employment of various age groups and extend the age for labour market departure. In connection with creation of job opportunities for older age groups, there is an emphasis on developing their work abilities (Kocianová, 2013). From a psychological point of view, active ageing re-

[18] The National Action Plan promoting positive ageing for the period 2013–2017 defines an older employee as a person older than 50 who has not yet been entitled to regular old age pension, and a senior as a person who has achieved the age required for regular old age retirement regardless whether it receives the pension or not (MPSV, 2013).

quires essentially retaining all the majority needs of the middle age, especially the needs of activity and usefulness. According to the WHO, active ageing can be defined as a process of optimisation of conditions and opportunities for retaining one's good health, active involvement and life's securities with the aim of improving people's quality of life as they age. The so-called successful ageing concept emphasises boosting quality of life and positive adaptations in old age; the aim is to achieve a certain level of physical, social and psycho-social well-being in old age (Šerák, 2014). A lot of research focuses on factors of departure from the labour market, involvement of older people in the work process, etc. (e.g., Vendramin, Valenduc & Molinié et al., 2012; Naegele, Thode & Dhéret, 2013; Hasselhorn & Apt, 2015).

Older employees are considered a vulnerable group on the labour market and one threatened with discrimination at work in terms of age. European documents on equality and discrimination define the general framework for equal treatment at work and profession (Directive 2000/78/EC). Anti-discrimination directives forbid discrimination in access to employment, particularly in the area of requirements for job admission (ban on discriminating advertising) and selection criteria, in work career, participation in education, consultation or retraining, remuneration, redundancy, access to and membership in professional organisations or employee or employer organisations, including benefits provided by such organisations (Bobek, Boučková & Kühn, 2007). The priorities of the National Action Plan promoting positive ageing for the period 2013–2017 include securing and protection of human rights of elderly people, lifelong learning, and employment of elderly workers and seniors (MPSV, 2013). Lifelong education and learning in connection with self-realisation is a frequent topic of policy documents of international organisations (e.g., Commission of the European Communities, 2001), object of expert analyses and research (e.g., OECD, 2006). Discrimination based on age is specific, as older age is an unchangeable characteristic. Discrimination based on age consists in different treatment of people of a certain age compared to people of a different age. The United Nations principles refer to protection for people of ages that entail handicaps and cause a particular vulnerability to their bearers; these include stereotypical views of old age as a period of physical and mental decay (Bobek, Boučková & Kühn, 2007).

Ageism also affects the elderly in their work life. Butler defines ageism as a process of systematic stereotypisation and discrimination against people for their age (Vidovićová, 2008). Ageism is "… an attitude that expresses a generally shared conviction of the low value and incompetence of old age, and is manifested by underestimating, refusal or even aversion towards old people. Such an attitude leads to both symbolic and factual discrimination based on age only. … Ageism, just as any other prejudice, oversimplifies and inadequately generalises. … It disregards … individuality and sometimes even the great differences that exist among people in this age category." (Vágneková, 2000, p. 443) Haškovcová (2010) points out that seniors often adopt the stereotypes and identify with them, which affects their assessment of their own situation.

Age management is tightly linked to diversity management. Diversity can be characterised as variety of employees in terms of sex, ethnicity, bodily characteristics, sexual orientation, religion, family status and age. According to a study done by the CSES (Centre for Strategy and Evaluation Services), benefits of active diversity policy – voluntary activities of organisations in selecting, developing and stabilising employees from various social groups – include a boosting of cultural values in the organisation, the organisation's renown, acquisition and stabilisation of highly talented people, improvement of motivation and performance of existing employees, solution to lack of employees, and reduction of fluctuation and absenteeism (The Costs and Benefits of Diversity, 2003). Indicators for evaluation of improving quality of employment (by the European Commission) in connection with age diversity includes elimination of discrimination, skills, lifelong education and career growth, flexibility and securities (Kocianová, 2012). Age discrimination or age diversity are characteristics of the socially responsible conduct of an organisation. Research focuses on the connection between age discrimination and the organisation's performance (e.g., Kunze, Boehm & Bruch, 2011), the application of age diversity tools and its benefits in the workplace, and the connection with age diversity and the organisation's performance (e.g., Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2013; Bieling & Dorozalla, 2014), the importance of diversity in working groups or teams, and its influence on their functioning and efficiency (e.g., Wegge et al., 2012; Kim, Bhave & Glomb, 2013). Age diversity enables intergenerational learning; mutual sharing of knowledge as part of cooperation across generations is very important for organisations.

EMPLOYEE GENERATION CONSTRUCT

In the demographic sense, a generation refers to the average period of time separating parents from offspring (about 25 years) or the set of persons born in the same year or group of years (Echaudemaison, 1995); the term generation is more or less identical to the term coevals. From the sociological point of view, a generation is a large socially differentiated group of persons who are "… connected by a period-conditioned style of thinking and acting and experience significant periods of their socialisation in identical historical and cultural settings. … The sociological-historical concept defines historical specifics based on which and in interaction of which happens the sociological process of coevals, who have socially differentiated needs and interests. … generation consciousness has its roots in opinions and attitudes, which are produced in response to shared identical social settings and situations… If identical conditions for development of generation consciousness exist, a specific generation-bound lifestyle occurs…” (Maříková, Petrusek & Vodáková, 1996, pp. 339–340). The psychic development of an individual progresses in consecutive periods of life that can be characterised by physiological, psychic and social changes. Certain changes are typical of different periods, but there are considerable individual differences in the development of individuals. Nakonečný (1995) provides an essentially stabilised classification of developmental periods, including the prenatal and postnatal periods; the postnatal period includes segmented pre-school age, younger and older school age and adolescence, younger adulthood from years 19 to 30, middle adulthood until the 45th year, older adulthood until the 60th year, initial old age until the 71st year, and advanced old age from the 75th year. Erickson, who deals with the psychic development from the point of view of conflict situation resolution, defines eight life periods, which are not divided evenly; the boundaries between the periods may differ to a various extent across individuals. Erikson distinguishes the first year of life, the second and third years, the fourth and fifth years, the sixth to eleventh years, the twelfth to eighteenth years, younger adulthood, middle adulthood, and old age (Erikson, 1999).

Generations are bound by social events and social conditions, a certain lifestyle, character of social relationships, cultural life, values, attitudes, ideas, etc. Recently, significant attention has been paid to so-called employee generations: generations in relation to their abilities, needs, values and attitudes in the work context. A significant aspect of difference between employee generations in various countries are specific social factors and conditions. Generations are denoted differently and classified differently by age (e.g., Oh & Reeves, 2013); three generations of employees are distinguished by default. The employee generation referred to as baby boomers (or the post-war generation) consists of people born in the period 1946–1964; generation X includes people born 1965–1981/1982, and generation Y includes people born 1982/1983–2000. An important attribute of the baby boomer generation is the need of life securities, including the security of work, workload (they are willing to dedicate a lot of their time to work); it is associated with respect for authorities, the need for appreciation and a focus on material values. Generation X is characterised by the need for security of a good job and the need for a good work environment; they exert considerable work efforts, and the life of generation X is dominated by careers while their personal life is not a priority; they are characterised by postponing the establishment of a family, and money are an important value. The young generation is denoted by the “Y factor” – the phenomenon of the labour market in the new century. Generation Y is associated with considerable expectations in the work context, it strives for professional growth and career (with relevant remuneration and benefits); they do not want to build a professional career to the detriment of personal life, they take into account out-of-work life, time devoted to the family, friends and hobbies; the opportunity for alternative working hours is important for this generation. Generation Y is presented as self-assured, ambitious and flexible, welcoming changes in the workplace and changes of jobs.

From the psychological point of view, work activity has an objective aspect expressed by work behaviour such as performance, efficiency, quality of the employee's work activity results, etc., and a subjective aspect, comprised of satisfaction as a reflection of work and its conditions sieved through an individual "filter" of norms, value orientations, aspirations and expectations related to the work done (Štikar, Rymeš, Riegel & Hoskovec, 2003). In this context, work satisfaction is important as a component of life satisfaction. Life satisfaction is a lingering pleasant state that the individual feels towards people, activities (work included) and institutions (Kováč, 2001). Life satisfaction surveys focus on identification of determinants that significantly affect it (e.g., Emmons & Diener, 1985; Fahrenberg et al., 2001). An individual's life satisfaction reflects their priorities to a certain extent; satisfaction with one's life is based on comparison with a standard made by each person individually (Diener, Suh & Oishi, 1997). Experts point out the fact that subjective perception of life satisfaction changes in the course of one's life due to circumstances, time and experience (e.g., Křivohlavý, 2001). We can distinguish between overall life satisfaction and satisfaction in component areas of life. The relationship between life and work satisfaction is important: for many people, work is an important aspect throughout their life. A person's work satisfaction or dissatisfaction are jointly determined by subjectively perceived and experienced context of their work performance, evaluation of work conditions and circumstances, it is influenced by personality characteristics and individual preferences, and it has an influence on development of work attitudes. An individual's work satisfaction changes in time and situations in the course of their life (Kocianová, 2010).

Of great importance for older employees are the need for a background, security and safety, good relationships with fellow employees; they prefer certainty of work without a threat of unforeseeable changes or loss of employment, and they prefer calm and peace. Older employees find it important to have their own worth confirmed; they attribute importance to reliability, stable performance and experience; their need for self-realisation is also manifested by an interest to pass on their experience. Compared to younger employees, they need assurance of their abilities primarily in order to boost their self-confidence (Vágnerová, 2000). Employment is the main tool of prolongation of their active life. In addition to material resources, employment provides them with opportunities for self-realisation, application of experience, social participation and social contact; it is an important vehicle of social inclusion (Čevela, Kalvach & Čeledová, 2012). A great deal of attention in age management is paid to their work abilities in the context of the influence of age on performance[19]. Older employees' abilities are

[19] Work ability in the context of professional ageing is determined by many work life factors at any age: work requirements, individual propensity to handle work, and work conditions in the organisation. The Finnish Institu-

frequently discussed, including references to difficulties with change, a reduced ability to learn new things, a decrease in physical strength and lack of self-confidence. Vágnerová comments on the need for stimulation and learning that "… older employees do not care very much about new stimuli, they prefer stereotype and routine. They are just as reluctant to learn anything new; they are afraid of new methods, and mostly they no longer have sufficient self-confidence" (Vágnerová, 2000, p. 413). Čevela, Kalvach and Čeledová (2012) point out that although the physical potential decrease with age, the psychic potential may growth. Sak and Kolesárová state (based on research results) advantages of working seniors that include experience, loyalty to the organisation, respect, stability, responsibility, thoroughness, honesty, discipline, carefulness, reliability, precision, consistency, professional wisdom (they are reasonable, capable of recognising what matters, foresighted, detached, mature and circumspect), they are flexible in relation to time, less demanding of remuneration, etc. (Sak & Kolesárová, 2012). Cooper and Locke highlight the positive effect of appreciating an individual or their work on their work satisfaction (Cooper & Locke, 2000). Respect shown to and appreciation of older employees' knowledge and skills is of great importance to them. An ageing person's overall self-evaluation is dependent, among other things, on their achieved education level and the relevant social status. Ageing people with higher education tend to have better self-evaluation than people with lower education levels working manually; intellectual competencies empowered by education are beneficial in this context (Vágnerová, 2000). Older employees with higher education tend to have a significantly greater need for professional growth. Hroník sums up the predominant opinion that talent is not limited by age, but that performance is its criterion, and it is characterised by a prospect of increasing performance (Hroník, 2007). The criterion applied in human resources management and activities should be employees' abilities, not age. At any age, work abilities are codetermined by demands of the work activity, individual propensities to handle work, and work conditions in the organisation.

te of Occupational Health (FIOH) in Helsinki has developed a work ability model, which includes, in addition to the above factors, also family background, effects of the near community and the society. Evaluation (or self-evaluation) of work ability uses the Work Ability Index (WAI) questionnaire, which also reflects the nature of the work: physical or intellectual. The Work Ability Index examines the equilibrium between the work requirements and the individual's propensities. The questionnaire enables identification of subjective perception of factors influencing work ability, of causes of reduced work ability and initiation of change on the part of the individual and the organisation. It provides the individual with self-reflection and stimuli for changes of work attitudes and lifestyle (healthcare); it may provide the organisation with information for measures in ergonomics, occupational safety, motivation for training, people management, etc. (Finnish Institute of Occupational Health; Cimbálníková et al., 2012).

