

Coping with Adversity in the Lives of Children in Foster Care

*Viola Tamášová – Silvia Barnová**

Received: January 7, 2019; received in revised form: March 3, 2019;
accepted: March 5, 2019

Abstract:

Introduction: The theoretical-empirical study is based on two particular case studies of families bringing up children from institutional care. It deals with the real needs of foster families, with the foster parents' perception of fostering and their experiences from the time spent with children in foster care, about the children's behaviour in adverse situations, which the foster parents must deal with in the period of the child's adaptation to the new environment of their households. The authors accentuate the importance of communication and emotional education from the aspect of personality development of children placed into new families. These children should be prepared for moving from a known into an unknown environment. In the conclusions, the authors give several specific recommendations within the framework of semantic categories dealt with in the chapters and subchapters of the study.

Methods: The study is based on a theoretical analysis of the presented issues. For the purposes of the research, the following research methods were used:

- Content analysis of official documents (job description of social workers in foster family care).
- Case studies of two clients of the offices of Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Curatorship in the field offices of Central Office of Labour, Social Affairs and Family in Nitra and Bratislava Self-Governing Regions carried out in 2018.
- Logical operations - analysis, synthesis, comparison.
- Interviews with foster carers (Family 1 and Family 2) carried out throughout the whole year 2018.

* Viola Tamášová, DTI University, Department of School Pedagogy and Psychology, Dubnica nad Váhom, Slovakia; tamasova@dti.sk
Silvia Barnová, DTI University, Department of School Pedagogy and Psychology, Dubnica nad Váhom, Slovakia; barnova@dti.sk

- Generalization in semantic categories which, at the same time, are the titles of the chapters and subchapters below, and also in the conclusions and recommendations for foster care and the social practice.

Results: For personal development, children need relationships with others. Maternal and paternal love, and care are the basic elements of these relationships - as confirmed in the interviews with foster parents. Alongside with biological parenthood, the so-called “psychological parenthood” has an important role to play. The role of a psychological parent can be filled by the members of own (i.e. biological) family as well as by adoptive parents, foster parents, the biological parents’ partners (stepmothers and stepfathers) and - under certain conditions - also by personnel in facilities of social care. Their psychological needs and the extent of their satisfaction determine what they will experience and how they will feel.

Discussion: It is important to prepare parents to accept the fact that foster parenthood is different from biological parenthood. Prospective foster parents often come to the offices of Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Curatorship with the opinion that not even biological parents are being prepared for their parental roles. Foster parents already having biological children argue - as it follows from the interviews carried out throughout the research - that they are experienced parents and, so, they can bring up foster children as well. They do not realize that foster children bring something new that biological children have never experienced. Biological and foster parenthood are definitely not the same.

Conclusions: In the conclusions, the authors point out that children in foster care identify with their parents’ values and opinions. For children who have faced significant adversity in their lives, it is beneficial if the family environment and education are harmonious. Such good conditions can have a positive impact on the children’s entire future lives. In the process of adaptation, the whole network of relationships within the family must be re-structuralized, which requires well-prepared family members.

Key words: foster family, adverse life situations, family communication, tolerance, adaptation, emotional education, frustration, facilities of social care, family social work.

Introduction

Foster family care represents an important legal remedy to solve unfavourable situations in the life of children whose parents cannot ensure personal care of them due to objective reasons, have misused their parental rights, neglected their children or violated their rights. The study focuses on the issues of mutual adjustment and getting used to each other, which create a space for adaptation. The stage of adaptation is crucial in the process of developing a good relationship between the child and the parents (Rozvadský Gugová, 2018, p. 82).

At the same time, it is one of the most demanding periods as it has a significant impact on the entire future life of the foster family.

1 Objectives of the study

Based on case studies in two families with children in foster care (Family 1 and Family 2), our intention was to find out about:

- the foster parents' ideas about the child when making the decision to become foster parents;
- the needs of foster families, what is important for them, how they perceive their foster parenthood and the time spent with their children, and their reactions in demanding situations that foster parents must deal with during the period of children's adaptation to the new environment of their households;
- their motivation for foster parenting, the factors influencing their decision to take a child from a facility of social care to foster family care, i.e. to their family environment;
- children's emotional attachment to the family of foster parents (including their biological children);
- the importance of emotional education from the aspect of children's personality development;
- the educational means used by parents in the process of emotional education of own and foster children and the role of communication in families.

2 Methods

In the study, traditional desk research methods were used in order to describe the background of the research. For the purposes of developing theoretical-empirical strategies, analysis and generalization, the following research methods were used:

- content analysis of official documents (job description of social workers in foster family care);
- case studies of selected clients of the offices of Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Curatorship in the field offices of Central Office of Labour, Social Affairs and Family in Nitra and Bratislava Self-Governing Regions carried out in 2018;
- logical operations - analysis, synthesis, comparison, generalisation;
- interviews with applicants for foster family care realized throughout the whole year 2018.

The obtained data were generalized in semantic categories which are used in the titles of the chapters and subchapters; and some specific recommendations for families and the social practice were formulated.

3 Semantic categories

3.1 The period of adaptation in the foster family

The time of adjustment and getting used to each other creates space for adaptation. It can take several weeks, months or even years. The period of adaptation is crucial from the aspect of building a good relationship between parents and children, and, at the same time, it is among the most demanding periods determining the whole future life of the foster family. In the case study, both foster families (F1 and F2) pointed out that, as for attachment, there were no significant differences between children placed in foster families as babies and children growing up in traditional families. Some differences can be observed after 6 months. During the first six months of children's life, i.e. in the period of adaptation, manifestations of fear and insecurity, e.g. eating disorders, problems with sleeping, chronic diarrhoea, or crying without a reason can be observed. Older children coming to foster families from a facility of social care have lost their ability to trust people as well as the relationships around them and often suffer from a lack of them (García, Aluja, & Del Barrio, 2006). Therefore, parents should be sensitive to their children's needs and try to satisfy them as it is one of the basic preconditions for gaining their children's trust.

The authors distinguish between three groups of children, including those who are being prepared for adoption or moving to foster care:

1. Children which have never developed primary attachment and have never experienced safety, security and trust.
2. Children with inadequate attachment relationships as the result of frequent changes of caregivers as children have moved from one foster family to another.
3. Traumatized children which had the opportunity to develop primary attachment in their early childhood, but experienced strong traumas (sexual abuse, physical abuse or emotional neglect) which disrupted the initial trust (Priehradná 2006; Crawford, Cohen, Chen, Anglin, & Ehrensaft, 2009; Morrissey, 2009).

Which are the most frequently occurring problems related to foster parenthood after the initial months of living together with their foster children? Among the respondents' (F1 and F2) answers are:

- Problems with sleeping, bursts of anger, pulling hair, biting nails, head banging, tooth scratching, and thumb sucking;
- Egoism, laxity, a strong desire to possess things, lying and thefts;
- Short attention span, insufficient motivation, passivity and weak will;
- Maladaptation, defiance and disobedience.

As our research findings - which we compared with the work of experts in the field of psychology - show that the most frequent manifestations of children's behaviour in the phase of adaptation, are the following:

- Closing themselves and refusing behaviour. In some children, closing themselves is “only” a manifestation of self-oriented anger. Children do not know what they can expect from their new parents, they are insecure and do not trust anyone. Therefore, it is important to emphasize the children’s value.
- Hiding food and swallowing. It is a mental problem. Children try to fill the chronic inner emptiness and to compensate for their not satisfied emotional needs by eating and hiding food. As Priehradná (2006) claims, it is important to react to such a situation adequately. Children need a lot of love and emotional security demonstrated in physical contact.
- Aggressive behaviour. Aggression may be the only form of emotional release for children when fear, anger or insecurity occur. It helps them keep distance from people and so, they do not need to deal with their fears and distrust. Aggressive behaviour in children can be directed against other people, themselves, or objects.
- Lying and thefts. Foster parents are usually frustrated by such a behaviour. Some children lie even when there is no reason for it. In some children, lying and thefts can be explained rather by some kind of fear or their habit for stealing than by anger or a necessity. They often cannot explain why they lie, not rarely they do so without any reason and even in situations when they cannot gain any profit from it - about their lunch, who they played with at school, etc.). First of all, parents should find out what the real motivation for lying and thefts is and then they can react appropriately.
- Weak or no eye-contact. Children which do not trust the world around them are often unable to keep eye-contact with the exception of cases when they are angry or try to manipulate people around them.
- Difficulties in developing positive relationships. Children often do not differentiate between people who are close to them and those who they do not know as there was no one who they could consider their mother or father in the past. These children have a strong need to attract the attention of strangers. Foster parents should limit the number of people taking care of children and, therefore, not to place children in kindergartens and to minimize visits especially during the first weeks, if possible.
- Disrupted relationship to objects. Children in facilities of social care do not possess anything. All the toys are common (collective ownership), no one is responsible for their damage (collective responsibility). For children, it is important to possess objects. It helps them develop their identity and responsibility as well. Foster parents should patiently build a “new” system of values.
- Loss of hygienic habits. When leaving a facility of social care and moving to a family, children are often frustrated. They subconsciously try to cope with the new situation by returning to one of the previous levels of behaviour (regression), e.g. wetting occurs. It is usually a temporary

problem (Priehradná, 2006, García, Aluja, & Del Barrio, 2006; Madro, 2018).

In agreement with Evans (2006), the authors believe that if parents are aware of the importance of adaptation and can recognize its manifestations (fear and anxiety), they can create a positive and inclusive family environment for children.

For a better understanding of the importance of children's adjustment to the foster family environment, Matějček and Dytrych summarized their knowledge and experiences in ten points which can serve as a source of inspiration:

1. Do not be afraid to accept "foster" parenthood! The emphasis is on the word parenthood. Doing good parenthood means the acceptance of children as they are, i.e. without any prejudice and unconditionally. Psychological parenthood is more important than the biological conception of children.
2. Do not be afraid of not gaining or losing the child's love! Children consider their mother or father those people in their close environment, who treat them like their children and it does not matter who gave them birth. A mutual relationship is created by living together and sharing lives.
3. Do not be afraid of working on own development and improvement! It is true that for biological parents, it is much easier to understand their children and accept their individualities and uniqueness. Foster parents and other caretakers must learn everything from the beginning.
4. Hiding the truth in personal relationships is dangerous! The Family Law (Act No. 36/2005 on Family) promotes adoption. It provides families with external protection, but internal protection can only be ensured by the parents themselves. To do so, they must adopt the identity of foster parents and lead their children towards the acceptance of the positive identity of the adopted child.
5. Children need to know more about themselves than anyone else! It is necessary to avoid situations when the children might be shocked by information that they do not understand and which might harm the relationship between them and their foster parents. The identity of a foster or adopted child must be clear and reliable. Children in foster care must be sure of their parents' unconditional love, that they will never leave them and that they are really important for them.
6. It is not enough to tell it; it is necessary to talk about it! It is not good to wait until the children start asking questions about their biological parents; it is much better to find a good occasion and talk about the issues related to being an adoptive child. Children need to talk in order to process and accept such a situation and feel belonging. It is, for example, good to celebrate the day when the child came into the family as their second birthday, which is "the happiest day in the parents' lives."
7. The child is not from the parents' bodies but is theirs! There is no reason to have worries about the children's genetic predispositions but it is good to be

prepared for the fact that some personality traits, the cognitive level, their inclinations and the performance of their mental functions, etc., may be partially inherited. If the parents try to understand their children, it is the first step towards success.

8. It is better to expect the worse and be surprised by the better! Parents' too high demands and expectations placed on children can be as dangerous as the parents' wishes or dreams that children should make true. They can lead to children's behaviour problems and the parents' disappointment.

According to the authors, the more concrete the foster parents', adoptive parents', or stepparents' ideas about what the children should look like, what they should achieve are, the more problems can occur in the family. So, more problems can be observed in the families of ambitious intellectuals and artists, as well as religious people obeying strict and unchangeable rules and regulations.

9. Only good things should be said about the child's biological parents! Sufficient information about the roots of children can help building their healthy identities. The existence of the biological parents should be accepted by the foster parents as well as by stepmothers and stepfathers after the divorce or death of biological parents. The role of foster parents is a bit easier as they are the children's legal guardians and take over their parents' role.

The authors of the study recommend not to expect gratefulness for saving them from danger and misery - whether in their biological families or institutional care - but become those who really love them. Foster parents should speak about the children's biological parents in a way which allows them to gradually add new details. They should not hide the truth nor lie about anything.

