

ISSN 1335-3608

Editoriál

Špirálová symetria a veľkosť 60 – 220 nm, charakteristické črty pre betakoronavírus s označením COVID-19, ktorý sa v týchto dňoch chronicky vryl do ľudských myslí a každodenného diskurzu globálnej spoločnosti. Avšak keď sa povie v budúcnosti rok 2020 musíme zabezpečiť, aby sa nespájal len s globálnou pandémiou a katastrofou, ale i hrdinstvom jednotlivcov a zodpovedným prístupom, ktorý zabezpečil ochranu našich spoluobčanov, pokračovanie vedeckého a výchovno-vzdelávacieho procesu, ale i schopnosťou vysporiadať sa s touto bezprecedentnou situáciou vďaka neúnavnej práci lekárov, záchranárov, hasičov, lekárnikov, predavačiek a všetkých, ktorí tvárou v tvár čelili ochoreniu, no i napriek tomu pokračovali v práci. Vírus však nepreveruje len charakterové vlastnosti ľudí. Skúša aj ich odolnosť voči psychickej záťaži. Netestuje len lekárov a bezpečnostné zložky, ale postavil do novej úlohy aj rodičov, ktorí potrebujú zabezpečiť online vzdelávanie a celodenný režim svojich detí. Ocitli sa v celkom novej pozícii. Musia sa okrem zabezpečenia stravy a hygieny celý deň venovať svojim maloletým ratolestiam, čo vôbec nie je jednoduché. Otcovia sú konfrontovaní so svojou autoritou, matky s kreativitou a schopnosťou vymýšľať pre deti celodenný program, najmä keď je rodina v karanténe.

Rok 2020 musí byť rokom, kedy sa spoločnosť zocelila a spojila, nasadila všetky svoje sily na záchranu čo najväčšieho počtu ľudí. Od upratovačiek, ktoré zadarmo rozdávali ručne vyrobené rúška po vedcov, ktorí hľadali liek proti ochoreniu. Veda v tejto situácii zohráva nezastupiteľné miesto. A o vedeckom prístupe k mnohým témam, ktoré trápia súčasnú spoločnosť sa môžete dočítať v prvom čísle časopisu *Človek a spoločnosť* v roku 2020.

Kolektív autorov <u>L. Hricová</u>, <u>M. Bačíková</u>, <u>M. Štefaňáková</u>, <u>O. Orosová</u> skúmajú Faktory spojené s ne/účasťou rodičov na výskume vývoja dieťaťa a rozdiely medzi deťmi zúčastnených a nezúčastnených rodičov. Podľa autoriek súčasné výsledky ukazujú, že dôležitými ukazovateľmi účasti rodičov na výskume sa zdajú byť lepší školský prospech, vyššia informovanosť rodičov a vyššia úroveň monitorovania.

<u>F. Sulejmanov, M. Seitl, A. Molinari</u> sa venujú v tomto čísle téme Vzťahovej väzby a stratégii zvládania záťaže ako prediktorov psychického preťaženia u príslušníkov Bezpečnostných zborov Českej republiky. V štúdii sa pokúšajú objasniť aké stratégie vzťahovej väzby a zvládania záťaže sú používané príslušníkmi Bezpečnostných zborov Českej republiky a aká je reálna úroveň psychického preťaženia, ktorú subjektívne vnímajú.

Čitatelia v tomto čísle nájdu i príspevok venujúci sa Charakteristike vznikajúcej dospelosti: prehľadu prístupov a perspektív výskumu oblasti cieľov od <u>B. Ráczovej</u> a <u>D. Spišákovej</u>. Autorky sa podujali poskytnúť prehľad o aktuálnom výskume vynárajúcej sa dospelosti v rámci vývinovej psychológie.

Názorom slovenskej populácie na imigrantov získaným na základe dát Eurobarometra sa venuje <u>M. Bozogáňová</u>. Autorka v článku prináša prehľad postojov Slovákov na imigrantov v reprezentatívnej vzorke, vďaka ktorým je ľahšie pochopiť náladu v krajine vzhľadom k tejto stále aktuálnej téme. Príspevok ponúka aj priestor na zamyslenie a témy k výskumu v rámci Slovenskej republiky (napr. čím sú spôsobené rozdiely v názoroch medzi západným a východným Slovenskom?).



V rubrike Materiály predstavuje M. Gallová Pramene k výskumu postavenia žien v Košiciach v rokoch 1918 – 1938. Autorka prezentuje jednotlivé typy prameňov, pomocou ktorých je možné skúmať postavenie žien v meste Košice v rokoch 1918 – 1938, konkrétne možnosti vyššieho vzdelávania dievčat a žien, ich pracovné uplatnenie v oblasti školstva a zdravotníctva a zapojenie žien do verejnej sféry prostredníctvom práce v jednotlivých spolkoch, ktoré v meste existovali.

Mária Ďurkovská



ISSN 1335-3608

Editorial

Spiral symmetry and a size ranging from 60 to 220 nm: these are the characteristic features of the beta-coronavirus notoriously known as COVID-19 that has chronically invaded humans and everyday discourse of global society these days. However, we must ensure that in future, people do not associate 2020 only with the global pandemic and disaster, but also with the heroism of individuals, the responsible approach ensuring the protection of our fellow citizens and the continuation of the scientific and educational process, the power to fight an unprecedented situation thanks to the tireless work of doctors, paramedics, firefighters, pharmacists, shop assistants and all those who have faced the disease but have continued to work. However, the virus does not only verify the character of people. It also tests their resistance to psychological stress. It is not only a trial of doctors and security forces, but also of parents facing online education and providing all-day care for their children. They are now in a completely new position. In addition to providing food and hygiene, they have to devote themselves all day to their minors, which may be a daunting task. Fathers are tested in terms of their authority, mothers must prove their creativity and the ability to invent a day-long program for their children, especially when families are quarantined.

2020 must become the year of strengthening and joining society, focusing all its powers to save as many people as possible: from cleaners distributing free handmade masks to those in need to the scientists looking for a cure for the disease. Science plays a crucial role in this situation. In line with the above, the first 2020 issue of *Individual and Society*, addresses numerous issues of today's society.

L. Hricová, M. Bačíková, M. Štefaňáková and O. Orosová investigate Factors associated with parental (non-)participation in child-development research and the differences between the children of participating and non-participating parents. According to the authors, the current results show that better school performance, higher awareness of parents and higher levels of monitoring appear to be important indicators of the parents' participation in the research.

In this issue, <u>F. Sulejmanov</u>, <u>M. Seitl</u> and <u>A. Molinari</u> deal with Attachment and coping strategies as predictors of mental overload among members of security services of Czech Republic. In their study, they attempt to clarify the strategies of bonding and managing stress used by members of the security services of the Czech Republic and the real level of their subjectively perceived psychological stress.

In this issue, readers will also find an article on Emerging adulthood features: an overview of the research in approaches and perspectives in the area of goals, by <u>B. Ráczová</u> and <u>D. Spišáková</u>. The authors have undertaken to provide an overview of the current research of emerging adulthood issues in developmental psychology.

<u>M. Bozogáňová</u> dissects the opinion of the Slovak population on immigrants, using Eurobarometer data. The author uses a representative sample to present an overview of the attitudes of Slovakian people to immigrants, which simplifies the understanding of the countrywide mood concerning this still hot topic. This article also provides topics for further consideration and research in terms of the Slovak Republic (e.g.: what is the reason of different opinions in the western and eastern part of Slovakia?).



In the section Materials, M. Gallová presents Research resources on the position of women in Košice 1918 - 1938. The author presents the various types of sources enabling research in terms of the position of women in the city of Košice in 1918 - 1938, namely the possibilities of higher education of girls and women, their employment in education and healthcare and women's involvement in the public sphere of the city, notably in the NGOs of the time.

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ISSN 1335-3608

EMERGING ADULTHOOD FEATURES: AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH IN APPROACHES AND PERSPECTIVES IN GOALS AREA

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Človek a spoločnosť [Individual and Society] 23(1), 1–16 DOI: /10.31577/cas.2020.01.565 http://www.clovekaspolocnost.sk/

Abstract:

The main aim of this article is to provide a partial overview of the current research in developmental psychology and the research into emerging adulthood in particular. It is considered essential to look at this area of psychological research as there is little understanding about this life period in Slovakia. Interest in this issue is growing only slowly, as evidenced by the current interdisciplinary project (APVV-18-0303, Nozdrovická, 2019) and several studies on this topic from the perspective of other disciplines (Džambazovič, 2018; Roupa, 2016). The lack of research on emerging adulthood persists in Slovakia despite Arnett (2000) having already brought this concept to light in developmental psychology. Arnett (2000, 2004) explains that the dominant life course theory is no longer applicable due to significant demographic shifts, including the delay of marriage and parenthood. The transition into adulthood is subsequently much longer with the period of emerging adulthood between 18-29 years being suggested as a distinct developmental stage. However, no consensus has been reached about the age range of emerging adulthood and like any other life-period, it is individually experienced in the context of a particular culture. Although Arnett (2000, 2004) considers emerging adulthood as culturally constructed and not universal, he describes the characteristics which distinguish emerging adulthood from both adolescence and young adulthood.

According to Arnett (2004), there are five features of emerging adulthood. He suggests that emerging adulthood is: the age of identity exploration, instability, self-focus, feeling in-between and possibilities. The first of these characteristics manifests itself in the exploration of available options in different domains of life, particularly in love and work. The purpose of this exploration is to find out one's own identity. This exploration and frequently related changes in life indicate the instability of this period, although this instability is not necessarily negative. Self-focus is connected with the low social control and freedom which is experienced by emerging adults. This allows them to focus on themselves and their needs. The dimension of possibilities represents the greater opportunity of being able to change one's life for the better, although Arnett (2004) also points out the high expectations and hopes of young people for an optimistic future. Lastly, emerging adults feel in-between which means they neither feel like adolescents nor like adults.

In order to measure these five proposed features of emerging adulthood as well as one additional dimension called "other-focus", the Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood (IDEA) has been designed (Reifman, Arnett, & Colwell, 2007). This has been translated worldwide and adapted to suit different populations (e.g., Crocetti et al., 2015; Dutra-Thomé & Koller, 2017; Macek, Bejček, & Vaníčková, 2007). There are more than ten language versions of the IDEA. In this article, a summary will be provided of all adaptations of the IDEA, some of which have been well-validated with conducted factor analysis. The use of this inventory enables a better understanding of experiencing emerging adulthood. It also allows perceptions of emerging adults to be contrasted between various countries and cultures.

The expansion of research into emerging adulthood has not only been demonstrated in the number of studies on this topic but also in the count of constructs examined within the context of a lifetime. These include partnerships and romantic relationships, career, parent-child relationships, substance use and abuse, at-risk behaviour, mental health and identity development (e.g., Ravert, Stoddard, & Donnellan, 2018; Swanson, 2016). The latest research in this area (Lanctot & Poulin, 2018; Tagliabue, Crocetti, & Lanz, 2016) has focused on individuals' experiences

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with the transition to adulthood by creating distinct profile groups based on clusters of the IDEA dimensions. In this context, research has begun to explore the links between adaptation issues (e.g., life satisfaction, quality of life, self-esteem, psychological well-being) and the features of emerging adulthood as captured by the IDEA (Baggio, Studer, Iglesias, Daeppen, & Gmel, 2017; Lanctot & Poulin, 2018) as well as these clusters.

One of the prospective directions in recent research has been the issue of goals. The scientific community perceives the transition to adulthood as the most heterogeneous period in human life (Arnett, 2007b). The increased degree of subjective and objective instability is reflected in the variability of life plans, goals and their revision (Luyckx, De Witte, & Goossens, 2011). As such, the developmental tasks and goals of emerging adults have gained considerable academic interest (e.g., Salmela-Aro, Aunola, & Nurmi, 2007). During emerging adulthood, personal goals related to education or friendships are replaced by work-related, family or health-related goals. This change reflects the developmental tasks of emerging adulthood as well as the transition of roles. Recent findings have confirmed that successful entry into adulthood and adaptation for adult roles depends on the ability to achieve specified normative developmental goals in emerging adulthood (Negru, 2008). Given the current trend of transferring adult social roles and fulfilling socially anticipated developmental challenges to old age (e.g., Arnett, 2018; Macek et al., 2016), this stage of life becomes important in shaping the future of an adult (Salmela-Aro et al., 2007; Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010). In order to achieve the goals, they should be able to apply selfregulatory processes (Lovaš, Ráczová, et al., 2017; Scheier & Carver, 2003) in the form of suppressing behavioural tendencies that do not achieve the goal, the ability to overcome obstacles or the ability to decide. This is crucial as this age is considered to be one of the most critical normative life transitions (Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004) and the issue of managing transitions and overcoming obstacles becomes very relevant during this period (Nurmi, 2004). At the same time, this raises an interest in answering questions about the specifics of self-regulation as a process of setting and achieving goals (Carver, 2005) in young people (Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004).

Young people have a large need for exploration and experimentation. However, this is in a relatively short time period between the ages of 20 and 30. (Arnett, 2007b). This is reflected in the tendency to plan the postponement of development goals (Arnett, 2018; Macek et al., 2016) or the issue of *frozen goals* (an individual has decided on a given goal and feels committed to carrying out the goal but postpones implementation to another time; Davydenko, Werner, & Milyavskaya, 2019). Thus, time perspective shows itself to be another relevant researched construct, especially the emphasis on the contrast between focusing on the present and future. It represents a key cognitive-motivational variable in goal-directed behaviour (Kačmár, manuscript in preparation; Kooij, Kanfer, Betts, & Rudolph, 2018).

In conclusion, it can be seen that a common aim in a large part of the current research is to understand how emerging adults perceive and experience this time in their lives; at the same time, there is an attempt to compare young people's perceptions and experiences across different cultures. In terms of cross-cultural comparison, a project of particular interest has been conducted in the Czech Republic. Their main intention has been to explore autonomy, identity, attachment, romantic relationships and career during emerging adulthood (e.g., Horská & Lacinová, 2015; Umemura, Lacinová, Macek, & Kunnen, 2017). As the country closest to Slovakia, it has been a great inspiration in initiating a similar investigation into emerging adulthood here. A greater awareness of this period may be beneficial to all professionals working with young people such as therapists or counsellors as well as to employers and human resource managers in the occupational context, and to emerging adults themselves in understanding the variability of this time and successfully adapting to adulthood.

Key words:

Emerging Adulthood. Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood (IDEA). Transition to Adulthood. Goal-oriented Behaviour.

Introduction

In the last two decades, there has been an important change in developmental psychology research. Following the introduction of emerging adulthood as a concept (Arnett, 2000), research interest has shifted towards the study of 18-29-year-olds. There is a wide range of topics studied within this period of emerging adulthood. Part of the research deals with the characteristics of emerging maturity as described by Arnett (2004), and the only inventory to measure them – the Inventory of Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood (IDEA) (Reifman et al., 2007) – has aroused the interest of academics around the world. This is not only reflected in its

use in emerging adulthood research but also in the effort to adapt the measurement to different countries and cultures.

In this theoretical review, an attempt will be made to introduce the theme of emerging adulthood, which is a relatively new term in developmental psychology. The reason for selecting this topic is not only its recency, but also the absence of scientific interest in this developmental stage in Slovakia; despite emerging adulthood having been a very current topic in psychological research in other countries for almost twenty years. At the same time, the aim is to bring research into the field of goal-oriented behaviour during the transition to adulthood as a perspective approach to understanding this period.

The concept of emerging adulthood

The term "emerging adulthood" first appeared in Jeffrey Jensen Arnett's article published in the American Psychologist in 2000. Arnett's goal in proposing the theory of emerging adulthood was to give a new name to the 18-29-years age-period, and based on over 200 interviews with young people, Arnett conceptualized emerging adulthood as a distinct period of life.

According to Arnett (2004), sweeping demographic shifts such as prolonged education, leaving the parental home later, and delayed marriage and parenthood have taken place over the past half-century in industrialized countries. These changes have meant that the dominant theory of the life course in developmental psychology no longer fits the normative pattern in industrialized societies.

Arnett emphasizes that "emerging adulthood is neither adolescence nor young adulthood but is theoretically and empirically distinct from them both" (Arnett, 2000, p. 469). In comparison with adolescents and young adults, emerging adults have fewer social roles and obligations which results in greater independence and fewer normative expectations from society. Although emerging adulthood is not organized by social roles and commitments (Arnett, 2007b), its structure and course can be affected by the culture (Arnett, 2000). For this reason, it is essential to emphasize that this period in the life span is culturally constructed, not universal and immutable. Later on, this article will look at the universality or diversity of emerging adulthood in different cultural conditions, as well as the differences in emerging adulthood with regards to socio-demographic characteristics.

While Arnett (2000) initially described emerging adulthood as the period between 18 and 25, this has been widened by the author to the age range of 18-29 (Arnett, 2015). While other authors interested in this life period (e.g., Gelanaki & Leontopoulou, 2017; Tagliabue et al., 2016) work with various age ranges, Czech researchers (for us, from a similar cultural environment) (Macek et al., 2015) agree with Arnett, who himself admits (2016) that both options can be used depending on the investigated issue.

Dimensions of emerging adulthood

Emerging adulthood, like other stages in human development, can be described by characteristics which differentiate it from other life periods. Arnett (2004) outlines five key features of emerging adulthood that distinguish it from adolescence and younger adulthood. He describes emerging adulthood as the age of identity exploration, the age of instability, the self-focused age, the age of feeling in-between, and the age of possibilities. While these characteristics are not only present at this time of life, they are most marked in emerging

adulthood (Arnett, 2007b). The author does not consider these features as universal. On the contrary, he stresses the culturally and economically conditioned heterogeneity and variability of this period of life (Arnett, 2004).

The age of identity exploration

Arnett (2004) describes emerging adulthood as a period in which young people try out various available options in different areas of life, especially in love and work. The aim of this experimentation is to discover their identity. In the past, the exploration and formation of identity was a key developmental task of adolescence (Erikson, 2002). Although adolescents do experiment in the field of love and work to some extent, Arnett (2007a) claims that in emerging adulthood, it is an identity-based exploration.

The age of instability

The fact that emerging adulthood is the age of instability is demonstrated in many different ways (Arnett, 2004). There are frequent shifts in the life course among emerging adults - in education and work, in romantic relationships or living conditions (Arnett, 2006), although this is just a reflection of identity exploration (Arnett, 2004).

The self-focused age

Whilst emerging adulthood brings a focus on oneself, this does not mean selfishness or being egocentric (Arnett, 2006). Arnett (2007b) explains that emerging adulthood is the self-focused age in the sense that young people are the least subject to institutional control during this period. Consequently, emerging adults experience more freedom and less social control. They can focus on gaining such experience which will gradually lead to forming their "adult" life (Arnett, 2006).

The age of feeling in-between

Arnett (2004) refers to emerging adulthood as the age of feeling in-between. In other words, the period between adolescence and adulthood. The central aspect of this feeling is the concept of criteria for adulthood. A shift in entering adulthood is not only about timing, when we fulfil these criteria, but also about their meaning. In the past, there were certain criteria related to adult roles such as finishing education, getting a stable job, marriage and childbirth (Arnett, 2007b).

Nowadays, emerging adults emphasize more individualistic criteria such as accepting responsibility for one's self, making independent decisions and financial independence (Arnett, 2001). Although the transition to adulthood is now much longer than it was in the past, most people perceive themselves to be fully adult by the age of 30 (Arnett, 2006).

The age of possibilities

As Arnett (2004) says, emerging adulthood is the age of possibilities in two respects. First, this is the time of life when young people have the greatest opportunity to change their lives in a positive way and second, that emerging adulthood tends to be a time of high expectations and hopes for the future regardless of socio-economic background (Arnett, 2007a).

The extent to which emerging adults experience identity exploration, instability, possibilities, feeling in-between and self-focus depends on many circumstances. Experiencing some of these characteristics are influenced by marital status (if young people are or were married) (Lisha et al., 2014; Reifman et al., 2007), parental status (Lisha et al., 2014), the degree of their financial independence (Macek et al., 2007; Reifman et al., 2007) and their residential status (i.e. living with parents, living independently) (Macek et al., 2007; Reifman et al., 2007). Gender (Crocetti et al., 2015; Reifman et al., 2007) and occupational status (whether the emerging adult is a

student, employed etc.) are also involved in the way of experiencing emerging adulthood (Crocetti et al., 2015; Macek et al., 2007). Although there are other variables that are concerned in the process of transitioning to adulthood, generally, the features of emerging adulthood are more typical of the 18-29-year-olds than for different age groups (Reifman et al., 2007).

Measuring the characteristics of emerging adulthood – Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood (IDEA) and its adaptations

Based on five key features of emerging adulthood, Reifman et al. (2007) have developed the Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood (IDEA) to explore the individual differences in experiencing emerging adulthood. The inventory consists of 31 items. Respondents indicate on a 4-point scale the degree to which they agree the phrase describes this period in their life. IDEA explores five dimensions of emerging adulthood proposed by Arnett (2004) and one additional dimension "Other-focus" as opposed to the "Self-focused" feature (Reifman et al., 2007).

Although IDEA is the only way of measuring the characteristics of emerging adulthood as described by Arnett, other instruments focus on the period of emerging maturity or transition to adulthood. For example, the Scale of Conceptions of Transition to Adulthood (e.g., Arnett, 2001, 2003; Facio & Micocci, 2003; Gelanaki & Leontopoulou, 2017; Mayseless & Scharf, 2003; Petrogiannis, 2011) focusing on criteria or markers for the transition to adulthood.

Emerging adulthood, like all life stage concepts, is grounded in culture, society and history (Arnett, 2016). In line with this, research focused on emerging adulthood has been conducted. One aim of researchers has been to adapt the inventory for use in different populations. Currently, there are several versions of the IDEA in various languages. These have been adapted to different cultural backgrounds and differ in both their factor structure and the number of items. An overview of the published adaptations of the Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood is presented in Table 1.

In addition to those shown in the table, there have been several other language versions with no factor structure analysis conducted: Spanish, used in Mexico and Spain (Facio, Resett, Micocci, & Mistrorigo, 2007), a version used in Romania (Negru, 2012) and a French version used in Canada (Lanctot & Poulin, 2018).

The summary of the adaptations of the IDEA in Table 1 shows that the authors used a different methodology to validate the inventory. Several authors (e.g., Fierro Arias & Hermández, 2007) have only performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) without a subsequent confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In other cases, CFA was conducted at first (e.g., Dutra-Thomé & Koller, 2017). When the original factor structure of the IDEA was not confirmed, the authors proceeded with EFA. We consider this approach to be more appropriate, given that these studies aimed to adapt the original inventory for use in different populations.

Most of the adaptations have been validated on a sample that falls within the age range of emerging adulthood (e.g., Macek et al., 2007). However, some authors have chosen, in our opinion, an age range that is not relevant to this period of life (e.g., Lisha et al. (2014) focused on younger (14-21 years old) respondents). In adapting IDEA to the Slovak population, we would prefer the age range defined by Arnett (2015) that is 18-29 years.

Currently, IDEA is the only inventory which can be used to measure the characteristics of emerging adulthood and has already been used across cultures. It is necessary to adapt this

questionnaire to the Slovak population in order to investigate this developmental period in Slovakia with the possibility of cross-cultural comparison.