INTERGENERATIONAL KNOWLEDGE SHARING IN AN ORGANISATION

Learning can be generally characterised as a process which leads to change of knowledge, skills, behaviour etc. Three basic kinds (or types) of learning are distinguished: formal, non-formal and informal. Formal learning is "learning that occurs in an organised and structured environment (such as in an education or training institution or on the job) and is explicitly designated as learning (in terms of objectives, time or resources). Formal learning is intentional from the learner's point of view. It typically leads to certification" (CEDEFOP, 2014, p. 99). Non-formal learning is "learning embedded in planned activities not explicitly designated as learning (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support). Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner's point of view. … Non-formal learning outcomes may be validated and may lead to certification. … Non-formal learning is sometimes described as semi-structured learning" (CEDEFOP, 2014, p. 184). Informal learning is "learning resulting from daily activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not organised or structured in terms of objectives, time or learning support. Informal learning is in most cases unintentional from the learner's perspective. … Informal learning outcomes may be validated and certified. … Informal learning is also referred to as experiential or incidental/random learning" (CEDEFOP, 2014, p. 111). "Intergenerational learning is a process through which individuals of all ages acquire skills and knowledge, but also attitudes and values, from daily experience, from all available resources and from all influences in their own 'life worlds'. … Intergenerational practice aims to bring people together in purposeful, mutually beneficial activities which promote greater understanding and respect between generations and may contribute to building more cohesive communities" (Fischer, 2008, p. 5).

Research into intergenerational learning focuses on learning in the family, at school, in the community and at work. Novotný (in an anthology for a seminar involving five European countries, containing papers with empirical findings in connection to various theoretical points of departure) states that the workplace learning concept typically does not have the ambition to supplant or outperform other approaches, but rather "complement them at the research and analysis level and by searching for effective approaches to individuals' development. It is not even a theory because in various cases it works on the basis of already existing theories, such as organisational learning, reflective practice, social constructivism or competency models" (Novotný, 2009, p. 5). Research into intergenerational learning focuses on its various aspects. To a great extent, expert papers in the area of intergenerational transfer provide findings on differences among generations (e.g., Tempest, 2003; Wieck, 2007; Lupou, Dorobanțu & Fiore, 2010). Ramsey quotes significant differences in values, goals, expectations and work habits between younger and older employees. Younger employees are characterised by "…flexibility of values, informality, refusal of boundaries, desire for quick results, distrust to authorities, energy, enthusiasm, knowledge of cutting-edge technologies, use of social networks, …". The older generation is characterised by "determined and structured values, adherence to clear boundaries, inclination towards formality, respect for authorities, experience and detachedness, as well as preference for personal contacts and connections" (Rabušicová, 2011, p. 63). In addition, Rabušicová states that "… this difference may polarise against each other generations sharing the same work space. On the contrary, there may exist such work teams and groups the members of which are capable of tearing down barriers… they typically occur in a specific organisational culture which respects the specified differences and tries to use them to build a so-called win-win work environment, in which all generations can achieve maximum performance and achievements, while mutually sharing knowledge and experience" (Rabušicová, 2011, p. 63).

Intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organisation is grounded in intergenerational learning, but intentional passing of knowledge among employees to be applied, and particularly tacit knowledge, is an important aspect and factor of knowledge sharing. They key aspect in this context is the willingness (motivation) to share one's knowledge, provide it as part of help for others, to the others' benefit and to the organisation's benefit.

Intergenerational knowledge sharing in the workplace should not be understood as only a one-way transfer from older employees to younger ones, but as mutual (both-way) sharing among fellow employees (e.g., Baily, 2007). The intergenerational sharing issue has a relatively broad interdisciplinary dimension; there are significant psychological, sociological and andragogical aspects and organisational management aspects, or those of management of people in organisations. Intergenerational sharing in the workplace is codetermined by many factors that require attention. These factors are on the part of both employees and organisations. On the part of the individuals, there are certain important personality characteristics for knowledge sharing: motivation is fundamental. The part of the organisations includes management of people, strategies for utilising potential of employees in different age groups reflected in human resources strategies and processes and reflecting the organisational culture; the climate in the organisation in terms of age diversity or discrimination may have a significant influence.

Good relationships, understanding and respect among generations (see Fischer, 2008, above) are important aspects of intergenerational learning. Cooperation is characterised by a progress towards a shared goal, mutual help in work towards a shared goal, and an effort to be helpful. Pro-social behaviour may be very important in the context of intergenerational sharing. Záškodná and Mlčák characterise cooperation by a dependency among people, and solidarity as mutual support within a broader social system. Support refers to any form of assistance (assistance or help are potential equivalents to support); social support is defined by a connection of the social system with a specific person. Pro-social behaviour is an interconnected complex of specific personality dispositions affected by many situational conditions and circumstances. Altruistic or pro-social behaviour typically refers to such behaviour that has the others' well-being as its objective. Altruism is characterised by voluntary, selfless behaviour (Záškodná & Mlčák, 2009); it is part of human nature, as people have consideration for others' interests and needs. Sociologists prefer to deal with the development of trust and cooperation in relationships and the impacts of social norms and group identity on decision-making. Altruism and individualism are not mutually exclusive; they are not necessarily in conflict: research has shown the effectiveness of a combination of nice behaviour, revenge, forgiveness and transparency (Marshall, 1998). Intergenerational sharing is fundamentally influenced by individuals' motivation. Reluctance to share knowledge in an organisation very frequently stems from concerns of loss of one's own worth bound to specific knowledge and one's uniqueness. Because of this in particular, knowledge sharing requires attention, influencing of the willingness to share, and rewarding employees for passing on their experience.

People management plays an important role in intergenerational learning and sharing of knowledge. The term management is used and defined with various meanings: as the focus of group processes, human resources work and its consequences, a tool for achieving objectives, an influence, a behaviour manifestation, an art of making understand, a form of persuasion, stimulation, etc. (Miner, 1988). Leadership is defined as a process of an individual influencing a group in order to achieve a share goal, as well as a dynamic power that motivates and coordinates towards achieving the organisation's goals or an art of influencing people by persuasion or leading example (DuBrin, 2010). Leadership occurs wherever one person strives to influence another person's or group's behaviour (Hersey, Blanchard, 1993). True leaders are typically guided by a need to serve others (Senge, 2007). The approach commonly applied in is one where leadership is linked with the existence of followership. Leadership may only occur based on a leader-follower relationship: leaders rise out of followers. Transformational leadership puts an emphasis on employees' inner motivation, higher-level needs and emotions; it emphasises trust, loyalty, support and inspiration (e.g., Hollander, Julian 1981; Yukl 2011). Transformational leadership has attributes identical to authentic leadership, but the latter is viewed as the utmost level of positive leadership (e.g., Khan, 2010). Authentic leadership is characterised by awareness of the organisation's worth, one's own worth and that of others (Novicevic et al., 2006). Both transformational and authentic leadership are characterised by charisma (understood more as the impact of the leader's behaviour on followers), influence, inspiring motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised recognition. Authentic leaders differ from transformational leaders by self-recognition, clear value orientation and convictions which they apply in dealing with others (Bishop, 2013); the conduct of authentic leaders is ethical.

Intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organisation reflects its culture, and is affected by human resource strategies, policies and procedures applied. The human resources system helps generate and store knowledge, facilitate interactions among individuals and groups, and it also helps the passing on of knowledge. In this context, considerable attention needs to be paid to the employee deployment process (including their recruitment and selection), particularly as part of internal mobility (i.e., promotions and transfers to different jobs or workplaces), in order to ensure maximum utilisation of employees' abilities. As for rewarding in the context of intergenerational sharing, both immaterial rewards (employee appreciation) and material remuneration (stimulating motivation to share) are important, e.g., for mentoring as part of new or existing employees' adaptation in a new job within the organisation, for participation in successor schemes or talent management as part of career management and employee education and growth management, such as for the role of a shadowed employee, for hosting internal workshops, internal lecturing, etc. In this context, work performance management processes play a key role, as they represent a comprehensive approach to influencing both work performance and work behaviour that follows growth of individuals' work abilities and subsequent sharing of their knowledge. Internal and external consultancy may contribute to boosting of knowledge sharing in an organisation. What Schein said about the psychological contract (mutual expectations of an individual and an organisation) decades ago is still true: if an organisation expects its employees to be engaged in its goals, it has to reward them for it and create adequate conditions for it (Schein, 1969).

In connection with older employees, Vágnerová says, "To a certain extent, generativity is also connected to the need for personal growth… Generativity is manifested in the professional role by passing of experience on to the next generation. An ageing person needs for their experience to be accepted, and thus its significance to be confirmed for future. … If this experience is beneficial in any way, it improves the ageing person's sense of their own worth" (Vágnerová, 2000, p. 415). Where the employee roll needs to be reduced, it is relatively frequent that senior employees are selected for redundancy (based on the age criterion) without considering their knowledge. Thus, the organisation may lose valuable experience and the actual "organisation's memory". In some cases, it may be very expedient for an organisation after the retirement of senior employees with experience and knowledge of the organisation to continue cooperating in the form of consultation, involvement in projects, etc. A survey carried out by the European Commission in 2006 and including forty-one case studies in eleven EU member states (including the Czech Republic) provides a recommendation to retain older employees as employees in an organisation. Among other things, it includes among beneficial features of strategies and procedures of age structure management in an organisation notably age management planning, establishment of an organisational structure promoting age management, creation of an age diversity of employees and elimination of age discrimination in workplaces, as well as retention and rewarding of older employees' knowledge and skills, providing them with access to education and growth schemes and career growth, and manage the passing of knowledge (Kocianová, 2012). Intergenerational sharing in an organisation is significantly affect by the age diversity or age discrimination climate. As attested by research, the climate has an effect on employee performance (e.g., Kunze, Boehm & Bruch, 2011; Bieling & Dorozalla, 2014), as well as employee loyalty and work satisfaction.