10. Open the family society! Foster families tend to live in isolation and to develop own protective mechanisms. It is beneficial to involve the grandparents, other relatives and friends from the very beginning. All these people should be of the same opinion and have the same attitude towards children as the foster parents do. Matějček and Dytrych (1998, p. 36), professionals in this field, accentuate that they can help the family when demanding situations occur.

Based on the authors' experiences, it can be assumed that childless married couples are more at risk as for separation than couples with children, but, at the same time, it can be observed that the risk is higher for couples with foster children compared to couples bringing up their biological children. Foster parents must work hard on themselves and they need more social support from their social environment - close family, relatives, friends but also other people around them - than other families.

The authors agree with Matej (2000) that it is important to explain the foster parents that foster parenthood and biological parenthood are not the same. As we

found out during the interviews, foster parents-to-be visit the offices of Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Curatorship and express their opinion that not even biological parents are being prepared for parenthood and many of them are not sufficiently skilled for the role of a parent. Foster parents, especially those which have own biological children and intend to adopt or take into foster care another child, stated that they had brought up their own children and would bring up children from facilities of social care as well, that they were experienced enough. Even though the authors believe that it is better for foster children to find home in families where there are biological children as well - these children bring to the family something new, something what most children have not experienced. Biological and foster parenthood are not the same.

As well as every human being is a unique personality, every family is unique, different from the others. Some differences can be found, e.g. in the cultural level of the family (Hedge & Davis, 2005), in the behaviour of its individual members, their habits, their households, family upbringing and the applied parenting styles (Kósová, 2015; Choate & Schween, 2004). It is very difficult to decide which approach is optimal for children or what the best direction is. Useless strictness or a too liberal approach are not the most appropriate options; but a natural authority together with elements of freedom, democracy, mutual love and respect, are good preconditions for a harmonious family life.

3.2 Parenting styles in foster families and their impact on children's personalities

People are born into various social environments - into particular societies. For children's healthy emotional development, the character of their family environment and the appropriateness of the applied parenting styles are important. They have an impact on the choice of the means of emotional education and have the potential to affect children's emotional development positively or negatively.

Parental love should be a manifestation of an internal desire, based on the parents' emotional maturity, and a warm relationship to the child, which is the precondition for the development of the same feelings in children. Children need love, but many parents do not know how to express it. Some of them show their love by buying huge amounts of toys, sweets, giving children too much pocket money and by fulfilling all their wishes. The emotional development of children may be negatively influenced by manifestations of a "lack of love", such as threats, intimidation and inadequate punishment. Especially in the case of children which have spent some time in facilities of social care, such behaviour can lead to feeling inferior, to anxiety, shyness, and distrust in themselves. "Too much" love can be dangerous as well. In other cases, inconsistency in parents' attitudes, their moodiness, lack of love and serious problems between them can represent a threat to children's emotional development (Gondová, 1994; Ikhart & Szobiová, 2018).

In a harmonious family, parents teach their children to love by showing love. Children need to be assured that their parents love them. The parents' emotional inclination and love can be expressed by petting, caress, kindness, smile, but also by gestures, mimes, and eye expression. It is very important to talk about the children's problems and to try to answer their questions. Leisure time should be spent by joint activities, playing games, by going for long walks and on trips together. So, children learn to build positive relationships with others, experience fellowship, cooperation, sympathy, and empathy from their early childhood (Del Barrio, Aluja, & García, 2004). It is something they might have never experienced before.

Tamášová (2007, p. 27) claims that "from the aspect of children's development, family has an important role to play - especially from the point of view of their emotional development. Besides satisfying their biological needs, social contacts between parents and children are built, mutual interaction and emotional bonds are developed. Families give children the feeling of security, safety, family background and stay with them throughout their whole life. These values are important from the aspect of family climate."

All children go through the same stages of development but the differences in their physical, emotional and the overall personal development are given by the specifics of individual children. The basic preconditions for successful education are love, a peaceful and harmonious environment, the presence of both parents, consistency between family and school education, positive role models, patience, an established daily routine and requirements corresponding with the children's abilities.

Within emotional education, children learn most from their parents' behaviour. They want to be like their parents - whether biological or not - and, therefore, they imitate not only their positive, but also their negative behaviour patterns and conduct. In this context, Gondová (1998, p. 18) distinguishes between the following means of emotional education:

- games provide children with an opportunity to develop positive emotions, a positive approach towards people, objects and work;
- helping at home (housework, gardening, tidying up in the children's bedroom, personal hygiene, etc.);
- aesthetic education (painting, singing, fairy-tales, poems, illustrations in books, visiting cultural events);
- audio-visual devices (films, theatre, TV, radio, Internet) evoking aesthetic emotional experiences in children;
- explanation, discussion, narration and instruction (together with other means and methods of education);
- assessment (rewards, appraisal, punishment) which is important from the aspect of children's emotional development.

If children feel to be loved by parents, they are able to accept criticism and punishment as well. In this context, after children try to fix their mistakes, the

ability to forgive has a big role to play. Thanks to it, the relationships disturbed by inappropriate behaviour can be fixed and children can feel escape, release and gratefulness again. From the aspect of education, it is important to analyse the forms and the character of family education. Tamášová (2007, p. 13) declares that “sensitive communication and mutual acceptance of others’ personalities are important in the everyday interaction between children and their parents; and the principle of humanity should be applied.”

Depending on the extent to which parents are able to preserve the balance between emotionality and rationality, as well as between the children’s and their needs and requirements, they select from a scale of suitable and inappropriate parenting styles. Zelina (1994) considers inappropriate such a style of education in which “low demands, strictness, emotional coldness, minimal creativity and external motivation (coercion and manipulation) are applied by parents or teachers. A relatively good parenting style can be characterized as demanding, non-directive, emotional, creative and using internal motivation (i.e. it is children themselves who want to do something - leading towards independence)”, so, parents should consider their parenting style. According to Holúbek (1995a, p. 14), an optimal parenting style can be characterized by love and acceptance, empathy, adequate requirements, efficient control and fair assessment of performance. Especially children in foster care are very sensitive to such parental manifestations.

From the aspect of successful development, the first year of life is very important, when deep emotional bonds are formed. Mothers have a significant role in this process, they cuddle and caress their children, and smile at them. It is pleasant for children and, so, a bond between the mother and the child is being built. Those children which were given up by their mothers, have not experienced such a good feeling. It was confirmed during the interviews with our respondents as well.

Besides physical contact, fairy tales have a strong impact on children’s emotional development. They fill them with joy and, at the same time, develop their moral values. Children are happy if the good wins over the evil. Fairy-tales have the biggest impact on children when they are read or told by their parents or grandparents. From the educational aspect, avoiding drastic or scary stories and cartoons is recommended. Telling children stories and reading books in the nature help develop their emotional life. Not only the perception of the beauty of the nature, but also an active involvement of children into activities - e.g. planting and watering flowers, feeding birds, etc. - is important. Good relationships between family members form the basis for successful emotional education. From this aspect, various games and sports providing children with opportunities to experience positive emotions and, at the same time, a positive relationship between the parents and children are appropriate. Various family events and celebrations, participation in regional festivals and galas contribute to children’s emotional development as well. Regular and intensive

communication with children, talking about their activities from the previous day with an emphasis placed on their feelings and experiences are among the means by which children should be lead towards the acceptance of the feelings of others, sympathy and willingness to help. They may be quite unknown to foster children but they can contribute to their emotional maturity. Holúbek (1995b, p. 14) and Rostaňská (2012) accentuate that children have an easier access to their parents' inner world if the communication between them is good, and thus, their empathy is more developed.

Kósová (2015) states that children's emotional development may be promoted by their parents in their leisure time by means of appropriate activities and an active lifestyle. It requires children's parents to spend their leisure time actively with their children as soon as at pre-school age, try to discover their interests and to do various activities together. It is generally accepted that negative emotions such as hatred, cynicism, cruelty, falsehood, vulgarity, bullying - even in the case of gifted children (Škrabánková & Martínková, 2018) and delinquency are often the results of the impact of negative role models, as well as the Internet, inappropriate films and literature, and other media. Therefore, the parents' duty is to protect their children against such influences because children, due to their age and a lack of experiences, are not able to distinguish between positive and negative role models. It is important to lead them towards a critical approach in the process of selecting role models. It is an especially serious issue in the case of children from facilities of social care as they do not have experiences with a relaxed family environment and they might not have had positive role models around them.

3.3 Tolerance and manifestations of coping with adverse situations

The life of every individual is the result of many factors, regularities and also coincidences. Their genetic predispositions, the family in which they started learning about the world and who they live with, have an impact on how they will cope with adversity and deal with various situations in the future. The potentials and the experiences with which children enter their lives are determined by their family.

As well as knowledge and experiences gained in the primary family can be positive, healthy and mobilizing, they can be negative and having a negative impact on the future lives of children, too. It does not matter if it is a biological, adoptive or a foster family, if one of the parents passed away, left the family or the parents are divorced, whether it is a mixed or completed family, in which there are biological as well as foster children. Each of these forms of families have its specific problems, but self-respect, communication and obeying rules are among their unifying features.

In her paper, Lauková (2007, p. 5) claims that children which have experienced several demanding and frustrating situations, need well-balanced parents who are emotionally strong, with a high self-esteem, who like each other and show

mutual respect. A marital crisis in the family is a signal of imbalance and instability. The married couple can experience feelings of loneliness, sadness, anger, jealousy, feelings of guilt and remorse. As a result, their self-esteem is low and they have problems to communicate with each other. If that is the case, the marital crisis of such a childless couple cannot be solved by taking a child into foster care.

It is a big change when a new child comes into a family and it is not possible to be sufficiently prepared. It brings changes in the entire system of the family, new relationships must be developed and new rules introduced. Things are not predictable anymore; new feelings, ideas, reactions and expectations occur. Such a change affects also the biological children in the family, for which, a new child in the family can evoke feelings of loss of security and stability. Biological children may be jealous until they find out that they are irreplaceable in the hearts of their parents. Their parents must create such conditions, in which children can preserve a high level of self-esteem. Everyday rituals bringing positive experiences, such as joint discussions, games, physical contact, appraisal and recognition, sufficient amount of time, and patience are the tools which can help parents in this process. According to Lauková (2007), “parents bear full responsibility for their actions and behaviour in the process of bringing up their children. Education is the most difficult thing in the world.”

When taking a child into foster care, the age of the child plays a significant role. Foster parents possess the right for complex information about the origin of the children, and about their physical and mental health as well as their legal status. Taking a child into a family should be considered sensitively, as being emphasized by our respondents from F1 and F2, who went through a long period of thorough consideration and preparation. It is important to prevent the possible collision if the children have to go back to institutional care. In the case of older children, their will and opinions must be considered. Children should want to move to the family.

Schavel et al. agree with Roháček a Matej, who declare that “children who have spent several years in facilities of social care, get used to their environments and some of them refuse to leave and to move to families. The family environment represents something new, unnatural and unknown to them. The children’s needs and requirements should be considered and respected.” (Roháček & Matej, 2005; as cited in Schavel et al., 2006, p. 66)

3.4 The period of mutual adaptation within the family

After children come to a family, the period of adaptation begins. During this phase, building a new structure of the whole network of relationships within the family takes place. Every family member builds his/her own personal relationship with the new child as well as the child needs to develop relationships with every family member. The length of this period may vary depending on the child’s life history, the length of time spent in a neglecting

family or in institutional care, and the extent of deprivation. The development of the relationship between siblings can represent a problem as well - the biological children of the foster parents may be jealous. It depends on the readiness of the family as a whole, their ability to let the children feel being loved and accepted. The aim of this phase is a peaceful development of an emotional attachment between the children and their foster parents. As stated by Kósová (2015), these relationships form the basis for the creation of future relationships.

Other problems can arise in the context of the child's transition from the family into the new environment of a kindergarten or school. For most children, such a change brings higher demands and some of them are not able to cope with the new situation. Therefore, in such cases, psychologists often recommend foster families to postpone the children's school attendance for one or two years. So, children are given time to catch up with their peers and to develop their communication skills, which are among the factors having a significant impact on students' academic achievement. As pointed out by Hanuliaková and Barnová (2015), and Porubčanová (2015), even in such cases, school attendance with all its expectations, duties and the demanding process of integration into the collective of classmates, are sources of stress and adversity. It often happens that foster families need counselling and a high quality cooperation between the parents, the school and a psychologist to cope with the occurring problems (Schavel & Drexlerová, 2006).