Authors	Method		Results	
Fierro Arias & Hernández (2007)	• Mexico, Spain; Spanish	• 50% female	40 items; 7 factors	
	• N = 720; college, former college and postgraduate	• EFA	• Adulthood Postponement (7)	• Visions of Future and
	students		• Instability (5)	Possibilities (6)
	• age range: 16-34		• Autonomy (9)	• Worries (3)
			• Explorations (6)	• Identity Moratorium (4)
Macek et al. (2007)	• Czech Republic; Czech	• 55% female	31 items; 6 factors:	
	• N = 436; university students and workers	• EFA	• Stability (6)	• Clarity of Values (5)
	• age range: 18-27		• Self-focused orientation (7)	• Identity Exploration (2)
			• Diffused orientation (6)	• Concern for others (2)
Pérez, Cumsille, & Loreto Martinez (2008)	• Chile; Spanish	• 64% female	29 items; 4 factors:	
Loreto Martinez (2000)	• N = 162; 91% university students	• EFA	• Identity Explorations (9)	• Negativity/Instability (6)
	• age range: 18-26; mean age = 19,9; SD = 3,37		• Freedom/Possibilities (8)	• Self & Others (6)
Atak & Çok (2008)	• Turkey; Turkish	• 57.1% female	20 items; 3 factors:	
	• N = 296; university students	• EFA	• Negativity/Instability (7)	• Experimentation/Self
	• age range: 15-34; mean age = 24,2		• Exploration/Feeling in between	focused (7)
			between (6)	
Lisha et al. (2014)	• USA; English	• 42.2% female	21 items; 3 factors:	
	• N = 1 676; mostly Latino "at-risk" youths	• EFA	• Identity Exploration (11)	• Independence (3)
	• age range: 14-21; mean age = 16,8; SD = 0,9		• Experimentation/	
			Possibilities (7)	
Baggio, Iglesias, Studer. & Gmel (2015)	• Switzerland	• male only	8 items; 4 factors:	
Studer, & Onler (2015)	• N = 5 049	• EFA, CFA	• Experimentation/	• Identity Exploration (2)
	• mean age = 21,26; SD = 1,23		Possibilities (2)	• Feeling In-Between (2)
			• Negativity/Instability (2)	
Crocetti et al. (2015)	• Italy + Japan; Italian and Japanese	• 50.8% female	15 items; 5 factors:	
	• N = 2 472; university students and workers	• CFA	• Identity Exploration (3)	• Self-Focused (3)
	• age range: 18-30; mean age = 23,28; SD = 3,39		• Possibilities (3)	• Feeling In-Between (3)
			• Instability (3)	
			- instability (5)	

Table 1: Adaptations of the Inventory of the Dimensions of Emerging Adulthood

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Hill, Lalji, van	• Netherlands; Dutch	• 54% female	24 items; 6 factors:	
Rossum, van der Geest, & Blokland (2015)	• N = 970 • EFA		• Self-focus (4)	• Identity exploration: future
	• age range: 18-21; mean age = 20,0; SD = 1,44		• Other-focus (2)	self (3)
			• Negativity/Instability (7)	• Experimentation/
			• Identity exploration: sense	Possibilities (5)
			of self (3)	
Wider, Bahari, Mustapha, & Halik	• Malaysia; Malay	• 63.2% female	10 items, 3 factors:	
(2016)	• N = 568; first year university students	• EFA, CFA	• Identity Exploration/Feeling	• Possibilities (3)
	• age range: 18-26; mean age = 20,81; SD = 0,90		"In-Between" (5)	• Instability (2)
Leontopoulou, Mavridis, & Giotsa	• Greece; Greek	• 70,7% female	20 items; 3 factors:	
(2016)	• N = 592; university students	• CFA, EFA	• Identity exploration/Feeling	• Experimentation/
	• age range: 18-30; median age = 21		in-between) (9)	Possibilities/Self-focus (6)
			• Negativity/Instability (5)	
Dutra-Thomé & Koller (2017)	Brazil; Portuguese	• 64.2% female	29 items; 6 factors:	
(2017)	• N = 547	• CFA, EFA	• Identity Exploration (5)	• Self-Focused (8)
	• age range: 18-2; median age = 22		• Experimentation/	• Feeling In-Between (4)
			Possibilities (3)	• Other-Focused (2)
			• Negativity/Instability (7)	
Sánchez-Queija, Parra,	• Spain; Spanish	• 60% female	31 items; 6 factors:	
Camacho, & Arnett (2018)	• N = 1 435; university students	• CFA	• Identity Exploration (7)	• Other-Focused (3)
	• age range: 18-29; mean age = 20,32; SD = 2,13		• Experimentation/	• Self-Focused (6)
			possibilities (5)	• Feeling "In-Between" (3)
			• Negativity/Instability (7)	

Overview of the research on emerging adulthood

Arnett's article in 2004 stimulated the scientific study of emerging adulthood, and this has been reflected in the number of research papers discussing this life period. In 2013, a "multidisciplinary, international organization with a focus on theory and research related to emerging adulthood, which includes the age range of approximately 18 through 29 years" (SSAE, 2014), was established. The SSAE (Society for the Study of Emerging Adulthood, n. d.) also provides a summary of crucial fields connected with emerging adulthood - Topic Networks. Its goal is to bring researchers with common interests together in the specific area of emerging adulthood research (SSAE, 2014).

From the developmental perspective, Swanson (2016) points out that the field of study for emerging adulthood has strong roots in and is closely associated with adolescent research. Despite this, emerging adulthood is now a legitimate field in its own right and is the focus of interdisciplinary study which means a broad range of empirical research. Among the most

frequently investigated topics in the context of emerging adulthood are: substance use, parent/family relationships, sexual development and intimacy, at-risk behaviour and peer relationships (Swanson, 2016). Many studies are directly associated with development – cognitive, intellectual, career, or identity development. Whereas Ravert et al. (2018) have reported that the concept of self is the most common topic of research amongst 18-29-year-olds. According to the authors, this includes individual characteristics such as identity, beliefs, decision-making, personality and religiosity. Another essential field of study are the aspects of the transition to adulthood, i.e., the changes that occur during this life stage. These include attitudes toward adulthood and establishing independence. There is a high prevalence of studies on risk behaviour (including alcohol use, suicide and substance use), romantic relationships and relationships with parents, siblings and peers. The research focused on achievement (in terms of work or career achievement) and psychological well-being is also very prevalent.

Research on emerging adulthood in terms of goal-oriented behaviour

One of the prospective directions of recent research has been the issue of goals. The increased degree of subjective and objective instability among emerging adults is reflected in the variability of life plans, goals and their revision (Luyckx et al., 2011). One of the reasons for this is that young people at this age are confronted significantly more often with important life transitions, decisions (Caspi, 2002; Salmela-Aro et al., 2007) and social pressure to fulfil normative developmental tasks (independence, partnership/marriage, family, education/work; Nurmi, 2004; Schulenberg, Bryant, & O'malley, 2004). This requires a significant amount of individual effort; such as setting goals, planning, making decisions, exploration and commitment. In doing so, young people not only influence their current life situation but the direction of their future lives as well (Nurmi, 2004).

In terms of the motivational theory of life-span (e.g., Heckhausen, Wrosch, & Schulz, 2010), age is related to the degree of urgency of normative tasks facing those in their twenties. The current trend of pushing adult social roles and fulfilling socially anticipated developmental challenges to an older age (e.g., Arnett, 2018; Macek et al., 2016) implies that the time perspective (focusing on the present or the future) and what goals young people perceive as relevant at that moment, play an important role. While some individuals focus on their future and realize how their current behaviour contributes to the achievement of long-term goals, others are immersed in the present to such an extent that they are unaware of the future consequences of their current decisions and actions (Kačmár, manuscript in preparation; Zimbardo & Boyd, 2008). Young people have the need to experiment and explore as much as possible. However, this is within a relatively limited time period between 20-30 (Arnett, 2007b); which is also reflected in the tendency towards planned postponement of achieving development goals (Arnett, 2018; Macek et al., 2016), and the issue of frozen goals (where an individual has a given goal, feels a commitment to reaching the goal but postpones its implementation for some time; Davydenko et al., 2019). In this case, the perspective of time represents a key cognitive-motivational variable in goal-directed behaviour (Kačmár, manuscript in preparation; Kooij et al., 2018). Due to this, this stage of life becomes important in shaping the future of an adult (Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010; Salmela-Aro et al., 2007). However, a substantial part of the research carried out so far has only had the character of screening and mapping. There has been no comprehensive approach taken on the issue of goal orientation which would take current theoretical and methodological approaches into account. Part of the research has looked at the subjective timing of young people's development goals and their link to normative social expectations. Despite the discrepancy between social pressure and the individual importance that young people attribute to goals (Seiffge-Krenke & Gelhaar, 2008), the results suggest that normative expectations in achieving development goals (tasks) are still present in society (Galambos, Barker, & Tilton-Weaver, 2003). Moreover, these have the potential to guide people's thinking and action and create a kind of life scenario (Ferraro, 2014). Research also suggests that age, gender or one's role (student vs. work) (Salmela-Aro et al., 2007) play a role in the process of future planning, goal setting and achievement in the context of expected development tasks.

The role of goals and expectations in individual development has also been explored in the context of development and personality (Nurmi, 2004). In this context, the transition to adulthood is characterized by the transformation of normative developmental tasks into personal goals, the achievement of which is associated with an improvement in subjective wellbeing (e.g., Messersmith & Schulenberg, 2010). Research findings to date have suggested that the ability to achieve at least some of the prescriptive development goals is a prerequisite for young people at this age to successfully enter adulthood and adapt to the role of being an adult (Negru, 2008; Salmela-Aro et al., 2007; Wall et al., 2016). In order to achieve these goals, young people should be able to apply self-regulatory processes (Lovaš, Ráczová, et al., 2017; Scheier & Carver, 2003) in the form of suppressing behavioural tendencies that do not achieve the goal, have the ability to overcome obstacles, and the ability to decide. This is crucial as this age is considered to be one of the most critical normative life transitions (Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004), and the issue of managing transitions and overcoming obstacles becomes very relevant during this period (Nurmi, 2004). In addition, Biggart and Walther (2006) state that the complexity of this developmental period has increased. This is due to it no longer being just a single transit but a series of microtransitions (e.g., role transitions, transition to work) with the so-called" yoyo effect" increasing the instability of the period.

In Slovakia, there has been neither research into emerging adulthood nor into the issue of goals during the transition to adulthood. In the culturally similar Czech Republic, however, this period of life has been given greater attention. In particular, research into the general characteristics of emerging adulthood (Macek et al., 2007; Macek et al., 2016). Between 2012 and 2016, research on emerging adulthood was carried out within a project called Paths to Adulthood: longitudinal research of developmental trajectories and predictors of autonomy and identity. In addition to autonomy (e.g., Ježek, Macek, Neužilová Michalčáková, & Bouša, 2014) and identity (e.g., Kvitkovičová, & Máchová, 2017), the research looked at romantic relationships (e.g., Kotrlová & Lacinová, 2013; Lacinová & Neužilová Michalčáková, 2014), relationships with parents (e.g., Almenara, Umemura, & Macek, 2016; Horská & Lacinová, 2015), attachment (e.g., Umemura et al., 2017; Umemura, Lacinová, Kotrčová, & Fraley, 2018), career (e.g. Kvitkovičová & Máchová, 2016), fears (e.g., Volková, Lacinová, Neužilová Michalčáková, & Dušková, 2016) and eating behaviour disorders (e.g., Almenara et al., 2016). In the context of the goals during the transition to adulthood, it has been found that up to 30% of young people experience significant uncertainty and concerns about setting adequate life goals, their implementation and self-decision (Volková et al., 2016), which may affect overall subjective satisfaction and adaptation of the individual. However, this worldwide research in goals area in the twenties has been carried out only as screening and mapping in other research tasks. It is clear that the questions concerning the selection, planning and achievement of objectives are among the key characteristics of the transition to adulthood. Identifying and clarifying essential psychological mechanisms in the process of achieving goals at a time when an individual is confronted with the need to make vital life choices is one of the most important means of understanding successful adaptation to the role of an adult.

Conclusion

The presented paper has focused on the developmental age period between 20 and 30. This is referred to as emerging adulthood in the current scientific literature (e.g., Arnett, 2018; Macek et al., 2015, 2016). This life stage is mainly considered to be a period of transition to adulthood (Caspi, 2002; Salmela-Aro et al., 2007). The key features of emerging adulthood have been identified as: identity exploration, instability, self-focus, a feeling of 'in between' (adolescence and adulthood) and having a wide repertoire of possibilities (Arnett, 2007a, 2007b). The individual differences in these markers of emerging adulthood reflect the striking variability of transition to adulthood at both a population and individual level (Arnett, 2004).

The increasing level of subjective and objective instability is reflected in the variability of life plans, goals and their revision (Luyckx et al., 2011; Shulman & Nurmi, 2010). Therefore, the current research into emerging adulthood also focuses on personal and developmental goals in several important domains of life (education/work, relationships, residential autonomy, family) (Ranta, Dietrich, & Salmela-Aro, 2014). A particular area of interest is the issue of self-regulation in terms of the specifics of the process in setting and achieving these goals in young people (Carver & Scheier, 2016; Schulenberg, Sameroff, & Cicchetti, 2004) and the question of their exact timing (Kačmár, manuscript in preparation; Kooij et al., 2018).

As has been pointed out, there has been a lack of interest in investigating emerging adulthood in Slovakia. Interest in this issue is, however, growing slowly, as evidenced by the current interdisciplinary project, which focuses on the quality of romantic relationships between adolescents and young adults (APVV-18-0303, Nozdrovická, 2019) and several studies on this topic from the perspective of other scientific disciplines (Džambazovič, 2018), especially sociology (Roupa, 2016). Given that emerging adults (people aged between 18 and 29) represent more than 15% of the total Slovak population (EUROSTAT, 2018), it is crucial to pay much more attention to this group. Furthermore, the demographic characteristics of young Slovaks are changing in a similar way to how Arnett illuded to when presenting his concept of emerging adulthood in the USA. For example, the age of entering into a marriage in Slovakia has increased by more than four years since 2000. In 2017, on average, Slovak women were first marrying at the age of 28.6, and men at the age of 31.2 (EUROSTAT, 2017a). Similarly, the age of entering into a parental role is increasing; since 2000 the age when women were having their first child increased by three years to 27.1, on average, in 2017 (EUROSTAT, 2007b). Similar shifts are seen in the case of other demographic characteristics, which may be referred to as criteria of adulthood. With this in mind, we are convinced that in Slovakia it is relevant to pay more attention to research on emerging adulthood. It is believed that exploring the key features of emerging adulthood and their role in the processes of goal-oriented behaviour will lead to a deeper understanding of the transition to adulthood processes.

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Acknowledgements:

The research was supported by the grant agency VEGA under the contract No. 1/0748/19



ISSN 1335-3608

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PARENTAL NON-/PARTICIPATION IN CHILD-DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

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Abstract:

Background: It is always a challenge to involve parents in child-development research, and there are a number of reasons why parents do not participate in such research. These include: inadequate invitations to take part, lack of time or long-term absence of the parent, the character of the study, problem behaviour occurring in the family, and parental involvement in the child's life. In many "family studies", it is often the case that only the mothers' opinions are represented, and, in fact, the need to recruit fathers in research has subsequently increased in recent years, as it can present different views to those only including mothers. In terms of optimizing data collection as well as for interpreting and generalising the findings, it is crucial to know whether children whose parents participate in research differ in important characteristics from those whose parents do not participate. Adults who volunteer to take part in research, have been found to have some specific characteristics, some of which have a socio-demographic basis. The present study provides the potential reasons and the differences between the children of participating and non-participating parents.

Aim: The aim of this study was to uncover the above differences with respect to (1) socio-demographic indicators; such as gender and the financial situation of the family, (2) health-risk behaviour (alcohol use, smoking, drunkenness) and problem behaviour, (3) parental processes (parental disclosure, solicitation, knowledge, monitoring/rules-setting) and parent-child relationships (companionship, conflict, intimate disclosure, affection, reassurance of worth, satisfaction, antagonism, punishment and relative power). This research also aims to identify what might increase the probability of parental participation in child development research. In general, it can be hypothesised that mothers are more likely to respond. With regards to the gender of the child, it is expected that there would be a higher rate of response from the parent of the same sex as the child. Parents with a higher socio-economic status are also hypothesized to be more likely to participate in the research. Parents who care about the activities of their child and show the positive aspects of the parent-child relationship are also hypothesized to be more involved in child development research. On the other hand, parents with problems occurring in their family might be hindered in providing any personal information.

Methods: The research sample consisted of 810 early adolescents from Slovakia (mean age= 12.78, SD=.72), 49.9% were girls. The children were administered a paper-pen questionnaire to monitor risky behaviour - alcohol use, drunkenness, smoking (Hibell et al, 2012), permitted smoking and alcohol use by parents; problematic behaviour; parental processes (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; subscales: child disclosure, parental solicitation, parental knowledge, parental monitoring/rules) and relationships (The Network of Relationships Social Provision Version, Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; subscales: companionship, conflict, antagonism, intimate disclosure, affection, reassurance of worth, satisfaction with relationship, punishment, relative power). A total of 401 mothers (51.88%

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of all mothers whose children reported they lived with a mother or a step-mother) and 242 fathers (36.1% % of all fathers whose children reported they lived with a father or a step-father) were willing to participate in the research after sealed envelopes with questionnaires were delivered to them through their children. A chi-square test of independence and Mann-Whitney U test were used to analyse the data in SPSS 21.

Results: Just over half of the mothers and one third of the fathers asked to participate in this research were willing to do so. According to the results, fathers were more likely to participate if their daughter was in the research rather than their son, χ^2 (1, n=669)=6,38, p=0,012, phi=-0,101. There were no significant differences found in the perception of the family's financial situation between the children of participating and non-participating parents (mothers: U=64402, Z=-1.166, p=.24; fathers: U=43783, Z=-0.065, p=.95). However, there were significant differences in school achievement (mothers: U=57697.5, Z=-4.002, p<.001; fathers: U=35036, Z=-4.566, p<.001), problem behaviour (mothers: U=54604.5, Z=-3.554, p<.001; fathers: U=32719.5, Z=-4.615, p<.001), maternal punishment (U=52816.5, Z=-2.589, p<.05) and the relative power of the father (U=28470, Z=-1.980, p<.05), with higher scores in children whose mother/father did not participate in the research. Furthermore, there was a difference in parental knowledge (mothers: U=55343, Z=-2.345, p<.05) and monitoring/setting rules (fathers: U=35239.5, Z=-2.120, p<.05) with a higher score in children whose mothers/fathers were involved in the research. The other variables did not show significant differences.

Conclusions: There is little known about the differences between the children of parents or parents themselves who participate in research and those who do not. The current results show that important indicators of parental participation in research appear to be: better school achievement of their child, better parental knowledge and a greater level of monitoring. In addition, less problematic and health-risk behaviour, lower maternal punishment and the lower relative power of the father might increase the probability of parental participation in research. These findings highlight the trend that the parents of less problematic children with more appropriate forms of parenting and parent-child relationships are more likely to participate in research. These findings need to be taken into account when interpreting the results related to parental data. Similarly, these findings may be useful in the process of increasing the probability of parental participation in research.

Keywords:

Problem behaviour. Risk behaviour. Parental processes. Early adolescents. Parents.

Introduction

Involving parents in the child development research of their child is always a challenge. The reasons why parents do not participate in such research vary. It might be an inadequate invitation to take part, lack of time or long-term absence of the parent. There is also the character of the study to consider (laboratory-based ones are more likely to be refused), more than one data collection point and unknown researcher to the potential participants (Woollett, White, & Lyon, 1982). However, it is crucial for future research to find adequate ways to involve parents in health research (Shen, 2017). Many "family studies" have only presented the opinion of mothers and the need for recruiting fathers in research has subsequently increased in recent years. Interviewing fathers can present different views (Macfadyen, Swallow, Santacroce, & Lambert, 2011) and undoubtedly, fathers also have an important role in influencing child development in both positive and negative ways (Phares, 1995). In order to increase the response rate of parents in data collection, it is essential to identify the factors associated with parental involvement in the research of their children. On one hand, it could be associated with the health-risk behaviour or problem behaviour of the child while on the other hand, it could be the parental engagement in the child's life and the interest in the child's activities which might play a role in the willingness to fill in a questionnaire. Parental involvement in a child's life in general means participation of parents in their social, emotional and academic development (Castro et al., 2015). Parental involvement in general has many positive outcomes. It is associated with better social skills, improved behaviour, better adaptation to school (Henderson & Mapp, 2002) and better academic achievement of the child (Castro et al., 2015). Parenting practices which involve the knowledge and monitoring of adolescents are often considered to be factors preventing substance use and its negative outcomes (Delforterie et al., 2016). Another

study related to parental involvement has shown that mothers had more knowledge about adolescents' peer relationships than fathers, that mothers reported the most peer-oriented activities with daughters, and that both mothers and fathers spent more time with adolescents belonging to their own sex (Updegraff, McHale, Crouter, & Kupanoff, 2001).

Little is known about the differences between the children of parents who participate in research and those who do not. However, the specific characteristics of adults who volunteer to take part in research have previously been investigated. They have been found to be lower in neuroticism and higher in conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness (Lönnqvist et al., 2007), better educated, more intelligent, higher in socio-economic status, more sociable, and more in need of social approval (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975) in comparison to non-volunteers. In Slovakia, university students who participated in the follow ups of a longitudinal study demonstrated less risky behaviour (smoking, alcohol consumption), were less extroverted and less open to experience than those who did not (Bavol'ár & Bačíková, 2017).

Phares (1995) compared children who had received active parental consent to participate in research with those who had not. These children were less psychologically maladjusted than children who did not have active parental consent (Phares, 1995). It is also essential for the interpretation and generalisation of research results to address the differences in important characteristics between the children of parents who decided to participate in research and those who did not. Thus, the aim of this study was to explore the relationship between parental participation in research and (1) the child's gender, differences between the children of participating and non-participating parents in perceptions of the financial situation of the family, and (2) a child's alcohol use and smoking, parental alcohol use and smoking, permission to use alcohol and smoke by parents as well as in manifestations of problem behaviour and school achievement. The distinction between children whose parents participated and did not participate in research was also examined in (3) family processes and parent-child relationships. Socio-demographic data cannot be overlooked in such a research topic. It can be hypothesised that mothers in general are more likely to respond. It is also expected that there will be a higher rate of response from the parent of the same sex as the child. Parents with a higher socioeconomic status are more likely to participate in the research. Parents who care about the activities of their child and show the positive aspects of the parent-child relationship are also hypothesized to be involved in child development research and in supplying the necessary information. However, parents with problems occurring in their family might be hindered in providing any personal information.

Methods

Procedure

The data was collected using paper-pen questionnaires from early adolescents in the seventh grade at primary schools in Slovakia in the school year 2017/2018. Prior to this, informed consent was obtained from the parents/legal representatives of all participants. 18 primary schools from all regions in Slovakia were included in the analyses in this study. In each school, pupils from all classes in the seventh grade participated in the study. The questionnaires were filled in during two school lessons in the presence of a trained research team member, without the presence of the teacher. The questionnaires were completed confidentially. The study obtained ethical approval from the university's ethics committee. Parents were informed about the research primarily through school websites, bulletin boards and information leaflets. They were also officially asked to participate in the research by the teachers during a parents meeting. The questionnaires were delivered in sealed envelopes to them through their children.

Sample

The sample size consisted of 810 early-adolescents (mean age=12.78; SD=.72; 49.9% girls). A total of 401 mothers (51.88% of all mothers whose children reported they lived with a mother or a step-mother) and 242 fathers (36.1% % of all fathers whose children reported they lived with a father or a step-father) were willing to participate in the research. With respect to geographical regions, 405 (50.5%) respondents live in West Slovakia, 250 (30.8%) live in East Slovakia and 151 (18.7%) respondents live in central Slovakia.

The children were administered questionnaires to monitor risky behaviour - alcohol use, drunkenness, smoking, permitted smoking and alcohol use by parents; problematic behaviour; parental processes (child disclosure, parental solicitation, parental knowledge, parental monitoring/rules) and relationships (companionship, conflict, antagonism, intimate disclosure, affection, reassurance of worth, satisfaction with relationship, punishment, relative power).

Measurements

The demographic part of the questionnaire contained items such as age and gender, living with mother/stepmother, father/stepfather in one household and school achievement (self-evaluation). The perception of the financial situation in the family was assessed through the comparison of the financial situation of other families in Slovakia (7- point scale, from much better to much worse).

Child's alcohol use and smoking

The prevalence of alcohol use and smoking cigarettes during the past 30 days was measured on a frequency scale with the options: not at all/ once/ twice-four times/ five times or more (Hibell et al, 2012). The answers were dichotomized in order to differentiate the sample between alcohol and cigarette users and non-users. In the case of alcohol, those who had only tried alcohol once were defined as non-users. Incidences of drunkenness (with symptoms such as unsteady walking, failing to speak properly, vomiting, not remembering what happened yesterday) were measured on a frequency scale with the options: never happened to me/ happened to me more than once/usually happens to me once a month/ usually happens to me once a week. Similarly, this item was dichotomized to "already happened to me".

Permitted use of alcohol and smoking by parents

Permission/acceptance of alcohol use and smoking by parents was addressed by three statements: I have permission to smoke; I have permission to drink alcohol at home; I have permission to drink alcohol outside the house. The respondents used a 4-point response scale (never-always). The dichotomization was applied to these items as well (with permission to drink at home/ outside the house/smoke – without permission).

Parental alcohol use and smoking

Parental alcohol use, smoking and incidences of drunkenness from the perception of their children were measured by three questions with the responses yes/no: My mother/father: smokes cigarettes every day; drinks alcoholic drinks at least once a week; gets drunk at least once a month.

Manifestations of problem behaviour

Problem behaviour was measured on the basis of 19 items concerning selected forms of problem behaviour (trying to avoid school; classroom disturbance; swearing; cheating; refusal to meet

teacher requirements - negativity; damaging school property; fighting; physical harm, intimidation and bullying of classmates). The respondents had the opportunity to respond on a 5-point scale and express how often they had behaved in the manner described in the last 12 months. An index of problem behaviour was created by computing all 19 items.

Family processes

In order to measure parental monitoring behaviours and child disclosure, the measures developed by Stattin and Kerr (2000) were used. This measure includes three subscales: Monitoring/rules – active setting of rules regarding the child's behaviour (e.g.:" Do you need to have your parents' permission to stay out late on a weekday evening?"), solicitation – active behaviour of parents in terms of obtaining information about their child, (e.g.: "In the past month, how often have your parents talked with the parents of your friends? ") and disclosure-spontaneously confiding in parents about the child's personal lives (e.g.: "How often do you tell your parents how you are doing at school, without them asking? "). A subscale of parental knowledge was also added which addresses the extent to which parents are informed about the free time activities of their child (e.g.: "Do your parents know who you are friends with? "). A five-point response scale was used for all items.

Parent-child relationships

In order to measure parent-child relationships, The Network of Relationships Social Provision Version (NRI-SPV, Furman & Buhrmester, 1985) was used. It consists of nine subscales with three items in each (companionship, conflict, intimate disclosure, affection, reassurance of worth, satisfaction, antagonism, punishment and relative power). The participants rated how much each feature occurred in each relationship using a five-point Likert scale from (1) "little or none to (5) "the most"). The scale scores are derived by averaging the items.