As stated by Armstrong (2007), human resources managers may assist knowledge sharing by managing knowledge in an organisation. It is important as part of the organisation's culture that they emphasise the importance of knowledge transfer, make efforts to improve the climate of trust by leading people to self-identification with the organisation's goals and values, including processes of generating, expanding and passing of knowledge. Of critical importance are their recommendations for the organisation's layout and development in order to facilitate knowledge transfer by means of networks, work groups and teams. Support of human resources managers is required for acquisition and retention of valuable employees contributing to generation and passing of knowledge. It is a task for human resources managers to recommend methods for motivating people to willingness to pass on their knowledge, method for rewarding for passing of knowledge, and assist in creating work performance management processes with an emphasis on knowledge generation and transfer. A fundamental task of human resources managers is to assist in creating training processes forming knowledge and supporting its expansion, to design and organise discussions, seminars and conferences enabling the passing of information "from person to person", and use information technologies to create systems for acquisition and (if possible) systematic sorting of both explicit and tacit knowledge.

CONCLUSION

Issues of employee cooperation, learning and knowledge sharing has been elaborated progressively in management since the early 20th century. Representatives of both classic schools and modern approaches have paid attention on cooperation among individuals, cooperation between managers and employees, in groups and teams, and social relationships in the context of cooperation and their factors. The concepts of the learning organisation, intellectual capital and knowledge management have been elaborated since the 1990s. These serve as an important theoretical basis for intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organization. The learning organisation concept focuses on generating new knowledge inside the organisation, its systematic interconnection, and on how learning of individuals and in teams happens. The topic of organisations' human capital has been developed significantly; it comprises knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviour and energy of people invested in work. This capital is owned by people, who decide on its investment in the organisation's interest. Intellectual capital comprises knowledge available to the organisation; besides human capital, it includes social and organisational capital. Whereas human capital is bound to individuals, social capital comprises relationships among people both inside and outside the organisation, knowledge generated by social interactions of people. Organisational capital is the organisation's knowledge, generated from the people's knowledge, but it is stored and remains the organisation's property. Knowledge management is the tool for developing organisational capital; its concept strives for knowledge sharing and utilisation both inside and outside the organisation; it focuses on transfer of knowledge from those who have it to those who need it. The problematic aspect of knowledge management is the management of transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. Knowledge is owned by people and cannot be managed; only conditions that should assist mutual exchange of knowledge and support individuals' interest in sharing it to the organisation's benefit can be managed.

The evolution of the age management concept is related to population ageing, which has stimulated an increase in attention paid to older groups of employees. At the organisation level, age management consists in managing the employees' age structure, and a focus on all employee age groups. Age diversity in organisations, work groups and teams enables intergenerational learning and knowledge sharing in the workplace. Age discrimination and ageism or age diversity have an effect on the functioning and efficiency of work groups, and the organisation's performance. The age management concept in an organisation is then focused on relevant measures in the employee management system. Age management pays attention to so-called employee generations, typically referred to as baby boomers, generation X and generation Y, which are characterised by different abilities, needs, values and attitudes in the work context, different goals and expectations and work satisfaction factors.

Intergenerational knowledge sharing in an organisation is grounded in intergenerational learning, but it accentuates intentional mutual passing of primarily tacit knowledge among employees to be applied, its provision as aid to others, to the others' and the organisation's benefit. Individuals' motivation to share knowledge is absolutely essential. Willingness to share one's knowledge, particularly in older employees, may be affected by concerns of losing one's own worth for the organisation and one's replaceability. Intergenerational knowledge sharing requires attention regarding management of people and human resources processes. Of great importance is the climate of age diversity or discrimination, reflecting the organisation's strategy in the area of utilisation of the potential of employees of different age groups. Intergenerational knowledge sharing is promoted by employee deployment processes, reflecting utilisation of their abilities, rewarding of employees for knowledge sharing, and conditions for stabilisation of employees who contribute to knowledge generation and sharing.

6

SOCIAL SUPPORT AS AN ASPECT OF SOCIAL INTEGRATION OF THE POLES LIVING IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Helena Záškodná and Tereza Záškodná

INTRODUCTION

Immigration, leaving home for a foreign country, constitutes an extraordinary life event that places increased demands on the individual's adaptation. When coping with challenging life situations, the human deals with different sources of reinforcement and help. When disregarding the personality resources (e.g. physical fitness, hardiness, self-efficacy, optimism), the external resources include, first of all, social resources, particularly social support. It constitutes the social reserve, available if needed. Social support as a form of cooperation or help is an integral part of human development. Human evolution has found place under social conditions in which different forms of cooperation and solidarity with other people constituted an important condition for survival. In an endangering situation, the human seeks not only help but also support from others. "Social support is assumed (which is confirmed by the main research stream) to facilitating the individual to cope with stress. It allows the individual to integrate, to create own identity, to build and maintain self-confidence, to regulate feelings; it helps to cope with stress; it allows control and management" (Mareš, 2003, p. 34).

One of the oldest, very nice and fitting definitions, characterizes social support as "reflection of information from other people that they love, are interested in, appreciate and respect the individual, that the individual is included in a communication network and mutual commitments. Such information may come from the partner, the lover, the children, the friends, or from the environment of social and communication contacts like the church or social clubs" (Cobb, 1976 in Hewstone & Stroebe, 2006, p. 607).

The above stated characteristics show how important social support is for life, and how strongly it is bound to satisfaction of basic human needs. Křivohlavý (1994, 2001) mentions those needs in detail, including the need of social safety, friendship, mutuality, recognition, cooperation, integration, etc.

Social support constitutes a construct with structural and functional aspects. Structural aspects are usually seen as quantitative indicators like the extensiveness and density of individual social network, the number of close persons that can be approached by the individual in need. Functional aspects of social support consist of the quality of interpersonal relationships for the support recipient, i.e. the level of fulfilment of function of the relationships. Functional aspects include, according to House (1981), e.g. emotional support (expression of affection, sympathy, love, gratitude), instrumental support (provision of practical material help, funds, favours, care in disease), assessing support (suggestion of adequate ways to solve a life problem), evaluation support (provision of affirmative evaluation in doubts). Similar classification of social support is stated by Cohen and Wills (1985) – emotional, informational, friendly and material. *Informational* support consists in provision of useful advice. *Friendly* support is related to the opportunity to be in a community, be it at leisure, recreational or other activities. *Material* support consists in giving or lending material means, money, or practical help. *Emotional* support consists in expressing the feeling that the person receiving help is positively appreciated and respected, loved and belonging to us.

Objective moments include availability of help and the level at which the individual can rely upon it if needed. They are related to anticipated social support, meaning "the individual's belief to be accepted by the others who are ready to help the individual if needed" (Kebza, 2005, pp. 162–163). It is an opinion related to expectations in relation to other people.

In common life, the positive effect of social support manifests independently of whether the individual is in stress. Positive relations to people, expressed favour, understanding and affection create a pleasant situation of mutuality and well-being, which may have direct effect on health, regardless of whether the individual is or is not experiencing stress (Kebza, 2005).

Social support may be provided by an individual, but it also may result from a broader social circuit, from a social network consisting of groups of friends, or from an institution in the area of the state, education system, or social care (Mareš, 2002). Social support offered for example by a self-help group, consisting of persons with a similar health handicap or another handicap, acts as a mediator between stress and the result of its effects. Their members state that satisfactory social bonds, originated within the group, inhibit their maladaptive defence reactions, reduce anxiety and helplessness (Záškodná, & Bolková, 2012).

In recent decades, experts highlight the relation between lifestyle diseases and stress. Initiatives for research of social support have come from the area of epidemiology. They pointed out the fact that while in the past, mankind was endangered by infection epidemics, today, cardiovascular diseases and cancer are the main killers. There are many studies suggesting a relation between low level of social support and diseases, e.g. heart diseases. Friedman (2002), in his Health Psychology, presents studies that are today classical in that area and quotes top researchers including D. A. Bakal, I. G. Sarason, and J. S. House. Our authors offering summarizing and empirical studies dealing with the relation of social support and health / disease / well-being, are for example Hladký, 1993; Šolcová & Kebza, 1999; Křivohlavý, 2001; Mareš, 2001, 2002, 2003; Šolcová & Kebza, 2002, 2005; Kebza, 2005; Blatný, Dosedlová, Kebza, & Šolcová, 2005.

In connection with the description and analysis of the character of social support of Polish respondents, we were interested in the following indicators: maintenance of the respondents' contacts with persons from their country of origin; presence of persons on whose help they can rely in need; number of friends; and the situation of neighbour relations. We also asked about subjective appreciation by the majority society and about feelings of general satisfaction among the Czech.

Contacts of the Poles with people from their mother country and their importance to the respondents

Most respondents (91.3%) maintain contacts with people from their mother country; only 8.7% respondents do not maintain contacts (Table 6). The women, as the more affiliative gender, with stronger orientation to other people and with generally higher social activities as compared to men, show higher level of practised contacts (95.7% in women as against 84.2% in men).

Table 1. Maintenance of respondents' contacts with people from their mother country

Do you maintain contacts with people from your mother country?		
gender	**yes**	**no**
men	84.2%	15.8%
women	95.7%	4.3%
total	91.3%	8.7%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

The importance of such acquaintances is evidenced by the high percentage of respondents who scored in the five-point Likert scale in graduated ranges of importance of compatriots from their country of origin.

The acquired results are presented in Table 2. The respondents are classified in five columns by the degree of subjective importance of contacts with compatriots. The two largest portions of probands consider social relations with people from their mother country important for themselves. The total number of answers in the range of *very* or *rather important* amounts to 81.7% of the research set. To 15% of respondents, the contacts have neutral value, while to 3.4%, the relations are unimportant (the sum of variants of rather, very unimportant).

Although a high percentage of probands reported persisting contacts with compatriots, as well as the fact that such people are important to them, a lot of the probands do not believe that their compatriots would support them in a situation of material or non-material need (Table 3). A large social network, represented by five, six and more people from the mother country who would help to master financial problems, is reported by 18% of men and 21% of women.

Table 2. Importance of contacts from mother country to respondents

Are such contacts important to you?					
gender	**very important**	**rather important**	**neither important nor unimportant**	**rather unimportant**	**very unimportant**
men	42.1%	29.8%	22.8%	3.5%	1.8%
women	60.7%	28.1%	9.0%	1.1%	1.1%
total	53.4%	28.8%	14.4%	2.1%	1.4%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

The respondents link potential non-financial support with higher number of compatriots. Five, or possibly six and more compatriots ready to help are anticipated by 32.8% of men and 50.8% of women. The above stated gender difference is statistically significant at 1% level. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 8.71 > 6.64$.