In the process of adaptation and adjustment to the new family environment and accepting parents, as well as other family members, families often need help from professionals. Such form of support is important especially in the phase of adaptation. Based on the knowledge gained from the realized case studies, the authors of the paper claim that many foster parents are aware of the risks which foster parenthood brings. At the beginning, they were anxious, insecure and full of expectations, but their motivation was very strong. As for the issues of foster care, the importance of consistency between parents was proven. It is very important that both parents fully agree with taking a child into foster care (if the parent-to-be is not a single person). It is insufficient if only one of the partners makes the decision and the other one only accepts it. Children need, expect and desire love, attention and time from both the partners - their parents.

Many foster parents, which decided to welcome a child in their own family environment, must deal with various problems related to parenthood. Our respondents had worries about bringing up children of someone else, about the issues of the child's genetic predispositions, and the process of the identity development of a child which is not their biological child. They had to decide on whether to accept handicapped, disabled or emotionally deprived children; eventually, how to deal with such a situation.

The practice has shown that only those who are able to accept their identity of foster parents - which is different from the identity of biological parents but is equally valuable - can help their children overcome all the obstacles in the

process of building the identity of a foster child. Without such an approach, the children, as well as the mutual parent-child relationship are endangered and there is a threat that the children will be unprepared to process the truth and face the reality, they will be informed about their status by others, at the wrong time and inappropriately.

Parents cannot predict how their foster children will develop in their family and how successful they will be. They cannot even predict it in the case of their own biological children. Children in foster families have different genetic predispositions and it sometimes happens that the results of the combination of negative genetic factors, emotional frustration and other unfavourable circumstances emerge during pubescence in the form of serious behaviour issues accompanied by discordant development and personality disorders. In exceptional cases, foster parents are not able to bring up children under such circumstances and they must go back to institutional care. Fortunately, such cases are rather rare.

Pubescence is a key period from the point of view of building the identity of the children in foster care, which is necessarily related to searching for their roots. One of the tasks of foster parents is to lead these children, help them overcome all the obstacles in the process of searching, to help them integrate their past into the present and give them hope in a better future.

3.5 Conditions and principles having an impact on successful family education – relationships and activities

For children's personality development, good relationships are necessary. The most important elements in these relationships are parental love (Cimprichová Gežová, 2015) and care, which was proven during the interviews with foster parents. Alongside with biological parenthood, we must mention "psychological parenthood" as well. Biological parents, but also other people taking care of the child - adoptive parents, foster parents, the partners of biological parents (stepmothers and stepfathers) can fill the role of psychological parents and - under certain circumstances - also people working in facilities of social care. The absence of a parental model may lead to deprivation while if parents lack sufficient parenting skills, it comes to sub-deprivation, e.g. in the case of parents - alcoholics (Winkler et al., 2003; Lahe, 2011; Rozvadský Gugová & Heretik, 2011).

Children's psychological needs and their satisfaction are among important predictors of what and how the children will experience. Therefore, everyone, including foster parents, should realize that:

- Upbringing should be a manifestation of acceptance, and realized in favour of the child being brought up.
- Upbringing, in order to be successful, should become or, if necessary, be transformed into unconditional love.

- Clear goals of upbringing, comprehensible and acceptable rules accompanied by a friendly approach during the process of their application and realization, are the way to their hearts (Potočárová, 1999a, p. 10).

In the journal *Don Bosco*, in his paper, Bruno Ferrara (as cited in Potočárová, 1999b) offers several practical recommendations related to meeting the goals of upbringing. Responsible family upbringing should include several tasks: help children trust themselves, teach them respect and honesty, to involve children in housework, fill them with enthusiasm, lead them towards sensitivity and sympathy, teach them how to deal with adversity and failure, to show children how to negotiate, encourage their creativity, laugh with them and to take the path of hope with them.

Upbringing is based on social learning, the ability to observe, imitate, identify with role models, and practicing. In this process, three basic phases of “instilling” - which, later on, determine a person’s approach to all life values - come into play:

- a) instilling in early childhood, in which the mother-child relationship is decisive,
- b) the second phase in which the mutual relationship between parents becomes a behaviour model for the child’s future life,
- c) instilling a holistic picture of the real world by means of the applied parenting style.

The family as such needs a meaningful orientation. In a healthy family, every family member should have his/her own role and tasks. Children need to develop their value orientation, find meaningful connections to what is surrounding them and activities in which they can engage their creative powers. Parents’ main duty is to take care about their children (Lawrence, Carlson, & Egeland, 2006), but another important task is to educate them and lead them to activities evoking positive and emotionally rich experiences. One of the ways of achieving it lies in the development of children’s interests, especially at a younger school-age.

3.6 Efficient means of education

The most efficient means of education is providing children with positive role models. If the parents spend their free time meaningfully, their children usually follow them. A face-to-face contact, time spent together, joint activities, discussions about current events or books, and mutual exchange of experiences enrich the cognitive, emotional and volitional aspects of children’s personalities. Joint leisure time activities of all family members can significantly contribute to transforming it to what it is supposed to be - an intimate community of love and life, the mediator of values for children’s future lives.

The age specifics of pubescents and adolescents are a frequent reason of failure and a source of misunderstandings in upbringing and education. Taking over the responsibility for own behaviour and actions is one of the most serious issues at

this stage of life. Peer relationships belong to the most significant factors in the process of youth's personality development. Campbell (as cited in Potočárová, 1999b, p. 10). deals with the specific difficulties occurring in the field of communication and outlines the importance of unconditional love, fulfilling the deepest emotional needs by eye-contact, touch, attention and the transition from being controlled by parents to self-control within it.

The parent's task is to create a family environment characterized by love, behavioural rules, clear limits and consequences for children. Parents teach their children, explain them how to act and behave, they form their proper attitudes and habits. The parents' duty is to ensure that their children follow the established daily routine, by which they promote their healthy physical development and also their sense of punctuality, discipline and order.

Prekopová (as cited in Kerekešová, 2007, p. 12) considers developing attachment and satisfying children's basic need for safety the most important factors of personality development. Without an attachment, later detachment is impossible. Only if children gain the trust of their closest ones, they can trust other people and develop self-confidence. Only if they receive love, they can give love to others. If they can observe decisiveness in their parents, one day, they will be able to develop own attitudes and to show them to others, too (Mareš, 2017). Children in foster care possess the right to get such an opportunity.

Conclusions

Children's experiences from the primary family may be positive, healthy and mobilizing, but they may also be negative, having a negative impact on the children's entire future life. Each form of families (complete, incomplete, divorced, step families, adoptive or foster families) has its own specific problems and opportunities, but the same forces, communication and rules are characteristic for them. Frequent communication regarding the needs and feelings is important as children who have had to face adversity and frustrating situations need well-balanced, emotionally strong parents with a high self-esteem who are not afraid to show respect.

Having a new family member is associated with big changes in the family system, new relationships are being developed and new rules introduced. Things are not predictable anymore, the feelings, ideas, reactions and expectations are different as well. These changes have an impact on the foster parents' biological children, too, as they may lose their safety and stability. A daily routine based on positive experiences, talks, reading fairy-tales, games, caress, appreciation and appraisal, sufficient time spent together, and patience are among the means which can help foster parents in this challenging period. During this phase of mutual adaptation, children are expected to identify with the family values, the attitudes and the opinions of the foster parents (Škoviera, 2007). A harmonious family environment is especially important in the life of children with adversity

in their previous lives (Better care network, 2013). In this phase, the entire family network of relationships must be re-structured. The aim of this period is to build such an attachment between children and parents that they have not experienced before. This relationship forms the basis which can have a positive or negative impact on their entire future existence.

Appropriate upbringing in families requires parents to be consistent, setting clear rules, and leading children towards independent decision making. Children growing up in such an environment are happy, they have a friendly, intimate relationship with their parents, they are self-confident, can control their behaviour, even if it is a foster family.

The importance of adaptation lies in mutual adjustment and getting used to each other. It can be considered one of the preconditions for living together. As the authors of the study emphasize, personal, open and sincere communication, feeling closeness and an interest in children's future lives are very important factors leading to mutual acceptance and tolerance. It is definitely not a short and easy path. The life of every individual is the result of many factors, regularities and coincidences. It is influenced by what the individuals were born with, e.g. genetic predispositions, by the family they were born into, who they have lived with, by their ability to overcome adversity and solve various situations. Most children live in their biological families, some in foster families and those determine their experiences and potentials when entering their adult lives.

References

- Act No. 305/2005 on Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Curatorship.*
- Act No. 36/2005 on Family and on Amendment of Some Other Acts.*
- Better Care Network. (2013). Transforming services for children without parents: *A decade of EU Daphne projects in collaboration with the WHO Regional Office for Europe*. Retrieved from <http://www.bettercarenetwork.org/library/the-continuum-of-care/residentialcare/united-kingdom-a-decade-of-european-union-eu-daphne-projects-incollaboration-with-the-world-health>.
- Cimprichová Gežová, K. (2015). Fathers' and mothers' roles and their particularities in raising children. *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 5(1), 45-50. doi 10.1515/atd-2015-0032
- Crawford, T. N., Cohen P. R., Chen, H., Anglin, D. M., & Ehrensaft, M. (2009). Early maternal separation and the trajectory of borderline personality disorder symptoms. *Development and Psychopathology*, 21(3), 1013-1030. doi: 10.1017/S0954579409000546
- Del Barrio, V., Aluja, A., & Garcia, L. (2004). Relationship between empathy and the Big Five personality traits in a sample of Spanish

- adolescents. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 32(7), 677-681. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2004.32.7.677
- Evans, G. W. (2006). Child development and the physical environment. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57, 423-451. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.57.102904.190057
- García, L. F., Aluja, A., & Del Barrio, V. (2006). Effects of personality, rearing styles and social values on adolescents' socialisation process. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40(8), 1671-1682.
- Gondová, M. (1994). Bez citovej výchovy je rodinná výchova neúplná. *Rodina a škola*, 41(7), 18-19.
- Hanuliaková, J., & Barnová, S. (2015). Positive school climate (A theoretical empirical conspectus). *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 5(1), 68-73. doi:10.1515/atd-2015-003
- Hedge, M. N., & Davis, D. (2005). Multicultural issues in clinical practicum. In M. N. Hedge & D. Davis, *Clinical Methods and Practicum in Speech-Language Pathology* (pp. 191-218). CliftonPark: Thomson Delmar Learning.
- Holúbek, J. (1995a). Citová výchova v škole a v rodine. *Rodina a škola*, 42(10), 14-15.
- Holúbek, J. (1995b). Výchova disciplinovaného dieťaťa. *Rodina a škola*, 42(3), 14-15.
- Choate, J. S., & SCHVEEN, D. C. (2004). Special needs of diverse learners. In J. S. Choate (Ed.), *Successful inclusive teaching*. Boston: Pearson education.
- Ikhart, P., & Szobiová, E. (2018). Parenting styles and mental health of adolescents. In E. Gajdošová et al. (Eds.), *Duševné zdravie a wellbeing virtuálnej generácie* (pp. 64-78). Bratislava: Ipčko.
- Kerekešová, M. (2007). Pevne objímať majú rodičia, nie terapeut. *Nebyť sám*, 4(1), 12.
- Kósová, T. (2015). *Sociálno-výchovná starostlivosť rodiny a mimorodinného života* (diploma thesis). Dubnica nad Váhom: DTI University.
- Lahe, D. (2011). Research on abuse and violence against the elderly in a family setting. In *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 1(2), 16-28. doi: 10.1515/atd-2015-0042
- Lauková, E. (2007). Komunikácia o potrebách aj pocitoch je dôležitá. *Nebyť sám*. 4(3), 4-5.
- Lawrence, C. R., Carlson, E. A., & Egeland, B. (2006). The impact of foster care on development. *Development and Psychopathology*, 18(1), 57-76. doi: 10.1017/S0954579406060044
- Madro, M. (2018). Possibilities of psychological intervention on social networks. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(3), 35-49. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0016
- Mareš, J. (2017). Prosocial behavior education in children. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 7(2), 7-16. doi: 10.1515/atd-2017-0009