All of these measures have been shown to have acceptable internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha) which are reported in Table 1.

Table 1: Cronbach alpha values of individual subscales used in research

Scale/Subscales	Cronbach alpha
Problem behaviour	.83
Parental monitoring	
Knowledge	.80
Solicitation	.67
Disclosure	.70
Monitoring/rules	.73

The Network of Relationships Social Provision Version

	mother	father
companionship	.72	.76
conflict	.75	.73
antagonism	.75	.73
intimate disclosure	.76	.74
affection	.75	.78
reassurance of worth	.68	.71
satisfaction	.85	.87
punishment	.77	.76
relative power	. 73	.74

The descriptive statistics of the explored variables are reported in Table 2.

	Ν	lean		SI)	Me	edian	
School achievement	2	2.12		.88			2	
Problem behaviour	1.37			.40			1.26	
Monitoring/rules	1	7.21		4.63			18	
Solicitation	15.78			3.87			16	
Disclosure	17.07			4.12			17	
Parental knowledge	2	7.26		5.5	58		28	
	mother	father	mot	ner	father	mother	father	
Companionship	9.97	9.50	2.7	6	2.91	10	9	
Conflict	6.12	5.82	2.6	7	2.52	6	6	
Intimate disclosure	9.02	7.81	3.1	8	3.14	9	8	
Affection	12.21	11.73	2.2	8	2.65	12	12	
Reassurance of worth	10.77	10.31	2.3	4	2.55	11	10	
Satisfaction	12.21	11.62	2.5	5	2.97	12	12	
Antagonism	5.90	5.79	2.7	1	2.64	5	5	
Punishment	7.24	7.01	2.8	8	2.96	7	6	
Relative power	6.76	6.85	2.2	4	2.27	7	7	
1	not at all	once	twice-		five times			
Alcohol use (past 30			times		or more			
days)	632	109	38 (4.8	3%)	14 (1.8%)			
. ,	(79.7%)	(13.7%)	[×]	,	,			
Smoking (past 30 days)	748 (93.5%)	27 (3.4%)	9 (1.19	%)	16 (2)			
	never	happened	happer	ned	usually	usually		
	happened	to me	to me		happens to	•		
	to me		than of		me once a			
Drunkenness					month	week		
	757	34 (4.3%)	8 (1%))	1 (0.1%)	1 (0.1%)	_	
	(93.5%)							
Parental permission	never	sometimes	s often		always			
Permission to smoke	713 (93.5%)	20 (2.5%)	15 (2%	b)	15 (2%)			
Permission to drink at	675 (88.6)	61 (8%)	16 (2.1	%)	10 (1.3%)			
home	070 (00.0)	01 (0/0)	10 (2.)	. / . /	10 (1.570)			
Permission to drink	713 (93%)	27 (3.4%)	15 (2%	<u>(</u>)	12 (1.6%)			
outside	(10 (10 (10))	_/ (011/0)	10 (27)	.,	12 (11070)			
Parental risk behaviour	yes	no						
Mother smokes	77 (14.3)	461						
cigarettes every day	(=)	(85.7%)						
Mother drinks alcoholic	23 (5%)	438 (95%))					
drinks at least once a	- (- · · ·)	()	/					
week								
Mother gets drunk at	10 (1.5%)	648						
least once a month		(98.5%)						
Father smokes cigarettes	132	461						
every day	(22.3%)	(77.7%)						
Father drinks alcoholic	135	438						
drinks at least once a	(23.6%)	(76.4%)						
week	. /	. /						
Father gets drunk at least	85 (11.6%)	648						
once a month		(88.4%)						
	much		a bit	the sa	ame a bit	worse	much	
Financial situation of the	better		better		wor	se	worse	
family with comparison to others	65	141	216	300	50	9 (1.1%) 5 (0.6%)	
0 00003	(8.3%)	(17.9%)	(27.5%)	(38.2	%) (6.4	%)		

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the explored variables

Statistical analyses

In order to address the aim of the research, a descriptive analysis, Chi-square test of independence and Mann-Whitney U test were performed in SPSS 21. Non-parametric tests were chosen due to the character of the variables (categorical), the abnormal distribution of the variables and unbalanced numbers of respondents in each of the two groups.

Results

Socio-demographic indicators

There were no significant differences found in the perception of the financial situation of the family between children of participating and non-participating parents (mothers: U=64402, Z=-1.166, p=.24; fathers: U=43783, Z=-.065, p=.95). A significant association was revealed between a father's participation in the research and the gender of the child, χ^2 (1, n=669) =6.38, p=.012, phi=-.101. Fathers were more likely to participate when their daughter participated in the research rather than their son (Table 3).

Table 3: The association between father's participation in research and gender of the child

			gender				
			son	daughter	together		
Father's participation	yes	n	78	108	186		
		% of participation fathers	41.9%	58.1%	100%		
		% of son/daughter	23.3%	32.3%	27.8%		
	no	n	257	226	483		
		% of non-participating father	53.2%	46.8%	100%		
		% of son/daughter	76.7%	67.7%	72.2%		
Together		n	335	334	669		
		% of participating/ non- participating fathers	50.1%	49.9%	100%		

Note. Number of respondents (n) reflects the number of those who replied to particular questions included in analyses

Problem behaviour and health-risk behaviour

There were significant differences found in school achievement and problem behaviour between children of participating and non-participating parents, with the small effect size (Table 4). Higher scores were found in the children of non-participating parents.

	Participating mothers		Non-participating mothers		U	Ζ	р	effect size
	Mean Rank	п	Mean Rank	п				
School achievement	344.65	289	407.04	477	57697.5	-4.002	<.001	.14
Problem behaviour	335.32	281	392.79	460	54604.5	-3.554	<.001	.16
Parental knowledge	385.75	275	348.26	449	55343	-2.345	<.05	.09
Punishment (mother)	329.49	278	369.88	429	52816.5	-2.589	<.05	.10
	Participa	ting fathers	Non-part fathers	icipating	U	Ζ	р	effect size
	Mean Rank	n	Mean Rank	п				
School achievement	281.87	186	353.51	480	35036	-4.566	<.001	.18
Problem behaviour	270.32	184	345.33	463	32719.5	-4.615	<.001	.18
Monitoring/rules	341.62	172	307.11	460	35239.5	-2.120	<.05	.08
Relative power (father)	258.44	160	287.97	398	28470	-1.980	<.05	.08

Table 4: Significant differences in the explored variables between children of participating and non-participating mothers and fathers

Note. one-tailed p-values are reported; number of respondents (n) reflects the number of those who replied to particular questions included in analyses

A significant association was found between a mother's participation in the research and permission of smoking by parents, χ^2 (1, n=737) =4.81, p=.028, phi=.087. The mothers of children who were not allowed to smoke were more likely to participate in the research (Table 5).

Table 5: The association between mother's participation in research and permission to smoke by parents

			Permission by parent	on to smoke t	
			no	yes	together
Mother's participation	yes	n	265	10	275
		% of participating mothers	96.4%	3.6%	100%
		% of permission/no permission to smoke	38.4%	21.3%	37.3%
	no	n	425	37	462
		% of non-participating mothers	92%	8%	100%
		% of permission/no permission to smoke	61.6%	78.7%	62.7%
together		n	690	47	737
		% of participating/ non- participating mothers	93.6%	6.4%	100%

Note. Number of respondents (n) reflects the number of those who replied to particular questions included in analyses

There were no significant differences or associations in other variables related to the health-risk behaviour of children or parents (frequency of alcohol use, smoking, drunkenness, parental permission to drink at home and outside the house).

Parental processes and relationships and participation in the research

However, there were significant differences with small effect size in parental knowledge between the children of participating and non-participating mothers and monitoring/rule-setting between the children of participating and non-participating fathers (Table 4). In both cases, higher parental knowledge and higher monitoring was reported by children of participating mothers/fathers in comparison to non-participating mothers/fathers.

Furthermore, the differences were significant, although still with the small effect size, with regard to punishment by the mother between the children of participating and non-participating mothers and relative power of the father between the children of participating and non-participating fathers (Table 4).

Higher scores were reported in the children of non-participating mothers/fathers in comparison to participating mothers/fathers. There were no significant differences found in other variables with regard to the explored parental processes and relationships (parental solicitation and disclosure, companionship, conflict, intimate disclosure, affection, reassurance of worth, satisfaction, antagonism).

Discussion

In this study, about half of all mothers whose children reported they lived with a mother or a step-mother and a third of all fathers whose children reported they lived with a father or a stepfather agreed to participate in the research. As just over one third of fathers participated in the research, this contradicts the findings of previous studies showing that fathers are willing to participate when asked (Phares, 1995). Moreover, the current results indicate that fathers are more willing to participate when their daughter is involved in the research rather than their son. This contradicts Costigan and Coy (2001) who found neither differences with regards to the child's gender nor regarding the hypothesis about parents participating when of the same sex as the child. It is also inconsistent with the findings that the participation rates of mothers and fathers do not differ (Phares, 1995; Woollett, White, & Lyon, 1982). There are two explanations to be considered in these unexpected findings. The first one is the developmental period of participants - as older age groups were included in the other studies. The second explanation may be attributed to the cultural context. In some countries, mothers have more responsibility for adolescents' discipline, daily care, and recreational activities (Phares, Fields, & Kamboukos, 2009). In Slovakia, the role of mother as a primary caregiver and as a person who spends more time with adolescents is still present. Fathers may not have been interested in answering the questionnaire or may not have felt competent enough to answer questions about their children. This is in line with a further result which shows there is a lower probability of fathers participating in families where adolescents perceive their parenting as less appropriate. Even though there is evidence of adults with higher socio-economic status participating in research (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1975), the current research found no significant differences in the perception of the family financial situation between the children of participating and nonparticipating parents. It is worth considering that other aspects of socio-economic status, not addressed in our study, might play a role here. Moreover, the importance of socio-economic status might have changed in recent decades.

The current study identified significant findings with regards to problem and health-risk behaviour; the mothers of children who were not allowed to smoke were more likely to be

involved in the research. The children of parents participating in the research demonstrated lower rates of problem behaviour and better school grades in comparison to the children of non-participating parents in the current study. Similarly, previous research findings have shown an association between active parental consent to participating in research and lower psychological maladjustment (Phares, 1995). No differences were found in the health-risk behaviour of parents or children in our study. Similarly, Phares (1995) found that there were no differences in paternal/maternal and student drinking behaviour between participating and non-participating fathers/mothers.

The current results have provided substantial support to findings related to parental processes and parent-child relationships. The children of participating mothers had higher rates in parental knowledge and children of participating fathers reported higher parental monitoring in comparison to non-participating mothers and fathers, respectively. Lower rates in maternal punishment and paternal relative power were found among children of participating mothers and fathers, respectively. These results indicate that more appropriate forms of parenting and parent-child relationships are more likely to be present in families where parents participate in research. This supports our assumption that parents who are perceived as more involved in a child's activities and life are more likely to participate in the research. It has been found that less optimal parenting environments were typical for fathers who did not participate in research (Costigan & Cox, 2011). In her study, Phares (1995) found there to be no differences in paternal/maternal parenting behaviour. The only difference found was that mothers who participated in the research were perceived as more intrusive by their children than mothers who did not participate. The children of participating fathers and mothers appeared not to differ from the children of non-participating fathers and mothers in her study. Unlike Phares (1995), the current results show that appropriate parenting is related to parental participation.

In summary, our assumptions were partially supported by the results. It was indeed found that mothers were more willing to participate in the research of their children. However, the gender of a child seemed to only be important for fathers who, in contrast to our hypothesis, were more likely to participate if their daughter was involved in the research rather than their son. The financial situation of the family, as one of many aspects of socio-economic status, was not found to play a significant role in parental participation. However, other aspects of socio-economic status should be addressed in future research. There were significant findings identified with regards to problem behaviour, school achievement and health-risk behaviour in the way that was expected. Within health-risk behaviour, only permission to smoke appeared to be significant in the non-participation of mothers. Parental involvement and the parent-child relationship also gained validity in the current investigation. Forms of parental involvement such as higher parental knowledge (in mothers) and higher parental monitoring (in fathers) were found to be significant in parental participation. Regarding the parent-child relationship, lower rates in maternal punishment and paternal relative power were found to be positively associated with parental participation. The contrast to previous findings and to our assumptions could be explained by the specific development period of respondents as well as by the cultural specifics of maternal/paternal role in upbringing as discussed.

Limitations

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this study. Firstly, inaccuracies could have been caused by the self-reporting nature of the data and the child's perception of parental behaviour. However, the high relevance of self-perception is well documented in this kind of research (e.g.: Abar, Jackson, Colby, & Barnett, 2015; Maurizi, Gershoff, & Aber, 2012). Furthermore, children's reports of their parent's behaviour have been shown to be valid

indicators of parental functioning (Phares, 1995). Secondly, even though most of the used measures are standardized and widely used abroad, further validation of the methods in the population of Slovak early adolescents might improve their psychometric qualities. Finally, a longitudinal research design would be necessary to address the causality of the relationships, which is also possible to explore in future research.

Conclusions

Little is known about the differences between the children of parents or parents themselves who participate in research and those who do not. The results of the current study show that important indicators of parental participation in research appear to be better school achievement of their child, better parental knowledge and higher monitoring, as well as less problematic and health-risk behaviour, lower maternal punishment and lower relative power of the father. These findings highlight the trend that the parents of less problematic children with more appropriate forms of parenting and parent-child relationships are more likely to participate in research. These findings need to be taken into account when interpreting the results related to parental data. Similarly, these findings may be useful for the process of increasing the probability of parental participation in research.

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Acknowledgement:

This work was supported by the scientific grant agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic and of Slovak Academy of Sciences under contract no. VEGA 1/0523/20, VEGA 1/0623/17 and by the Slovak Research and Development Agency under the contract no. APVV-15-0662.



ATTACHMENT AND COPING STRATEGIES AS PREDICTORS OF MENTAL OVERLOAD AMONG MEMBERS OF THE SECURITY SERVICES OF THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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Človek a spoločnosť [Individual and Society] 23(1), 31–44 DOI: /10.31577/cas.2020.01.567 http://www.clovekaspolocnost.sk/

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Abstract:

Aim: The aims of the present study are three-fold. Firstly, to investigate the use of different attachment and coping strategies among members of the security services of the Czech Republic, and explore the level of experienced mental overload. Secondly, to examine the relationship between the constructs employed in the study. In considering theoretical background and previous research (Janke & Erdmann, 2002; Johnstone & Feeney, 2015; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012) we expect a negative relationship between positive coping strategies and experienced mental overload, but a positive association between negative coping strategies and experienced mental overload. Also, it is hypothesized that hyperactivation and deactivation strategies over and above demographics and coping strategies in predicting mental overload. The wider goal is to consider the potential utilization of attachment and coping strategies in selection procedures in members of the security services.

Method: The research includes members of four security services of the Czech Republic and the sample contained 130 respondents. The mean age of the sample is M = 39.22 years; SD = 9.07 in range of 21 to 64. The sample consisted of N = 83 female (M = 40.74, SD = 10.85), and N = 47 male (M = 38.36, SD = 7.82). Subjects included information about their level of education and the position in which they were employed. Whole teams were included from 4 security services with representatives from both types of positions; back offices as well as a direct duty performance. Participants filled in measures for attachment strategies of hyperactivation and deactivation (EWR-I, Seitl, Seitlová & Střelec, 2017), positive and negative coping strategies (SVF-78, Janke & Erdmannová, 2003), and mental overload (Meister Questionnaire, Hladký & Žídková, 1999).

Results: Both attachment and coping strategies were averagely used by the subjects of our study, while the mental overload was somewhat lower than the norm. In particular, the *T*-scores were 43.41 (hyperactivation), 48.88 (deactivation), 57.80 (positive coping), 43.62 (negative coping), and 40.14 (mental overload). The results from the correlational analysis showed that hyperactivation, deactivation, and negative coping strategies were significantly positively related with experiencing mental overload, which is in line with the expectations. Contrary to our hypothesis, positive coping wasn't significantly related with mental overload. Additionally, a negative association between positive coping and deactivation, and a positive relation among hyperactivation and negative coping showed to be significant.

Focusing on the categories of negative coping, it was found that the strategies of escape tendency (escape from stressful situations), perseveration (being unable to break off from one's thoughts), and resignation (tendency to give up with feelings of helplessness or hopelessness) were significantly positively associated with mental overload. However, a

partial correlation between these strategies and mental overload, controlling for hyperactivation and deactivation, was not significant.

In the first step of the regression model the variables included: sex, age, education, and position; which explained 8% of the variance in experiencing mental overload. In the second step, negative coping was added, and significantly improved in prediction of mental overload, explaining 16 % of the variance. The final step included hyperactivation and deactivation and there was a significant increment of $\Delta R^2 = .24$ over and above demographics and negative coping. In the final model the variables of sex ($\beta = .18$, t = 2.08, p < .05), education ($\beta = .21$, t = 2.57, p < .01), hyperactivation ($\beta = .19$, t = 1.96, p < .05), and deactivation ($\beta = .25$, t = 3.11, p < .01) were significant predictors of mental overload. Conclusion: Our study shows that the attachment strategies of hyperactivation and deactivating) when coping with threats (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012) are prone to experiencing mental overload. The results suggest that the construct of attachment strategies is more important in predicting workplace overload, compared to negative coping. These findings are analyzed in the discussion and possibilities for further research are given. The main limitation of the study is the specificity of the sample.

Keywords:

Attachment. Coping strategies. Mental overload. Security services.

Introduction

Mental load arises from all situations which stimulate cognitive, emotional, and other personality sources for adaptation response in an individual. Usually, the general stressors causing this results from completely new or unusual situations, qualitative and quantitative overload or interpersonal conflicts. It can also be a product of a limitation of certain factors for various periods, and these specific circumstances can fundamentally change the behavior of each individual (Bedrnová, Pauknerová, & Cejthamlová, 2015; Bowling & Jex, 2013). Overall, any stressor affecting an individual can be considered as a mental load. The key precondition of a perceived mental load is a subjective recognition of an objective stressor; because the extent of experiencing the mental load is highly influenced by individual differences. Although broad attention is paid to objective stressors, it is proposed that there should be a focus on individual differences which influence subjective perceiving of objective stressors. The individual differences, with an evidence-based ability to predict the extent of a perceived load, can be utilized in the selection process, which is especially meaningful in the security services (Bowling & Jex, 2013). Two constructs of individual differences, attachment in adulthood (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007) and coping strategies (Janke & Erdmannová, 2003) were investigated in this field. Even though their association with experiencing a load seems to be clear, there are not enough conclusions to their interactions in predicting a currently perceived load.

The load itself is considered a neutral term, because both positive and negative effects are expected (see Bowling & Jex, 2013; McEwen & Lasley, 2002). In this meaning it is reasonable to point out a distinction between load in general, and negative load (strains) and stress. For example, Paulík (2017) defines stress as a specific case of a more generally conceived load. This is a situation where the experienced load level exceeds the acceptable level in terms of the adaptive ability of the organism under given conditions. The same is true for low load level, which cause the undermining of adaptive responses and also causes stress. Stressors resulting in negative load level or even stress affects overall well-being, and, moreover, are connected to mental and physical diseases (Bowling & Jex, 2013). Therefore, impacts of negative load are of reasonable interest to various psychology specialization, including organizational psychology. The aim of the current study is to investigate the use of different attachment and coping strategies among members of the security services of the Czech Republic, and explore the level of experienced mental overload. Additionally, to
investigate the exclusive roles as well as incremental validity of attachment strategies and coping strategies in predicting the currently perceived mental overload in members of the security services. The wider goal is to consider the potential utilization of attachment and coping strategies in the selection procedures for members of the security services.

Theory

Among the stressors considered as a source of workload are: role ambiguity and role conflict (e.g. Jackson & Schuler, 1985), role overload (Ortqvist & Wincent, 2006), responsibilities, job complexity (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), interpersonal conflicts and organizational constraints (Spector & Jex, 1998), and work-family conflicts (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, the above mentioned stressors can also be divided into challenge stressors and hindrance stressors; with only hindrance stressors leading to a negative load (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Apart from mental load, a physical, behavioral and biological load can also be recognized as a result (Bowling & Jex, 2013; Hladký & Židková, 1999).

The intensity of the load can be assessed by subjective statements about perceived stress, by observing the influence on work behavior, and, last but not least, by measuring the physiological response of the organism. Another possible variant is a subjective evaluation of the load by means of questionnaires (Hodačová et al., 2007). One frequently used instrument for workload in the the Czech Republic is the Meister questionnaire (see Hladký & Židková, 1999; Hodačová et al., 2007; Maroušková & Seitl, 2014). In the conceptualization of workload, Meister stresses that it is a psychological construct, or, in other words, it refers to the perceived workload. Consequently, it is a subjective response by individuals to objective working conditions. One of the dimensions of workload which is of interest to this study is *mental overload*, which exclusively refers to excessive levels of negative mental load.

Many previous studies have reported a relationship between attachment strategies and coping (e.g. Landen & Wang, 2010), experienced workload, stress, or its correlates (e.g. Hardy & Barkham, 1994; Hawkings, Howard, & Oyebode, 2007; Johnstone & Feeney, 2015; Lopez & Ramos, 2016; Možina, 2007; Towler & Stuhlmacher, 2013). Bowlby (1969) defines attachment as an innate behavioral system that is situationally activated when proximity needs to be increased when exposed to potential threat. Later, Mikulincer and Shaver (2003) used the conclusions drawn by Cassidy and Kobak (1988) and described the dynamics of the attachment system at adulthood. The attachment system is autonomously activated in situations perceived by the individual as potential or real threats with the goal to re-establish a feeling of safety. The primary strategies of the system focus on an imaginary or real proximity in the seeking of an important other. If the primary strategies are successful and feeling of safety is renewed, the system is naturally deactivated. If the primary strategies fail, two types of secondary strategies are employed, based on the previous, mainly emotional, experience in proximity seeking. In the first option, individuals tend to believe that strengthened activities leading to closeness with others can restate feelings of safety. Therefore, these individuals use hyperactivation strategies resulting in exaggerated activation of the system. In the second option, individuals tend to believe that besides other threats, other people are mainly threats, and it is necessary to face threats without them. These individuals use deactivation strategies that lead to a deactivated attachment system. Repeating positive experience with one of the mentioned strategies type constitutes a stabile pattern (style) of reaction towards threatening situations, and which is considered to be a personality trait. The primary strategies underlay secure attachment, the hyperactivation secondary strategies underlay insecure anxious

attachment and deactivation secondary strategies underlay insecure avoidant attachment. For the current study, we especially highlight that each type of strategies is expressed via a variety of feelings, experiencing and behaviors that are specific for individuals. However, each type of strategies shares the relational goal in particular – the primary strategies focus on proximity seeking in a situation of threat, the hyperactivation secondary strategies focus on proximity seeking, and stable proximity maintenance and deactivation secondary strategies focus on proximity avoidance. Although each of the named goals can be fulfilled with varieties of expressions, research has brought evidence that secure attachment is connected with expressions leading to lower level load and to positive coping, while insecure patterns of attachment are connected to the opposite (for a comprehensive general overview see Mikulincer & Shaver 2007, 2016; for a field specific overview see Harms, 2011; Yip, Ehrhardt, Black, & Walker, 2018).

Another important predictor of successful/unsuccessful dealing with stressful situations is the construct of coping strategies. Paulík (2017) defines coping strategies as a choice of procedures that are more influenced by the situation and take into account the conditions. "When dealing with serious life events and difficult situations, the individual chooses individual strategies aimed at adapting to change and "minimizing" its undesirable impact on human health" (Pelcák, 2013, 67). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) originally proposed two categories of coping strategies, problemfocused and emotion-focused. Another widely accepted distinction is the one proposed by Janke and Erdmann (2002), which differentiates between positive (adaptive) and negative (maladaptive) coping strategies. Positive and negative coping are broad categories which refer to habitual ways of reacting to stressors. Positive strategies comprise underestimation, guilt denial, diversion, alternative satisfaction, situation control, reaction control, and positive self-instruction, while negative coping subcategories are escape tendency, perseveration, resignation, and self-accusation. Among the named strategies there is also Lazarus and Folkman's distinction, which allows both for a focus on a positive-negative dimension as well as a problem-emotion dimension. Using positive strategies leads to stress reduction, while using negative strategies is associated with behaviors that do not reduce stress, and can even increase it. The relation of coping strategies to the attachment at adulthood is not definitely clear when regarding their impact on load. Attachment at adulthood proposes an explanation for experiencing, and behavioral strategies under given stressors via personality. The theory of coping strategies describes experiencing and behavioral strategies that are learned by individuals and applied under given stressors. Although some overlap can be hypothesized, we will consider both constructs independently, and as a conclusion we state the following hypotheses:

H1: Hyperactivation strategies are associated with mental overload in a positive direction.

H2: Deactivation strategies are associated with mental overload in a positive direction.

H3: Positive coping strategies are associated with mental overload in a negative direction.

H4: Negative coping strategies are associated with mental overload in a positive direction.

H5: Attachment secondary strategies and coping strategies are both mutually independent predictors of mental overload.

Method

Participants

The study is based on N = 130 participants recruited from four security services in the Czech Republic. The mean age of the sample is M = 39.22 years; SD = 9.07 in the range of 21 to 64. The sample consisted of N = 83 female (M = 40.74, SD = 10.85), and N = 47 male (M = 38.36, SD = 7.82). Regarding their work position, 43.1 % of the participants are employed in the back office, while 56.9 % is in direct performance duty. The distribution of the education level in this sample is: 32.3% graduated from high school, 1.5% graduated from college, 24.6% graduated from university as bachelors, and 41.5% graduated from university with a master's degree.