Table 3. Anticipated social support from people from mother country

How many people from your mother country would help you if you need help with something? Financial help						
gender	**nobody**	**1**	**2**	**3–4**	**5**	**6 and more**
men	14.0%	22.0%	36.0%	10.0%	10.0%	8.0%
women	6.0%	26.9%	25.4%	20.9%	9.0%	11.9%
How many people from your mother country would help you if you need help with something? Other than financial help						
gender	nobody	1	2	3–4	5	6 and more
men	12.2%	8.2%	20.4%	16.3%	10.2%	32.6%
women	3.1%	9.2%	16.9%	20.0%	16.9%	33.9%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

The respondents – men – expect most frequently that they could address two people from their mother country in case of financial and other than financial problems (36.0% and 20.4%); women expect most frequently that they could address one person in case of financial problems (26.9%). But in case of non-financial problems (seeking advice when solving personal, family, work problems, seeking company, etc.), the women anticipate potential help from a larger group of acquaintances and friends, i.e. up to six and more persons (33.9%). The respondents include also people who do not have any person in their mother country whom they could ask for help in need. The proportion of such individuals is higher in the subset of men, as compared to women (14.0% and 12% men *vs* 6% and 3.1% women).

The subsets of men and women are, according to the individual degrees of Likert scale applied, homogeneous, i.e. both subsets show approximately equal data distribution in the area of the anticipated number of persons ready to provide financial or other help. The gender difference for anticipated financial help (from mother country) is not significant. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 0.281 < 3.94$, at 5% significance level. The gender difference for anticipated non-financial help (from mother country) is not significant. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 2.55 < 3.94$, at 5% significance level.

The anticipated social support from compatriots from the mother country result in feelings of satisfaction in overwhelming majority of the respondents (Tables 4 and 5). 90% of women scored in ranges of satisfaction (very satisfied, rather, average satisfied) with the predicted number of people from the mother country, ready to provide financial help. The anticipated non-financial help results in satisfaction of 93% of women. The range of dissatisfaction (rather dissatisfied, very dissatisfied) with the number of compatriots who could help with financial or non-financial problems included 10% and 7% of women. The percentage of satisfied men is a little lower; 81.9% expressed satisfaction with the expected help from the mother country in case of financial need, while 18.8% are not satisfied. The satisfaction of men with the expected number of helpers in case of non-financial need amounts to 83%; on the other hand, 17% men consider the number of potential helpers low and are not satisfied with such expectation.

Table 4. Satisfaction with anticipated number of people from mother country, ready to provide financial help

How are you satisfied with the number of people from your mother country who would provide you financial help?					
gender	**very dissatisfied**	**rather dissatisfied**	**average satisfied**	**rather satisfied**	**very satisfied**
men	9.6%	9.6%	32.7%	26.9%	21.2%
women	5.6%	4.2%	14.1%	35.2%	40.8%
total	7.3%	6.5%	22.0%	31.7%	32.5%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

The data in Tables 4 and 5 illustrate distinctive differences in satisfaction between the subsets of men and women, with regard to the estimated number of people from Poland ready to provide help. Women show higher anticipated support; they are more convinced of the possibility of getting help from their compatriots (relatives, friends, colleagues from their branch), and such expectation brings them demonstrably higher inner satisfaction than to men. The statistical evidential force of the above stated difference was measured by F test.

Table 5. Satisfaction with anticipated number of people from mother country, ready to provide non-financial help

How are you satisfied with the number of people from your mother country who would provide you non-financial help?					
gender	**very dissatisfied**	**rather dissatisfied**	**average satisfied**	**rather satisfied**	**very satisfied**

men	11.3%	5.7%	32.1%	26.4%	24.5%
women	4.3%	2.9%	8.6%	42.9%	41.4%
total	7.3%	4.1%	18.7%	35.8%	34.1%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

The difference between men and women in satisfaction with the number of people from their mother country, who would provide financial help, is statistically significant at 1% level. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 6.81>6.64$.

Also the gender difference in satisfaction with the number of people from their mother country, who would provide non-financial help, is statistically significant at 1% level. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 15.992>6.64$.

Table 6. Anticipated social support from people from the Czech Republic

How many people from the Czech Republic would help you if you need help with something? Financial help						
gender	**nobody**	**1**	**2**	**3–4**	**5**	**6 and more**
men	14.0%	30.0%	18.0%	14.0%	2.0%	22.0%
women	12.0%	32.0%	18.7%	17.3%	10.7%	9.3%
How many people from the Czech Republic would help you if you need help with something? Other than financial help						
gender	nobody	1	2	3–4	5	6 and more
men	8.0%	16.0%	14.0%	10.0%	14.0%	38.0%
women	9.1%	11.7%	15.6%	18.2%	15.6%	29.9%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

As Table 6 shows, the individual answer categories are distributed all over Likert scale, although not completely evenly. From the perspective of subjective estimate of the number of Czech persons who would provide help at request, the following order can be set. Most frequently, one kind Czech person who would provide help is stated; the second place is not identical for men and women; the men state six and more willing persons, while the women state two persons; then three to four persons follow; further no person; and five potential helpers from the Czech Republic is stated at the last place.

Table 7. Satisfaction with anticipated number of people from the Czech Republic, ready to provide financial help

How are you satisfied with the number of Czech citizens who would provide you financial help?					
gender	**very dissatisfied**	**rather dissatisfied**	**average satisfied**	**rather satisfied**	**very satisfied**
men	14.8%	5.6%	27.8%	31.5%	20.4%
women	8.3%	6.0%	21.4%	39.3%	25.0%
total	10.9%	5.8%	23.9%	36.2%	23.2%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

In case of non-financial problems, the estimate of persons from the Czech Republic who would help the respondents is higher, similarly to the estimated number of willing people from the mother country. The respondents estimate to be able to address six and more persons from the Czech Republic (38.0% men and 29.9% women). The proportion of the following respondent categories is approximately the same; the lowest representation shows the category: *none* of the Czechs would help me.

The subsets of men and women are, according to the individual degrees of the scale applied, homogeneous, i.e. both subsets show approximately equal data distribution in the area of the anticipated number of persons from the Czech Republic ready to provide financial or other help.

Table 8. Satisfaction with anticipated number of people from the Czech Republic, ready to provide non-financial help

How are you satisfied with the number of Czech citizens who would provide you other than financial help?					
gender	**very dissatisfied**	**rather dissatisfied**	**average satisfied**	**rather satisfied**	**very satisfied**
men	13.0%	11.1%	29.6%	24.1%	22.2%
women	7.1%	5.9%	20.0%	35.3%	31.8%

total	9.4%	7.9%	23.7%	30.9%	28.1%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

As for satisfaction with the anticipated number of people from the Czech Republic, ready to provide non-financial help, the data in Table 8 document approximately three-quarter predominance of positive answers (75.4% for men and 86.7% for women) over negative answers (24.6% men and 13.3% women). The result evidences good interconnection of the Poles with social environment in the Czech Republic and their competence in the area of creation of a high-quality social background. That corresponds to the negligible percentage of Poles (1.9% of women and 0% of men) who feel bad among Czech fellow citizens (Table 9). But the following question reveals the character of the subjective feelings (Table 10).

Table 9. How do you feel among Czechs?

gender	very good	good	neutral (neither good nor bed)	very bad
men	40.4%	35.1%	24.6%	0.0%
women	45.8%	34.6%	17.8%	1.9%
total	43.9%	34.8%	20.1%	1.2%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

Table 10 evidences high percentage of respondents who feel as good in the Czech environment as in their country of origin – in Poland (58.3% men and 72% women), or perhaps even better (25% men and 20% women); but up to 11.4% respondents feel worse in the Czech Republic than in their country of origin (16.7% men and 8% women).

Table 10. How do you feel in the Czech Republic, as compared to Poland?

gender	better than in my country of origin	similarly to my country of origin	worse than in my country of origin
men	25.0%	58.3%	16.7%
women	20.0%	72.0%	8.0%
total	22.0%	66.7%	11.4%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

More than a half of the probands rank the Czech-Polish relations at a five-point Likert scale in the average category (Table 11). When excluding that medium category and making bipolar classification of relations in the range of positive *vs* negative, the above stated result is seen in somewhat different light (the *positive* category consists of the sum of points at the scale of very good and excellent; *negative* – very bad, bad).

Mutual relations of the Czechs and the *Polish* national *minority* are ranked as benign and positive by 41.1% persons, as compared to 6% persons who rank them as malign and negative. The gender differences measured by F-test are statistically insignificant. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 0.16<3.94$ at 5% significance level.

Table 11. Subjective evaluation of the relation between the Polish minority and the Czechs

How would you evaluate the relations between your national group and the Czechs?					
gender	**very bad**	**bad**	**average**	**very good**	**excellent**
men	0%	6.7%	53.3%	38.3%	1.7%
women	0.9%	4.6%	52.8%	37.0%	4.6%
total	0.6%	5.4%	53.0%	37.5%	3.6%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

A high percentage of respondents (37.1%) feel to have enough friends (Table 12); they answered *rather yes* whether they have enough friends. The answer *yes, I think I have enough friends* was given by 29.8%; the answer *neither yes nor no* was given by 14.9%; rather not, by 11.3%, the answer *no* was given by 6.9% respondents.

Table 12. Subjective perception of the extent of social support

Do you think to have enough friends?	
no	6.9%
rather no	11.3%
neither yes nor no	14.9%
rather yes	37.1%
yes	29.8%

Source: COST study: "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" (identification number: LD 13044).

It is evident that the core of the subjective feeling from the number of friends is situated in the medium category of answers, *rather yes, I have enough friends*.

If Table 12, for simplification, joins the categories of *yes* and *rather yes* to a common category of *yes*, and the categories of *rather no* and *no* to a common category of *no*, the following finding can be stated. Two thirds of probands (66.9%) perceive the number of their friends as sufficient, while only 18.2% considers it insufficient; therefore the respondents are, regardless of other key indicators – age and gender – rather satisfied than dissatisfied with the number of their friends in general. The gender differences in satisfaction with the number of friends are statistically significant. Critical value $F_{1/\infty} = 3.96 > 3.94$ at 5% significance level.

CONCLUSION

Social support constitutes a factor whose effects may modify the effects of challenging life situation on human health. The protective effect of social support is found by a number of studies, in spite of the uncertainty prevailing in understanding of the essence of its effect. Lack of friendly relations to other people, missing positive acceptance and appreciation and general absence of social connection may have depressing, weakening effect. That may finally complicate managing of life or health problems.

When assessing social support of the Poles, we considered the following indicators: type of residence in our territory, the anticipated social support from people from the mother country and from the Czech Republic, the density of social network that may provide support.