- Matej, V. et al. (2000). *Profesionálny rodič, alebo gulatá kocka. Sprievodca profesionálnou náhradnou výchovou v rodine*. Bratislava: OZN.
- Matějček, Z., & Dytrych, Z. (1998). Desatero pro náhradní rodiče. *Náhradní rodinná péče*, 2, 35-36.
- Morrissey, T. W. (2009). Multiple child-care arrangements and young children's behavioral outcomes. *Child Development*, 80(1), 59-76. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2008.01246.x
- Porubčanová, D. (2015). Emócie "uvarené" v škole. In *Kuchárska kniha pre život alebo Cesty edukácie pre život* (pp. 302-315). Dubnica nad Váhom: DTI.
- Potočárová, M. (1999a). Čo ovplyvňuje úspešnú výchovu v rodine. *Rodina a škola*, 47(3), 10.
- Potočárová, M. (1999b). Rezervované rodičom a ich dospievajúcim deťom. *Rodina a škola*, 47(6), 10.
- Priehradná, D. (2006). Adaptácia - radosť a bolesť. *Nebyť sám*, 3(1), 6-18.
- Roháček, M., Priehradná, D., Matejová, R., & Matej, V. (1998). *Zvykáme si jeden na druhého alebo nová náhradná rodina v procese adaptácie*. Bratislava: OZN.
- Roháček, M., & Matej, V. (2005). *Hľadáme rodičov, ale aj opustené deti potrebujú rodinu*. Bratislava: OZN.
- Rostaňska, E. (2012). Conversation between child and adults as educational experience. *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 2(2), 52-56. doi: 10.1515/atd-2015-0060
- Rozvadský Gugová, G. (2018). Styles of attachment determined by the Slovak version of sEMBU. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(2), 82-88. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0014
- Rozvadský Gugová, G., & Heretik, A. (2011). Gender differences in attachment styles using sersion of the Experiences in Close Relationships - Revised (ECR-R). *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 1(2), 29-36. doi: 10.1515/atd-2015-0043
- Schavel, M., & Drexlerová, B. (2006). Niekoľko poznámok k sociálnemu poradenstvu v oblasti náhradnej rodinnej starostlivosti. *Sociální práce*, 1, 64-70.
- Škrabánková, J., & Martínková, M. (2018). Giftedness as a possible risk of bullying. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(3), 69-93. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0018.
- Škoviera, A., (2007). *Trendy náhradnej výchovy*. Bratislava: Petrus.
- Tamášová, V. (2007). *Teória a prax rodinnej edukácie* (2nd edition). Bratislava: AXIMA.
- Winkler, J., & Šporcová, I. (2003). Potreby dítěte a náhradní výchovní péče. *Sociální práce/ Sociální práca*, 21, 54-70.
- Zelina, M. (1994). Výchovné štýly. *Rodina a škola*, 41(8), 7.

Manager's Personality and Their Professional Career

*Elena Fortis**

Received: October 23, 2018; received in revised form: February 18, 2019;
accepted: February 25, 2019

Abstract:

Introduction: The research study deals with the personality of managers in regard to their professional career. The main objective of the study was to find the relationship between the personality dimensions according to the Big Five personality traits model and Holland's typology of the six personality types and work environment types.

Methods: The research sample consisted of 121 managers from different levels of the subordinate system in state organizations and private companies in Slovakia. The personality dimensions Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness were in this research measured by the NEO Five-Factor Inventory. We have also used the SDS questionnaire - Self-Directed Search to determine the personality types and work environment types - RIASEC codes. The statistical evaluation was performed using the SPSS 20 statistical system, with the data evaluated by methods of descriptive and correlation analysis.

Results: There were the highest values recorded in Conscientiousness throughout the research sample. The lowest values were recorded in Neuroticism. We found out that the Summary Code of managers is ESI (Enterprising, Social, Investigative), of male managers is EIR (Enterprising, Investigative, Realistic), of female managers is SEC (Social, Enterprising, Conventional). When comparing the individual RIASEC personality types, we found significant differences between males and females. Males are more realistic than females, more investigative and enterprising than females. Females are more social and conventional compared to males. There was no gender difference in artistic orientation. The RIASEC personality types in the entire sample match the RIASEC work environment types according to SDS, regardless of age. The results demonstrated relationships between the NEO - FFI personality dimensions and personality types and RIASEC work environment types codes according to SDS.

Discussion: We can say that managers in our research sample are primarily Enterprising types with leading life orientation. Typical representatives of this personality type are characterized especially by

* Elena Fortis, Paneuropean University, Bratislava, Slovakia; fortis.elena@gmail.com

traits such as dominance, ambition, focus on success, self-confidence, sociability, and responsibility. In the context of a manager's success and their effectiveness, or ineffectiveness in work environment, the most predictive Big Five factor for an effective manager is Neuroticism, all effective managers scored low in Neuroticism. Results obtained by the SDS questionnaire - Self-Directed Search confirm our findings of prevalent personality dimensions in the overall personality profile of managers. The overall RIASEC personality code of managers according to SDS is ESI in the whole research sample, thus we can conclude that in the case of the overall personality type - RIASEC code of manager the dominant personality type is Enterprising/leading, followed by the Social personality type and the third is the Investigative personality type.

Limitations: One of the methodological limitations of this research is the number of participants in the research sample. We do not consider this number as representative for the purpose of generalizing the results.

Conclusions: Research results show that there is a relationship between professional orientation and personality. Some personality dimensions are significantly related to professional orientation types and to professional interests, whereas others are related only non-significantly or not at all. Significant relations were found between the dimension Openness and Artistic, Leading, and Social type, between the dimension Extraversion and Enterprising and Investigative type, and between the dimension Agreeableness and the Social type. Realistic type was not related to any personality dimension. The dimension Neuroticism was negatively related to all professional types. For the career counseling practice and selection of job seekers and manager position applicants, this may mean that despite confirmation of these convergences, there may be different relations between different Holland's professional types and personality dimensions.

These findings can be the focus of further research on students in their final year of secondary school when they are deciding on their future professional career.

This research study, we believe, has contributed to the understanding of the relationship between personality and professional career. The results confirm that professional orientation and personality interact and influence the professional behavior of a person.

Key words: manager personality, professional career, RIASEC personality typology and professional orientation, NEO-FFI, SDS.

Introduction

Holland's typology of six big basic types of personality and professional orientation - also called "Big Six" and the model of five big personality dimensions - "Big Five" are widely accepted models to explore the linkages between personality dimensions and professional orientation and interests. There

were several research studies focusing on the identification of the relationship between the Big Five and the Big Six. Larson, Rottinghaus and Borgen (2002) processed studies by several authors on this issue, finding out that there are several positive connections between the personality types and professional orientation of Holland's RIASEC typology and personality dimensions of Big Five. Darley (1941, as cited in Larson, Rottinghaus, & Borgen, 2002) is considered to be one of the first authors to confirm with his studies that professional interests are related to personality traits. He states that the development of interests "is a consequence or a certain stage of personality development" (Darley, 1941; as cited in Larson et al., 2002, p. 218). Darley developed this subject even more extensively and elaborated the professional interest as a part of the personality theory. He expressed a critical view that until 1995, there was no complexly accepted theoretical model of personality in specialized literature. His analogical attitude was also presented towards the diagnostic methodologies used to detect professional interests. During that period, Holland demonstrated the possibility of using subtests of professional titles in the questionnaire of interests in diagnosing personality. These were the initial stages of development of the Big Six factor model of professional orientation - the Big Six in psychology and career counselling as well.

Holland has been so far accepted among professionals thanks to the idea that professional interests are the personality expression. Holland's hexagon is a pilot model in the psychology of professional orientation and development of a professional career and he is the founder of the social cognitive theory of career. In his theory, he described the subject in interaction with his professional environment. Several authors nowadays propose that convergence between constructs such as interests and personality can be much greater than many have thought. Larson et al. (2002) state that the approaches of some authors support a more coherent view of a person's individuality, such as Costa, McCrae and Holland (1984) and Ackerman and Heggestad (1997), Holland (1997, 1999), Blake and Sackett (1999), Borgen (1986, 1999), and Prediger (1999). This view was summed up by Spokane and Decker, who stated: "It is becoming increasingly clear that interests, self-efficacy, other aspects of personality and professional self-concept may be components of a unified structure of complex primary characteristics" (Spokane & Decker, 1999; as cited in Larson et al., 2002, p. 218).

Larson, Rottinghaus and Borgen (2002) analyzed the results of various studies on this topic. In total they evaluated the results of 2 571 women and 2 358 men. The age of the participants varied and they came mostly from the USA, the Netherlands, and Australia. These various studies have shown that there is a relationship between personality typologies of the Big Six and personality dimensions of the Big Five.

Barrick, Mount and Gupta (2003) also focused on identifying the relationship between personality dimensions and professional orientation using the five

factor model of personality and the professional interest model RIASEC. They also managed to prove the link between these personality dimensions and professional orientation with 11 559 participants.

Hřebíčková (2011) brings also gender differences into this issue, when she states that according to Lynn and Martine (1997) it has been proven that females are more anxious and less assertive compared to males. They also found out that due to Neuroticism, females showed a higher degree of emotional lability.

Professional orientation and personality both influence professional behaviors such as: career choice, job satisfaction, professional career or career changes throughout life. Understanding the connections and differences between them is important for the theoretical as well as the practical shift in the field of psychology of professional orientation. Although each of the individual studies of interest and personality independently contributed to the findings in the surveyed area, the findings did not provide a clear match in size or nature of the connections between Holland's Big Six and the Big Five typology models, but the meta-analyses series examining the correlations of the Big Six and the Big Five models could help to empirically integrate these findings (Larson et al., 2002).

1 Methods

1.1 Research sample

The research sample comprised 121 managers. Participants were at different levels of the subordinate system in state organizations and private companies in Slovakia, such as state administration, education, health care, energetics, etc. Participants had a university degree and participated on a voluntary basis. The research sample consisted of 61 females and 60 males aged from 25 to 67 years. The mean age of males was 43.13 and 43.67 of females.

1.2 The course of research

Data collection ran from May to September 2013 via standardized questionnaires. We used the NEO - FFI (Ruisel & Halama, 2007) and the Slovak version of SDS–Self-Directed Search (Hoskovcová, 2003) to measure personality dimensions. In order to identify the RIASEC code of the individual participants' profession we used the Register of professions, which is a part of the SDS - Self-Directed Search (Hoskovcová, 2003). We also examined demographics such as gender, age, highest level of education, and currently practiced profession. The results were statistically processed using SPSS 20.

2 Results

We found out that the highest values were measured in Conscientiousness (with a total gross score of 37.18) within the entire research sample. The lowest values were recorded in Neuroticism (16.26). All of the results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of personality dimensions for the entire sample according to NEO-FFI

	<u>Neuroticism</u>	<u>Extraversion</u>	<u>Openness</u>	<u>Agreeableness</u>	<u>Conscientiousness</u>
Mean	16.26	30.06	25.75	30.08	37.18
Median	16.00	31.00	27.00	31.00	37.00
Standard deviation	8.85	7.35	7.44	6.36	6.73
Minimum	2.00	7.00	10.00	11.00	20.00
Maximum	64.00	47.00	42.00	42.00	48.00

In the NEO - FFI questionnaire we were unable to record a statistically significant difference in recorded values of personality dimensions.

In the group of males and females we recorded the highest values in Conscientiousness (37.58 in males and 36.79 in females). The lowest values were recorded in Neuroticism (15.78 in males and 16.73 in females). The other results are shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of personality dimensions of males according to NEO - FFI

	<u>Neuroticism</u>	<u>Extraversion</u>	<u>Openness</u>	<u>Agreeableness</u>	<u>Conscientiousness</u>
Mean	15.78	29.95	25.37	29.02	37.58
Median	16.00	29.50	24.50	30.00	39.00
Standard deviation	10.15	7.71	7.78	6.76	6.44
Minimum	2.00	7.00	10.00	11.00	24.00
Maximum	64.00	47.00	42.00	42.00	48.00

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of personality dimensions of females according to NEO - FFI

	<u>Neuroticism</u>	<u>Extraversion</u>	<u>Openness</u>	<u>Agreeableness</u>	<u>Conscientiousness</u>
Mean	16.73	30.18	26.13	31.13	36.79
Median	17.00	32.00	27.00	32.00	36.00
Standard deviation	7.42	7.04	7.13	5.81	7.03
Minimum	2.00	11.00	10.00	13.00	20.00
Maximum	37.00	44.00	42.00	42.00	48.00

In the case of the total personality type - the RIASEC code of manager according to SDS - we recorded the highest values in three personality types, namely E - Enterprising (31.83), S - Social (28.74), and I - Investigative (25.40). The lowest values were recorded in A - Artistic (21.36). The other values are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics of the observed RIASEC personality types for the entire sample, N is the number of participants

	<u>R</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>N</u>
Mean	22.40	25.40	21.36	28.74	31.83	24.52	121
Median	21.00	26.00	22.00	29.00	34.00	24.00	121
Standard deviation	11.12	9.69	10.42	10.07	11.16	8.61	121
Minimum	2.00	5.00	1.00	5.00	4.00	6.00	121
Maximum	45.00	49.00	44.00	50.00	49.00	47.00	121

In the group of males, we recorded the highest values in personality types E - Enterprising (34.40), I - Investigative (27.32), and R - Realistic (27.27). The lowest values were recorded in the type A - Artistic (19.78). The other results are shown in Table 5.