Procedure

All 7 security services of the Czech Republic were asked for cooperation in the research. The stated requirement was the participation of whole work teams. We applied this requirement to minimize the risk of participation by the respondents with only tendencies to primary and hyperactivation secondary strategies. Whole teams were gained from 4 security services with representatives from both types of positions, back offices as well as a direct performance duty. All data was gained from respondents via paper-pencil instruments during one time-period from July 2018 to January 2019.

Instruments

Experiences in Work Relationships Individual (EWR-I) is a self-report scale originally developed for the measurement of hyperactivation and deactivation secondary strategies at work (Seitl, Seitlová & Střelec, 2017). The aim in the formulation of items was an indirect measure of relationship avoidance and anxiety through their expression in work behavior, which is potentially more acceptable for employees. The two orthogonally oriented sub-scales dedicated to hyperactivation and deactivation strategies contain items describing the behavioral manifestations observable for the given secondary strategies in a work environment; the other items describe a respondent's feelings towards co-workers without observable behavior. Each item is rated on a 7point Likert scale (agree-disagree) as is usual in questionnaires for self-report of attachment strategies. For the current study, we used a 19-items version, standardized on a sample of 575 employees. Coefficients of internal consistency α were .79 for deactivation strategies and .81 for hyperactivation strategies. Criterion validity was successfully verified with ECR-CZ (Seitl, Charvát, & Lečbych, 2016).

SVF-78 (Janke & Erdmannová, 2003) is a self-report questionnaire focusing on 13 general coping strategies. Respondents answer 78 items divided into 13 sub-scales representing 13 strategies. Each item is defined as type reacting and is rated by respondents on a 5-point Likert scale according to the probability described when reacting in stressful situations. Results offer a profile of preferred strategies in coping and allows a comparison with norms from different countries. According to their concept, the authors labeled the first 7 strategies as positive coping, which should lead to stress reduction, and the last 4 strategies as negative coping, which do not reduce stress and can even increase it. Two coping strategies, the need for social support and active avoidance, are ordered neither under positive nor negative strategies. Coefficients of internal consistency α were ranking between .77 and .94 for individual sub-scales. However, data for Czech norms was gained from a quite small sample N = 246.

In particular, Hladký and Židková (1999) introduced the Meister Questionnaire of Mental Load to Czech psychological research and practice. The questionnaire consists of 10 items that saturate three factors: mental overload, monotony and nonspecific factor. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale (agree-disagree). Results can be interpreted for each factor independently or for the overall mental load at a group as well as an individual level. Norms, divided according to gender were gained from a sample of 1,527 working respondents. For use in practice, a psychologist can rank the raw score of an individual to one of three ranges, which express the severity of load or can check if the stated critical cut-off was exceeded. In the case of research, it seems to be more useful to transfer individual raw scores to standardized scores. Convergent construct validity was successfully verified via high correlation to state-trait neuroticism and correlation to employee well-being (Hladký & Židková, 1999; Maroušková & Seitl, 2014). We worked with the first factor in the current study. Items of this factor follow the subjective perception of negative level stressors in role overload, responsibility, and conflict.

Results

Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) were calculated for all of the measures used in the study (EWR-I, SVF-78, and the mental overload factor of the Meister questionnaire). Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha scores were conducted for reliability analysis (see Table 1).

	М	SD	Sk	K	α
EWR-I					
Hyperactivation	3.93	0.87	0.08	-0.40	.77
Deactivation	3.14	0.82	0.63	0.59	.78
SVF-87					
POS	14.03	1.93	-0.76	1.10	.61
NEG	8.06	2.79	0.47	0.17	.75
MQ					
Mental overload	6.80	2.43	0.45	-0.49	.71

Table 1: Descriptive statistics, and reliability for the scales of the study

Note. EWR-I = Experiences in Work Relationships – Individual; SVF-78 = Stress Coping Style Questionnaire; POS = Positive coping strategies; NEG = Negative coping strategies; MQ = Meister Questionnaire.

Table 1 shows that internal consistencies were satisfied, apart from the low Cronbach alpha score $(\alpha = .61)$ for positive coping. The scales used in the study are normally distributed, as indicated by the skewness and kurtosis, with the exception of positive coping which has a slightly peaked distribution.

The *T*-scores for all of the constructs used in the study are given in Table 2.

Scales	М	SD
EWR-I		
Hyperactivation	43.41	13.35
Deactivation	48.88	8.93
SVF-87		
Underestimation	58.01	9.37
Guilt denial	51.99	7.62
Diversion	54.63	8.89
Alternative satisfaction	52.88	8.09
Situation control	50.88	9.39
Reaction control	51.88	7.94
Positive self-instruction	50.68	9.50
Need for social support	50.43	8.37
Using of positive coping	57.80	8.27
Active avoidance	53.71	8.90
Escape tendency	49.31	6.64
Perseveration	40.88	8.59
Resignation	45.97	7.01
Self-accusation	43.86	7.99
Using of negative coping	43.62	7.20
MQ		
Mental overload	40.14	8.24

Table 2: Mean scores and standard deviations for the EWR-I, SVF-78, and the mental overload factor of the Meister questionnaire

Note. The strategies of need for social support and active avoidance are not classified as positive or negative; EWR-I = Experiences in Work Relationships – Individual; SVF-78 = Stress Coping Style Questionnaire; MQ = Meister Questionnaire.

Table 2 shows that hyperactivation and deactivation strategies were slightly lower than the norm, but still averagely used by the participants. Regarding the coping strategies, the *T*-scores for using positive coping and negative coping indicate an average use of both strategies, since they all are between 40 - 60. However, using positive coping is higher than negative coping. Focusing on specific positive coping strategies, the strategy underestimation was mostly used. Situation control and positive self-instruction were used less often. The negative strategy of escape tendency was mostly used, but the strategy perseveration was less frequently used by the participants. Nevertheless, all of the specific strategies *T*-scores are within the average range. Finally, participants reported a somewhat lower mental overload.

Intercorrelations

The relationships between the variables are depicted in Table 3.

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Hyperactivation				
2. Deactivation	.06			
3. POS	03	31**		
4. NEG	.54**	.21*	02	
5. Mental overload	.28**	.28**	10	.27**

Table 3: Intercorrelations between the constructs

Note. POS = Positive coping strategies; NEG = Negative coping strategies; *p < .05; **p < .01

As expected, hyperactivation and deactivation strategies were positively related with mental overload. These results support hypotheses 1 and 2. Regarding the coping strategies, surprisingly only negative coping was significantly related with mental overload. Unlike H4, hypothesis 3 was not supported in analysis result. Hyperactivation and deactivation strategies weren't related, as positive and negative coping, which is in line with their theoretical conception as orthogonal constructs. There is a negative association between positive coping and deactivation strategies, and a positive relation among hyperactivation and negative coping.

We then focused on individual negative coping strategies and their relation to mental overload. The results are given in Table 4.

Scale	Mental overload		
Negative coping strategies			
Escape tendency	.19*		
Preservation	.22*		
Resignation	.31**		
Self-accusation	.12		

Table 4: Correlations between negative coping strategies and mental overload

As indicated by Table 4, only the strategy of self-accusation was not significantly related with experience of mental overload.

Furthermore, we have calculated partial correlations between the individual negative coping strategies and mental overload, controlled for hyperactivation and deactivation. In this case, none of the individual negative strategies was significantly related with mental overload.

Finally, as the coping strategies of active avoidance and need for social support are not classified as positive or negative, we explored the relation between these two strategies and mental overload. The zero-ordered correlations between active avoidance and mental overload was not significant (r = .02; p > .05), as the correlation between need for social support and mental overload (r = .12; p > .05).

Regression analysis

A hierarchical regression was performed in order to explore the incremental validity of hyperactivation and deactivation in predicting experience of mental overload. In the first step were entered: sex, age, education, and position. Then, negative coping strategies were entered in the second step. Finally, hyperactivation and deactivation strategies were included in the third step. The results are shown in Table 5.

	Mental overload					
Predictor	ΔR^2	ΔF	β			
Step 1	.08	2.82*				
Sex			.17			
Age			08			
Education			.24**			
Position			09			
Step 2	.16	11.05**				
Sex			.17			
Age			11			
Education			.23**			
Position			09			
NEG			.28**			
Step 3	.24	6.39**				
Sex			.18*			
Age			10			
Education			.21**			
Position			09			
NEG			.12			
Hyperactivation			.19*			
Deactivation			.25**			

Table 5: Regression model predicting mental overload

Note. NEG = Negative coping strategies

*p < .05; **p < .01

The results from Table 5 shows that hyperactivation and deactivation strategies accounted for a significant additional degree of variance in experiencing mental overload over and above the demographic variables and negative coping strategies ($\Delta R^2 = .24$). The addition of the attachment dimensions in model 3 resulted in an overall significant prediction equation, F(7,122) =5.43, p < 0.001. It was found that sex ($\beta = .18$, t = 2.08, p < .05), education ($\beta = .21$, t = 2.57, p < .01), hyperactivation ($\beta = 19$, t = 1.96, p < .05), and deactivation ($\beta = .25$, t = 3.11, p < .01) were significant predictors of experiencing mental overload. Multicolinearity was not a problem, since all of the tolerance values were above 0.10, and all the VIF values were below 10. The assumption of normality was met, as assessed by a Q-Q plot.

Discussion

The first aim of the present study was to explore the use of different attachment and coping strategies among members of the security services of the Czech Republic, and explore the level of experienced mental overload. Following this, our focus was on investigating exclusive roles as well as the incremental validity of attachment strategies and coping strategies in predicting currently perceived mental overload in members of the security services. The wider goal was to consider the potential utilization of attachment and coping strategies in selection procedures in members of the security services. First, we will discuss the findings from the descriptive analysis, then we will focus on the correlational data, and finally, results from the hierarchical regression analysis will be interpreted. The possibilities for future research and limitations of the study will be considered, as well.

From the descriptive analysis it can be concluded that both attachment and coping strategies were averagely used by the subjects of our study, while the mental overload was somewhat lower than the norm. This indicates that the sample of security services are within the satisfactory range on all

of the investigated variables. More importantly, the use of positive coping was higher than the use of negative coping, although still within the range of average use. However, it should be pointed out that the scale of positive coping had a low internal consistency ($\alpha = .61$) in this study. The most widely used specific positive coping strategy was underestimation, which refers to comparing with others to attribute less stress. While the most frequent negative strategy among the subjects was escape tendency (escape from stressful situations).

From the zero-order correlations we have found support for H1 and H2, in that both attachment strategies are related with experiencing mental overload. Thus, individuals using either hyperactivation or deactivation strategies are prone to experience mental overload in the workplace more than individuals preferring primary strategies. This is in line with previous findings which show that low levels of adult attachment security are associated with higher levels of job stress and burnout (Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015; Lopez & Ramos, 2015). We then found that negative coping strategies were positively related to mental overload, and H4 received its support via this result. This finding suggests that relying on maladaptive coping strategies could contribute to mental overload, which is in agreement with the propositions by Janke and Erdmann (2002). Focusing on subcategories of negative strategies, three of them (escape tendency, perseveration, and resignation) were significantly related with mental overload. Escape tendency is characterized by escape from stressful situations, perseveration refers to being unable to break off from one's thoughts, while resignation is a tendency to give up with feelings of helplessness or hopelessness. All negative strategies are considered to increase stress, rather than decreasing it (Janke & Erdmann, 2002). Our findings support this view, and suggest that individuals in the security services who rely on these maladaptive strategies tend to negatively perceive working conditions, or experience mental overload. It could be argued that the tendency to use negative coping strategies will also relate with worse performance, as well. One study supports this notion, and has shown that a higher use of negative coping strategies is related with lower performance in a sample of novices in a surgery (Hasan et al., 2006).

Since hyperactivation and deactivation strategies were both related with negative coping strategies, partial correlations were computed for the association between negative coping strategies and mental overload, controlling for attachment strategies. In this case, the associations between specific negative coping strategies and mental overload, were not significant, indicating the relevance of attachment strategies. Finally, contrary to our expectations and H3, positive coping strategies were not negatively related with mental overload. This will be argued further below.

The final model from the hierarchical regression showed that sex (being male), education and both attachment strategies are relevant predictors of experiencing mental overload. Regarding the gender roles, Paulík (2012) state that many studies confirm that gender roles are linked to experiencing stress and choosing appropriate coping strategies, especially in the work environment. Previous investigations reported differences in dealing with stress situations between men and women (Billings & Moss, 1981; Ptacek, Smith, & Zanas, 1992), and their findings correspond with our results. Another relevant demographic variable in predicting mental overload, was predicated on the level of education. An unexpected finding was that higher education was a predictor of mental overload. This is contrary to previous findings which report that lower education is related with higher levels of work stress in a broad sample of different European countries (Lunau, Siegrist, Dragano, & Wahrendorf, 2015). Our results might indicate that the work in security services is more demanding for the individuals with higher education. The higher demands may be connected with a higher level of responsibilities, which are one of the relevant stressors. In that sense, the

subjective experience of quantitative and qualitative workload reflects the quantity and difficulty of tasks these individuals have.

Furthermore, it was found that attachment strategies are a superior predictor of mental overload, showing incremental validity with regard to demographics and negative coping strategies. Interestingly, negative coping strategies were not a significant predictor in the final model with the conclusion that H5 was not supported. These results might suggest that negative coping strategies are a specific type of behaviors expanding from the broader construct of attachment strategies. Another possible explanation is that negative coping strategies are a mechanism explaining the association between attachment strategies and mental overload. It is postulated that high attachment avoidance or anxiety is related with using maladaptive coping strategies, and this is related with high levels of distress (Lopez et al., 2001). Additionally, Landen and Wang (2010) have shown that coping was a partial mediator between attachment avoidance and psychological well-being. In that sense, future studies might explore the mediation effect of negative coping strategies on the use of the attachment strategies-mental overload link.

In all cases, we gained some evidence that attachment secondary strategies can be considered a useful construct in the selection procedures of members of the security services. Moreover, attachment secondary strategies allow accepting the paradigm of a positive check of selection predictors. From the perspective of attachment theory, the absence of the attachment secondary strategies is increasing the potential for primary strategies that are connected to a lower level of a perceived load. Results for coping strategies are more ambiguous in relation to selection procedures in two ways. Firstly, we have to take into account that we worked with employees instead of applicants. The association between positive coping and load level does not have to be linear in the general population of applicants, which is not possible to analyze in our case because respondents with lower positive strategies and a higher mental overload were probably eliminated via the existing selection procedures. Levels of mental overload were lower than the population mean and levels of positive coping strategies were higher than the population mean in our sample. Secondly, it is reasonable to work also with the option that positive coping strategies have an impact more on solving stressors than their perceptions. In this case, positive coping strategies can be a predictor or mediator of negative outcomes of mental overload such as burnout syndrome, turnover or physical illness rooted in stress. The moderating effect of coping strategies between objective stressors and negative outcomes was already identified (Haar, 2015). Our results for negative coping strategies are clearer. However, the utilization of negative coping strategies would mean accepting the paradigm of a negative check of selection predictors, which is ethically problematic. The risk of false results is higher than the gain from the elimination of applicants with very high negative coping strategies.

The addition of other relevant variables is a further avenue for future research. One good example would be the *character strengths construct* (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), which indicates how individuals cope with adversity. One previous study (Harzer & Ruch, 2015) showed that interpersonal and intellectual character strengths were negatively associated with negative coping. Interpersonal strengths refer to kindness, leadership, teamwork, creativity, curiosity, and love of learning. Including these strengths in future studies could contribute to an elaboration of the nomological network of attachment strategies in regard to mental overload, or stress, in general. The main limitation of this study is the specificity of the sample used and uneven representation of the security services in the sample. In this respect, generalizability of the findings is limited. Additionally, in future research larger and more diverse samples should be utilized and there should be less reliance on self-reports.

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Acknowledgements

The study is dedicated to project reg. no. CZ.02.2.69/0.0/0.0/16_018/0002313 "Inception of the doctoral study program for progressive research in work and organizational psychology".



ISSN 1335-3608

THE OPINIONS OF THE SLOVAK POPULATION ON IMMIGRANTS BASED ON EUROBAROMETER DATA

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Človek a spoločnosť [Individual and Society] 23(1), 45–57 DOI: /10.31577/cas.2020.01.568 http://www.clovekaspolocnost.sk/

Abstract:

The aim of this paper is to analyze the opinions of the Slovak population on immigrants based on data available through Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017). We deal with the opinions on legal immigrants as part of our research. According to Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017), immigrants are people born outside of the European Union, who left their home country and currently legally reside in Slovakia. We are not concerned with EU citizens, immigrant children who have Slovak citizenship or about immigrants staying illegally. Official statistics show that most immigrants from outside the EU who are in Slovakia legally come from Ukraine, Russia, the United States of America, Vietnam and Serbia. Slovakia is not one of the traditional final destinations for immigrants. It is a culturally homogeneous country, which was not affected by the dramatic increase of migration during the twentieth century. Until recently, Slovakia was almost exclusively a country of emigrants, in other words, a country whose residents used to emigrate abroad for various reasons (IOM, 2019). According to the results of research on public attitudes towards migration (2019) of the International Organization for Migration, the Slovak population has relatively little personal experience and knowledge of immigrants. It typically forms its opinions based on media reports. The people in Slovakia are afraid that Slovakia has a high number of immigrants, who take jobs, spread diseases, and are an economic burden for the budget (Vašečka, 2009).

The research set consisted of 1,080 respondents (Eurobarometer 88.2, 2017) from the Slovak Republic -43.1% men and 56.9% women, aged 15 -93 (M=49.45, SD=16.83). 38.3% of the respondents stated that they live in a rural area/village; 45.1% small/medium town, and 15.8% in a large town/city. Data collection took place in October 2017 in face-to-face interviews as part of Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017) in the form of a multi-level probabilistic selection.

We have used items from Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017) to measure the opinions. The opinions of the immigrants were measured using seven items, where 1 equals strongly agree, and 4 equals strongly disagree (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.861); we have reversed the polarity of the items for easier data interpretation - higher score = stronger approval with the statements. The items were subjected to principal axis factoring to assess the dimensionality of the data. A rotated factor matrix is shown in Table 1. We have named the first factor "Immigrants as help" and the second factor "Immigrants as a burden". We have found that the Slovak respondents, most of all the countries of Central Europe (Germany - West, Germany - East, Austria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia) agree with the negative statements about immigrants and at the lowest rate (apart from Hungary) agree with the positive statements about immigrants. Furthermore, citizens of West Slovakia have more negative opinions on immigrants than citizens of Central and Eastern Slovakia. 54.5% of the respondents think that immigration is more of a problem. Only 6.9% of the Slovak respondents think of immigration as an opportunity. 50.74% of the respondents think immigrants have a more than 16% share of the population of Slovakia, whereby according to the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic (2019), immigrants represent 2.2% of the Slovak population. 21.9% of the respondents feel they are very well and quite well informed about immigration-related matters. Up to 75.7% of the respondents feel they are not very well or not at all informed about this issue. We have found that, in their opinion, the Slovak respondents come less often or never in contact with immigrants, while it in people's neighborhoods where the respondents interact with immigrants daily (6.1%), at least once a week (15.2%), and at least once a month (15.9%). The Slovak respondents in almost 80% of the cases do not have immigrants as friends or family members.

In contrast to Hungary, Slovakia has not in recent times had a negative experience with immigrants (for example, immigrants congregating at the Budapest Keleti Train Station in 2015). Despite this, the opinions on immigrants of the populations of these two states are similar. In terms of the regions of Slovakia, the Bratislava Region and West Slovakia have more negative opinions towards immigrants than Central and Eastern Slovakia. Future research should focus on examining the reasons for these differences in the territory of Slovakia. Lack of relevant information and the feeling that the respondents do not understand the topic of migration can cause fear of the unknown and the related negative opinions. Negative opinions towards immigrants in Slovakia can be explained using the contact theory; direct contact between groups improves relations because it makes difficult for a group to accept typical negative stereotypes (Pettigrew, Tropp, Wagner, & Christ, 2011; Himmelroos & Leino, 2016). While the cross-sectional character of the available data limits the research, the contribution of this paper is as a representative sample of the opinions of Slovaks which is reflective of the mood in the country on what is always a topical subject. The paper offers space for reflections and research topics within the Slovak Republic (for example, what causes the differences in opinions between West and Eastern Slovakia).

Keywords: Immigrants. Eurobarometer. Attitudes. Burden. Help.

Introduction

Slovakia is not one of the traditional final destinations for immigrants. It is a culturally homogeneous country, which was not affected by the dramatic increase of migration during the twentieth century. Until recently, Slovakia was almost exclusively a country of emigrants, in other words, a country whose residents emigrated abroad for various reasons (IOM, 2019).

Increased attention has been paid to migration in recent years due to the rapid increase in the migrant population of the world. The recent migration crisis is so serious that it resulted in political conflict and social tension throughout Europe. Murray and Marx (2013) believe the problem is a threat to the domestic population in terms of economics, cultural and social interests, which in the context of a struggle over "resources" leads to negative attitudes towards immigrants. According to the results of research on public attitudes towards migration of the International Organization for Migration (2019), the Slovak population has relatively little personal experience and knowledge of immigrants. It typically forms its opinions based on media reports. The Slovak public is afraid that Slovakia has a high number of immigrants who take jobs, spread diseases, and are an economic burden on the budget (Vašečka, 2009). Scientists from different disciplines are keen to examine these anti-immigration attitudes. Chaloupková and Šalamounová (2006) report different public opinions in individual European countries on how welcome immigrants are in a given country. Orak and Solakoglu (2016) write about two basic directions of current research on attitudes towards immigrants, firstly economic factors, and secondly non-economic factors, such as personal, cultural, religious and political aspects. Research in this field demonstrates that attitudes towards immigrants are partially group-specific and dependent on the cultural similarity of the immigrants (Ford, 2011), educational level and work skills (Helbling & Kriesi, 2014), language and skin color (Hopkins, 2015), national origin (Hainmueller & Hangartner, 2013), religion, and economic contribution (Bansak, Hainmueller, & Hangartner, 2016). The nature of migration is also reflected in the willingness of the population to accept the immigrants. If migration is perceived as voluntary, it is associated with a lower level of support and more antipathy, whereas for involuntary migration it is the other way round (Verkuyten, Mepham, & Kros, 2018). It is also important to focus on the origin of the immigrants, as Hellwig and Sinno (2016) found out, Muslim immigrants evoke concern for security, while Eastern Europe immigrants are more of an economic threat. In examining attitudes towards immigrants, the most common explanatory socio-psychological constructs are the integrated threat theory (Stephan, Ybarra, Martinez, Schwarzwald, & Tur-Kaspa, 1998; Ward & Masogert, 2006; Nsom & Croucher, 2017), the theory of social dominance (Roccato & Ricolfi, 2005; Ho, Sidanius, Kteily, SheehySkeffington, Pratto, Henkel & Stewart, 2015), social distance (Parillo & Donoghue, 2005; Weaver, 2008; Heath, Schmidt, Green, Ramos, Davidov, & Ford, 2014) and the contact theory (Pettigrew, Tropp, Wagner, & Christ, 2011; Himmelroos & Leino, 2016).

In addition to the above, psychological characteristics research features only marginally; focusing primarily on: personality (Gallego & Pardos-Prado, 2013), life satisfaction (Boelhouwer, Kraaykamp, & Stoop, 2016), perceived security (Kentoš, 2014; Wu, Klahm, & Atoui, 2016, Bozogáňová, 2018), and hostility (Giorgi &Vitale, 2017). Výrost and Dobeš (2019) found a strong relationship between trust in people and attitudes towards immigrants and immigration. This indicates that trusting people perceive immigrants more positively.

Since the migration issue has gained a lot of attention recently, it is instructive to analyze public opinions. With the increase of immigrants in Europe, there has been a rise in the popularity of political parties identifying themselves as "radical right" or "far right, with very strong antimigration views. In the Slovak Republic this trend is visible as well, with a radical right party being in the government. The media and politicians perceive the migration issue as a very strong issue, therefore many newspapers and politicians use it to gain attention. The findings by Heath and Richards (2016) suggest some shift in society. They analyzed over 40, 000 survey responses in the European Social Survey, which were obtained in 2002/2003 (ESS Round 1) and 2014/2015 (ESS Round 7). The results show that out of 19 countries that participated in the 2002/2003 survey, only citizens from the Czech Republic and Austria expressed the opinion that migration makes their country a worse place in which to live. In both rounds, Swedes, Danes and Finns expressed the most positive attitudes towards migration and immigrants, while the Czechs, Hungarians and Portuguese held the most negative attitudes on this issue.

From this short theoretical overview it is clear that the opinions on immigrants are influenced by many factors. A comprehensive study of this issue is needed to understand the whole process. The goal of our paper is to analyze the opinions of Slovaks towards immigrants and offer an overview of basic information acquired from reliable data. In our research we focus on opinions regarding legal immigrants. According to Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017), immigrants are: people born outside of the European Union who left their home country and currently legally reside in Slovakia. We are not talking about either EU citizens or immigrant children who have Slovak citizenship, nor about immigrants staying illegally. Official statistics show that most immigrants from outside the EU who are in Slovakia legally come from Ukraine, Russia, the United States of America, Vietnam and Serbia.