Out of the total number of 197 respondents, an overwhelming majority maintains permanent contacts with people from their country of origin – from Poland (with relatives, friends, colleagues from their branch). The character of relations with their compatriots is very good; most respondents estimate that, if in need, they will get both financial and other than material help (emotional support, friendly advice). In that context, it should be pointed out that a great part of the respondents have been living in the Czech Republic for more than 15 years, with registered permanent residence. It is therefore quite surprising that, after so many years of separation, the contacts with the compatriots from Poland have not suffered and are still firm and deep, leading the respondents to trust in getting help if in need.

The contacts are important to the respondents, particularly to women (the gender difference is statistically significant at 1% level). The generally more extrovert women (that dispositional personality feature is included in the gender differences (Costa, McCrae, 1997;) show, with typical openness towards outer world and contacts with people, a very good anticipated social support, given by greater extent and density of social network both in their mother country and in the Czech Republic, as compared to men. Higher sociability, optimism and kindness of the women constitutes one of the sources of their trust in potential help from the larger group of compatriots and from the Czechs, including the satisfaction resulting from that trust. The men, whose dispositional personality characteristics include introversion more frequently, do not carry out as much social activity as the extroverts and are usually more dependent on the social world. However, the lower density of their anticipated social networks across the Czech Republic and their mother country provokes less satisfaction in them than in the women. Twice as many Polish men than Polish women feel worse in the Czech Republic than in their country of origin. Similarly, the relations between the Polish national minority and the Czech majority are perceived by men less positively than by women.

Of course, the above stated gender differences can by far not be explained only by the extroversion-introversion factor. The type of residence of the Poles on the Czech territory (permanent, temporary residence), the reasons of residence in the Czech Republic (job, family union, etc.), their social-economic status, general adaptability, health condition, etc. certainly play their role as well. Also, the number of respondents is not sufficiently high to create completely valid conclusions.

But it should be stressed that the number of Poles living on the Czech territory, who perceive their social situation positively, prevails significantly over the number of less socially integrated and satisfied persons. In general, the level of social integration of the Polish respondents in the Czech society can be evaluated as very good. No significant displays of social inequalities that could have negative impact on the health of that ethnic minority were detected.

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7

EFFECTIVE HELPING BY USING PRECISE DIAGNOSTICS

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INTRODUCTION

Human development should lead towards the growth of a healthy, adult personality, able to live life fully and efficiently and to manage individual life tasks, as well as function in society and be its valuable member. In the process of development, however, individual faces a number of threats and negative circumstances that threaten or impair the achievement of these goals and represent a risk for individual as well as for the society (in a broader sense). Dealing with these threats is not only an individual's own ultimate goal, but help and support should be provided also by some people around – parents, siblings, closest friends, but also teachers, educators, psychologists, and more generally the state (through the Ministry of Education and other institutions).

In other words, a normal healthy development is largely dependent on the helping from the surroundings. This helping is crucial not only in the process of coping with developmental disruptions, risks and threats, but in a broader perspective constitutes one of the fundamental factors affecting the healthy development of children and youth, and shaping their personality.

The paper focuses on the current procedures of state in the care for youth (in the context of development threats), describes the underlying factors, and in relation to these facts presents a draft of amendment of methodology for screening and prevention of developmental disruptions and backing of health at elementary and high school youth. This methodology represents a diagnostic tool that provides default information for effective helping youth with their developmental processes, as well as with managing of risks that threaten this development.

DEVELOPMENTAL THREATS AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS

A large portion of developmental threats and disruptions in childhood has its origins in the family. Family is an important environment for the development of solid social ties and trust (Sobotková, 2007; Macek, 2003). The family creates confidence in oneself, motivational characteristics, attitudes toward oneself and personal surroundings, teaches the forms of verbal and non-verbal communication (Sobotková, 2007; Matoušek, 1993). Literature (Sobotková, 2007; Matoušek, 1993) places as the main functions of family emotional, socialization-educational, economicly-ecuring and biological-reproductive function (Sobotková, 2007). At the same time the family is seen as indispensable and crucial social unit, through which the process of socialization and acculturation of the individual is realized (ibid.). According to the overall level of quality of family cohabitation, Sobotková (2007) divides the family to *eufunctional family* that ensures optimal physical and mental development of the child; *troubled family* that evince a disorder of the basal functions that basically do not (jeopardize) – treaten the existence of the family or the child's healthy development; *dysfunctional families* in which there is serious disturbance of some or all of the functions that harm the family as a whole and disrupt a child's development; and finally, the *afunctional family*, which is typical by the occurrence of family functions failures that make it impossible for the child to develop, and grossly distort the existence and meaning of family coexistence.

Macek (2003) considers family as the most important predictor of problem behavior that thus represents a great source of potential developmental threats. Literature reports some factors: family relationships, poor or no communication between family members, alcohol presence in the family, conflicts, education of parents, family climate, parental attitudes, opinions and beliefs, unclear family rules, poor discipline, parental control of child – monitoring, parental hostility, lack of emotional support, passivity and rejection by parents, (in)sufficient funds, abuse, family violence, divorce, parental psychopathology, parental antisocial behavior, parenting at a very young age, family structure, large families or the absence of one parent, especially the father (Ondrejkovič & Poliaková, 1999; Matoušek & Kroftová, 1998; Verešová, 2004; Širůček, Širůčková & Macek, 2007; Friborg, Barlaug, Martinusse, Fosenvige & Hjemdal, 2005). But even the most favorable family environment doesn't necessarily provide full protection against risky behavior. For example missing father has been proved as risky in the education of boys. Father acts as an authority against which the child will not allows as much as he allows against the mother. Thus he is acting as a factor that prevents son's delinquency (Macek, 2003; Clayton, 1992; Dillon et al., 2007). Macek (2003) states that young offenders mark their family environment as very cold and without parental interest. Studies (Matoušek & Kroftová, 1998; Macek, 2003; Friborg et al., 2005; Širůček et al., 2007) point to the sensitive and affectionate mutual relationships between parents and children and their impact on lower rates of aggression and problem behavior, such as a higher level of social capabilities and positive relationships with peers. Hostile relationship between the mother and daughter has proved to be a risk, because the lack of emotional support from parents guides children into drug use and dysfunctional coping strategies (Macek, 2003).

In the context of risk behavior (as manifestation of developmental threats) that is generally understood as such behavior which threatens the individual and society (Moore, Gullone & Košťanská, 1997), we also speak about at-risk youth, i.e. "youth, at whom there is increased likelihood of failure in social and psychological areas due to interaction of several factors" (Labáth, 2001, p. 11). There is evidence that some of the symptoms occur together. Jessor and colleagues (1995, 2003) named this phenomenon as "problem behavior syndrome". At-risk adolescent doesn't necessarily represent an aggressive, repeatedly convicted offender. It can be calm and shy young man. Likewise, there may not be limits of socioeconomic status, geographical location, or ethnicity (Širůček et al., 2007). As at-risk youth we can consider those at which there is a combination of biological, psychological and social factors that results to a greater likelihood of delinquent, antisocial or self-destructing behavior (Wright, 1994).

Ostaszewski and Zimmerman (2006) state that many researches on adolescent risk behavior focus on individual risks or protective factors. It turns out that there is a linear relationship between the number of risk factors and negative outcomes in adolescents, supporting new researches aimed on early identification of risk factors at youth (Ostaszewski & Zimmerman, 2006; Comas-Diaz et al., 2008; Trentacosta et al., 2008). Resilience research seems as equally important.

From literature review (Masten, 2001; Newman & Blackburn, 2002; Comas-Diaz, Luthar, Maddi, O'Neill, Saakvinte & Tedaschii, 2008; Šolcová, 2009) we can overall say that resilience is a process of positive adaptation despite adversity (misfortune), trauma, tragedy, threats or other significant source of stress, such as family and peer problems, or serious health, work and financial problems. Ali, Dwyer, Vanner and Lopez (2010) support the assumption that resilient adolescents are more able to handle the stress and avoid risky behavior.

Individual's level of resilience is probably determined by a wide variety of factors. Previous studies (Campbell-Sills, Forde & Stein, 2009) suggest *genetic, biological, psychological and environmental* factors. All of these factors play significant, important role. Resilience is a lifelong process that has own development and fluctuations. Development of resilience is individual, each person reacts differently to traumatic and stressful life events. People use different strategies to build their own resilience, sometimes reflecting cultural, gender and age differences (Dillon et al., 2007; Comas-Diaz et al., 2008; Šolcová, 2009).

Resilience research involves such factors as family, school achievements, society etc. The main goal of research is to find a connection between risk and resilience factors and to find the conditions under which resilience best and most effectively reduces risks. Such examination helps in development of programs aimed on building of resilience in primary, secondary or college education (Šolcová, 2009; Comas-Diaz et al., 2008; Dillon et al., 2007).

According to some authors (Friborg et al., 2005; Constantine, Benard, & Diaz, 1999; Kopuničová & Orosová, 2011; Comas-Diaz et al., 2008; Macek, 2003; Verešová, 2004; Werner & Smith, 1992; Kia-Keating, Dowdy, Morgan & Noam, 2011; Ostaszewski & Zimmerman, 2006; Širůček et al., 2007) one indicator of the resilience is family cohesion, i.e. mutual commitment, support and help that family members provide each other. Low levels of family cohesion, family conflicts, unclear norms, ineffective children monitoring, lack of social support, parental indifference or lack of emotional support are important risk factors (developmental threats) that may predict risk behavior. Conversely strong family bonds, a sense of belonging, clear communication with parents, and joint activities represent protective factors that reduce the likelihood of risk behavior (Friborg et al., 2005; Comas-Diaz et al., 2008; Šolcová, 2009; Jessor et al., 1995; Veselská et al., 2009; Kopuničová & Orosová, 2011). Equally important factor contributing to resilience factor is called social resources, which include strong relationships with family members and friends, strong family structure, common solution of family problems, sufficient amount of peer friends, the opportunity to share problems, having someone who helps in distress, and having sufficient support from either family or from friends (Luther, 1991; Luther, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). All above mentioned aspects of family are reflecting also into other areas of youth life and affects his functioning in these spheres (such as school, leisure time, peers etc.).

Another important factor in the development of adolescents is the school environment and leisure time that include developmental threats like school climate, school organization and social environment, poor school performance, low aspirations, life in a poor family, underestimation by the teacher or parents, teacher's personality etc. (Clayton, 1992; Friborg et al., 2005). The school operates on a system of compliments (reward) for success, compliance, and obedience. Children who "stand out" often become target of bullying. Therefore, there is an important role for teachers.

Also leisure time problems with peers, friends and gangs that include rejection by peers, peers ridicule, humiliation, cigarettes smoking, groups, or gangs in which occurs criminal activity – antisocial peer groups are seemed as important, when we examine risk behavior and developmental threats (Clayton, 1992; Šolcová, 2009; Friborg et al., 2005; Kopuničová & Orosová, 2011; Dimoff & Carper, 1994 as cited in Poliaková, Popelková, Sollárová & Verešová, 2000). In adolescence youth separate from parents, try to find their place among their peers and confirm their value and place in society.