For females, we found the code with the highest values in S - Social (31.39), E - Enterprising (29.30), and C - Conventional (26.62). The lowest values were recorded in type R - Realistic (17.61). Other results are shown in Table 6.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics of the observed RIASEC personality types in the group of males

	<u>R</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>C</u>
Mean	27.27	27.32	19.78	26.03	34.40	22.38
Median	27.00	27.00	17.50	25.00	37.00	21.00
Standard deviation	11.22	9.73	10.22	9.49	9.56	7.19
Minimum	2.00	5.00	1.00	5.00	11.00	8.00
Maximum	45.00	49.00	44.00	48.00	49.00	37.00

Table 6

Descriptive statistics of the observed RIASEC personality types in the group of females

	<u>R</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>C</u>
Mean	17.61	23.51	22.90	31.39	29.30	26.62
Median	17.00	24.00	25.00	32.00	32.00	26.00
Standard deviation	8.75	9.34	10.46	9.98	12.08	9.41
Minimum	2.00	5.00	2.00	6.00	4.00	6.00
Maximum	39.00	42.00	43.00	50.00	47.00	47.00

As shown in Table 7, a moderately strong positive connection was recorded between:

- RIASEC Artistic personality type and personality dimension Openness according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.533$; sig=0.000; N=121);
- RIASEC Enterprising personality type and Extraversion according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.437$; sig=0.000; N=121);
- RIASEC Social type and personality dimension Extraversion according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.288$; sig=0.001; N=121);
- RIASEC Investigative type and personality dimension Openness according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.207$; sig=0.022; N=121);
- RIASEC Social type and personality dimension Agreeableness according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.241$; sig=0.008; N=121);
- RIASEC Enterprising type and personality dimension Conscientiousness according to the NEO - FFI ($r_s=0.485$; sig=0.000; N=121);
- Realistic type and Neuroticism ($r_s=-0.197$; sig=0.031; N=121), Investigative type and Neuroticism ($r_s=-0.332$; sig=0.000; N=121), Enterprising type and Neuroticism ($r_s=-0.442$; sig=0.000; N=121).

Table 7

Spearman cardinal correlation - nonparametric test detecting the correlation between RIASEC personality types according to SDS and personality dimensions according to NEO - FFI (N=121)

		<u>Neuroticism</u>	<u>Extraversion</u>	<u>Openness</u>	<u>Agreeableness</u>	<u>Conscientiousness</u>
<i>R</i>	r_s	-.197(*)	.092	.081	.063	.178
	Sig.	.031	.313	.380	.493	.051
<i>I</i>	r_s	-.332(***)	.168	.207(*)	.167	.195(*)
	Sig.	.000	.066	.022	.068	.032
<i>A</i>	r_s	-.066	.220(*)	.533(***)	.226(*)	.019
	Sig.	.473	.015	.000	.013	.833
<i>S</i>	r_s	-.157	.288(**)	.230(*)	.241(**)	.060
	Sig.	.085	.001	.011	.008	.514
<i>E</i>	r_s	-.442(***)	.437(***)	-.040	-.125	.485(***)
	Sig.	.000	.000	.660	.172	.000
<i>C</i>	r_s	-.008	-.034	-.228(*)	.172	.343(***)
	Sig.	.929	.712	.012	.059	.000

In our research, we also found other interesting correlations between RIASEC personality types according to SDS and personality dimensions according to NEO - FFI. We found a weak significant positive connection between the Investigative type and Conscientiousness ($r_s=0.195$; $sig=0.032$; $N=121$), a moderately strong significant positive connection between the Artistic type and Extraversion ($r_s=0.220$; $sig=0.015$; $N=121$), a moderately strong significant positive connection between the Artistic type and Agreeableness ($r_s=0.226$; $sig=0.013$; $N=121$), a moderately strong significant positive connection between the Social type and Openness ($r_s=0.230$; $sig=0.011$; $N=121$), and a moderately strong significant positive connection between the Conventional type and Conscientiousness ($r_s=0.343$; $sig=0.000$; $N=121$). The results are in Table 7.

3 Discussion

The aim of the research was to determine the relationship between the personality dimensions according to the Big Five model of personality factors and Holland's typology of Big Six personality types and types of professional environment by managers. The subject of the research interest was also to monitor the differentiation and interdependence of professional orientation of managers in this research sample and possible differences or compliance. We also focused on identifying the overall personality profile of managers and possible gender differences in personality dimensions.

In the first field of the research, we identified the personality dimensions of the NEO - FFI most commonly found in the overall personality profile of managers throughout the research sample, with the personality dimensions most often held by managers - males and females. We compared whether there are significant

differences in personality dimensions between managers - males and females. We examined personality types of RIASEC manager codes, their compliance with the professional environment codes which they have built professional careers in, and gender differences.

We found that the personality dimension Conscientiousness prevails in the overall personality manager profile, in the second place with the comparable score are Extraversion and Agreeableness with a minimum score difference (0.02 point) in favor of the Agreeableness dimension. In the third place, there is the dimension Openness. In the entire research sample of managers, we recorded the lowest occurrence of the personality dimension Neuroticism. In general, successful managers have a personality portrait created by the combination of dimensions: average to high Conscientiousness, Openness to experience, and Extraversion. They score low in the dimension Neuroticism (Kollárik, Lisá, & Ritomský, 2013). The research results are consistent with the authors' statements.

We also found out what the overall personality profile of the manager - man looks like according to the personality dimensions of the NEO - FF inventory. When examining the measured personality dimensions of male managers, we found that their personality profile was dominated by the personality dimension Conscientiousness. The second place was taken by Extraversion and Agreeableness with minimal score difference (0.93 point) in favor of Extraversion. The third was the personality dimension Openness and male managers are least characterized by Neuroticism.

The goal of this research was also to find out what the overall personality profile of the manager - woman according to the NEO - FF inventory would be. When diagnosing the measured personality dimensions of managers, we found that their personality profile was dominated by the personality dimension Conscientiousness, second were Agreeableness and Extraversion with minimal score difference (0.95 point) in favor of Agreeableness. Third was personality dimension Openness. Personality dimension Neuroticism was the least common among managers in general.

We also monitored whether there was a statistically significant difference in the personality diagnosis results according to the NEO - FFI between males and females in managerial positions. Through the separate personality dimensions diagnosis results of the male and female manager groups, we found that the most common personality dimensions in both groups are comparable and also corresponding to the results of the whole research sample. Based on the obtained results, we can state that there was no significant difference in the results of the personality dimensions diagnosis between male managers and female managers in the individual personality dimensions diagnosed by the NEO - FFI.

These research results do not coincide with the results of the studies by Lynn and Martine (1997; as cited in Hřebíčková, 2011) concerning personality dimensions. In the study of these authors, unambiguous differences in the

personality dimension Extraversion were not found. There were differences in the degree of Neuroticism, women showed a higher degree of emotional lability, compared to males they were more anxious and emotionally more unstable with a higher score in Neuroticism and lower score in Openness. Males were characterized as more searching for exciting experiences, more assertive and open to ideas. Females scored higher in Openness to aesthetic experiences, in experiencing emotion and Agreeableness. These differences can be explained by the fact that unlike the participants of the research, this research sample consisted of managers.

The results of this research are consistent with the Silverthorne's study (1999; as cited in Kanderová, 2011), who conducted a research on the sample of both male and female managers in state organizations as well as private companies in the USA. In the context of managers' success and their effectiveness or ineffectiveness at work, the most predictive factor for an effective manager is Neuroticism of the Big Five personality dimensions model. He stated that every effective manager had a low score in the Neuroticism dimension. Effective managers, who scaled up in the dimensions Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience, were more pleasant and emotionally more stable than inefficient managers.

The managers in this research sample most often scored in the personality dimensions Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness, what we consider to be positive predictive factors in performing their leading function. The dimension Conscientiousness of the Big Five factors theory includes sub-dimensions capability, discipline, purposefulness, responsibility, orderliness, and caniness. Empirical evidence supports the importance of conscientiousness at work in terms of professional self-realization. The work achievement of conscientious people is also based on their orderliness, which also includes organization and results in the efficiency of work performance. Agreeable individuals are accepted in work contact as socially desirable, patient and mentally resistant, therefore they are well suited for team professions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Extraverts tend to be more successful in their professional career and occupy managerial positions.

The aim of this study was to find the overall personality type - RIASEC manager code according to SDS in the whole research sample. Identified prevailing personality dimensions in the overall personal manager profile are also confirmed by the SDS questionnaire - results obtained by the Self-Directed Search. The personalized summary RIASEC code of managers according to SDS in the entire research sample is ESI, which suggests that in the case of this overall personality type - RIASEC manager code is dominated by Enterprising - leading personality type in the first place, Social personality type comes in the second place and Investigative personality type comes in the third place.

We can state that managers in the research sample are primarily Enterprising types with leading life orientation. Typical representatives of this personality

type are characterized, in particular, by features such as domination, ambition, focus on success, self-confidence, sociability, and responsibility. Individuals of this type are successful and popular in their work and personal contact with others. They are energetic, with adventurous inclinations. They are oriented towards social success, which they achieve through organizational, economic and political resources. They prefer a work environment that requires organizational skills, dominance and high degree of argumentation. They enjoy talking to others about business topics, wanting to convince or manage them. They are professionally successful in professions such as personnel management, business, and sales. For their well-developed communication skills, they occupy professional positions of a spokesperson or politically engaged representative of a particular interest group of people. In the social field, they are oriented more towards achieving organizational and economic goals than towards people. They are often employed as managers in professions corresponding with this personality type - commercial lawyer, judge, attorney, public prosecutor, bank expert, tax adviser, diplomat, IT manager, economic manager, project manager, school director, wholesaler (Holland & Gottfredson, 1975; Mezera, 2005).

The Social personality type in the second place of the overall RIASEC personality manager code ESI means that managers in our research sample have in addition to an enterprising guiding orientation a significant social life orientation. Individuals with this personality orientation prefer the social type of activities to technical and other precisely defined activities. Socially they are very friendly, kind and willing to cooperate with an inclination to altruism and idealism. The dominating personality trait is communicability and extraversion. Social types prefer group activities and cooperate well in counseling, treatment, education of children and adults. They have a wide range of interpersonal skills, they are empathic, tactful and thoughtful, able to share troubles of others and discuss them. Typical representatives of this type are characterized by traits such as joy from contacts, friendliness, willingness to help, understanding, compassion, and warm-heartedness. These attributes are sub-dimensions of the personality dimension Agreeableness, which we diagnosed by the NEO - FFI together with the comparable score of Extraversion as the most common personality trait of managers. These types seek a work environment where they can cooperate in teams of similarly oriented people. Social personality dimensions are relatively stable personality traits manifesting in social interaction. The essence of social competence is social maturity - a combination of personality dimensions contributing to the quality of the individual's interaction with the social environment. Social maturity is a part of social intelligence - a multidimensional construct expressing the ability of a person to actively adapt to real social situations and succeed in them (Kollárik, 2010). Occupations corresponding to the Social type are professions requiring a higher level of education such as psychotherapist, counselor, university teacher, clinical

psychologist, physician, human resources development expert, sport trainer, or personal counselor.

Investigative personality type in the third place of the overall RIASEC personality manager code ESI means that managers in this research sample have, in addition to enterprising leading and social orientation, also an investigative personality, with a scientific, curious and exploring life orientation. Individuals of this personality type prefer intellectual, investigative and analytical activities, and are well oriented in research and science. They are methodologically oriented, and they look for cognitive - creative activities. They enjoy learning and receiving new information, prefer cognitive and scientific activities that require symbolic, creative and systematic thinking. They like reading and discussing science and scientific topics. They perceive themselves as precise, scientifically oriented individuals. Their values are oriented toward lifelong learning and improving their mathematical and scientific dispositions. These types are characterized by features such as intellectuality, resourcefulness, logic, precision, rationality and efficiency, and curiosity. These personality traits are also confirmed by the NEO-FFI diagnosis result, in which the personality dimension Conscientiousness has reached the highest score in managers.