Goal

The aim of this paper is to analyze the opinions of the Slovak population towards immigrants based on data available through Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017).

Methods

Research Sample

The research sample consisted of 1,080 respondents (Eurobarometer 88.2, 2017) from the Slovak Republic – 43.1% men and 56.9% women, aged 15 - 93 (M=49.45, SD=16.83). 38.3% of the respondents stated that they live in a rural area/village; 45.1% small/medium town, and 15.8% stated a large city/town. In terms of regions, 12.9% were from the Bratislava region, 34.3% from West Slovakia, 20.4% from the Central Slovakia, and 32.5% from Eastern Slovakia. Data collection took place in October 2017 using a face-to-face interview as part of Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017) in the form of a multi-level probabilistic selection.

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Methodology

We have used items from Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017) to measure the opinions. The opinions on the migrants were measured using a 7 item scale, where 1 equaled *strongly agree* and 4 equaled *strongly disagree* (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.861), we have reversed the polarity of the items for easier data interpretation - higher score = stronger approval with the statements. The items were related to economic factors (for example, in general, immigrants have a positive impact on Slovak economy) as well as non-economic factors (for example they enrich the Slovak cultural life (e.g. in art, music, and food). The items were subjected to principal axis factoring to assess the dimensionality of the data. (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin = .726; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity X^2 = 11 511.467; df = 21; p < .01). Rotated factor matrix is shown in Table 1. We have named the first factor as "Immigrants as help" and the second factor as "Immigrants as a burden" (Cronbach's Alpha = .804).

Table 1: Rotated Factor Matrix

		Factor
Items	1	2
Impact of immigrants on society - enrich (national) cultural life	.705	
Impact of immigrants on society - new ideas and innovation in (country)	.702	
Impact of immigrants on society - positive for national economy	.666	
Impact of immigrants on society - help filling jobs	.530	
Impact of immigrants on society - burden on the welfare system		.738
Impact of immigrants on society - worsen crime problems in (country)		.714
Impact of immigrants on society - take jobs away from local workers		.517

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

We have used items from the Integration of Immigrants module of the Eurobarometer 88.2 European Union Survey (2017), which are listed in the results section. The full text of the module is freely available on the pages of said survey.

Statistical Analysis

We have used descriptive analyses, factor analysis and one-way ANOVA analysis to process the data. When using individual tests, we have respected the conditions of use (Pallant, 2016; Field, 2017).

Results

First of all we would like to focus on the opinions towards immigrants of the Slovak Republic in the comparison with the Central Europe countries: Germany - West, Germany - East, Austria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia). In the "Immigrants as help" factor, the respondents could achieve the highest score of 16, and in the "Immigrants as a burden" factor the highest score was 12. We have used weighted data to compare the countries.



Chart 1: The Opinions on Immigrants - Central Europe

In Chart 1 we can see that in the Central Europe group, Slovakia agrees the most with the statement denoting immigrants as a burden (M = 8.78; SD = 2.37). Germany - West has the lowest approval rate in this factor (M = 7.62; SD = 1.99) among the Central Europe countries. The one-way ANOVA analysis shows that there are statistically significant differences among the countries in their opinions on immigrants. For "immigrants as a burden" there was a significant effect for a country on the negative opinions on immigrants at the p < .01 level for eight countries (F (7; 7,623) = 41.007; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were significantly different in opinions on immigrants ("immigrants as a burden") between Germany - West and other countries (except Slovenia); Germany - West and Germany - East, Poland; Poland and Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia; Slovenia, and Slovakia.

Furthermore, we have found that there are statistically significant differences among countries in their opinions on immigrants. For "immigrants as help" there was a significant effect for a country on the positive opinions on immigrants at the p < .01 level for eight countries (F (7; 7,063) = 123.048; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score was not significantly different (p > .05) between Slovenia and Germany (West and East), Austria, and Poland. There was also no difference between Slovakia and the Czech Republic; Poland, and Austria. In other countries, there were significant differences (p < .05) in opinions on immigrants ("immigrants as help"). The Slovak respondents agree most from all countries with the negative statements on immigrants, and to the lowest extent (except Hungary) agree with the positive statements on immigrants.

We have compared the opinions on immigrants in individual regions of Slovakia (Bratislava Region, West Slovakia, Central Slovakia and Eastern Slovakia). We have used the one-way ANOVA test. For "Immigrants as a burden" there was a significant effect for a region on the negative opinions on immigrants at the p < .01 level for all four regions (F (3; 4,594.408) = 26.618; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were not significantly different in opinions on immigrants ("immigrants as a burden") between the Bratislava Region and West Slovakia; Central Slovakia and Eastern Slovakia. In the "immigrants as help" factor – there was a significant effect for a region on the positive opinions on immigrants at the p < .01 level for all four regions (F (3; 7,448.814) = 21.813; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores on immigrants at the p < .01 level for all four regions (F (3; 7,448.814) = 21.813; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were not significantly different in opinions on immigrants as help" factor – there was a significant effect for a region on the positive opinions on immigrants at the p < .01 level for all four regions (F (3; 7,448.814) = 21.813; p < .01). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores were not significantly different in opinions on immigrants ("immigrants as help") between the Bratislava Region and West Slovakia; Central Slovakia and Eastern Slovakia. In other regions, there were significant differences (p < .05) in opinions on immigrants. The results are shown in Chart 2.



Chart 2: Opinions on Immigrants (Regions of Slovakia)

In Chart 2 we can see that the respondents in the Bratislava Region (M = 9.91; SD = 1.97) and West Slovakia (M=9.40; SD = 1.85) have the most negative opinion of immigrants ("immigrants as a burden"). Respondents in Eastern (M = 9.86; SD = 3.20) and Central Slovakia (M = 9.82; SD = 2.81) agree with the statements of the factor "immigrants as help" more than respondents from the West. Based on these results we can conclude that citizens in West Slovakia have more negative opinions towards immigrants than citizens in Central and Eastern Slovakia.

Eurobarometer 88.2 (2017) contains different items on the opinions towards immigrants. In the following text we will introduce the answers of Slovak respondents to these items. The respondents were answering the question whether they think that there are more legal or more illegal immigrants in Slovakia. The results are in Chart 3.

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Chart 3: Legal/illegal immigrants in Slovakia (%)

36.2% of the respondents think that there are more immigrants who are staying legally, 16.4% think that more immigrants are staying illegally and 14.3% cannot tell if they are staying legally or illegally. Based on the answers to the following item (Chart 4), 54.5% of the respondents think that immigration is more of a problem. Only 6.9% of the Slovak respondents see immigration as an opportunity.



Chart 4: Is immigration a problem or an opportunity (%)

The item: "Based on your information, what is the immigrant share of the population of Slovakia?" showed that 50.74% of the respondents believe that immigrants have more than a 16% share of the population of Slovakia, whereby according to the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic (2019), they represent only 2.2% of the Slovak population. 21.9% of the

respondents feel they are very well and quite well informed about immigration-related matters. Up to 75.7% of the respondents feel they are not very well or not at all informed about this area. Additionally, we have analyzed items related to social contact (from small talk to participating in activities) of the respondents with immigrants in different areas (workplace, childcare/school/university, public services, neighborhood, sport/voluntary service/cultural activities, household services). The results are shown in Table 2.

	Daily	At least once a week	At least once a month	At least once a year	Less often or never	Do not know
Neighborhood	6.1	15.2	15.9	8.5	49.0	2.8
Workplace	4.2	5.9	9.6	5.5	62.7	4.5
Public services	3.1	9.0	15.0	17.1	49.7	3.8
Childcare / school / /university	2.0	3.5	6.0	4.6	70.8	5.9
Sport / Voluntary service / Cultural Activities	0.6	5.1	10.0	10.3	65.8	5.0
Household Services	0.2	2.5	5.5	5.4	77.0	4.1

 Table 2: Interaction with Immigrants (%)

Based on the results we can see that the Slovak respondents seldom or never come into contact with immigrants. The less often or never option was most often used in the field of childcare/school/university (70.8%) and in household services (77.0%). Less than 50% marked this option in public services (49.7%) and in neighborhood (49.0%). Neighborhood is a place where the respondents come most often in contact with immigrants – daily (6.1%), at least once a week (15.2%) and at least once a month (15.9%) from the options.

The respondents answered the question if they would be comfortable or if it would bother them if an immigrant would be their manager, work colleague, neighbor, doctor, family member or partner and friend. The respondents answered using a four-point scale, where 1 is not bothered at all and 4 is very bothered. We have calculated the average score and the results are shown in Chart 5. Based on these results we can see that the respondents are more comfortable with immigrants as work colleagues (M = 2.19; SD = .98) and doctors (M = 2.21; SD= 1.02) than immigrants as managers (M = 2.43; SD = 1.03) and family members or partners (M = 2.50; SD = 1.03).

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Chart 5: Comfortable with Immigrant as ...(mean)

The respondents were choosing which statement (listed in Chart 6) fits them best from the available opinions.



Chart 6: Immigrants as Friends and Family Members (%)

In almost 80% of the cases, respondents from the Slovak population do not have immigrants as friends or family members. 14.2% have friends, who immigrants are living in Slovakia. Less than 3% have family members, who are immigrants and 2.2% have both – family members and friends – who are immigrants.

Discussion

The aim of this paper was to analyze the opinions of the Slovak respondents on immigration. Slovaks have a rather negative opinion towards immigration in comparison with other countries of Central Europe. Similar to the findings of Heath and Richards (2016) based on data from the first and seventh round of the European Social Survey, Hungary and the Czech Republic are also among the countries with rather negative opinions on immigration. In our research we have discovered that these countries agree the most with the item "immigrants as a burden" of all the countries of Central Europe, along with Slovakia (Chart 1). We consider this result as interesting, as compared to the other countries of the European Union, the Slovak Republic has low levels of foreigners in its population (IOM, 2019). Unlike Hungary, Slovakia does not have a negative experience with immigrants (for example, immigrants at the Budapest Keleti Train Station in 2015). Despite this, the opinions on immigrants of the populations of these two states are similar. In terms of regions of Slovakia, the Bratislava Region and West Slovakia have more negative opinions towards immigrants than Central and Eastern Slovakia. Future research should focus on examining the reasons for these differences in the territory of Slovakia.

Negative opinions towards immigrants can be influenced also by a lack of information and knowledge of the Slovak population about immigration. Three quarters of the research set feels they have little or no information on the issue. More than a half of the respondents think the share of immigrants in Slovakia is more than 16% – despite, according to the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic (2019), the share of immigrants in Slovak population being 2.2%. This disinformation may influence the belief of 16.4% of the respondents who think there are more illegal than legal immigrants in Slovakia, and also that more than 54% of the respondents see immigration as a problem. Lack of relevant information and the feeling that the respondents do not understand the topic of migration can cause fear of the unknown and the related negative opinions.

Negative opinions on immigrants in Slovakia can be explained using the contact theory - direct contact between groups improves relations because it makes difficult for a group to accept typical negative stereotypes (Pettigrew, Tropp, Wagner, & Christ, 2011; Himmelroos & Leino, 2016). The Eurobarometer 88.2 data shows that 0.2 - 6.1% of the respondents encounter legal immigrants on a daily basis, and 2.5 - 15.2% on a weekly basis, which can be considered as low contact frequency for the individuals to adopt typically negative stereotypes. 79.8% of the respondents have immigrants currently living in Slovakia as friends or family members. The discomfort from the presence of immigrants to the respondents is greatest in the idea that the immigrants would be their family members, partners or managers; whereas an immigrant work colleague, doctor or a friend is considered more acceptable. This could be explained by the voluntary nature of the relationship - we can seldom choose our family members or superiors, but we have the freedom of choice with our friends and doctors, just as we can limit our interaction with our work colleagues to only what is necessary.

The cross-sectional character of the available data limits the research. However, the contribution of the paper is as an overview of the opinions of a representative Slovak sample, allowing a good understanding of the mood in the country on this always topical topic. The paper offers space for reflections and research topics within the Slovak Republic (for example, what causes the differences in opinions between West and Eastern Slovakia).

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Acknowledgements:

The research was supported by the grant agency VEGA under the contract No. 2/0068/19: Attitudes towards migrants in the socio-psychological context



ISSN 1335-3608

RESEARCH RESOURCES ON THE POSITION OF WOMEN IN KOŠICE 1918 – 1938

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Abstract:

The Constitutional Charter of the Czechoslovak Republic of 1920 enshrined the principle of gender equality. Nevertheless, several legal provisions that were contrary to this principle remained in force. The social emancipation of women, however, had better conditions in the newly created state than it was in the former Austria-Hungary empire. Obstacles to women's access to higher education had been at least formally removed, just as women had been allowed to pursue occupations filled exclusively by men previously. From the 19th century, women had been involved in public life through activities in clubs, and it was the only possibility for them to move from the private sphere (household and family circles) to the public sphere, which was primarily intended for men. Compared to the latter decades of the 19th century, the emergence of a democratic republic brought about a large boom in the activity of associations, which also affected the female part of the population. Many women were involved not only in the activities of genuinely women's associations, but also in activities in gender-mixed associations, such as the branches of the Czechoslovak Red Cross or the Masaryk League against Tuberculosis, or other charitable associations. The life of associations was more differentiated, which was reflected not only at national level, but also on a regional scale.

The aim of the paper is to present the various types of sources by means of which it is possible to investigate the position of women in the city of Košice between 1918 - 1938; namely the possibilities of higher (in today's secondary school) education of girls and women, the employment of women in the field of education and health, and the involvement of women in the public sphere by working in the various associations that existed in the city. These three areas are among the basic indicators of the position of women in society, since education and associations were both a prerequisite and a means of female emancipation. Higher education enabled women to do work for which a certain qualification was needed. Since in the past women have been defined by the private sphere, which was represented by the family and household, and the related care and work, women naturally found their place in the professional sphere, especially in education and health, as teachers, midwives, nurses and later also as doctors. Košice, as an administrative, cultural and educational centre, provided women (not only) in the interwar period with various opportunities in the field of education, occupation and participation in public life through activities in associations, which had a tradition in the city since the first half of the 19th century. In spite of this, the women question in Košice has not been sufficiently elaborated on yet. It only appears sporadically in the scientific literature, which is one of the reasons for choosing this research topic. The research was carried out in archives and libraries located in Košice, Bratislava and Prague. The research and collection of sources was carried out during the processing of this issue, followed by their critical evaluation. Specific examples and findings were presented in the description of individual types of sources. The sources presented include, in particular, archive sources (catalogues, class books, employee lists as well as statutes, activity reports and various applications of associations), annual reports of secondary schools and courses organized for girls and women, statistics, periodicals, legal standards, manuals for girls and women, reports on the activities and yearbooks, jubilee books, almanacs, city directories and photographs.

Official statistical results from the census, especially from 1921 and 1930, allow for a comparison between the population sizes of both sexes, and comparative data is also used from 1910 statistics. Statistical results also allows for the monitoring the issues of female employment or the state of education. When examining the position of women, it is also necessary to follow the legal norms that defined women's place in the social hierarchy. Important sources are archival documents which in relation to education were mainly official books (catalogues, protocols and registers), on the basis of which it is possible to monitor the gender, national, religious and social composition

of students and the development of the number of girls at individual types of schools and courses studied; and also records (minutes, staff matters, teacher lists, timetables, forms and regulations) which were retained from Košice secondary schools and courses for girls and women. In addition, the archives store files of associations, which consist of lists and registrations of associations, statutes, applications, activity reports and accounts. These documents provide information on the possibilities and, in part, the extent to which women are actually involved in society. The lack of information on the existence, functioning and type of school, the number and structure of students, the composition of the teaching staff, as well as opinions on the education of girls and women complete the annual reports of secondary schools, courses and the city music school.

An important source for the influence of women on society and public attitude towards women and their activities is the contemporary periodical press. In this context, it is necessary to examine the focus of articles on women and their frequency in individual regional and national periodicals. The overall picture of the position of women helps to complete the sources of private character, which include diaries, memoirs and private correspondence. However, with this type of source, there are often problems with access to them and the possibility of studying them (as they are mostly found in private archives) or with their non-preservation. Information on the contemporary perception of women and their role within society is provided by guides on raising girls or choosing the right career for a woman. Other sources that can be used to investigate women's issues include publications capturing major events in Košice, e.g. jubilee books, as well as almanacs and city directories, in which existing schools, courses, associations, and lists of occupants of certain occupations (midwives or doctors) were usually recorded. An essential but rarely used type of source is photography. In researching the position of women in interwar Košice it is therefore necessary to work with materials of several types in order to give the fullest possible picture of the opportunities that women acquired in the newly established democratic state and to what extent women actually realized these opportunities.

Although there are various types of sources related to the education of girls and women, their employment or activities in societies, we find that their use is very limited in many cases. In addition to problems with the wide dispersal of sources, coupled with their non-preservation, with the city of Košice there is also a problem related to the linguistic diversity of the examined written sources which most often occur in Slovak, Czech, Hungarian and German languages, but also in English, French or Russian.

Keywords: Women. Archives. Annual reports. Publications. Košice.

Introduction

Traditional historical research (focusing mainly on political and economic history) is being gradually complemented by research in other fields of historiography as well as other scientific disciplines. The focus of research is shifting to the examination of everyday life in the private sphere, the family or on women as such, – in addition to exploring the usual themes. If we want to know the past in as great a detail as possible, we must explore it from several different aspects, including the issue of women. In the words of the Czech historian Jana Burešová: "*I consider it important to focus on the feminine element of society as it renders the most complete and most colourful image of the historical period and its atmosphere.*"¹

The basic indicators of the position of women in society include education, employment and social activities, as these opened the way for women in social and professional life.² The education of women supported their access to the public sphere, to public performance and the possibility of self-realization and presentation of their own claims. It provided them with an overview of world events and an opportunity for better success. Through education, they could gradually cope with the position men had in society. Achieving higher education expanded

¹ BUREŠOVÁ, Jana. *Proměny společenského postavení českých žen v první polovině 20. století*. Olomouc : Univerzita Palackého, 2001, p. 13.

 $^{^{2}}$ A part of the female question and the research of the position of women, in addition to the defined areas, is for example, the issue of prominent female personalities or the issue of women's participation in politics and the related sources to these topics. However, they require further research and separate contributions. They are therefore not included in the present work.

women's employment opportunities (women were gaining ground in multiple professions including those of teaching, medicine and care) and also allowed them to hold some management positions (as directors of educational institutions).³ This also strengthened their position socially which was also reflected in their activities in associations (not only women's but also in gender-mixed associations). These allowed women to step out of the home and to integrate into different areas of public life. Women's education, as well as their activities within associations, was not only a prerequisite but also a means of emancipating women.

However, only a few publications focus on the individual aspects of the lives of women in the territory of present-day Slovakia – either nationally or regionally – during the inter-war period. Most written works have dealt only with the position of women in the Middle Ages, the early Modern Age, and in the period from the second half of the 19th to the beginning of the 20th century. There is a notable deficiency in Slovak historiography during this inter-war period, especially at a regional level. The city of Košice, an administrative, cultural, economic, political and educational center with a varied religious and ethnic composition, while having no compact works mapping its historical development across all historical periods, is not an unexplored area. On the contrary, many aspects of the historical development of Košice in various historical periods have already been researched, to a varying degree, one example being Ondrej Ficeri's publication, mapping Slovak historiography in regards to Košice up to 2008.⁴ However, in regards to girls' education, the professional career of women, their activities within civil associations and their position in Košice society, there is relatively little work apparent.

As the topic still requires further work, we have focused on various types of sources from researchers to explore the possibilities of higher (i.e. today's high/secondary school) education for women, their employment opportunities or involvement in public life between the two world wars. The aim of this work is to introduce various types of research sources related to the position of women in Košice, including: statistics, rules and regulations, archive sources, annual reports, periodicals of the time, handbooks for girls and women, jubilee books, almanacs, city files and photographs. The processing of the topic started with the basic method, i.e. heuristics (exploration and collection of sources).⁵ Subsequently, a critical analysis of the sources was carried out, followed by a description of the individual source types to which specific findings and/or possibilities of research use were stated.

A brief outline of the topic

Discussions on the status and role of women divided society not only in the 19th century, but also in the first half of the 20th century; one view maintained that gaining higher education and employment in positions previously held exclusively by men led to a loss of femininity of

 $^{^{3}}$ Although women were primarily assigned the role of the mother and household carer, they could also be active in charity and religious affairs, as such activity was seen as an extension of the motherhood tasks beyond the family. Since family care and raising children were traditional roles for most women, it followed that they were employed in education as teachers and in healthcare – first as midwives and nurses and later (after gaining access to higher education) as doctors. In social life, they focused mainly on charitable activities.

⁴ FICERI, Ondrej. Košice v slovenskej historiografii. Košice : Dejepisný spolok v Košiciach, 2016. 266 p.

⁵ The sources were attained from the Archbishop's Archives in Košice, the Archives of the City of Košice, the National Archives in Prague, the Slovak National Archives in Bratislava, the State Archives in Košice, the East Slovak Museum in Košice, the National Library of the Czech Republic in Prague, the Slovak Pedagogic Library in Bratislava, the State Scientific Library in Košice, the Jan Bocatius Public Library in Košice and the University Library in Bratislava.

women.⁶ Despite this, various forms of education were gradually made available to the female population,⁷ although until the establishment of the first Czechoslovak Republic (Czechoslovakia), the education of girls and boys had to be conducted separately. Co-education was not allowed until 1919 and was fully established by the so-called *Minor Education Act*.⁸ In 1919, the first girls' grammar school was established in Košice,⁹ and subsequently girls were offered full-time study at other types of grammar schools and secondary vocational schools.¹⁰ A new type of educational institute were two-year girls' vocational family schools (later public vocational schools for women's professions), which did not exist in Slovakia until 1918.¹¹ In Košice, such a school was founded in 1922.¹² Another possibility of education for girls and

⁹ BOJKOVÁ, Alžbeta. "*Přestupování dívek na školy chlapecké se nepřipouští.*" Dejiny prvého slovenského dievčenského gymnázia v Košiciach. In *Historica Carpatica 45 : zborník východoslovenského múzea v Košiciach.* Košice : Východoslovenské múzeum v Košiciach, 2014, pp. 35-53. KOPČÁNYIOVÁ, Milada. Československé štátne dievčenské reformné reálne gymnázium v Košiciach v prvom desaťročí existencie Československej republiky. In *Dejiny* [online], 2013, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 47-59.

¹⁰ Despite this possibility, however, at the Czechoslovak State Industrial School in Košice, girls did not study until the school year 1936/37 when the first girl was enrolled. PŠENČÍKOVÁ, Anna (ed.). *135 rokov Strednej priemyselnej školy strojníckej v Košiciach*. Košice : Vienala, 2007, p. 23. Girls had little interest in studying at the State Agricultural School in Košice where they appeared sporadically from the school year 1922/23. Štátny archív v Košiciach *[State Archives in Košice]* (hereinafter ŠA-K), fund (hereinafter f.) Štátna vyššia hospodárska škola Košiciach *[State Agricultural School in Košice]* 1919 – 1948, Hlavný katalóg *[Main catalogue]*, 1922/23, 1. ročník *[the 1th class]*. Girls were more interested in studying at the commercial academy and commercial school.

¹¹ Adriana Kičková wrote about the education of girls in vocational schools after 1918 in the chapter "Share of education of girls in the school structure", which is part of the collective monograph *Pedagogické myslenie, školstvo, a vzdelávanie na Slovensku v rokoch 1918 – 1945* [Pedagogical Thinking, Educational system and Education in Slovakia from 1918 to 1945]. KUDLÁČOVÁ, Blanka (ed.). *Pedagogické myslenie, školstvo, a vzdelávanie na Slovensku v rokoch 1918 – 1945* [online]. Trnava : Trnavská univerzita v Trnave, 2016. 413 p. Nina Sozanská and Adriana Kičková attended the public vocational school for women's professions in Nitra. In their study, the authors focused on the teaching staff, students and their school activities. SOZANSKÁ, Nina – KIČKOVÁ, Adriana. Premeny odbornej školy pre ženské povolania : Modelové mesto Nitra. In *Evropské pedagogické fórum 2014 : Proměny pedagogiky a psychologie* [online]. Hradec Králové : Magnanimitas, 2014, pp. 281-292.

¹² Výročná zpráva dvojročnej dievčenskej odbornej rodinnej školy v Košiciach za šk. r. 1922-23, 1923-24, 1924-25. Košice, 1925, s. 3-4.

⁶ DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela. Diskurz o poslaní vzdelaných žien pred a po roku 1918. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. *Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku*. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, p. 99.