In this context, the peer influence has a tendency to increase or become stronger with weakening and worsening of family ties and lower interest of the family. The risk lies in missing supervision by parents, boredom and experimentation. Belonging to a group thus supports positive self-esteem, but also creates the risk of strengthening undesirable ways of behavior.

Social environment is a prerequisite for coaching resilience that can be tested and influenced by adverse experiences at youth (Luther, 1991). Just social context can provide opportunities for a sense of social recognition, love and volition (that helps develop resilience at youth) or vice versa, can promote a sense of vulnerability that hinders the development of resilience (and development in general) and results in the initiation of activities that threaten health (Luther et. al., 2000).

Another risk factors (developmental threats) most frequently reported in the literature are genetic factors, gender, age, temperament traits, parental discipline, parental supervision, drug use, availability of drugs, low interest in education, school failure, low self-esteem, self-indulgent behavior, expected consequences, society, school, etc. (Dillion et al., 2007; Wright, 1994).

Operationalization and measurement of resilience is also an important priority in psychiatry and health psychology research, because understanding the positive adaptation to stress can help in prevention and intervention efforts, concentrated to help individuals recover from stressful events and stress-related disorders (e.g. post-traumatic stress disorder) (Friborg et al., 2005).

Longitudinal developmental studies (Wright, 1994; Benard, 1997; Benard, 1991; Werner & Smith, 1982) followed children born into extreme, high-risk conditions such as poverty, disease- and war-affected societies, as well as families with alcoholics, drug addicts, physical or sexual violence or mental illness. In pursuing these children into adulthood, researchers have documented that at least 50% and normally 70% of these children growing up in high-risk environments have grown to credible, competent and caring people. These studies provide evidence that the impact of positive influences (internal and external protective factors) can overcome significant life adversities and support the idea that early identification of potential developmental threats as well as the promotion of individual's positive aspects are important activities that need to be systematically supported.

CURRENT WAYS OF MANAGING OF DEVELOPMENTAL THREATS IN SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Like other countries in the European Union, Czech Republic includes prevention of developmental disorders (developmental disruptions) in its legislation. Recommended way of organization of prevention activities is determined particularly by the Regulation of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports No. 72 of 2005 about the provision of counselling services in schools and educational establishments and its amendment (Regulation No. 116 of 2011). Counselling facilities under this ordinance are Pedagogical-psychological counselling (PPC) and Special pedagogical centers (SPC), newly also Educational care centers (ECC). The content of advisory services, inter alia, is “creation of favorable conditions for the healthy physical, mental and social development of pupils, for development of their personalities before the start of education and during the education”, further “the prevention and management of teaching and educational problems, of symptoms of various forms of risk behavior that precedes of socio-pathological phenomena and of other issues related to education and to motivation to overcome problematic situations” and ultimately “mitigation of disability, health deprivation and social disadvantages and prevention of their occurrence”.

PPC and SPC provide methodological assistance to schools, each school also has a duty to create its own long-term “School Prevention Strategy” and every year issue “minimum preventive program” for internal purposes. Consulting department of school is usually made up of school counsellor and prevention specialist, who work together with classroom teachers, teachers of civics and other educational staff. Small schools often combine these two functions for practical reasons. In contrast, large schools that have over 500 students can ideally extend the staff by school psychologist and school special educator.

The Coordination of creation and control of the implementation of the prevention program is by the law the task of prevention specialist. Its tasks are defined more specifically than for school counselling facility, he coordinates and participates in school activities, aimed at preventing truancy, addiction, violence, vandalism, sexual abuse, abuse by sects, precriminal and criminal behavior, self-destruction and other socio-pathological phenomena (Regulation 72/2005). Even more detailed guidance provides 2007 Guidelines of the Ministry of Education for primary prevention of social pathologies in children, pupils and students in schools and school facilities.

The first person in school, who comes into contact with a child with a problem, is often not prevention specialist, but individual teachers, mostly classroom teachers. And here lies the fundamental stumbling block of the entire structure of primary prevention.

Prevention specialist is methodically leading educators in the field of prevention (e.g. when searching for problem behaviors, in preventive work with classes, etc.) and provides technical information about the issue of social-pathological phenomena, offerings of programs and projects, methods and specific forms of primary prevention. At the same time he/she has no means to “force” the individual teachers to implement these preventive activities in daily practice. Nevertheless, it is often just a teacher or class teacher who first captures the problems of the child. However, they register a problem mostly when it is already obvious and developed. In practice, there lack the "prevention of problems". But it is mostly not due to the indifference of teachers, but due to lack of time (primary job description is teaching), low awareness about prevention, and especially lack of quality methods.

More scope in this area has the school psychologist, who has adequate education for the recognition of risk factors, can work with different methods and has them available, and also has time to devote to these activities. The workload of the school psychologist is screening, diagnosis, surveys, questionnaires, work with individuals and groups, coordination of preventive work in the classroom, individual counseling, crisis intervention and crisis treatment for pupils, teachers and guardians. Some degree of prevention or early intervention is thus included in most of his activities.

Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in the Bulletin (MŠMT, 2005) recommended to schools with over 500 students to employ school psychologist within the school counselling services. However, in the same time there is a lack of financial support and hardly any school can afford further staff from its own budget. The Ministry itself thus creates a conflict between its recommendations and the opportunity to fulfill them in practice.

The whole system simply works so that the government and individual ministries issue Decrees and Regulations how prevention should work, districts and individual institutions coordinate these activities and staff of the institutions, especially in educational and psychological counselling, special education centers, educational care centers, or teachers and doctors brings these instructions into the practice. The greatest difficulty is just the "putting into practice". There is not only the lack of funding or lack of awareness of teachers, but also parents play great role, because any intervention, including prevention activities mostly involves cooperation of parents.

The so-called "troubled" parents, at whom there is a risk that their child will suffer from any disorder, rarely provide to counselling or school informed consent for diagnosing or work with a child. It's easier to get agreement when investigation of children takes place in the mass prevention actions for all children (but this happens rarely).

Many parents underestimate the prevention and not only seek information but neither use resources that are offered to them. For illustration, we present the statistics of one elementary school, which regularly organizes educational events for the legal representatives of their pupils (parents). On the lecture and discussion with Police prevention officer on risk behavior in children and options for preventing risk behaviors were invited over 200 parents (of 4–6 grades), attended only 28. Similarly on the lecture and discussions with expert about the dangers of the Internet, netolism and cyber bullying were invited over 300 parents of all elementary school students, but only 36 of them attended the lecture.

In addition to educational legislation, the care for child exposed to socially pathological phenomena is partially included in Act no. 359/1999 Coll., on social-legal protection of children, and its novels. The Act, inter alia, delimits the protection of child's right to the positive development and proper education, protection of the legitimate interests of the child, and actions aimed at restoring of degraded family functions. However, this is not about prevention, but also about intervention. Every citizen has the obligation to report, if there is any injustice on other person. This legal right is, however, generally usable only when the violation of law or injury, disability or detriment to the child is apparent (or there is available evidence). At that time disability is usually already developed and secondary consequences of disability are present

PROPOSAL OF BASIC PRINCIPLES OF NEW METHODOLOGY FOR SCREENING AND PREVENTION OF DEVELOPMENTAL DISRUPTIONS

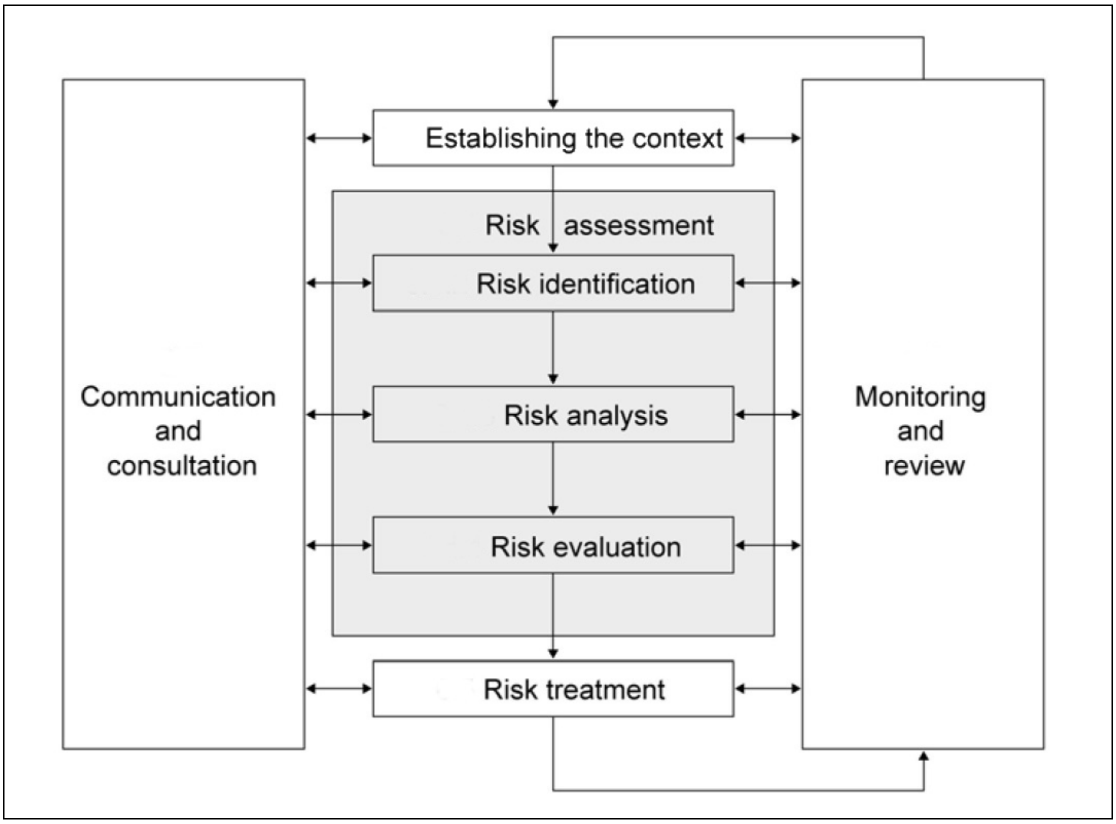
The above mentioned information points to three interrelated factors:

1. a certain "ubiquity" of developmental risks and threats (due to a wide variety of problems that can interfere children and adolescents),
2. the importance of protective factors (resilience) during the coping with these risks and the importance of their identification and support,
3. there are procedures and guidelines that should allow the identification, prevention and intervention for at-risk youth, but their real efficiency of these procedures is relatively low (for a variety reasons given above).