Investigative personality types seek professions such as analyst of the information system, chemist, geneticist, biochemist, system analyst, programmer, surgeon, research engineer, pharmacist, cardiologist, or crime investigator.

When examining the RIASEC manager code we also investigated what is the total personality type - RIASEC code for the group of males and the group of females, respectively. The overall RIASEC male managers' code is EIR (Enterprising, Investigative, Realistic) and the overall RIASEC female managers' code is SEC (Social, Enterprising, Conventional). The enterprising leading life orientation in personality code is present in both groups, in the group of males is the investigative life orientation in conformity with the overall manager code, in the group of females it is the social life orientation. The difference between male and female groups is at the third code position. A more detailed analysis showed that males are compared to females more realistically, with practical - technical interests, more enterprising and investigative, on the other hand females are more socially and conventionally oriented than males. There was no difference in the artistic orientation. The gender differences in the RIASEC codes are explained with a reference to individual personality types according to the social cognitive theory of career by J. Holland. Males show a high degree of masculinity attributable to typically male characteristics. They prefer physical activities focused on strength and prefer practical - technical interests, they are closer to realistic types of occupation with motor, manual or manual-technical life orientation. Typical female characteristics are social and conventional life orientation. Conventional people are reliable, work

conscientious with a tendency to pedantism and are efficient at work (Mezera, 2005). The findings of this research are consistent with these characteristics.

We also examined whether there is a match between the personality type of managers - RIASEC code in the entire research sample and the type of work environment - RIASEC code according to SDS. We identified the match by comparing the three-digit personality types - RIASEC codes of completed SDS questionnaires to the three-digit RIASEC code of the work environment, where the managers have built their professional career according to the SDS Register of Professions. The codes were accepted as identical, if there were two or three identical letters in both codes independent of the order (Hoskovcová, 2003). In the entire research sample, we found that a match between managers' RIASEC personality type and the type of RIASEC work environment, where managers have built their professional career, occurs in 96% of managers. These results are consistent with the social cognitive theory of career by J. Holland, stating that a process of choosing a profession is a process of evolving interests and personality differentiation, which at the stage of decision-making leads to the specific favoring of one occupational group of the six professional groups set. There was a difference between the RIASEC personality type and the RIASEC work environment type occurring only in 4% of managers.

In the second area of this research we responded to the hypotheses about interdependencies between individual RIASEC personality types according to SDS and personality dimensions according to NEO - FFI. The results prove the existence of several significant positive connections between professional orientation and personality dimensions.

On the basis of the hypotheses we established, we have been able to find a positive connection between the Artistic type and the personality dimension Openness, which have confirmed our hypothesis. We found out that artistic orientation and openness to experience (0.533) have the strongest relationship. The statement that artistic interests are related to Openness to experience is not a new one. This overlap is evident from several studies, beginning with the first study by Costa, McCrae and Holland (1984), but also in recent studies by Larson and Borgen (2002). Holland's concept of artistic orientation goes beyond the narrow definition of artistic activities involving writing, music and theater interests. It assumes that both dimensions are related to a higher level of education, and Artistic types are intellectually based, imaginative and verbally proficient. Participants in the entire research sample have a university degree. Our results are consistent with the studies of Costa et al. (1984), De Fruyt and Mervielde (1997), Gottfredson et al. (1993), Holland et al. (1994), Tokar and Swanson (1995), and Tokar et al. (1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

Another proof of convergence of professional interests and personality dimensions is the context of Extraversion. The results show that extraverted individuals tend to be enterprising and socially professionally oriented.

Positive relationship between Enterprising/leading type and the personality dimension Extraversion was also assumed by the research hypotheses, which we were able to confirm, as we found the link between Enterprising/leading type and Extraversion to be one of the strongest (0.437). These findings have also been known in the studies by Costa and his colleagues McCrae and Holland since 1984, but they also appear in the literature later on in the research by Tokar et al. (1995, as cited in Larson et al., 2002). Some of the links were also reflected in the Extraversion descriptions in the NEO-PI-R manual, where Costa and McCrae (1992) described extraverts as impressive, dominant and energetic. The Enterprising type is characterized by similar features as the personality dimension Extraversion. In the social environment, the individual is energetic, social, with good social contacts and the initiative to create qualitative social relations in professional contact as well. The results of our research are consistent with the studies of Costa et al. (1984), De Fruyt and Mervielde (1997), Holland et al. (1994), Tokar and Swanson (1995), and Tokar et al. (1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

We also found a positive relationship between the social type and the personality dimension Extraversion, which confirmed another hypothesis. Personality with a social life orientation has similar features as the sub-dimensions of Extraversion. The dominating personality trait of the Social type is communicability and extraversion. Social types control a wide range of interpersonal skills and search for a work environment where they can work in a team of similarly oriented individuals. The result of this research is consistent with the studies of Costa et al. (1984), De Fruyt and Mervielde (1997), Holland et al. (1994), Tokar and Swanson (1995), and Tokar et al. (1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

We also assumed a positive relation between the Investigative type and the personality dimension Openness. People who incline to investigative, scientific professional interests are also more open to new experiences, what confirms the hypothesis. The interconnectedness of the Investigative/scientific type with Openness can be explained by the fact that the Scientific RIASEC type has similar personality characteristics compared to sub-dimensions of the NEO - FFI personality dimension Openness. The Investigative/scientific type is characterized by traits such as intellectuality, science, and curiosity. These types look for cognitive-creative activities, and enjoy learning and receiving new information. The Openness dimension is characterized, in particular, by unconventionality, openness to new experience and information. Intellectual orientation of open individuals can be a tool for a successful professional career. The result of this research is consistent with studies by Costa et al. (1984), Gottfredson et al. (1993), Holland et al. (1994), Tokar and Swanson (1995), and Tokar et al. (1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

This assumption was confirmed, and it was verified by the positive link between the social type and the personality dimension Agreeableness. Among the characteristics of the social type overlapping with Agreeableness are

friendliness, kindness, and willingness to cooperate with a tendency to altruism. Sub-dimension altruism is the most significant characteristic of the agreeable personality. It is characterized by trying to help others, consideration, and innocence. In working environment, they are affable individuals who are accepted as social, patient and psychologically resilient, therefore they are well applied in team professions. In Holland's theory, altruism and care represent a convergent relationship in the context of social life orientation. The outcome of this research coincides with the conclusions of studies by De Fruyt and Mervielde (1997), Tokar and Swanson (1995), and Tokar et al. (1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

We also assumed a positive relation between the Enterprising/leading type and the personality dimension Conscientiousness. We found that the link between Enterprising/ leading orientation and Conscientiousness is one of the strongest (0.485), which has confirmed our assumption. Enterprising/leading personality types prefer a work environment that requires organizational skills, dominance and a high degree of argumentation. Enterprising individuals are oriented towards professional and social success, achieved by organizational, economic and political resources. We can see the convergence of these characteristic with the personality dimension Conscientiousness with its sub-dimensions, which are competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation (Hřebíčková, 2004). Costa and McCrae (2003) mention three related aspects of Conscientiousness: sedulity - perseverance, reliability - responsibility, and order - organization. The outcome of this research supports the conclusions of the study by Gottfredson et al. (1993; as cited in Larson et al., 2002).

We assumed a negative relation between the RIASEC types and the personality dimension Neuroticism. We found that all of the investigated relations between personality types and the Neuroticism dimension are negative, which have confirmed the research hypothesis. The authors Costa and McCrae (2003) include these sub-dimensions in Neuroticism: anxiety, hostility, depression - crisis, shyness - skittishness, vulnerability - fragility, and impulsivity. They claim that Neuroticism is the strongest personality trait and is the dominant trait of almost all the measurements. When comparing the sub-dimensions of Neuroticism to the characteristics of personality types according to Holland, we did not find any convergence. The results of the current research are consistent with the study (Larson et al., 2002).

In this study, we found a relationship between professional orientation of managers according to Holland's theory of Big Six and dimensions of their personality defined by the NEO - FF inventory. The obtained research results on the links between personality dimensions and professional orientation of managers represent the potential for selecting job applicants and managerial position candidates. The results are also potentially useful for career choice counseling or career planning, but they are not universally applicable. In particular, we acknowledge the informational value of Holland's Big Six factor

model and the Big Five personality dimensions model, which are a synergy of increasing the traditional evaluation in career counseling. However, the link between the Big Six factors model of professional orientation and the Big Five personality dimensions model is not extensive enough for the methodologies to interfere with each other, nor is the number of participants a representative sample.

The results of this research show that the relationship between these two methodologies is more direct in some of the compared professional orientation types and personality dimensions than in others. For example, realistic types show a minimal overlap with one of the personality dimensions of the Big Five, so the connection between individual factors cannot be interpreted beyond Holland's theory. Similar results have also been obtained in the Neuroticism dimension, although we found a negative relationship of this dimension and professional orientation. Other studies show that Neuroticism refers to the so-called career insecurity and also seems to be largely independent of professional orientation (Tokar et al., 1995; as cited in Larson et al., 2002). In the practice of career counseling and in selection procedures, it is also important to take into account the results of the overall psychological diagnosis of an individual.

In the school environment, the research findings can be used both, from the teacher's and the student's point of view. According to Dytrt-Krhut (as cited in Pasternáková & Laca, 2011), the teacher should be psychologically resilient, which means that they have an insight into the nature and essence of the problem situation, they should be adaptable and adjustable, so they should be able to solve problems, be capable and willing to acquire new knowledge, and be socially empathetic and communicative. Sós (2018) in his study says that even in such situations teachers can apply the results of this research in career choice counseling for pupils choosing a vocation or students deciding on a university. Through the methods we have chosen, we can verify this claim. Therefore, we recommend verifying the statement in further research using the NEO-FFI questionnaire methods and Holland's typology of the Big Six personality types and types of the professional environment. From the student's point of view, we can also use our chosen methods. Every other job position and career decided upon by a student at a secondary school or college also requires certain personality dimensions and typologies or prerequisites to perform the job correctly. The methods we have used in this research can create an image of the factors and personality typology required for a specific job position. This can be used, for example, in students deciding on their professional career and looking for an answer to whether they can perform the job or not. A teacher or a school psychologist can on the basis of these questionnaires' results together with the students consider their decisions, or determine which competencies are necessary to strengthen or eliminate in order to practice the particular profession for which students decide, or what kind of professional career is appropriate, taking into account the student's personality dimensions and typology.

4 Limitations

The aim of the research was to determine the relationship between the personality dimensions according to the Big Five model of personality factors and Holland's typology of Big Six personality types and types of professional environment by managers. The subject of the research interest was also to monitor the differentiation and interdependence of professional orientation of managers in this research sample and possible differences or compliance. We also focused on identifying the overall personality profile of managers and possible gender differences in personality dimensions.

Conclusion

The main objective of the research was to find the relationship between the personality dimensions according to the Big Five personality factors model and Holland's typology of Big Six personality types and types of professional environment. We examined which personality dimensions are the most common in the overall manager profile and compared whether there are significant differences in the personality dimensions of managers between male and female. The subject of the research was also to find the overall personality type of managers according to RIASEC and to compare whether there were significant differences in personality types according to Holland's typology between male and female. We also raised the question of age relatedness, or of the difference between a personality type of manager in Holland's model and the type of professional environment in which they have built a professional career.

For this purpose, we have used two diagnostic methods - for measuring the personality dimensions, the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (Ruisel & Halama, 2007) was used and for diagnosing the personality types and types of work environment according to RIASEC, the SDS questionnaire - Self-Directed Search (Hoskovicová, 2003) was used.

The research results show that in the overall personality profile of the manager, the most common personality dimensions are Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness. There was no significant difference in personality dimensions diagnosed by the NEO - FFI between male and female managers. In the entire research sample of managers, we recorded the lowest occurrence of the personality dimension Neuroticism. The total RIASEC personality code of managers according to SDS is ESI in the entire research sample. It is a dominance of the Enterprising/leading personality type in first place, the Social personality type in second place and Investigative personality type in third place. When comparing individual personality types according to Holland's theory, we found differences between managers - males and females. Males are more realistic, more investigative and enterprising in comparison to females. Females are more social and conventional in comparison to males. There was no difference in artistic orientation. Further findings led to the observation that

when comparing personality and professional types, 96% of managers are in agreement with their personality type and the type of work environment in which they have built their professional careers.