⁷ The issue of development of girls' education in Slovakia in the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century is dealt with in particular by Daniela Kodajová, who analyses the possibilities of girls' access to education, its content and its later application. KODAJOVÁ, Daniela. Odborné vzdelávanie ako predpoklad a prostriedok emancipácie. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 149-175. KODAJOVÁ, Daniela. Vyššie vzdelávanie dievčat na Slovensku v 19. storočí. In Človek a spoločnosť [online], 2006, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 27-36. KODAJOVÁ, Daniela. Vzdelanie dievčat – možnosti a limity uplatnenia. In ČADKOVÁ, Kateřina – LENDEROVÁ, Milena – STRÁNÍKOVÁ, Jana (eds.). Dějiny žen aneb Evropská žena od středověku do poloviny 20. století v zajetí historiografie. Pardubice : Univerzita Pardubice, 2006, pp. 291-302. The research results show that the need for the education of girls was related to the development of a national movement and not to the employment of women. Thus, women were supposed to use their education in their families and households, i.e. in the private sphere. Just before World War I, the press published articles promoting exercising women's rights in the public sphere. The education of women was associated with the possibility of their self-realization for the first time in the then society of Slovakia. On women's education see HOLLÝ, Karol. Podmienky na ženskú vzdelanosť v dualistickom Uhorsku a diskurz slovenskej národoveckej society na prelome 19. a 20. storočia [online]. In Historické štúdie, 2013, Vol. 47, pp. 187-206. TOKÁROVÁ, Anna. Vyššie vzdelávanie dievčat a žien. Prekážky a stimuly. In CVIKOVÁ, Jana – JURÁŇOVÁ, Jana – KOBOVÁ, Ľubica (eds.). Histórie žien. Aspekty písania a čítania. Bratislava : Aspekt, 2007, pp. 227-239. ⁸ Zákon č. 226/1922 Sb. ze dne 13. července 1922, jímž se mění a doplňují zákony o školách obecných a občanských [online].

women were various courses, qualifying them to practice certain professions. These included business courses or midwife training courses, which followed the tradition of courses organized in the previous period. The topic of secondary and vocational education in inter-war Košice was dealt with by several authors whose works provide an insight into the existence of individual schools, their origin, termination, functioning and related problems or present basic statistical data. However, of those which focus on the education of girls and women in Košice, they do so only marginally.¹³ More information about education (not only in Košice) in the form of midwifery or nursing courses is included in works on health education in Slovakia.¹⁴

Gender inequalities of modern society are revealed by research into women's employment and occupations in the past. In the context of the employment of women, older historiography considered World War I to be the milestone in women's entry into paid employment. Nevertheless, women from the lower strata of society were employed in relatively large numbers even before the First World War. During the war, middle-class women managed to make themselves visible in positions until then the preserve of men. The introduction of women to paid employment at that time was considered to be only a temporary necessary condition and women were expected to return to their households after the war. Depending on the economic situation, some women did indeed leave their jobs, while others had to continue their jobs to sustain their families. World War I contributed to breaking stereotypical ideas about the role of women in society.¹⁵ Despite the fact that the issue of women's employment and career opportunities offer broad research possibilities (for example, by comparing women's and men's employment in a particular group), valuable works on selected women's professions exist.¹⁶ However, a publication on the issue of women's employment in Košice in the interwar period has yet to be published.

¹³ BOJKOVÁ, Alžbeta. Primárne problémy transformácie slovenských stredných a odborných škôl v Košiciach v medzivojnovom období. Košice : UPJŠ v Košiciach, 2018. 205 p. BOJKOVÁ, Alžbeta – WOLFOVÁ, Eva – ĎURKOVSKÁ, Mária. Školstvo v Košiciach v rokoch 1918 – 1953. In ŠUTAJ, Štefan – DZURIKANINOVÁ, Nikoleta (eds.). Štruktúry a fragmenty historického vývoja Košíc. Košice : UPJŠ v Košiciach, 2014, pp. 152-198. ĎURKOVSKÁ, Mária – SÁPOSOVÁ, Zlatica. Hatalmi változások – tannyelvi váltások. Középiskolák, Kassa 1920 – 1938. In Szociálpedagógia : nemzetközi szaklektorált folyóirat [online], 2018, No. 11, pp. 52-74.

¹⁴ FALISOVÁ, Anna. Ženy v zdravotníctve so zameraním na ošetrovateľstvo (1918 – 1938). In *Človek a spoločnosť* [online], 2006, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 68-73. FALISOVÁ, Anna – MOROVICSOVÁ, Eva. Príprava a pôsobenie pôrodných asistentiek na Slovensku v posledných desaťročiach 19. a v prvej tretine 20. storočia. In *Historický časopis* [online], 2016, Vol. 64, No. 1, pp. 35-56. MOROVICSOVÁ, Eva. Zdravotnícke školstvo na Slovensku v medzivojnovom období. In *Studia Historica Nitriensia*, 2017, Vol. 21, No. 2, pp. 327-347.

¹⁵ DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela. Stratégia prežitia v mimoriadnej situácii. Vplyv Veľkej vojny na rodinu na území Slovenska. In *Forum Historiae* [online], 2009, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 25-27.

¹⁶ The collective monograph Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku [On the Road to a Modern Woman. Chapters from the history of gender relations in Slovakia] was a great achievement in this area. In the chapter "Women's Occupations", it brought insights into selected women's professions of various historical periods and a view of employment from a gender perspective. FALISOVÁ, Anna. Ženy v zdravotníctve a sociálnej starostlivosti. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 485-500. KODAJOVÁ, Daniela. Povolanie učiteľka. Profesia učiteľky a vzdelávanie dievčat na Slovensku. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 541-563. KODAJOVÁ, Daniela. Ženy v tieni mužov: spisovateľky, redaktorky a prekladateľky. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 563-585. TIŠLIAR, Pavol. Populačný vývoj a zamestnanosť z rodovej perspektívy. Ekonomická aktivita obyvateľstva Slovenska v medzivojnovom období so zreteľom na zamestnanosť žien. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 343-364. ZAVACKÁ, Katarína. Právničky v Československej republike. Absolventky práva a právna prax v Československu po roku 1918. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, pp. 586-598.

Another scope of problems concerning the issue of women are civil associations and the association life of women. Although associations were considered to be an area pertinent to the male part of the population, some women also participated in the associations, albeit to a limited extent. Through associations, women could leave the household sphere and join the public sphere.¹⁷ Elena Mannová pointed out that although the image of a "national" woman was that of a "passive counterpart of her man, silently supporting him and sacrificing herself for him", this was not true all the time.¹⁸ Recent research shows that in Slovakia, there were women's associations with a long history, especially charitable associations.¹⁹ The establishment of Czechoslovakia brought new conditions for civil associations. Section 113 of the 1920 Constitution enacted the freedom of assembly and association: "The freedom of the press, as well as the right to assemble peacefully and without arms, and to form associations are ensured."²⁰ In addition to the new conditions of forming civil associations, the establishment of the democratic republic brought also a significant boom to civil associations that also affected the female population. Despite the fact that the activities of civil associations slowly spread from larger towns to smaller settlements, they remained the privilege of the urban population, mainly in the interwar period. Activities in associations became differentiated and this was reflected not only at a national level, but also on a regional scale. At the beginning of the 1920s, several women's associations existed in different regions simultaneously.²¹ Although several works were written about women's social life, they mainly map the second half of the 19th and early 20th centuries, and only rarely examine this issue in the interwar period.²² Therefore, this topic is still open to research. The issue is inadequately addressed, especially at the regional level. The activities of women in associations in Košice have not yet been sufficiently explored and have only been marginally mentioned in the works.²³

¹⁷ As long as the public sphere belonged to middle-class men, women belonged exclusively to the private sphere. Their field of action was thus defined by the family and household. This classification of sexes into the respective spheres was based on the opinion of men and women having a different physiology and character, and was one of the characteristic features of bourgeoisie. MANNOVÁ, Elena. Verejnosť verzus rodinný krb? Ženy v spolkoch na Slovensku v 19. storočí. In *Človek a spoločnosť* [online], 2006, Vol. 9, No. 4, p. 38.

¹⁸ MANNOVÁ, Elena. Mužské a ženské svety v spolkoch. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. *Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku*. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, p. 187.

¹⁹ The first charity association in Košice was a women's association founded in the years 1837 – 1838 entitled A Kassai Jótékony Nőegylet [Charitable Women's Association in Košice]. Archival materials from the 1940s date the foundation of the association to 1837, and 1838. Archív mesta Košice [Archives of the City of Košice] (hereinafter AMK), f. Národný výbor mesta Košice [National Committee of the City of Košice] 1945 – 1948 (hereinafter NVMK), Spolkové oddelenie [Division of Societies] 1915 – 1957 (hereinafter d. of Societies), carton (hereinafter c.) 5, inventory number (hereinafter inv. no.) 23, no. II/7. Nikoleta Lattová is in favor of the formation of the association in the years 1837 – 1839: "Since the oldest statutes were not preserved, it was possible to state that the association was founded sometime between 1837 and 1839. Since 1839, his activity was confirmed by a document on the settlement of the Ferdinandeum nursing home for the period 1839 – 1844." LATTOVÁ, Nikoleta. Spolkový život v Košiciach v rokoch 1867–1914. Dizertačná práca. Košice : UPJŠ v Košiciach, 2017, p. 67.

²⁰ Zákon č. 121/1920 Sb. z. a n. ze dne 29. února 1920, kterým se uvozuje ústavní listina Československé republiky [online].

²¹ After the establishment of Czechoslovakia 158 women's associations and regional branches were registered in Slovakia. ŠALINGOVÁ, Andrea. Združovanie a spolkový život žien na Slovensku. In Aspekt 1/2003 – 2004. Príbehy žien. Bratislava : Aspekt, 2004, pp. 53-54.

²² VRZGULOVÁ, Monika. Ženy zo stredných vrstiev a ich aktivity vo verejnom priestore mesta 1918 – 1945. In MANNOVÁ, Elena (ed.). *Meštianstvo a občianska spoločnosť na Slovensku 1900 – 1989*. Bratislava, 1998, pp. 197-204.

²³ DZURIKANINOVÁ, Nikoleta. Ženské spolky v Košiciach v 19. storočí. In Zborník príspevkov z 2. ročníka Jarnej školy doktorandov UPJŠ. Košice : UPJŠ v Košiciach, 2015, pp. 190-194. GAYER, Veronika. Zsidó egyesületek Kassán a két világháború között [online], 25 p. LATTOVÁ, Nikoleta. Spolkový život v Košiciach v rokoch 1867–1914. Dizertačná práca, Košice : UPJŠ v Košiciach, 2017. 208 p. LÁNYI, Menyhért – PROPPERNÉ BÉKEFI, Hermin. Szlovenszkói zsidó hitközségek története. Košice, 1933. 286 p. SÁPOSOVÁ,

Statistics

The development of the total population of Košice in the period under review, as well as the gender composition of the population, can be monitored using the official data of the 1910^{24} 1921^{25} and 1930 censuses.²⁶

	19	10	19	21	19	30
Sex	Number of		Number of		Number of	
SCA	the	%	the	%	the	%
	population		population		population	
Males	22 347	50.55	27 905	52.75	36 419	51.94
Females	21 864	49.45	24 993	47.25	33 698	48.06
Both sexes	44 211	100	52 898	100	70 117	100

 Table 1: Development of Košice population by sex²⁷

Zlatica. Voluntary associations in Košice, Slovakia – an introduction to the subject of associations and their activities. In *Studia Historyczne* [online], 2013, No. 4, pp. 527-537. ŠKULECOVÁ, Ivana. Slovenské spolky v Košiciach v prvej polovici 20. storočia. In ŠUTAJ, Štefan (ed.). *Košice a dejiny – dejiny Košic.* Košice : Univerzita Pavla Jozefa Šafárika v Košiciach, 2011, pp. 140-147. TAKÁČ, Artúr. K otázkam starostlivosti o chudobných v Košiciach v rokoch 1918 – 1929. In *Historica Carpatica 10 : zborník Východoslovenského múzea v Košiciach.* Košice : Východoslovenské múzeum v Košiciach, 1978, pp. 145-162. TAKÁČ, Artúr. Starostlivosť o mestskú chudobu v Košiciach v rokoch 1929 – 1938. In *Historica Carpatica 10 : zborník Východoslovenského múzea v Košiciach.* Košice : Východoslovenské múzeum v Košiciach, 1980, pp. 69-92. VOTRUBOVÁ, Štefana. *Živena, jej osudy a práca.* Živena, spolok slovenských žien, 1931. 348 p.

²⁴ A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása. Első rész. A népesség főbb adatai községek és népesebb puszták, telepek szerint. 1 Általános jelentés 2 Részletes kimutatások. Budapest : Athenaeum Irodalmi és Nyomdai R.-Társulat, 1912. 880 p. A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása. Második rész. A népesség foglalkozása és a nagyipari vállalatok községenkint. Budapest : Athenaeum Irodalmi és Nyomdai R.-Társulat, 1913. 1092 p. A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása. Harmadik rész. A népesség foglalkozása részletesen és a vállalati statisztika. Budapest : Athenaeum Irodalmi és Nyomdai R.-Társulat, 1914. 1314 p. A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása. Negyedik rész. A népesség foglalkozása a főbb demografiai adatokkal egybevetve s a népesség ház- és földbirtokviszonyai. Budapest : Pesti Könyvnyomda Részvénytársaság, 1915. 893 p. A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása.

²⁵ Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 15. února 1921. Díl I. Praha : Státní úřed statistický, 1924. 276 p. Sčítanie ľudu v republike Československej zo dňa 15. februára 1921. Diel II. Povolanie obyvateľstva. Časť 3. Slovensko a Podkarpatská Rus. Praha : Státní úřed statistický, 1925. 593 p.

²⁶ Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl I. Růst, koncentrace a hustota obyvatelstva, pohlaví, věkové rozvrstvení, rodinný stav, státní příslušnost, národnost, náboženské vyznání. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1934. 205 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl II. Povolání obyvatelstva. Část 1. Druhy, skupiny a třídy hlavního povolání, poměr k povolání a sociální příslušnost, třídy vedlejšího povolání. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1934. 407 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl II. Povolání obyvatelstva. Část 2. Povolání podle věku a rodinného stavu, povolání podle velokosti místa pohybu, objektivní povolání, veřejní zaměstnanci, vedlejší povolání, nezaměstnanost. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1935. 419 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl II. Povolání obyvatelstva. Část 3. Povolání a sociální rozvrstvení obyvatelstva podle národnosti (také cizinců) a podle náboženského vyznání. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1935. 256 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl III. ostatní data demografická (vnitřní stěhování, tělesné vady, znalostětení a psaní, cizinci). Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1937. 271 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl IV. Část 1. Počet dětí živě narozených v posledním manželství. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1936. 222 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl IV. Část 2. Domácnosti a rodiny. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1938. 127 p. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl IV. Část 3. Plodnost manželství. Konkubináty. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1938. 459 p.

²⁷ The population is listed including members of the army operating in the city which of course distorts the percentage ratio between the size of the male and female population in Košice. A Magyar Szent Korona országainak 1910. évi népszámlálása. Első rész..., p. 28. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 15. února 1921. Díl I..., pp. 226-227. Sčítání lidu v republice Československé ze dne 1. prosince 1930. Díl I..., p. 12.

It is possible to compare how the employment of women in Košice changed during the first Czechoslovak Republic, namely in 1930, compared to the times of Austria-Hungary in 1910, when the last census was performed in this state. In addition to statistical results from population censuses, research may also use statistics related to schools in Czechoslovakia, which include information on students and teachers of schools in the respective cities.²⁸

Rules and regulations

When examining the issue of women, rules and regulations have to be taken into account.²⁹ As Jana Burešová wrote: "It is necessary to examine the whole system of instruments that defined a woman's place in the social hierarchy, from the unequal status in the legal system to the aesthetic norms and contemporary morality, for instance."³⁰ Rules and regulations and their correct interpretation help to create a bigger picture of society. Since their main role is to regulate social relations, they are literally a mirror of society. Yet they are unable to portray reality in its entirety. Thus, they cannot depict the real position of women in the past, but rather clarify what their position should have been.³¹ When examining the legal status of women, we must therefore take into account not only the rules and regulations, but also the degree of their enforcement. According to Gabriela Dudeková: "The analyses of law (including critical responses of contemporary lawyers) convincingly show that in practice, the interpretation of written law was distorted and often, rules were de facto violated, which was also associated with women's low legal awareness." To see the real status of women, it is necessary to get acquainted with the contemporary views on the issue and with the degree of democracy; those being the fundamental aspects of real legal practice.³²

Archive resources

The basic source for the research of the position of women (their education, employment and activities in associations) in Košice between 1918 - 1938 are public record resources in the archives from the period under review. When researching the education of girls and women in Košice after 1918, the archives are valuable resources including, Košice secondary schools and courses for girls, stored in the State Archive of Košice [*Štátny archív v Košiciach*] ("ŠA-K"),³³

²⁸ Střední školy v republice Československé dle stavu koncem školního roku 1920/21. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1923. 146 p. Vysoké, střední a odborné školy v republice Československé ve školním roce 1921-22. Praha : Státní úřad statistický, 1924. 344 p.

²⁹ Zákon č. 121/1920 Sb. z. a n. ze dne 29. února 1920, kterým se uvozuje ústavní listina Československé republiky [online].

Zákon č. 252/1923 Sb. z. a n. ze dne 20. prosince 1923, jímž se mění a doplňují některá ustanovení zákona ze dne 17. února 1922, č. 75 Sb. z. a n., upravujúcího organisaci odborných škol pro ženská povolání a právní poměry učitelstva těchto škol v republice Československé [online].

Zákon č. 75/1922 Sb. z. a n. ze dne 17. února 1922 upravující organisaci odborných škol pro ženská povolání a právní poměry učitelstva těchto škol v republice Československé [online].

STODOLA, Ivan (ed.). Zdravotné predpisy na Slovensku. Turčiansky sv. Martin : Matica slovenská, 1937. 388 p. ³⁰ BUREŠOVÁ, J. Proměny společenského postavení..., p. 9.

³¹ PALATOVÁ, Kateřina – KRAUSOVÁ, Vendula – HAVELKOVÁ, Tereza. Žena pohledem právních norem habsburské říše druhé poloviny 19. století. In ČADKOVÁ, Kateřina – LENDEROVÁ, Milena – STRÁNÍKOVÁ, Jana (eds.). *Dějiny žen aneb Evropská žena od středověku do poloviny 20. století v zajetí historiografie*. Pardubice : Univerzita Pardubice, 2006, p. 502.

³² DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela – LENGYELOVÁ, Tünde. Premeny právneho postavenia žien. In DUDEKOVÁ, Gabriela et al. *Na ceste k modernej žene. Kapitoly z dejín rodových vzťahov na Slovensku*. Bratislava : Veda, 2011, p. 307.

³³ Grammar schools and vocational schools where boys and girls could study: records of Czechoslovak State Real Grammar School in Košice *[Československé štátne reálne gymnázium v Košiciach]* 1919 – 1938, records of State Hungarian Real Grammar School in Košice *[Štátne maďarské reálne gymnázium v Košiciach]* 1927 – 1938,

consisting mainly of official books (main catalogues, class catalogues, classification catalogues, advisory catalogues, adult test reports, registers of school leaving exams), which provide information on the gender, religious, national or social composition of students at the respective schools and courses. They enable monitoring of the development of the number of students at the respective educational institutions and where the girls came from. In the case of the Twoyear Girls' Family Vocational School in Košice [Dvojročná dievčenská odborná rodinná škola v Košiciach] (1922 – 1938), only 2 catalogues from the school year 1925/26 were preserved, as the only source of information on the composition of the school's students. From the admission catalogue for the first year (53 student candidates) and the main catalogue for the second year (39 students enrolled) it is clear that in the school year 1925/26, 42.4% of girls stated Czech as their mother tongue, 22.8% reported the same in Slovak and Hungarian languages, while German and Russian were the mother tongues of 2.2%, Polish was reported by only 1 pupil and in the case of 6 pupils, no language was recorded. As to the religion of the students, the religious composition of the students was as follows: Roman Catholics (48.9%), Lutheran (9.8%), Jewish and Czech Brethren (both 7.6%), Czechoslovak (5.4%), Greek Catholic and Calvinist (both 3.3 %) and Orthodox (only 1 student). No religion was recorded with the names of 7 students, while 5 students were atheists.³⁴

The documents are not at all comprehensive; they survived only in case of some schools (in particular: the minutes of educators' meetings, educators' appointment documents, human resource matters, deeds of foundation, official forms, regulations and circulars of the Ministry of Education and Culture [*Ministerstvo školstva a národnej osvety*] ("MŠaNO").³⁵ Documents concerning the education of girls in institutions operated by the Catholic Church can be found

records of Order Czechoslovak Real Grammar School of Premonstratesians in Košice [Rádové československé reálne gymnázium premonštrátov v Košiciach] 1935 – 1938, records of State Czechoslovak Secondary School in Košice [Štátna československá reálka v Košiciach] 1919 – 1938, records of State Commercial Academy in Košice [Štátna obchodná akadémia v Košiciach] 1899 – 1945, records of State Commercial School in Košice [Štátna obchodná škola v Košiciach] 1920 – 1945, records of Czechoslovak State Continuation Commercial School in Košice [Československá štátna pokračovacia škola obchodná v Košiciach] 1919 – 1938, records of State Continuation Commercial School in Košice [Československá štátna pokračovacia škola v Košiciach] 1872 – 1945, records of State Centinual School in Košice [Štátna vyššia hospodárska škola v Košiciach] 1919 – 1948, records of State Agricultural School in Košice [Československý štátny učiteľský ústav v Košiciach] 1921 – 1930.

Girls' schools: records of State Czechoslovak Girls' Real Grammar School in Košice [Štátne československé dievčenské reálne gymnázium v Košiciach] 1919 – 1938, records of Order Czechoslovak Girls' Real Grammar School of Congregation of Dominicans in Košice [Rádové československé dievčenské reálne gymnázium kongregácie dominikánok v Košiciach] 1936 – 1938, records of Roman Catholic Girls' Grammar School of Ursulines in Košice [Rímskokatolícke dievčenské gymnázium rádu uršulínok v Košiciach] 1936 – 1944, records of Girls' Family Vocational School in Košice [Dievčenská odborná rodinná škola v Košiciach] 1923 – 1938, records of Roman Catholic Women's Common School in Košice [Rímskokatolícky ženský učiteľský ústav v Košiciach] 1860 – 1919; 1937 – 1938.

Girls' and women's courses: records of Public One-year Girls' Commercial Course of Dominicans in Košice [Verejný jednoročný dievčenský obchodný kurz sestier dominikánok v Košiciach] 1928 – 1934, records of Women's Commercial Course of Ursulines in Košice [Ženský obchodný kurz rádu sv. Uršule v Košiciach] 1907 – 1939.

³⁴ ŠA-K, f. Dievčenská odborná rodinná škola v Košiciach [Girls' Family Vocational School in Košice] 1923 – 1938 (hereinafter DORŠ), inv. no. 165, no. XI/1, Prijímací katalóg [Receiver catalogue], 1. ročník [the 1th class], 1925/26. ŠA-K, f. DORŠ, inv. no. 166, no. XI/2, Hlavný katalóg [Main catalogue], 2. ročník [the 2nd class], 1925/26.

³⁵ The documents in ŠA-K survived only in case of these schools: Czechoslovak State Real Grammar School in Košice [Československé štátne reálne gymnázium v Košiciach] 1919 – 1938, State Hungarian Real Grammar School in Košice [Štátne maďarské reálne gymnázium v Košiciach] 1927 – 1938, Order Czechoslovak Real Grammar School of Premonstratesians in Košice [Rádové československé reálne gymnázium premonštrátov v Košiciach] 1935 – 1938, State Commercial Academy in Košice [Štátna obchodná akadémia v Košiciach] 1899 – 1945, State Technical School in Košice [Štátna priemyselná škola v Košiciach] 1872 – 1945.

in the Archbishop's Archives [Arcibiskupský archív] in Košice.³⁶ Information about individual schools – such as timetables, private exam reports, or applications to exempt certain students from certain subjects – is also found in the 1922 – 1938 "School Inspectorate II of Košice" [Školský inšpektorát II v Košiciach] records at ŠA-K.

In the education of women, midwife training courses played an important role. In connection with the research of women's education in the field of obstetrics, archive materials from the 1919 – 1929 funds of the Subsidiary of the Ministry of Public Health and Physical Education [Expozitúra Ministerstva verejného zdravotníctva a telesnej výchovy] ("EMVZaTV"), deposited in the Slovak National Archive [Slovenský národný archív] in Bratislava ("SNA") are of help. It contains information on the education of midwives at the Czechoslovak School of Midwives in Košice [Československá babská škole v Košiciach] (1907 – 1945), renamed in 1928 as the State Institute for the Education and Training of Midwives [Štátny ústav pre vzdelávanie a výchovu pôrodných asistentiek]. This file contains data on the respective courses for midwives, organized by the school, their duration, the conditions of admission of applicants, and the number of graduates. However, there is a lack of information on the overall process of the courses, and on the extracurricular activities of students or their success after the course. Information on courses for midwives can be also found in the register of the Department of the Chief Medical Officer of the City of Košice [Úradný hlavný lekár mesta Košice], included in the 1922 – 1938 records of the City of Košice [Magistrát mesta Košíc] ("MMK"), stored in the Archive of the City of Košice [Archive mesta Košice] ("AMK"). However, these are unprocessed records.