The sum of these three factors led us to develop a proposal for new methodology for screening and prevention of developmental disruptions. In doing so, we were inspired by the principles of risk management. They're primarily applied in business and financial environment, but their main idea is generally applicable in any field. In this paper, we would like to illustrate how to apply risk management principles to the problems of developmental disturbance at children in the school environment.

General procedure of risk management involves several steps (ISO / DIS, 2009)[20]. There processes are shown in Scheme 1.

[20] Due to different concepts of risk management in the companies and within the issue of developmental risks, we emit some steps of risk management.



Scheme 1. Processes of risk management

In the first phase it is necessary to *define a basic context*. Basically it encompasses a description of: the environment in which risk management will be applied, individual people in the process, both internal and external influences, the naming of the problem, etc. From the perspective of the developmental threats issue it includes a primary school environment, people such as teachers, students, counsellors, prevention specialists, school psychologists, etc., internal influences (school environment, class group, communication patterns, mental development and developmental processes, etc.), external factors (e.g. family, society, and culture). The basic issue (followed risk) is the risk of developmental disruption evolution and its prevention through the use of protective factors.

The second phase represents a *risk assessment.* This involves several steps. The first is the *identification of risk*. This includes the determination of the risks at stake, in what areas they operate, what are their possible consequences, the role of school, family, protective factors, etc. The aim is to create a list of potential risks. In the first phase of the risk management process they are based on theoretical knowledge, previous research and current experiences, later from actual data (see below). The identification of risks includes not only their naming (for example internal and external developmental risk, hampered development of protective factors, disruption of development of positive/adaptive abilities of the child, etc.), but also determining the techniques that define them (e.g. What-if analysis, Control checklist, Safety audit, Event tree analysis...) and criteria for risk assessment (e.g. under what conditions will be the phenomenon considered as risk). In the context of our topic it is primarily about quality and detailed determination and description of the developmental risks that relate to the overall population of students (in the context of identifying their sources – risk). This identification is now basically available (based on the research, theory and practical experience), but often in relatively fragmented form, focusing on individual aspects alone, without broader linkages to other variables. Specific risks can be internalizing and externalizing problems (e.g. anxiety problems, depression, withdrawing, social problems, attention problems and ADHD, aggressive and rule-breaking behavior, somatic problems, thought problems, dependency and substance use), lowered self-esteem/self-efficacy, etc.

The next step is the *analysis and evaluation of risks*. This includes assessment of individual risks in terms of analysis of their causes, consequences, severity, impact, probability, and as a result the value of risks. Risk value can be expressed in several ways, such as composite risk index = impact of risk event x probability of occurrence. An integral part is the determination of methods of assessing the risk in relation to the need for reaction, i.e. the circumstances in which the risk is assessed as sufficiently serious to be necessary to respond to it and treat it. For developmental threats is possible, for example, to determine what level of presence of the indicator indicates the need for intervention (e.g. scores in self-esteem test under 50 or level of anxiety in CMAS over 30[21] etc.).

The third phase includes actual *risk treatment*. In addition to the plan how to identify the risks, the design how to solve them is needed. Strategies of risk management can be generally divided into four groups:

1. Risk avoidance: this strategy consists mainly of avoiding risk activities. In the context of development threats, this strategy is applicable only to a limited extent, because from the perspective of institutional strategies (of Ministry of Education and its guidelines, schools, etc.), there is limited scope for influencing the presence of risk (especially in an environment outside of school). However, there are viable ways, for example, in controlling of social processes in school (widely in the school-family relationship to limited extent, etc.).
2. Reduction of risk: this represents, in our view, broadest category, including all procedures and tools used to mitigate risk. In the context of developmental disruptions this may include e.g. support and development of individual protective factors, personality traits and skills and social processes allowing the youth manage the risk and reduce its negative impact, etc.

[21] Both scores are fictional.

3. Risk sharing: risks sharing in business field means sharing of risk with another party the burden of loss or the benefit of gain, from a risk, and the measures to reduce a risk (e.g. in the form of insurance). In the context of risk of developmental disruptions we can understand risk-sharing in the form of participation of the child's social network, the effect of social support, and work with families of at-risk child in terms of support of protective functions of the family (family resilience), etc.
4. Risk retention: is a conscious effort to keep the risk without intervention. This approach is applied especially in situations where it is not possible to remove a significant external risk (e.g. poverty), or the costs significantly outweigh gains. In this case it is possible to shift the focus from the primary (insoluble) risk and its consequences on other areas of child development, or on support of primarily unrelated aspects of his personality (adaptive capacity) that would allow the child to overcome/manage the impact of this risk.

For a number of risks it is possible to use techniques from multiple categories, as well as different procedures of dealing with risks fall under multiple categories at the same time. Because developmental threats are mostly the multidimensional processes, involving a number of mutually interacting variables, and in addition some threats occur at the same time, the setting of effective ways of respond to these situations (plans to manage these risks) is crucial.

An integral part of whole process of risk management is good and effective *communication* among all members of the process (internal and external).

Based on the above procedure (which defines the individual risks and ways of responding) is then necessary to *develop* a detailed *risk management plan*. This plan should include:

- environmental characteristics (basic context),
- individual risks and their characteristics (identifiers, probability, causes, consequences, severity),
- methods and procedures of response for each risk,
- key people involved in each process and their responsibility,
- methods and ways of measuring individual risk,
- methods and ways of measuring of available resources for coping with risks.

A substantial part of the risk management plan is also an *assessment/development of tools* to gather necessary information. The current approaches were described earlier. As mentioned, these procedures are very inefficient in terms of implementation. At the same time, in some cases, they lack certain uniformity in the used methods and tools. In the context of our proposal of methodology for screening and prevention of developmental disruptions and backing of youth health, we are therefore looking for the ways to streamline this process and also specifically direct it to the necessary variables. One option is of course the creation of a new tool (or modification of existing approaches). The second way is the adoption and implementation of existing instruments that have demonstrable efficacy or inspiration by them. Here we rely on one of the most effective and proven project – the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS), which corresponds to our requirements under the proposed solutions.

The California Healthy Kids Survey is a powerful tool for use in Grades 5–12 that can help schools and districts accurately identify areas of student and school strengths and weaknesses, and address related needs. It provides a comprehensive, data-driven, decision–making process to guide efforts to improve school climate, learning supports, and engagement, as well as identify and increase the quality of health, prevention, and youth development programs (About the CHKS, 2014).

CHKS is formed by a battery of questionnaires designed for elementary school (from grade 5) and secondary schools students, which are administered every two years. The reason for these repeated measurements is the fact that most health-risk behaviors increase or change with age. Understanding developmental differences is critical to implementing better programs that target each age group. These years have been chosen for several reasons (Survey Content..., 2014):

1. Transition years: CHKS targets major transition years in the developmental lives of adolescents that have been correlated with risk behavior. Grade 7 (approximately age 12) is often the beginning of secondary school, and is the last preteen year. Grade 9 (age 14) is typically the first year of senior high school, and is a time when prevalence of AOD use can increase to substantial levels.

2. Baseline data needs: Grades 5 and 7 are natural baselines for comparisons within teenage populations. Levels of risk behaviors are generally low at these grades, making it possible to identify the age of initiation. Grade 11 was selected because research shows that virtually all students initiating AOD use in secondary school will have done so by the end of grade 11. By grade 12, many students who are at highest risk have dropped out.

CHKS consists of several modules (ibid.) that cover different areas (see Table 1).

Table 1. Structure of CHKS modules

Grade 5 (10–11 year olds)	Elementary Module
Grade 7 (10–11 year olds) & Above	Core Module
No Cost Supplemental Modules (Series 1)	Tobacco Module School Climate Module Drug Free Communities (DFC) Module AOD (Alcohol and Other Drugs) Building Healthy Communities (BHC)

	Module CalMHSA Module
Low Cost Supplemental Modules (Series 2)	Safety & Violence Module Resilience & Youth Development Module Social Emotional Health Module Physical Health & Nutrition Module Sexual Behavior Module District Afterschool Module (DASM) Gang Risk Awareness Module Closing the Achievement Gap (CTAG) Module Military Connected School Module

The single (non-modular) *elementary module* is built around CHKS Core and Resilience & Youth Development items. It is intended for use in grade 5, but it is also appropriate for grades 4 and 6. The elementary survey contains many of the same or similar items as the middle school version, so that cross-survey comparisons can be made. For these items, the wording is simpler and developmentally appropriate.

The *Core module* (grade 7 and above) collects demographic background data (age, sex, race/ethnicity) and covers key questions in four priority areas: resilience, alcohol and drug use, tobacco use, and violence and school safety. It provides a comprehensive overview to health-related behavior and attitudes, and includes one item that assesses the reliability of answers.

Supplemental Modules provides further in-depth information in selected areas.

Information obtained by CHKS and well-chosen response to them enables, among other things, to remove performance differences among different ethnic groups, improve of school climate, promote of positive adolescent development, identify health barriers to learning, address specific needs of youth, etc. (Benefits & Requirements, 2014).

Given the above, we believe that the implementation of this tool (after its adaptation to conditions in the Czech school and social environment) is a very effective means for obtaining data on the development of children and adolescents, both in the context of potential threats, and in the context of protective factors.

In a similar vein, it would be appropriate to establish the procedures for children in primary school (built more on multi-informant sources of data).

The final step of risk management is the *evaluation of the risk management plan*, i.e. checking of the individual steps of risk management. Regular updating of the risk management plan is required for the early identification of new potential risks, reviewing previously identified risks, updating of control strategy, updating of documentation, communication, etc. In the context of proposed methodology it involves primarily the monitoring of currently present development threats and their manifestations, adjustment of treatment methods and methods of response (prevention and intervention), as well as an analysis of the available resources to address the risks (sources of resilience). Moreover, in the case of use of tools like CHKS this process would be relieved by the nature of this instrument.

CONCLUSION

As we stated at the beginning normal healthy development is largely dependent on the care and help provided by the surroundings. This helping affects the process of coping with developmental threats, and in a broader perspective constitutes one of the fundamental factors that affects the healthy development of children and youth, and shapes their personality. The ability of effective and early identification of possible threats to the development and of the presence of developmental disruptions and their consequences (internalizing and externalizing problems, impaired self-identity etc.) is thus an important task for the child's close surroundings (family, teachers) and for the state as well, and represents a necessary first step for effective helping. Being able to identify in time the onset of problems plays a key role because it gives the opportunity to instantly respond to the risks and eliminate their effect. Just as in medicine, namely, the sooner the problem (disease) is detected, the easier it is (mostly) to heal it. Similarly, early detection of development disruption requires less efforts and interventions, return to normal is easily accessible and generally demands significantly lower cost of solution. This price is quantifiable in the psychological, social and economic terms – reduction of personality development disruption and its implications for the future functioning, maintenance of healthy development, leading to a greater quality of life and personal well-being, lower demands of interventions (time and material), better functioning in larger social units (family, school), more effective and non-problematic educational process, better health of the individual or in the long run, the ability to fully live their own life and to be socially and economically beneficial for society.