From the research results it is clear that the relationship between professional orientation and personality exists. Some personality dimensions are significantly linked to the types of professional orientation and to professional interests, while others are linked only non-significantly or not at all. We found significant relations between dimensions Openness and the Artistic, Leading and Social type, between dimensions Extraversion and the Enterprising/Investigative type, and between Agreeableness and the Social type. No personality dimension was associated with the Realistic type. The dimension Neuroticism was negatively related to all of the professional types. For the career counseling practice and selection of job-seekers and manager position applicants, this may mean that despite confirmation of these convergences, there may be different relations between different Holland's professional types and personality dimensions. A person who is clearly an enterprising type may have extravert characteristics. A person with a clear artistic interest can be more open to new experience. But a client with a clear realistic type of professional orientation does not have to be associated with a significant, typical personality profile.

Professional orientation and personality influence professional behavior such as career choices, satisfaction at work and satisfaction with work, professional career and professional changes in the course of people's lives. Understanding the relationships and differences between them is considered to be important for their theoretical as well as practical shift in the field of work and organizational psychology and career counselling.

References

- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Gupta, R. (2003). Meta-analyses of the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*, 45-73. Retrieved from www.elsevier.com/locate/jvb
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO-Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI): *Professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources. Retrieved from www.sjdm.org/dmidi/NEO-FFI.html
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five-factor theory perspective*. New York: The Guilford Press. Retrieved from www.proquest.com
- Costa, P. T., McCrae, R. R., & Holland, J. L. (1984). Personality and vocational interests in an adult sample. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*, 390-400. Retrieved from www.psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1984-32863-001
- Holland, J. L., & Gottfredson, G. D. (1975). *Using a typology of persons and environments to explain careers: Some extensions and clarifications*.

- Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University, Md Centre for Study of Social Organization of Schools. Retrieved from www.ebsco.com
- Hoskocová, S. (2003). *DVP - Dotazník volby povolání a plánování profesní kariéry*. Praha: Testcentrum.
- Hřebíčková, M. (2004). *NEO osobnostní inventář: Příručka*. Praha: Testcentrum.
- Hřebíčková, M. (2011). *Pětifaktorový model v psychologii osobnosti: Přístupy, diagnostika, uplatnění*. Praha: Grada Publishing.
- Kanderová, D. (2011). *Osobnostné vlastnosti manažéra v súvislosti s charakteristikou sociálnej atmosféry v pracovnej skupine* (doctoral thesis). Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského, FSEV.
- Kollárik, T. (2010). *Sociálna psychológia práce*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského.
- Kollárik, T., Lisá, E., & Ritomský, A. (2013). *Psychodiagnostika manažérov*. Žilina: Eurokódex.
- Larson, L. M., & Borgen, F. H. (2002). Convergence of vocational interests and personality: Examples in an adolescent gifted sample. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 60, 91-112. Retrieved from www.proquest.com
- Larson, L. M., Rottinghaus, P. J., & Borgen, F. H. (2002). Meta-analyses of Big Six interests and Big Five personality factors. *Iowa State University. Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, 217-239. Retrieved from www.paultrapnell.com/4300/upload/?act=dl&file
- Mezera, A. (2005). *Hollandova teorie profesního vývoje. Příručka*. Praha. Retrieved from http://vzdelavani.unas.cz/Holland_typology.doc
- Pasternáková L., & Laca, S. (2011). *Ponímanie osobnosti učiteľa v súčasnej škole*. Retrieved from <https://www.pulib.sk/web/kniznica/elpub/dokument/Istvan1/subor/Pasternakova.pdf>
- Ruisel, I., & Halama, P. (2007). *NEO päťfaktorový osobnostný inventár (podľa NEO Five Factor Inventory P. T. Costu a R. R. McCraeho)*. Praha: Testcentrum-Hogrefe.
- Sós, T. (2018). The interrelations of competency expectations in connection with career-starter skilled workers in the counties of Northern Hungary. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(2), 54-62. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0011

Are Slovak Universities Prepared to Create the Department of Geragogy and Train Future Geragogues?

*Beáta Balogová – Veronika Kmetóny Gazdová**

Received: January 7, 2019; received in revised form: February 18, 2019;
accepted: February 20, 2019

Abstract:

Introduction: The authors of this paper base their research on the following assumption: the development of both geragogic education (older adult education) and profession is conditioned by the existence of a study program of geragogy provided by departments of geragogy created at universities (as public institutions of higher education). The fact remains that a qualified training of geragogues is absent in the Slovak conditions.

Purpose: When compiling a graduate profile, inclusive of a list of competences that a geragogue should possess, a range of specific local circumstances needs to be taken into consideration. Subsequently, it is necessary to define a position of a geragogue. Geragogue is a professional working in the field of senior education, just like a pedagogue or an adult educator work in their fields. It is also important to identify and accentuate the philosophical and social context in which these professionals are confronted with the demands of today's society, in a form of a society based on knowledge, questions of the ongoing social changes and defining the meaning of life.

Results: The task of creating the department and program of geragogy is formulated as a social demand of the time, debunking the current myth of the crisis of universities. In history, a university was a vital place where the values serving social integration emerged. It was also a practice field for the educators to train so they could spread these values and transform them into social skills.

Conclusion: In the conclusion, the authors propose key areas of undergraduate training of geragogues, including the definition of

* Beáta Balogová, University of Prešov, Faculty of Arts, Department of Education and Social Work, Slovakia; beata.balogova@unipo.sk
Veronika Kmetóny Gazdová, University of Prešov, Faculty of Arts, Department of Education and Social Work, Slovakia; veronika.kmetony.gazdova@unipo.sk

institutional anchoring, with the goal to contribute to ongoing professional discussion and to creation of the department and the program of geragogy.

Key words: geragogy, adult education, senior, study program and department, university

Introduction

When establishing the main goal of their paper, the authors started with the following assumption: the development of both geragogic education (older adult education) and profession is conditioned by the existence of a study program of geragogy available at universities (as public institutions of higher education) and which will also address the key competences of a geragogue while taking into account the needs of a senior population. According to Novosad (1994), the basic drive behind the perpetuation of sciences lies in a quest for scientific knowledge that is a multifaceted phenomenon and as such, it also concerns a system of education. The Slovak system of education has undergone significant changes over the past fifty years, ranging from establishing new institutions, study programs, educational sciences, defining professional competences of pedagogues, andragogues and geragogues to the compilation of graduate profiles. Following the analysis of andragogical classifications, especially those of Palán and Langer (2009), who divide the disciplines into basic and applied, we can see that they include gerontopedagogics (in our definition geragogy) in the applied disciplines. Mapping scientific field of geragogy increases in accordance with the increase of the demographic curve of senior population. Vacinová (2011) lists the authors who greatly contributed to the development of gerontopedagogy - geragogy. They are Lívečka (1979), Petřková (1999), Jesenský (2000), and Mühlpachr (2004). Kořa et al. (2007) provide another classification of andragogical scientific disciplines and includes gerontology in the basic andragogical disciplines, removing it from the group of applied (or fringe) disciplines.

1 Prerequisites for the development of gerontological education (education of seniors)

Based on the assumption that science is a set of systematic, methodical, and rational discernment of objective reality, we can say that the subject of geragogy is the education of seniors in the context of formal and informal education settings provided by educational institutions for seniors¹. Considering the education of seniors, we agree with Čornaničová (2007) that specialized, wider

¹ These institutions undoubtedly include also the University of the Third Age (hereinafter referred to as the U3A) and the Academy of the Third Age (hereinafter referred to as the A3A) aimed at education of seniors.

organized education of seniors appeared in the 1970s as a new phenomenon of educational and training practice². Thus, education becomes a symbol of a new, active, goal-oriented, and informed approach of a senior to his or her life that takes place against the background of the constitution of geragogy as an independent scientific discipline. It is a certain challenge and perhaps even some demand of Pan-European nature (based on the requirement of lifelong education and active aging) of qualified theorists to develop a theoretical platform and practical application of geragogy. In the words of Švec (1998), science develops only if there are scientific discourses and polemics about the same phenomena and results, and if science responds to the demands of society. Sciences should respond to different social trends, such as a complex of demographic, economic, and social factors that have initiated and will initiate structural changes within society as well as in the European context, which has placed these systems under the pressure of adaptation and modernization in the spirit of postmodernism. Such disputes and demands also affect geragogy. Today, the main goal is to engage in a professional dialogue issues concerning the establishment of geragogy in the scientific community taking into account already implemented scientific research and activities, respecting a certain chronology of the development of science. Following this process is beneficial for a few reasons. First, it helps to lay theoretical foundations for the formulation of the terminology, subject, goal, content, and methods of a new concept of the basics of geragogy in the context of theory and practice. Second, it opens certain possibilities for professional training of geragogues and for the further development of geragogy. Having in mind that the form methodological self-reflection of social sciences is changing, we must say that self-reflections aimed at finding links between the subject, theory and methodology have been forced out by self-reflections focused on relationships between the formulation and the solution of certain problems on one hand, and specific methods and theories on the other hand, whilst taking into account historical, cultural, and social situation of social knowledge. Thus, the determinant role establishes processes that are rightly referred to as scientification of social life (such as the increase in the number of seniors in society), where the known and consciously regulated phenomena are traditionally placed against those that are spontaneous, vital and out of our control. Their relationship is not only of the alternate nature (either-or); both the known and consciously regulated are of higher value and are considered to be more productive and historically more promising. Keller (2012) asserts that the differences in methodological positions can be deduced also from the multifaceted heritage of thought especially from philosophy, history, and anthropology, to which individual sciences and their paradigms are closely or more loosely linked. The result is the duality of approaches. Duality of

² However, the first U3A in Slovakia was established at the Comenius University in 1990 and the network of U3A has gradually expanded.

objectivist and subjectivist approaches can be traced throughout the whole history of sociological thought. This duality has later transferred in the education of seniors and geragogy, and it is manifested in the differences in the concepts of individual investigators, but coexists in the works of the same authors too. Understanding this duality allows them to get to a higher form of knowledge and to a study of different phenomena.

2 The criteria for constituting a new science

Průcha (2009) and Švec (1998) determine certain criteria as the conditions for constituting and establishing a new science. For Průcha (2009) these criteria include the production of scientific literature, production of scientific periodicals, and the existence of study departments at universities. Švec (1998) provides other criteria and emphasizes that geragogy cannot be established as a separate scientific discipline unless it has clearly defined subject of its research, research methods, place in the system of social sciences, its relation to other sciences, the core set of standardized terms and corresponding terminology, key paradigms concerning acceptance of interpretations of current scientific practice that include laws, theory, application, and instrumentation.

Definition of the term and subject of the research of every science is the basic attribute of its consolidation. Several experts and international institutions have attempted to determine the subject of geragogy. Livečka (1979, p. 26, as cited in Čornaničová, 2007) defines geragogy (he uses a term gerontopedagogy) as a “theory of education for old age and in old age.” Pöggeler (1976), Petřková (1994), Wolf et al. (1982) and others define the subject of geragogy along similar lines. Čípová (2011) points to an effective educational focus in geragogy through the definition of geragogy as a theoretical-empirical pedagogical discipline dealing with educational aspects in the third age of life. In the context of education, geragogy follows from andragogy. Határ (2009, p. 39) goes even further and states that “we perceive geragogy as a scientific area (discipline) of educology and gerontology that deals with the theory, methodology, and profession of education aimed at elderly people. It is carried out through goal and age-specific offers of adult education”. Terminologický a výkladový slovník (Glossary of Terms and Definitions) (Hotár et al., 2000, p. 147) defines geragogy as an emerging scientific discipline within the differentiated and specialized sciences of education, according to the age phasing of the education process of a person. It focuses on examination and systemization of knowledge related to the preparation for old age and ageing in pre-senior education, on actual education of seniors, and on trans-generational education focused on senior and intergenerational issues. Čornaničová (2007) confirms this establishing and constituting process and says that the term geragogy cannot be regarded as generally accepted within the terminology of sciences of education in domestic or foreign literature. The very inconsistency surrounding even the

name of this scientific discipline confirms the direction towards its separation as an independent scientific discipline. The subject of geragogy is the study and systematization of knowledge related to the widely understood education in relation to the senior age of a person. In terms of generation and target orientation of its educational activities, the subject of geragogy can be divided into three areas: actual senior education, pre-senior education and pro-senior education. In terms of specialization aspects of andragogy, the subject of geragogy includes: culture and public awareness education in relation to senior age, socially oriented educational programs for seniors, and professionally oriented educational activities for seniors. Švec (1998) critically addressed the terminological justification of the name and subject of geragogy and he states that “geragogy cannot be referred to as a scientific discipline as of now. It does not meet and will not meet any time soon the criteria set for mature scientific disciplines.” Despite this, Švec opines, geragogy is a part of gerontology as a system of sciences about the ageing process, about the specifics of old age and about life of seniors.