One of the possibilities of educating girls and women was also through extracurricular studies in the library. Therefore, another valuable source for researching the education of women in interwar Košice is the list of readers and the statistics stored in the 1924 – 1974 records of the Regional Library in Košice [Krajská knižnica v Košiciach], deposited at ŠA-K. Although these materials do not provide information on the education of the readers, they can complement the overall picture of the education of women in Košice. In the register of readers, information on language knowledge and interest in particular types of literature was recorded, in addition to data on gender, age, nationality, religion and occupation. In the 1928 readers' list, 621 women (27%) and 1.679 men (73%), were registered. Almost half (49.91%) of the visitors were members of the younger generation; 16-25 years old. More than half of the women were of Hungarian ethnicity (59.9%). The second largest group were Jewish girls and women (13.5%). They were followed by Czech (10.6%), Slovak (8.7%), German (6%) and Russian (0.5%) readers. 0.8% of the readers had another ethnicity. As to language skills, 87.6% of women stated that they spoke Hungarian. The second most common was German, spoken by 82.1% of the readers. This was followed by Slovak (56.2%), French (20.5%), Czech (18.5%), English (6.3%) and Russian (3.1%). In addition to these languages, 3.4% of women spoke another foreign language. In terms of religious adherence, 36.4% were Roman Catholic, 2.6% Greek Catholic, 8% Lutheran, 2.6% Calvinist, 0.6% Czechoslovak, 0.2% Czech Brethren, 0.2% other Christian denominations, and 47.5% Jewish. 0.2% had another religion and 1.7% of the readers had no indicated religion. As to their occupations, 70.2% of women had a tick stating 'housewife' or 'household' at their home address and a 'freelancer' box ticked as occupation.³⁷ No less than 3 out of 5 of readers worked in the household or were housewives. 15% of the readers were students. 10.3% of women held office positions and 2.7% were teachers or professors. Only

³⁶ In the records entitled Košice Bishopric *[Košické biskupstvo]* (the 1883 – 1946 division of the Košice Bishop's Ordinary *[Košický biskupský ordinariát]*).

³⁷ It referred to them as housewives.

1.8% of registered women in the list of readers had another profession. Readers were most interested in 'entertainment literature', as well as literature on household and fashion, art, history and sports. Only 10.8% of women had been on the library reader list in previous years.³⁸

A higher level of education placed women in a better position in the labour market. The archival funds deposited at ŠA-K can provide information on the employment of women in Košice between 1918 and 1938 in the education and health sectors.³⁹ In researching the employment of women in the area of education, documents from the aforementioned records of secondary schools and courses are very useful, too. Since women were also employed as teachers at the city's music school, researchers can use the documents stored in the MMK records of AMK, related to the operation of this school and its teachers (teacher lists, subjects taught, timetables). When considering the involvement of the female part of the population in healthcare, it is advisable to use the 1879 – 1948 records of the State Hospital in Košice [Štátna nemocnica v Košiciach] and the 1907 – 1948 records of the State Maternity and Gynaecology Hospital in Košice [Štátna pôrodnica a nemocnica pre choroby ženské v Košiciach], both deposited at ŠA-K. Further materials on this issue can be found in the SNA in the records of EMVZaTV, as well as in the aforementioned records department of the Chief Medical Officer of Košice, deposited at the AMK, which include, statistics on hospital staff and various treatment institutions. Through these, it is possible to outline the positions, at least partly, in which women were able to work in healthcare.

For the research of the activities of Košice women in the respective civil associations and societies of the city between 1918 and 1938, the basic resources are the archived files stored in the AMK, holding the 1945 – 1948 records of the National Committee of the City of Košice *[Národný výbor mesta Košice]*, containing also the 1915 – 1957 files of associations (division of societies). This division of societies contains also the *Register of Societies of Košice city and the district of Košice [Evidencia spolkov v Košiciach a okrese košickom]* (1915 – 1957),⁴⁰ listing the names of associations sorted into 16 groups according to their scope and the *Index of Associations of Košice city and the municipalities of the district of Košice [Index spolkov v obvode mesta Košíc a obcí okresu Košice]* (1915 – 1957).⁴¹ Since both the Register and the Index lack the exact dating of the existence of the specific associations, researchers cannot use them to determine the operating years of the respective associations. However, following a more detailed examination, one may find that this division contains documents mainly from the post-1938 period and that in some cases, articles of association from earlier periods are available.

One can compare the data of the Register of Societies of Košice city and the district of Košice with the 1937 List of Associations Legally Established in the District of the Košice Police Directorate [Zoznam spolkov právne jestvujúcich v obvode Policajného riaditeľstva Košice], which is a part of the 1920 – 1938 records of the Košice Police Directorate [Policajné riaditeľstvo v Košiciach], deposited at ŠA-K. The list reveals associations also divided into 16

³⁸ ŠA-K, f. Krajská knižnica v Košiciach [Regional Library in Košice] 1924 – 1974, inv. no. 25, Zoznam zapísaných čitateľov [List of readers] 1928.

³⁹ As the primary role of women was to take care of the family and household, women were employed mainly in education as teachers and in healthcare as nurses and midwives.

⁴⁰ AMK, f. NVMK, d. of Societies, inv. no. 17, Evidencia spolkov v Košiciach a okrese košickom [*Register of Societies of Košice city and the district of Košice*].

⁴¹ AMK, f. NVMK, d. of Societies, inv. no. 18, Index spolkov v obvode mesta Košíc a obcí okresu Košice [*Index of Associations of Košice city and the municipalities of the district of Košice*].
groups.⁴² These amount to 314 associations in total,⁴³ 12 of them being associations of only women and girls. Three were religious associations: the Association of Evangelical Women of the Slovak Augsburg Evangelical Church [Spolok evanjelických žien v cirkvi ev. a. v. slovenskej], the Catholic Youth Association in Slovakia, local girls' group (Slovak) [Sdruženie katolíckej mládeže na Slovensku, miestna skupina pre dievčence, slovenská]; and the Catholic Youth Association in Slovakia, local girls' group (Hungarian) [Sdruženie katolíckej mládeže na Slovensku, miestna skupina pre dievčence, maďarská]; the following are 6 charitable associations: the "Marta" [Martha] Women's Charity Association of Košice [Ženský dobročinný spolok "Marta" v Košiciach], the "Lidumil" [Philanthropist] Women's Charitable Association of Košice [Ženský dobročinný spolok "Lidumil" v Košiciach], the Košice Charitable Women's Association of Košice [Košický dobročinný ženský spolok v Košiciach], the Israelite Women's Charity Association of Košice [Izraelitský ženský dobročinný spolok v Košiciach], the St Elizabeth's Association [Spolok sv. Alžbety], the Orthodox Israelite Women's Charitable Association [Izraelitský orth. ženský dobročinný spolok]; one support society: the "Wizo" Jewish Women's Association of Košice [Židovský ženský spolok Wizo v Košiciach]; two social associations: a branch of the "Živena" Association of Slovak Women [Živena, spolok slovenských žien (pobočka)], and the Union of Slavic Women of Košice [Jednota slovanských žien v Košiciach].⁴⁴ In addition to the aforementioned register and the 1937 list of associations, there is also a list of women's associations from 1924, listing 5 women's associations⁴⁵ and a list of associations registered between 1923 and 1928, containing 7 women's associations.⁴⁶ In the interwar period in Košice, women's associations were predominantly charitable, just as it was in the first two decades of the 20th century. Moreover,

⁴² Taking into account that the state controlled activities of associations; they were constantly registered and administratively divided. In the first Czechoslovak Republic societies were divided into 16 categories. VRANOVÁ, Elena. Spolky na Slovensku v rokoch 1945–1951. In *Slovenská archivistika*, 1980, Vol. 15, No. 1, p. 64. In 1937, associations in Košice were classified as follows: I. religious (11); II. charitable and humanitarian (17); III. mutual, supportive and funeral (28); IV. agricultural, forestry and horticultural (21); V. trading and industrial of all kinds (3); VI. museum, scientific, artistic and beautification (2); VII. students' (2); VIII. social, readers', entertainment, drama, singing, musical and educational (45); IX. gymnastics (6); X. sports (47); XI. associations of military veterans, shooting and armed associations (6); XII. firefighting (2); XIII. professional organizations (90); XIV. workers' labour unions (15); XV. pigeon breeding associations (1); XVI. others (17). The list includes also a political association.

⁴³ Information on a similar number of associations (312) in Košice appears in the press in 1936. *Slovenský východ*, February 3, 1937, No. 27, Spolkový a sociálny život v Košiciach vo svetle čísel, p. 4. Although it is a relatively high number, not all established and registered associations actually operated.

⁴⁴ ŠA-K, f. Policajné riaditeľstvo v Košiciach [Košice Police Directorate] 1920 – 1938, c. 13, inv. no. 121, 1937, Zoznam spolkov právne jestvujúcich v obvode Policajného riaditeľstva Košice [List of Associations Legally Established in the District of the Košice Police Directorate].

⁴⁵ Of these, 3 were listed as supportive, but in fact they were charitable associations: the Košice Charitable Women's Association [Košický dobročinný ženský spolok], the Elizabeth's Association [Spolok Alžbety] and the Jewish Charitable Women's Association [Židovský dobročinný ženský spolok]; one social society (listed as cultural in the statement): the "Živena" Association of Slovak Women [Živena, spolok slovenských žien], one religious association: the St Ružena's Association [Spolok svätej Ruženy]. ŠA-K, f. Košická župa [Košice County] 1923 – 1928 (hereinafter KŽ), c. 384, inv. no. 199, no. 33580, 1924, Výkazy ženských spolkov v Košickej župe [Lists of women's associations in the Košice County].

⁴⁶ In the register of 260 Košice associations from 1923 – 1928, there are 7 exclusively women societies. There were 5 charitable associations: the Košice Charitable Women's Association [Košický dobročinný ženský spolok], the Košice Jewish Women's Charitable Association [Košický židovský ženský dobročinný spolok], the "Marta" [Martha] Charity Women's Association [Dobročinný ženský spolok "Marta"], the Israelite Women's Charity Association [Izraelitský ženský dobročinný spolok], the St Elizabeth's Association [Spolok Sv. Alžbety]; one social association: the "Živena" Association of Slovak Women [Živena, spolok slovenských žien], one religious society: the Association of Evangelical Women of the Slovak Augsburg Evangelical Church of Košice [Spolok evanjelických žien v košickej ev. a. v. cirkvi slovenskej]. ŠA-K, f. KŽ, inv. no. 17, Evidencia spolkov podľa okresov 1923–1928 [List of associations by district].

religious, supportive and social women's associations also existed in the city. Although in 1937, exclusively female associations accounted for less than 4% of the total number of associations in the city, this does not mean that women were not actively engaged in other non-female associations. They were active members of associations including the Social Support Society of Jews in Slovakia [Sociálny podporný spolok Židov na Slovensku] (chaired by Irena Matznerová),⁴⁷ the Czechoslovak Red Cross of Košice [Československý Červený kríž v Košiciach] (chaired by Mrs. Sekáčová, the wife of the then county governor),⁴⁸ the Košice branch of the Masaryk Anti-Tuberculosis League [Masarykova liga proti tuberkulóze], the "Sokol" [Hawk] Gymnastics Union of Košice [Telocvičná jednota "Sokol" v Košiciach] and the Russian Association of Košice [Ruský spolok v Košiciach] (headed by Dr. Soňa Stuchlíková).⁴⁹

The aforementioned archive materials do not provide specific data on the establishment or dissolution of all associations. Therefore, we cannot always be certain as to whether these associations operated simultaneously or at a different time – in terms of number, it is difficult to compare women's associations of Košice operating in the 19th century⁵⁰ and at the beginning of the 20th century with those operating in the interwar period. Some women's associations founded in Košice in the 19th century continued their activities during World War I and their existence and activities lasted until the interwar period,⁵¹ while others had disappeared in the 19th century,⁵² during the World War Two or after the establishment of Czechoslovakia. In the democratic conditions of the newly established republic, new women's associations having no roots in the former monarchy were also founded.⁵³ The same is true of associations, which – although not exclusively female – had active female members. However, when researching the social status of women in Košice, it is not important to see how many and which associations existed in the city, but to what extent women could participate in their activities. Therefore, it

⁴⁷ LÁNYI, M. – PROPPERNÉ BÉKEFI, H. Szlovenszkói zsidó hitközségek története..., p. 82.

⁴⁸ Zpráva o činnosti Československého Červeného Kríža v Košiciach. Košice : Slovákia, 1930, p. 6.

⁴⁹ AMK, f. Magistrát mesta Košíc *[City Council of Košice]* 1923 – 1938 (hereinafter MMK), c. 66, inv. no. 288, no. 1538.

⁵⁰ In her work, Lattová mentions 12 exclusively women associations whose existence dates back to 1867 – 1914. There were 6 charitable associations: Košice Charitable Women's Association [Košický dobročinný ženský spolok], Košice Jewish Women's Association [Košický židovský ženský spolok], Košice Jewish Women's Association [Košický židovský dobročinný ženský spolok], Košice Women's Frőbel Association [Košický židovský dobročinný ženský spolok], Košice Women's Frőbel Association [Košický ženský spolok], Lutheran Women's Association [Evanjelický ženský spolok], Jewish Girls' Association [Židovský dievčenský spolok]; one funeral association: Professional and Funeral Society of Female Workers in Košice and its Surroundings [Odborný a pohrebný spolok ženských robotníčok mesta Košice a Vidieka]; one worker's society: Female Workers' Club [Kruh ženských robotníčok]; 3 cultural associations: Košice Female Singers' Club [Košický ženský spevácky kruh], Košice Female Choir [Košický ženský spevokol], Košice Ladies' Choir [Spevokol košických paní] and one religion association: Košice Association of the Regional association of Catholic Housewives [Košický spolok krajinského zväzu katolíckych žien v domácnosti].

⁵¹ The associations that were founded in the 19th century and continued their activities after the coup included the Charitable Women's Association of Košice [Dobročinný ženský spolok v Košiciach], founded in 1837 – 1838 under the name A Kassai Jótékony Nőegylet. AMK, f. NVMK, d. of Societies, c. 5, inv. no. 23, no. II/7. In addition, the Jewish Charitable Women's Association [Židovský dobročinný ženský spolok], which was established in 1867, continued its activities in the interwar period. GAYER, V. Zsidó egyesületek Kassán..., p. 8.

⁵² In 1883 Female Singers' Club was founded *[Kassai Női Daloskör]*. However, it ceased to exist in 1890. LATTOVÁ, N. *Spolkový život v Košiciach...*, pp. 95-96.

⁵³ As an example we can mention the "Marta" *[Martha]* Women's Charity Association *[Ženský dobročinný spolok* "*Marta"]* which was founded in Košice in 1925. The newly founded associations also included the "Lidumil" *[Philanthropist]* Women's Charitable Association *[Ženský dobročinný spolok "Lidumil"]*. AMK, f. MMK, c. 62, inv. no. 286, no. 35151.

is also necessary to explore other types of data that may reveal the associations women actually participated in.

In addition to the aforementioned register, index or lists of associations in Košice, the applications of associations – most often requesting financial support – have survived.⁵⁴ Associations usually applied for support to the city, sometimes to the district or the county administration. In the applications, they have detailed the reasons for requesting support from them. In particular, they mentioned the main goals of the association and the specific activities that the association had undertaken in the past. Occasionally, the members and the year of foundation of the particular association was mentioned. Associations often attached their articles of association to the applications. However, these have not been preserved in all cases. Since in Czechoslovakia, women were formally equal to men, the articles of association also stated that members of the association could be people of both sexes. Given the fact that only rarely did the lists of association members survive in the archives, it is difficult to tell the extent to which women were actually involved in the activities of the associations. The files stored in the archives also include the annual statements of associations filed to the city council. However, from these, it is only possible to identify some officials of the particular associations. Among the files there are also reports of associations about their activities performed in the respective years, which may show the involvement of women in the associations of the city.

Since all the activities had to be reported to the City Police Department (to the captain's office and, later, to the police directorate established in Košice at the end of 1920), the files preserved of the activities of these two institutions may be considered important for researching the 1918 - 1938 associated activities of women in Košice. The 1861 - 1922 records division of the Police Captainate [Policajný kapitanát] (1830) is a part of the 1888 – 1922 records of the City Council of Košice [Magistrát mesta Košice], deposited in the AMK, while the 1920 - 1938 records of the Košice Police Directorate [Policajné riaditeľstvo v Košiciach] ("PR") is held at ŠA-K. Since after 1938, the PR records were moved several times (to Prešov, Prague, Bratislava and Košice), a part of the records was lost and/or destroyed. As a result, the retained files are not comprehensive at all and contain only a small number of documents related to associations (e.g. the list of associations mentioned above). Other archival materials for association activities in interwar Košice are deposited in the AMK in the 1923 – 1938 records of the City Notary's Office in Košice [Mestský notársky úrad v Košiciach] and in the 1939 – 1945 records of the Municipal City of Košice [Košice – mesto s municipiálnym zriadením] (although these records includes mostly newer documents, along with those from the period under review, it also contains materials from the interwar period concerning the financial support of the respective associations), in the Archbishop's Archives in Košice in the records of the Košice Bishopric [Košické biskupstvo] (the 1883 – 1946 division of the Košice Bishop's Ordinary [Košický biskupský ordinariát]) and in the National Archive of Czech Republic, [Národní archiv České *republiky*] in Prague in the 1918 – 1940 records in the Headquarters of the Ministry of the Interior [Presidium ministerstva vnitra], containing the articles of association of associations. Preservation of the articles of association and activity reports is related to the obligation of the associations to file these documents with the Ministry of Interior of the Czechoslovak Republic and with the relevant police directorate. The articles of association had to be filed upon establishment of the association and upon each amendment. Reports of their activities performed during the past period (most often the previous year) had to be filed regularly.

⁵⁴ These documents are stored in the AMK in the MMK fonds, in the ŠA-K in the 1923 – 1928 records of the Košice County [Košická župa] and in the 1923 – 1939 records of the District Administration in Košice [Okresný úrad v Košiciach].

Annual reports

An important source for research of girls' and women's education and their employment in education are the annual reports of secondary schools, which can fill the gaps resulting from the loss and/or destruction of certain parts of the archives of individual schools. The annual reports provide a summary of the school year and provide information on a school's operations over the past period. Since these documents map the school's administration and also the social and cultural state of the city and the school's part in this, they are important sources of knowledge when considering the operation of a particular school and the state of education.⁵⁵ During the interwar period, almost all types of educational institutions issued annual school reports. Despite the fact that their publishing was regulated by several MSaNO decrees, which sought their uniformity in terms of content and form, these depended mainly on the financial and material resources of the particular institution. According to the MŠaNO Decree no. 17830 of 25 May 1921, the annual reports had to contain information about the teaching staff, the course of the school year – the so-called school chronicle (including school-leaving exams), collections of teaching aids, grants and scholarships, statistics of students (in terms of headcount, birthplace, residence, nationality, mother tongue, religion, age, etc.), the list of students and announcements for the subsequent school year.⁵⁶ However, not all schools complied with the regulations, and so there are some differences between the annual reports of the respective schools, and this also applies to the annual reports issued by Košice schools.⁵⁷ The fact that the annual reports are dispersed in the records of libraries, archives, museums and other institutions makes it difficult to work with this type of the resources. They are usually only fragmentary and sometimes inconsistent and/or they are not processed or kept file of at all 58

The annual reports of secondary schools, courses and the city Music school are also important resources because they provide information about the existence of particular schools and whether they were co-educational, girls' schools or if the school – despite the possibility of admitting female students – reported only male students. Most annual reports allow surveying the national, religious or social structure of the students. However, the problem in researching girls' education is that in the statistics of the annual reports, the sex of the students was

⁵⁵ GEŠKOVÁ, Želmíra – KRIŠKOVÁ, Ľubica. *Bibliografia výročných správ škôl z územia Slovenska za školské* roky 1918/19 – 1952/53. Martin : Matica slovenská, 1998, p. 32.

⁵⁶ GEŠKOVÁ, Ž. – KRIŠKOVÁ, Ľ. Bibliografia výročných správ..., pp. 35-37.

⁵⁷ The annual reports of Czechoslovak State Real Grammar School in Košice for school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Hungarian Real Grammar School in Košice for school years 1927/28 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Order Czechoslovak Real Grammar School of Premonstratesians in Košice for school years 1935/36 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Czechoslovak Real Grammar School of Premonstratesians in Košice for school years 1920/21 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Order Czechoslovak State Girls' Reform Real Grammar School in Košice for school years 1920/21 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Order Czechoslovak Girls' Real Grammar School of Congregation of Dominicans in Košice for school years 1936/37 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Czechoslovak Girls' Real Grammar School of Ursulines in Košice for school years 1936/37 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Secondary School in Košice for school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Technical School in Košice for school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Czechoslovak State Kate For school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Czechoslovak State Secondary School in Košice for school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Technical School in Košice for school years 1919/20 - 1937/38. The annual reports of Czechoslovak State Normal School in Košice for school years 1921/22 - 1929/30. The annual reports of Girls' Family Vocational School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Agricultural School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Agricultural School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Agricultural School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Agricultural School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1937/38. The annual reports of State Agricultural School in Košice for school years 1922/23 - 1933/34. The annual reports

⁵⁸ The annual reports issued by secondary schools in Košice in the years 1918 – 1938 are stored in the Archives of the City of Košice, the State Archives in Košice, the Jan Bocatius Public Library in Košice, the National Library of the Czech Republic in Prague, the Slovak Pedagogic Library in Bratislava, the State Scientific Library in Košice and the University Library in Bratislava.

differentiated only when considering the total headcount of students in the respective forms, but when considering other aspects (such as the mentioned nationality or religion), gender information was not stated. In such cases, the situation is simpler with schools attended only by girls. These include the girls' secondary schools or two-year girls' family vocational school. However, in case of the latter, the statistics are missing because the school's annual reports contain only lists of students. As mentioned above, only two catalogues have survived in the archives, so the annual reports complement the missing information not only concerning its origin or operation, but also provide contemporary views on the position of women in society and on the importance of their education: "[...] considering the advancement of women's emancipation, there is no future for a nation unless women are devoted to their families and they have a level of education helping them create a happy, nice home for their family, even in modest conditions. [...] It is important for a woman to awake devotion in the little things, including cooking, sewing and repairing clothes and for the other household chores. It is not enough to teach; it is necessary to instil love for this profession in future women."⁵⁹

Information about individual school subjects is also important, and when examining the employment of women in education, the information about the teachers who were teaching the subjects is equally important. The annual reports allow monitoring the gender composition of the teaching staff of the respective schools in the city, along with whether there were any differences in the set of subjects taught by men and women. For example, the staff of the Two-year Girls' Vocational Family School in Košice consisted of three female teachers and two male teachers during the first years of its existence.⁶⁰ The number of in-house and external male and female teachers changed every year. In the school year 1928/29, 8 female and 5 male teachers taught at the school.⁶¹ By the school year 1937/38, the number of teachers increased to 18 women and 2 men.⁶²

Printed media of the time

To examine the position of women in the past, one must focus not only on archived documents, but also on the contemporary press. As a means of mass communication, it is an important resource, because they reflect the influence of women on society as well as the attitude of the wider public to women and their activities at the time. One has to examine the context in which the articles on women appeared in the written media. For example, whether they were related to the fields of politics, culture, health, education or charity, or whether they supported women in their efforts to achieve an equal position to that of men, or whether these articles tried to act against these efforts. The contemporary press is therefore another source to use when examining the position of women in interwar Košice. This includes mainly the regional contemporary press, such as the pro-government daily *Slovenský východ [Slovak East]*, published in Košice between 1919 and 1937 (from April 1937 until the end of 1938 it was published under the name Novosti *[News]*), the monthly publication *"Košické kat. cirkevné zprávy" [Košice Catholic Ecclesiastical News]*, published in the years 1930 – 1938, the 1921 – 1938 weekly *Slovenský*

⁵⁹ Výročná zpráva Verejnej odbornej školy pre ženské povolania v Košiciach za školský rok 1931/32. Košice, 1932, p. 2.

⁶⁰ Výročná zpráva dvojročnej dievčenskej odbornej rodinnej školy v Košiciach za šk. r. 1922/23, 1923/24, 1924/25. Košice, 1925, pp. 5-7.

⁶¹ Verejná odborná škola pre ženské povolania v Košiciach. Výročná zpráva za šk. rok 1928/29. Košice, 1929, p. 10.

⁶² Výročná zpráva verejnej čsl. odbornej školy pre ženské povolania v Košiciach za školský rok 1937/38. Košice, 1938, pp. 15-17.

ľud [Slovak People], and the 1923 – 1928 official newspaper of the Košice county *[Úradné noviny župy košickej]*.

The topics of *Slovenský východ*, the first Slovak regional daily published in Eastern Slovakia after the establishment of Czechoslovakia, feature good examples of topics concerning the issue of women in society. The articles of this daily can be divided into specific topics concerning women: education (girls' schools, courses, lectures), employment (job advertisements), charity activities (in associations), voting rights, the issue of women abroad, criminal acts (theft, bodily harm, murder), suicides, prostitution, women's fashion and hairstyles, women and sports.

Hana Gregorová, who fought for women's rights and their equal status with men, worked as an editor of *Slovenský východ* between 1919 and 1920. It was due to her that the newspaper published articles supporting the emancipation and political involvement of women. From the very first months of its existence, *Slovenský východ* dealt with women's issues. It published texts with the intention of raising the interest of women in political affairs, political equality, and women's education: "One must not stop calling: women, understand your serious role in the republic – understand that you have to throw away your petty interests and that you must – or should – despise them and replace them with an interest in politics and public life [...] However, this interest requires more wisdom than it was necessary in the past, therefore, consider it to be your duty, women of the Slovak people, to learn, read every day, if not books, at least newspapers. [...] Imagine: at the elections, you will have to vote – this does not mean only to put on your best clothes, [...] and to vote for who is suggested by the others. Voting is a matter of great responsibility."⁶³

In conclusion we can say that *Slovenský východ* supported women in their emancipatory efforts and even tried to awaken the desire for Slovak women to work in politics and to achieve an equal status with men. The emancipation of women in politics required a certain level of education, which the daily also supported. As a regional daily paper of Eastern Slovakia based in Košice – a city which was the cultural, political, administrative and economic center of Eastern Slovakia, and was significantly impacted by the hungarianization in the previous period – it responded mainly to the need for Slovak education of both men and women. On its pages there were quite often articles about emerging girls' schools, about planned courses for women in Košice and in other cities of (Czecho)Slovakia,⁶⁴ but also information on expanding opportunities for higher education for women.