As we noted, current recommended procedures of the Ministry of Education in this area largely fail in the implementation phase. Our proposal of methodology for screening and prevention, based on principles of risk management address two important issues. The first is the method of obtaining quality data that enable us to identify emerging risks and their implications as soon as it is possible. Here we propose a solution in the form of implementation of the diagnostic tool, built on the principles of the California Healthy Kids Survey. This tool is beneficial not only in terms of being able to identify the involved risks, but it also allows identifying protective factors useful in the management and disposal of emerging risks. In the broader perspective it provides guidance for the strategy for development of positive traits and abilities (strengths) of the individual.

The second issue is a systematic approach to monitoring and assessment of risks and early and targeted approach to their solution, including the establishment of clear competencies. In general, we can say that the proposed methodology allows better capturing of developmental processes (providing the necessary data) and responding to them clearly.

Besides the described assets, the implementation of CHKS offers other benefits as well. The main asset is the longitudinal data on adolescent development (that are currently lacking) that would allow better understanding of the complex processes in the development. This understanding can further affect a number of areas (not only in psychology), for example a general healthcare, etc.

The proposed methodology, of course, does not eliminate all the shortcomings of current state and still involves uncertainties. The most important is human factor. As mentioned, today it represents one of the biggest weaknesses of the process. The proposed procedure itself does not contain significantly effective means to change. But offers at least the necessary data for decision-making processes and clear definition of competencies and tasks can streamline the individual steps of process. That offers some support for staff in the field of education. The question of motivation (and education) of stakeholders (whether teachers, psychologists, prevention specialists, parents, pupils, etc.) will, however, require further attention.

Further limitations include the technical demands of the methodology (especially within the initial implementation), the financial requirements of the project (in terms of designing a system, the financing of its implementation, processing and analyzing data, etc.), the issue of the effective evaluation of data procedures, the need to obtain support at ministerial level, preparation of legal actions for the implementation, etc.

Nevertheless, we believe that the principles of the proposed solution offer significant potential of contribution in the field of screening and prevention (intervention) of developmental threats and disruptions. The positives greatly outweigh the potential risks and costs. Therefore, we are convicted, that this issue should be further discussed, even at the level of the Ministry of Education.

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The monograph presents some results of three studies, Czech Science Foundation (GA ČR) project no. P407/11/0380 – "Prosocial behaviour and its personality aspects in the context of volunteering"; project COST no. LD 13044 – "Social Determinants of Health and Their Impact on Health of Immigrants Living in the Czech Republic" and Czech Science Foundation (GA ČR) no. 13-19519P. It summarizes the acquired data and interconnects them with the authors' own experience in helping professions.

The collected data are organized into two thematic sections consisting of seven chapters contained in the monograph. The introduction could not avoid short definition of the concept of helping and of its ethical dimension. The author points out the radical transformation experienced by our society in recent decades and characterized by obvious individualism rather than by altruism and affiliation, qualities expected in people active in helping. The present society is linked with attributes like escalated consumerism, alienation, high lack of anchoring of opinions relativizing basic (atemporal) values that have been valid for centuries.

The first section includes four chapters devoted to helping professionals and volunteers. The second section includes three chapters reflecting the aspects of helping in the concept of intergenerational solidarity, social support and education.

The initial chapters of the first section deal with professional helping within helping professions. The author of the first chapter discusses the issues related with direct expert help to persons during psychological intervention at professional level. He deals with the forms of professional help based on expert intervention: psychological counselling and psychotherapy. He analyzes in detail the substance and goals of psychological counselling and psychotherapy, as well as some problems related with the use of such forms of expert psychological intervention in favour of persons who need it. He points out the basis of professional intervention, consisting in programmatic effort to achieve change of an undesirable situation of the client to a desirable situation. He describes the characteristics of the changes and their conceptual definitions, the efficiency of achievement of such changes and the problems of the determination of the efficiency, including examples of some studies. He also deals with the issue of the demands imposed on the professionals in the field of psychological counselling and psychotherapy and with their subjective assessment and feeling. He pays attention to possible substantiation of the fact that more women than men usually work in psychology, as well as in a number of other helping professions. He discusses some issues related to ethical aspects of psychological professional help.

The author of the second chapter suggests that understanding of altruism, readiness to help people in need without claim to own profit is still prevented by broadly accepted paradigms of the modern era: the theory of natural selection as the basic mechanism of the development of species and the theory of the invisible hand of the market, a belief that if every person follows egoistically his/her personal goals, the whole society will profit from it. Both theses prevent understanding of altruism only if they are absolutized. Actually, additionally to rivalry, a significant development force consists in cooperation, and the invisible hand of the market often fails. Motivation for prosocial behaviour must be searched in human morality as a part of satisfaction of social needs, in the ego ideal and, from the Aristotelian perspective, in heading to good life. Helpers are people who resist the prevailing consumerist way of life and their philosophy of life does not consist in hedonism.

The third and fourth chapters are devoted to volunteerism, i.e. to a specific form of helping – planned long lasting provision of help taking place in the existing organizations, i.e. in a refuge for homeless people, in crisis hot line for victims of violence or in the program of reading to seniors in seniors' homes. Volunteerism, similarly to community activism, includes continuous contributions brought by people informally employed by an organization in favour of others. The text tries to answer the question whether the professionalization of civic society organizations (CSO) represents a means for common good by strengthening volunteerism and giving in favour of others. Professionalism should be a way to stabilize the civic sector and to increase its sustainability; but this perspective overlooks the negative aspects of professionalization like bureaucratization and weakened interconnection of civic society organization with the community. Data show that the relation between professionalization of organizations and giving is not linear. In spite of the progress of professionalization (given by increasing number of people employed in civic society organizations), the evidence collected in recent two decades reveal stagnation of volunteerism and decreasing interest in giving (philanthropy).

Although the planned long lasting provision of help differs in many ways from spontaneous short-term provision of help, the basic question is the same: what factors motivate people to become involved in log lasting planned provision of help? The author of the fourth chapter answers this question with the help of the data acquired by research of selected personality characteristics and aspects of motivation to volunteer activities. He also reports some research results concerning the relations between the dimensions of the five-factor personality model and the basic components of motivation to volunteer experience at a sample set of 443 secondary school female students. The results acquired by the administration of the Volunteer functions inventory, VFI, created by G. Clary, M. Snyder and their colleagues, suggest that from the perspective of intensity, the motivation aimed at understanding has the strongest representation, followed by value-conditioned motivation. The research results ascertained by the Czech version of the NEO five-factor personality inventory, developed by P. T. Costa and R. R. McCrae, confirm the thesis that the personality dimensions of agreeableness and conscientiousness correlate significantly with general motivation of the volunteers, as well as with its value, cognition and social components. The results of the study also evidence that the secondary school students engaged in short-term volunteering helping incline to the reflexive paradigm of volunteerism, with typical short-term, unstable activity, not directly linked to membership in an organization and depending primarily on the individualistic values of the individual.

The readiness to help has many names in expert literature. In addition to concepts like help, helping, helping behaviour, we can find concepts like altruism, prosocial behaviour, solidarity, positive social behaviour, generosity, social responsibility, volunteering, sharing, charity, donating behaviour, aiding, morality, samaritanism, gift giving, cooperation, citizenship behaviour, social support, philanthropy, etc. The situations in which helping is researched are similarly varied. The diversity of the situations in which helping constitutes the superordinate concept is reflected in the last three chapters of the second section of the monograph.

Intergenerational solidarity can have the character of mutual sharing of knowledge among employees in the context of age diversity. The author devotes her chapter (chapter five) to a group of elderly employees and reflects them, in connection with population ageing, particularly by age management, the issues of discrimination and ageism in context of work and the difference of so called generations of employees, their working capabilities and expectations. The sharing of knowledge in an organization is based primarily on the concepts of a learning organization, intellectual capital and knowledge management. The author accentuates the importance of intergenerational sharing of knowledge in an organization and its benefits. She pays attention to the factors of the individuals' willingness to share their knowledge, to their motivation to help in form of providing knowledge, to express cooperation and solidarity in favour of the others and of the organization.

When coping with challenging life situations, the human deals with different sources of reinforcement and help. When disregarding the the personality resources (e.g. physical fitness, hardiness, self-efficacy, dispositional optimism), the external resources include, first of all, social resources, particularly social support. They constitute the social reserve, available if needed. Leaving home for a foreign country is certainly a challenging life event that places increased demands on the individual's adaptation.

Social support is assumed (which is confirmed by the main research stream) to facilitate the individual to cope with stress. It allows the individual to integrate, to create own identity, to build and maintain self-confidence, to regulate feelings; it allows social control and management. The sixth chapter contains research findings on structural and functional aspects of social support of the Polish people living on the territory of the Czech Republic. Structural aspects include quantitative indicators like the extensiveness and density of individual social network, the anticipated number of close persons that can be approached by the individual in need. Functional aspects of social support consist of the quality of interpersonal relationships for the support recipient, i.e. the level of fulfilment of the purpose of the relationships. The research showed that the Polish people living in the Czech Republic differ considerably from other immigrants living on this territory. They constitute a markedly nationally oriented group with mature requirements of minority life. An overwhelming majority maintains permanent contacts with people from their country of origin – from Poland (with relatives, friends, colleagues from their branch). The character of the relations with their countrymen, but also with the members of the majority population is very good; the most respondents report a wide range of positive social relations containing anticipated material, emotional and friendly support and constituting a base of their satisfaction and good adjustment in the Czech Republic. The collected data showed the importance of social support for life, as well as the fact that it is significantly linked to satisfaction of basic human needs, i.e. the need of social safety, friendship, mutuality, cooperation, integration, which are key indicators not only for social integration but, at the same time, determinants of human health.

The sixth chapter explains the issues of development threats in the course of socialization, their screening and prevention in school environment. The authors argue against the current procedures, pointing out their failures, particularly in the stage of implementation. In response to the current situation, the authors propose a modification of the methodology for the work with students. The proposed methodology will help to capture better the threats in the development processes and react clearly to them. Two issues are important in that process: 1. the method of acquisition of high-quality data allowing to identify the emerging risks, 2. systematic approach to risk assessment and to goal-directed solutions. The resulting information is important for the decision-making processes and to provision of help by helping profession workers.

The monograph, was elaborated under participation of 12 university employees, brings a complex of knowledge both from the area of theoretical issues of helping and from the area of empirical solution of helping-related issues. It summarizes the theoretical knowledge from professional literature and compares it with the results of the authors' own studies and analyses. All that helps to formulate a lot of information from social practice in the Czech Republic – that creates preconditions for broad use of the monograph both in theory and in practice and for instigation to further professional interest in this important topic that has been rather omitted in our national professional literature, particularly as compared to foreign literature, but that becomes highly relevant at present. The monograph will undoubtedly serve as a well-founded source of theoretical knowledge, experience and inspiring impulses for experts, helping professionals and interested persons from among the non-professional public.

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