Women in healthcare was another topic given great attention by the paper. It published mainly information about courses for nurses and midwives, as well as job advertisements on job vacancies, such as for the nurses in the hospital in Košice. Newspapers thus included job advertisements, divided according to the sex of the applicants. As to the employment of women, the paper published short reports on the employment of women in positions previously held by men.⁶⁵

In addition to the contemporary periodicals published in Slovak, it is necessary to focus also on the Hungarian media and not only on the regional papers – including *Kassai Napló [Košice Journal]* (1919 – 1929) and *Kassai Hírlap [Košice Herald]* (1904 – 1922), the most popular papers in Košice, or *Kassai Katholikus Egyházi Tudósitó [Košice Catholic Clerical News]* (1914 – 1940), *Kassai Munkás [Košice Worker], Munkás [Worker]* after 1922 (1907 – 1937),

⁶³ Slovenský východ, March 18, 1919, č. 59, Ženám, pp. 1-2.

⁶⁴ Slovenský východ, February 13, 1920, č. 35, p. 4.

⁶⁵ Slovenský východ, January 10, 1937, č. 7, Ženy Slovenky v súdnej službe, p. 8.

A Nép [People] (1921 – 1937) - but also on national press. A notable example is most popular Hungarian daily in Czechoslovakia, *Prágai Magyar Hírlap [Prague Hungarian Herald]*, published in Prague from 1922 to 1938, which also reflected the life of women in Košice. In addition to the above, periodicals, primarily for women, can provide valuable information. Another Hungarian periodical paper for women was *Katolikus Nő [Catholic Woman]* (1932 – 1935) or *Nőmunkás [Worker Woman]* for women workers (1924 – 1925). No similar Slovak title was published in Košice in the interwar period, so – as far as Slovak press is concerned – one may use only periodicals published in other cities of Czechoslovakia. In Slovakia, the following women's periodicals were published in the interwar period: *Slovenská žena [Slovak Woman]* (1920 – 1923), *Gazdiná [Housewife]* (1925 – 1937) – a supplement to *Slovenský Gazda [Slovak Farmer]*, *Slovenka [Slovak Woman]* (1930 – 1935) – a Slovak version of the Prague daily List paní a dívek [Ladies' and Girls' Magazine] (1922 – 1929), *Nová žena [New Woman]* (1938 – 1944), *Dennica* (1898 – 1935) and Živena (1910 – 1949).

When processing periodicals of the time, the publisher of the newspaper or magazine has to be taken into account, since this reflected the nature of the published articles and the attitude of the paper to the issue. It is important to study the various periodicals to eliminate the possibility of achieving a distorted picture of society's view of women. Thematic bibliographic works of Michal Potemra and Mária Mihóková are suitable tools to process periodicals. These are bibliographies of newspaper and magazine articles concerning 1848 – 1918 secondary education in Košice⁶⁶ and cultural life in Košice in 1848 – 1918⁶⁷ and 1938 – 1945.⁶⁸ Although these publications do not focus on the interwar period, the information contained therein will help for comparison of the issue (e.g. education of girls and women) in the particular periods and/or when processing the Press from the years that focus on the particular issues, i.e. 1918 and 1938.

Other types of resources

Private sources like memoirs, diaries and private correspondence also help to complete the bigger picture of women's status. These help to reconstruct not only the fates of specific individuals, but also the social life of a city or region, as is the case with *Lolina kniha [Lola's book]* – based on letters, diaries, memories and other sources – in providing information about the lives of several women in Košice.⁶⁹ Valuable information on the perception of women and their role in society of the time is provided in handbooks to help girls and women, e.g. choosing a suitable profession;⁷⁰ sources related to education: school curricula, study plans, textbooks;

⁶⁶ MIHÓKOVÁ, Mária (ed.). Stredné školstvo v Košiciach v rokoch 1848 – 1918. Tematická bibliografia I. Košice
: Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1981. 411 p. MIHÓKOVÁ, Mária (ed.). Stredné školstvo v Košiciach v rokoch 1848 – 1918. Tematická bibliografia II. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1981. 439 p.

⁶⁷ MIHÓKOVÁ, Mária (ed.). Vedecká, kultúrna a osvetová práca v Košiciach v rokoch 1848 – 1918. Tematická bibliografia I. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1991. 505 p. MIHÓKOVÁ, Mária (ed.). Vedecká, kultúrna a osvetová práca v Košiciach v rokoch 1848 – 1918. Tematická bibliografia II. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1991. 506-985 pp.

⁶⁸ POTEMRA, Michal. Kultúrny život v Košiciach v rokoch 1938 – 1945. Tematická bibliografia I. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1985. 572 p. POTEMRA, Michal. Kultúrny život v Košiciach v rokoch 1938 – 1945. Tematická bibliografia II. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1985. 366 p. POTEMRA, Michal. Kultúrny život v Košiciach v rokoch 1938 – 1945. Tematická bibliografia III. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1985. 366 p. POTEMRA, Michal. Kultúrny život v Košiciach v rokoch 1938 – 1945. Tematická bibliografia III. Košice : Štátna vedecká knižnica, 1985. 367-800 pp.

⁶⁹ ÖTVÖS, Anna. Lolina kniha. Lola Matzner, Sándor Márai a Košice na prelome 19. a 20. storočia. Bratislava : Artforum, 2018. 193 p.

⁷⁰ GÖLLNEROVÁ, Alžbeta – ZIKMUNDOVÁ, Jarmila. Žena novej doby: Kniha pre výchovu demokratickej ženy. Bratislava : Tatra, 1938. 604 p. LANCOVÁ, Juliana. Kniha ženských zaměstnání. Praktický rádce při volbě povolání dívek. Praha : Melantrich , 1929. 353 p. LANCOVÁ, Juliana a kol. Správna volba povolání. Praktická příručka pro rodiče, vychovatele, učitele, lekáře, poradce, zaměstnavatele, zaměstnance atd. Praha : Ústředí

activity reports and yearbooks of associations,⁷¹ as well as resources capturing information on individual important events in Košice – jubilee books and almanacs⁷² or city address books.⁷³ Existing associations were usually disclosed in the address books of Košice – although a comparison of the aforementioned lists of associations and city address books shows that the respective address books did not always list all associations. This resource may also be used in research of the employment of women, as address books also contained lists of (fe)male doctors and midwives. A further type of resources – important, but only sporadically used – is photographs. Considering the topics in question, these include photographs of girls and women from the sector of education or healthcare, deposited in the East Slovak Museum in Košice in the collection of historical photographs.

Conclusions

Despite the fact that in recent years the history of women and gender relations were processed by a number of scientific papers in Slovak historiography, there is still considerable space for further research and new publications, as a result of hitherto unknown sources, facts or contexts. The issue of women in the past can be examined at various levels and from various perspectives. Initially, women's history focused on topics such as girls' education, women's legal status or employment, however, gradually research began to focus on other areas – the female body, health or sexuality. The difficulty of researching these topics often results from a lack of resources, since official resources are not sufficient in these cases and private sources – such as diaries or correspondence – should also be used. However, there are certain difficulties in their discovery and/or acquisition, since these are deposited mostly in private archives. Another perspective on women's lives is available in novels – not only the literary works written about or for women, but also female authors and their works. Interviews with participants or witnesses of the investigated events can also provide valuable information.

One possibility of research is to address the issue of women's status at a regional level. This paper focused on various types of resources related to education, professional success and the social life of women in Košice. These traditional topics of women's history are fundamental to researching the position of women in the past. So far, in the Slovak literature, the issue of women's lives in Košice has only appeared marginally, especially in connection with the research of Slovak education in the interwar period, the Jewish issue, social life in the dualistic

poraden pro volbu povolání, 1925. 423 p. ORAVCOVÁ, M. Kde s dievčaťom? In *Prednášky Župného sväzu osvetového v Košiciach*. Košice : Grafika, 1927, pp. 268-274.

⁷¹ Almanach Čs. S. K. Košice 1919 – 1929. Košice : Československý sportovní klub – Košice, 1929. 96 p. GRUSETZKY, Ferenc – VÁRNAY, Ernő (eds.). Szlovenszkó és Ruszinszkó sportélete 1926. Košice – Kassa : Kiadják a szerkesztők, 1927. 78 p. MEISL, Lajos (ed.). Sportalmanach. A keletszlovenszkói és ruszinszkói sportegyesületek és kerületek ismertetése 1923. év végéig. Košice : Athenaeum, 1924. 156 p. VÁRNAY, Ernő – GRUSETZKY, Ferenc (eds.). A Kassai Atletikai Club jubiláris emlékkönyve 1903 – 1923. Košice : Artigrafia. 124 p. Zpráva o činnosti Československého Červeného Kríža v Košiciach. Košice : Slovákia, 1930. 83 p.

⁷² BIANCHI, Gustav (ed.). Mesto Košice 1932. Publikácia pre propagovanie cudzineckého ruchu a turistiky. Banská Bystrica : Slovan, 1932. 96 p. BOHN, Emo (ed.). Malý kultúrny almanach Košíc. Vydaný z príležitosti zájazdu kultúrnych pracovníkov na východné Slovensko. Krátky výkaz o kultúrnej činnosti od prevratu v Košiciach. Košice : Pallas, 1922. 24 p. HALUŠKA, Jozef (ed.). Orientačná knižka mesta Košíc. Košice : Haluška Jozef, 1927. 347 p. CVEČEK, Ján (ed.). Jubilejná kniha mesta Košíc. Košice : Rada mesta Košíc, 1928. 95 p. ŠTANCL, J. G. (ed.). Jubilejný almanach mesta Košíc a východného Slovenska 1918 – 1928. Košice : Výbor pre oslavy desiateho výročia Československej republiky v Košiciach, 1928. 197 p.

⁷³ Adresár mesta Košíc. Košice város címjegyzéke. Košice : Štátna kníhtlačiareň, 1925. 207 p. Adresár : Košice – Prešov – Michalovce. Košice : Slovenský východ, 1934. 144 p. Košice város magyarnyelvű cimtára és lakásjegyzéke belefoglalva Abauj 120 községének cimjegyzéke, Košice, 1924. 254 p. Nový adresár mesta Košíc a okolia. Košice város és vidéke új címtára. Košice : Kníhkupectvo Gejza Jaschkó, 1929. 382 p.

Kingdom of Hungary or after the establishment of Czechoslovakia. The author decided to deal with the issue of types of resources due to the absence of research studies, since in most cases, not even the basic information related to the lives of women in interwar Košice has been disclosed and/or only partial findings are available. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to support basic research of the issue and to provide further information about the selected topic.

In this paper, the author presented statistics, rules and regulations, archive sources, annual reports, periodicals of the time, handbooks for girls and women, jubilee books, almanacs, city address books and photographs that can be used to research the topic. Despite the fact that there are different types of resources available for the three aforementioned topics, their in-depth examination shows that – in many cases – their use is very limited. Therefore, multiple types of resources have to be used when researching the position of women in interwar Košice. In addition to the official resources, private documents have to be considered to create a comprehensive picture of the opportunities that women had under the conditions of the then newly established democratic state and the extent to which women actually used or could have used them. One of the fundamental research problems is the linguistic diversity of the resources, as the written sources occur in at least four languages – Czech, Hungarian, German and Slovak. Occasionally, English, French or Russian appears. This is one of the reasons why historians have not yet given the topic sufficient attention.

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City address books

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Nový adresár mesta Košíc a okolia. Košice város és vidéke új címtára. Košice : Kníhkupectvo Gejza Jaschkó, 1929. 382 p.

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László Szögi (2019). Students in the institutions of higher education of Rozsnyó 1814-1852. Publications about the history of higher education. New Series. Budapest: Eötvös Lóránd University Library and Archive. 191 p. ISBN 978-963-489-154-3. ISSN 0138-9041

This publication is a source-book about the students of the institutions of higher education of Rozsnyó / Rožňava.

Regarding the background of this book, it is worth noting that in 2013 the MTA-ELTE University History Academicals Research Group was established, which since then has been investigating the history of the Hungarian higher education. The work of the Research Group was in line with the collaboration efforts initiated by the National University History Committee which provided a framework by which the participating nations' student databases (from the Middle Ages to the Modern Age) would be tied together.

The work of the Research Group covers three different areas: creating a database which integrates all information about the students of the Middle Ages, including their careers; creating a database which contains information on all students who ever attended any higher educational institutions in the Hungarian Kingdom between 1588–1848 (and 1850), and investigating the history of higher education in Hungary between 1945/48 and 1989.

The book reviewed here belongs to the second area of investigation. Previous to this book, there have been several pieces of research, most of them made from the ELTE (Eötvös Lóránd University) Archive. From this research, enrolment data for 100,000 students in foreign universities was gathered from the Middle Ages to 1918. Currently we have more information about the students who studied at universities abroad than on the ones who studied in Hungary. The MTA-ELTE University History Academicals Research Group has examined 112 higher education institutions all across Hungary and Transylvania between 1588 and 1848 (and 1850). From these 112 institutions today, 29 are in Romania, 27 in Slovakia, 9 in Croatia, one in Serbia, and one in Ukraine. 45 % of these 112 institutions used to belong to the Catholic and Greek Catholic Churches.

In Rozsnyó / Rožňava (the so-called "Athens on the banks of the River Sajó"), there used to be two higher education institutions.

The first higher education institution in Rozsnyó / Rožňava was a "seminary", which was established in 1814 and was attended by 32 "seminarists" in its first year. The documentation of this institution was left to the Bishop's Archive of Rozsnyó / Rožňava; the first lists of students' dates back to the school year of 1846/47. The other source for the research were the printed 'schematisms'.

The second higher education institution of Rozsnyó / Rožňava was the so-called "Philosophical Lyceum". This institution was accessible not only for the seminarists, but anyone who wanted to learn at a higher level. By the time this institution was established there were 8 institutions, besides the University of Pest, which were maintained by the Catholic Church, where students could attend philosophical and legal teaching. The registers of births, which are a fundamental part of the database, can today be found and researched in the State Archive of Košice.

In the Introduction of the book there is an essay written by László Szögi, which presents the role of the two institutions in the country's education system; the distribution of students by their place of origin (county and settlement), the number of the foreign students, and their religion. The author has also investigated the social stratification of the students, based on theirs father's occupation.



Based on these sources, it is possible to show which ethnic group the students belonged to because in the student registers each school marked the nationality of the particular student, for example: hungarus, gallicanus, transylvanus, moravus, bohemus, bosnita. However, the term "hungarus" (until 1844 written in Latin language) does not indicate that the student was actually an ethnic Hungarian.

In most cases we cannot identify the nationality of the students without secondary sources. These are: distribution of nationalities in the student's place of birth; occupation of the parents; religion; and, with a high degree of caution, the analysis of the student's name (this is a non-exhaustive list, of course). Considering these restrictions, the author has identified the nationality of 1,402 people from 1432. The distribution of the nationalities was as follows: 41.08% were Slovak, 32.23% Hungarian, 17.04% German, 8.41% Polish, 0.78% Rusyn, 0.21% Bohemian, 0.14% Croatian, and 0.07% Bosnian.

After the introduction, we find a rich database in the book. The author outlines his method of publication which is quite reasonable because of the high diversity of the sources. In the database we can find the name of the students (with variations) according to the original style of writing. After this, 14 different pieces of information are published about the students: *ecclesiastical title or diocese; date of birth or age; religion; social status; nationality; place of birth; name and occupation of the parents; date of enrollment; the faculty; other studies; data about their former studies in secondary-school; scholarship; and some other information.* The author merged the information about the students of the two institutions, because most of the students from the seminary completed their studies in the Lyceum. For practicality, all students were given a serial number so they can be easily searched in the Index. The database is arranged in chronological order.

As the Introduction and the database show, the higher education institutions of Rozsnyó / Rožňava attracted many students in the first half of the 19th century. The data on the 1,432 enrolled students also provides very useful information for other scientific areas such as history of education, social history, or cultural history, as well as helping people who are interested in doing research on their ancestors.

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Správa z medzinárodnej vedeckej konferencie "Výskum Slovákov v Maďarsku v interdisciplinárnom kontexte", Békešská Čaba, Maďarsko, 13. – 14. februára 2020

Konferencia s názvom Výskum Slovákov v Maďarsku v interdisciplinárnom kontexte sa konala pri príležitosti dvoch veľmi dôležitých jubileí. Prvým bolo životné jubileum prof. PhDr. Anny Divičanovej, CSc. a druhým 30. výročie založenia Výskumného ústavu Slovákov v Maďarsku (ďalej VÚSM). Slávnostný nádych konferencie bol prítomný od jej začiatku, keď sa jubilantke, jubilujúcemu VÚSM a účastníkom konferencie prihovorili postupne Dr. Tünde Tušková, PhD., riaditeľka VÚSM a vedúca Katedry slovenského jazyka a literatúry Pedagogickej fakulty Segedínskej univerzity, zástupca mimoriadneho a splnomocneného veľvyslanca SR v Maďarsku Ing. Robert Maxián, predseda Úradu pre Slovákov žijúcich v zahraničí Dr. Ján Varšo, Alžbeta Hollerová Račková predsedníčka Celoštátnej slovenskej samosprávy v Maďarsku a viceprimátor mesta Békešská Čaba. Po plenárnej prednáške Dr. Tünde Tuškovej, vernisáži výstavy 30. ročný VÚSM a slávnostnej recepcii sa začalo rokovanie prvého dňa rozdelené do dvoch sekcií.

Rokovanie začalo prvým blokom v dvoch sekciách, kde vystúpili dôležité osobnosti výskumu Slovákov v Maďarsku ako napríklad prof. Ján Botík, prof. Jozef Chrastina či doc. Magdaléna Paríková. Druhý blok začal zaujímavou prednáškou Mgr. Dany Hučkovej, CSc. Ľudovýchovné aktivity Jána Pravdoľuba Bellu, kde sa venovala jednej z osobností dolnozemských Slovákov, ktorého prioritou, ako podotkla autorka, bola osvetová činnosť medzi slovenským ľudom. Tému s názvom Vnímaný status učiteľa slovenského jazyka na národnostných školách a pracovná spokojnosť: sonda do údajov z empirického výskumu predstavil prof. PhDr. Jozef Výrost, DrSc. Akým spôsobom funguje spolupráca žiakov, učiteľov a rodičov na slovenských školách v Maďarsku vysvetlila kolegyňa pred-referujúceho Mgr. Mária Ďurkovská, PhD. v referáte: "Interakcia pedagóg – žiak – rodič na slovenských školách v Maďarsku". Doc. Paedr. PhDr. Marcel Lincényi, PhD. vystúpil s témou - Výučba občianskej výchovy u Slovákov v Maďarsku na príklade slovenského gymnázia a základnej školy v Békešskej Čabe, ktorá je podľa slov referujúceho parciálnou časťou širšieho výskumu realizovaného v rámci projektu KEGA. Dr. Anna Istvánová, PhD. a Dr. Eva Horváthová-Farkašová, PhD. priblížili vo svojich príspevkoch výuku slovenského jazyka na rôznych stupňoch vzdelávania národnostného školstva (od materskej po vysokú školu).

Konferencia pokračovala v piatok znova v dvoch sekciách, ktoré možno rozdeliť na "historickú" a "jazykovednú". Pod vedením bývalej riaditeľky VÚSM Dr. Anny Kováčovej, ktorá sa ujala nie len moderovania, ale i prvým vystúpením prednášania s témou "*Pešť stojí za reč.*" *Priestorové a personálne atribúty hlavného mesta Uhorska*. V príspevku zhodnotila miesto Pešti a Budína v cestopisoch z 19. storočia, aj napríklad slávnej Boženy Nemcovej, či Angličana Johna Pageta. Druhým príspevkom s názvom "*Veľké dejiny a malé ľudské príbehy – Slováci v Maďarsku a Maďari na Slovensku v povojnových dejinách*" obohatil účastníkov konferencie prof. PaedDr. Štefan Šutaj, DrSc. Jeho referát ukážkovo prepojil tzv. "veľké a malé dejiny", keďže poukázal na doposiaľ neprebádanú súčasť výmeny obyvateľstva medzi Českolovenskom a Maďarsku – sociálne dejiny výmeny. Doc. PhDr. Ľuboš Kačírek, PhD. poukázal referátom *Slováci v Maďarsku na stránkach slovenskej tlače v kontexte výmeny obyvateľstva v rokoch 1946 – 1947* na obraz výmeny na stránkach dobovej tlače, pričom



konfrontoval jej výpovednú hodnotu s vtedajším vedeckým poznaním slovenskej a parciálne aj maďarskej historiografie. Etapy propagandy výmeny obyvateľstva a využitie metód CDA (Critical discourse analysis) v skúmanej problematike predstavili v spoločnom príspevku Mgr. Lucia Heldáková, PhD. a Mgr. Maroš Melichárek, PhD. Na záver konferencie predstavili osobné dejiny vybraných osobností dolnozemských Slovákov Dr. József Demmel, PhD. a Mgr. Kristína Szudová.

Konferencia prebiehala vo veľmi príjemnej a žičlivej atmosfére umocnenej slávnostnými jubileami a "geniom loci" skoro jarnej Békešskej Čaby. Pre všetkých zúčastnených bola veľkým obohatením a prínosom.

Mgr. Lucia Heldáková PhD., Katedra aplikovanej etiky Filozofická fakulta, Univerzita Pavla Jozefa Šafárika, Košice, <u>lucia.heldakova@upjs.sk</u> Mgr. Maroš Melichárek, PhD., Katedra histórie, Filozofická fakulta, Univerzita Pavla Jozefa Šafárika, Košice, <u>maros.melicharek@upjs.sk</u>



Conference report from XIX. Edition of the Czech and Slovak Conference Qualitative approach and methods in social sciences and humanities: "Know yourself", Bratislava, $27^{\rm th} - 28^{\rm th}$ January 2020

Between January 27 – 28, the 19th edition of the conference Qualitative Approach and Methods in Human Sciences was held at the Faculty of Social and Economic Sciences of the Comenius University (FSEV UK) in Bratislava. The conference was co-organized by three institutions: FSEV UK, Institute for Research in Social Communication at SAS (ÚVSK SAS) and Institute of Experimental Psychology CSPV SAS (UEP CSPV SAS).

The subtitle of the conference was the ancient Greek aphorism, Nosce te ipsum or Know Yourself, reflecting the need to know yourself and others; as stated by the organizers, if we want to build scientific knowledge further, we should know our own foundations, its strengths and weaknesses. The ambition of the conference was to offer a cross-section of what is currently interesting in qualitative research, while also returning to history and roots.

More than 70 participants from a wide variety of backgrounds attended the two-day conference. An enriching element of this event was dialogue between different disciplines (psychology, ethnology, social anthropology, sociology, and linguistics), as qualitative research has different positions in different domains. Over the two-day conference, successes, issues, and methodological challenges were discussed and debated between participants, bringing all the disciplines into the discussion.

The keynote speaker was Ivo Čermák, Professor at the Institute of Psychology, Academy of Sciences, and at the Masaryk University giving his historical reflection on the role this conference played in the Czech-Slovak psychological community. During the day, conference participants had the opportunity to choose from various sessions for discussing topics and developing recommendations. Topics included: Generation and oral history, Contemporary images of socials, Phenomenon of narrativity and the role of stories in psychological research, and Intimacy as a way to self-knowledge and possibilities of its investigation.

The second day of the conference was opened by Peter Halama from the Centre of Social and Psychological Sciences SAS, reflecting his experience in qualitative research on the transition to retirement. Following his excellent presentation, where he also challenged his own qualitative approach to this study as his main focus is mainly on psychometrics; there was a discussion that highlighted the common ground for both qualitative and quantitative research. The rest of the day provided many opportunities to come together to improve on existing knowledge around the following topics: The Roma, Political communication, Public policy and collective action, and How to explore the world online!

A Poster session was also part of the conference as well as two interesting workshops entitled: "Write and get to know yourself" and "Atlas.ti". Due to personal reasons, Mr. Šindelár, as the main facilitator of the second workshop, could not attend but promised another date, free of charge.

The organizers did an excellent job to make the conference interactive with numerous opportunities for discussions, sharing, learning and getting to know each other. Many of us



ISSN 1335-3608

especially enjoyed the excellent presentation by Aleš Neusar entittled: "Know yourself before it gets worse. The story of courage" and the screening of the film "Sad Languages about the Identity and the Language of the Carpathian Germans", presented by one of its co-authors Jozef Tancer from the Faculty of Arts Comenius University in Bratislava.

The end of the conference provided a very useful networking opportunity for Early-Career Researchers with Radomír Masaryk and his recommendations, followed by an informal discussion around the topic "Survival guide: how to succeed in the academic world".

Many thanks to all the organizers for their work in preparing this conference!

More information about the conference can be found at <u>http://qak.upol.cz/</u>

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