The second condition for the process of constitution and establishment of geragogy is the definition of its research methods. Prusáková (2005), Čornaničová (2007), Határ (2009), Balogová (2010) and others have addressed that issue in the past. Specific methods of geragogy that have their own integrated procedures and theoretical backgrounds were proposed. At the same time, what we observe is an interdisciplinary perspective in the rational application of methods used in other scientific disciplines. The choice of proper methodology used in the area of research or education is closely linked with functions that geragogy should serve. These include roles, purpose and activities in which geragogy become meaningful (Čornaničová, 2007). The broad spectrum of geragogy functions includes cognitive, cultural, educational, socio-informative, activating-stimulating and prognostic functions. In the narrower sense, there is also a methodical aspect of the education of seniors in specialized institutions and organizations, in a specific educational program, course or training through projecting objectives, content, rules, methods, organizational forms, means, defining participants and determining ways of assessing educational activities.

The third condition is that geragogy should be included in the system of social sciences and should have a clearly defined relationship to other sciences. Švec (1998) created the General Classification of Sciences and Educational Sciences (Všeobecná klasifikácia vied a vied o výchove). In this context, it can be said that geragogy is in a process of building its theoretical apparatus so it can meet the parameters of the theoretical-empirical level and become a science with all of its attributes. Discussions on its methodological inclusion will undoubtedly be the subject of many studies. In spite of that, we can clearly say that geragogy already has its important place in the human and social science group today.

At the same time, geragogy has very close relations to sciences on which it is based, such as andragogy (in specific instances it relies on androdidactics) or social, cultural and professional andragogy. Equally important is the cooperation with social pedagogy, social work, philosophy, psychology and medicine. Határ (2009) points to the place of andragogy and geragogy in the system of scientific and study programs. He agrees with Švec (1998) that in order to determine the place of both these scientific disciplines in the system of sciences it is necessary to start with the hierarchical classification of educational science that sufficiently reflects the reality of the educational system. From the methodological and systemic perspectives, Švec considers both sciences as autonomous, belonging to the system of human sciences.

An important condition of constituting geragogy is defining the basic terms apparatus, i.e. relevant terminology. In this area too, we can find terms and categories that have a unique status in geragogy. This prompts a fruitful scientific discussion about the effectiveness of using individual terms. An example of this debate is the term senior. When defining the term senior, taking into account the personality development stages, the stage of senior includes both the pre-senior and senior period. In the field of educational activities, the term senior was adopted as a general term referring to a whole population group, which is the focus of geragogic activities. According to Čornaničová (2007) the term senior began to be used in the education practice spontaneously and replaced other terminological definitions that emerged in the fields of medicine, psychology, sociology and other scientific disciplines and which describes a person of older and old age. These terms are also commonly used in an agenda pertaining to retirement and pension schemes in administration. In geriatrics, the term geront is commonly used. It often evokes an image of an old, sick person who is not self-sufficient anymore. In psychological literature, the term senescent was adopted. Some authors use this term to define only the first developmental stage of old age. Legislature uses the term pensioner or applicant (for a pension). The year 1999 was declared by the UN as the International Year of Elders and in this relation the term old was replaced with the term older in conjunction with the substantive person or people. We use the terms “senior” or “older person” to denote both developmental stages, the pre-senior stage as well as the senior stage. When dividing the senior age, it is necessary to differentiate between early, i.e. the third age and later, i.e. the fourth age of old age. Geragogy therefore studies the target groups of senior and pre-senior education as internally highly differentiated and specific groups of seniors. The participants of these processes are perceived as individuals in terms of a complexity of certain psychophysiological characteristics, but also as personalities with specific social roles, value orientations and statuses, i.e. as individualities (Čornaničová, 2007). The European year 2012, as the year of Intergenerational Solidarity and Active Ageing, introduces new more ethical terminology, for example abolishing the term post-productive age of seniors

since many seniors are more active (professionally or in their leisure time) than their younger counterparts. The key terms geragogic theory and practice are education and training of seniors, further education, life-long education/learning and self-education. Life-long learning includes formal, non-formal and informal learning and involves blending and complementing of these forms of learning throughout the whole life. All above-mentioned forms of learning are applicable to seniors.

Finally, another important condition of establishment of geragogy is the existence of basic paradigms. If we accept the definition of paradigm as a system of basic scientific knowledge and methods that guide research in any given field of knowledge in a certain historical period, then we can express the opinion that geragogy and its research can already present a number of research processes that have prepared conditions for the creation of basic paradigms. A paradigm defined as a pattern, a model or an example represents a certain way of thinking, or a basic theoretical-empirical view and attitude orientation that determines what will be examined in the given scientific field, or how will the examined phenomena be interpreted. Thus, the paradigm reflects objective reality and shows the direction of development for the future. If we were to transform this theoretical definition of paradigm into practice, then we can say that the need to develop a competence paradigm is the most pressing issue in geragogy today. We can say that while respecting the post-modern context. Yet another requirement in the process of consolidation of geragogy is being met.

Geragogy has been developing its horizontal as well as vertical level and it should continue to do so. The horizontal level can be seen in the development of micro, mezzo and macro levels, where geragogy addresses the questions of education of individuals, groups and whole communities. The vertical line of development can be seen in the development on a practical, academic level, whereby the demand for a scientific level is also emerging. In terms of specifying geragogic education (education of seniors), it is necessary to emphasize that a senior as an individual, who is primarily a biological entity, happens to be in between the social and natural sciences, from philosophy, psychology, medicine to pedagogy. At the same time, society helps an individual with integration of his or her life experiences and thus creating a healthy, stable, and a self-confident personality. Numerous researches today clearly declare the space for educating seniors, whether in a philosophical-psychological context or in a medical-psychological context. However, in the foreground, there is always a great potential for development. Based on social progress and personal engagement of an individual, it is now possible to create old age better also through plasticity (Gruss, 2009). This plasticity has been reflected not only in the ever-increasing life expectancy, but also in the fact that today's younger elderly are in much better condition than their peers in the past

generations³. Early old age has become more accepted. Therefore, the promotion of educational institutions such as the University of the Third Age or the Academy of the Third Age, together with an offer of specializations for senior education, is the natural culmination of efforts of a knowledge-based society.

3 Qualified training of geragogues - geragogue as a specific profession

The requirement for quality knowledge, skills and competences of a geragogue relates mainly to the aspects on an individual, interpersonal level, but also on a broader organizational and socio-political level. Authors like Belz and Siegrist (2001), Kosova (2006), Švec (1998), Vašutova (2004) and others attempted to define pedagogical competencies. Veteška (2010) and Čipova (2011) similarly defined competencies of an andragogue, but the definition of geragogic competencies is absent. The need to establish geragogy and define the competencies of a geragogue with all the attributes of a profession is a challenging task. Kosova (2006) poses questions of whether we can equip geragogues with a high level of professionalism, whether they will be able to feel and represent professional identity and whether they will know in what it means to be professionals. There are occupations in a form of crafts, semi-professions and professions. To meet the requirements of a profession is not that simple when geragogy is concerned. Professions represent occupational patterns that have a highly developed sets of standards derived from their specific roles in society. Thus, the profession creates a social status of a person in the context of features that are typical for him or her such as:

- strong ideal of serving the society - performing profession for the benefit of society;
- professional identity - professional autonomy and socialization, creating professional associations, professional standards and code of ethics;
- autonomy in decision-making of the professional - independent expert assessment of client's needs;
- demanding expert skills that only members of the profession possess;
- mastering theories of formalized knowledge in the context of high-level long-term training, etc.

Considering the above-mentioned features of the profession, the question arises as to which of them is a geragogue able to acquire. At present, we can only speak of those that are linked to person's individual competences and own reflexivity. Others that are linked to the wider community context cannot be evaluated. The very notion of professional identity as acknowledgement of the

³ For instance, today's septuagenarians are physically and mentally comparable to sexagenarians thirty years ago (Gruss, 2009).

nature of one's professionalism and the place of his or her profession in the system of social categories and relationships is characterized by a high level of self-acknowledgement, autonomy and self-control of performance by the professional community and a high degree of affiliation to the profession. All of these characteristics can be applied in today's conditions with difficulties. Thus, in practice we can only satisfy the requirement concerning the assessment of educational needs of the client - senior while respecting the requirements of specific education of this group and applying specific goals, approaches and methods.

Čípová (2011) agrees with this view and describes what the personality and competences of a geragogue, as an educator of seniors, should be. A geragogue takes on the role of a motivator, facilitator and adviser, who creates a learning climate that corresponds with the needs of senior participants and also activates and motivates them to engage in the learning process. Optimal learning conditions are characterized by a high internal orientation of participants (cognitive, motivational and emotional prerequisites of the participants), participants' level of competences (autonomy) and partnership. Personal competences of a geragogue are known and taken mainly from the adult educator's competencies. However, they lack a broader extent of establishment. The condition of empathetic communication, patience, openness, spontaneity, the ability to adapt quickly to requirements in the educational process and the ability to self-reflect can strongly motivate the senior's personality. With regard to psychological-didactical competences, the author expects the competences: of a social, psychosocial, communication and metacommunication nature.

Based on Belz and Siegrit (2001), it is required to perform the key competences, such as social competences, competences in relation to own personality and competences related to methodology. Muller (2003) and Lombardo (2000) (as cited in Veteška, 2010) offered a different model with the requirement of a broad spectrum in the field of individual development (as cited in Veteška, 2010). Veteška and Tureckiová (2008) offered the most accurate definition of competences required in education. They combine the individual areas of competences with educational goals and require professional competences, personal competences and social competences. The key competences required from a geragogue in relation to the educational process aimed at seniors are: the ability to communicate and cooperate, the ability to solve problems and be creative, the ability to work independently and deliver results, the ability to take on responsibility, ability to think and learn, and the ability to justify and evaluate. This broad concept of key competences of a geragogue is important since the senior educational process is very specific. For instance, seniors use a high degree of pragmatism in their learning, they tend to use methods of critical thinking (analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison), but, on the other hand they use flexible and value reference systems less. Their cognitive and emotional processes like memory, thinking, perception, etc. work in a

different way. In the didactic context, it is necessary to use methodological procedures that would stimulate the motivation of older learners, reflect the individuality of seniors as well as their specific learning styles and overall lifestyles. Besides that, the methods used in older adult education must allow the feedback in the educational process and the application of acquired knowledge in practice. Seniors must be viewed as active participants in the educational process, which means being actively involved in content, forms, methods, and dynamics of the educational process.

Despite the presented reflections on the place and competences of a geragogue in the field of senior education, it is necessary to state that today we cannot talk about a clearly defined profession of a geragogue. That is despite the fact that there are educational institutions, such as universities and academies of the Third Age. Their number and existence is not managed under any official program of the Ministry of Education of the SR (the Ministry provides only recommendation concerning the establishment and operation of universities of the Third Age within universities as a part of life-long learning). There is no clearly stated requirement for a profession of a geragogue. Just the contrary, there are many obstacles to the realization of this expert profession. The obstacles concern legislation or in pre-gradual higher education training. The change of this situation depends largely on changes in legislation and on changes of attitude towards senior education, which needs to be seen not as a possibility, but as a requirement. If these obstacles could be overcome, then a process of establishing the profession of a geragogue can commence. Then successful professional competences of a geragogue will be created from an international and political context, from a legal and methodological context, from value orientation, from key competences and skills, from the application of ethics, from examples of good practice and from the chaos of constituting of the science and profession of geragogy. Despite what has been said, new social conditions of postmodernism require from geragogues in positions of older adult educators and managers be engaged in continuous education and learning, active assessment of personal values emerging in every interaction. They need to be able to understand senior's abilities and reflect the way a senior sees his or her world. It is not only the expert knowledge that is expected from the geragogue. His or her instructional skills (pedagogical, socio-emotional, expressive and technical), managerial skills (application of methods and techniques, management styles, group leadership and an unwritten curriculum) that create space for an effective education of seniors and for search of the meaning of life are equally important. To study natural world means to capture what is most important to all the ways of human life, what we all have in common, what relates to our existence: our prospects, physical existence and finality. Our role is not to avoid the impacts of globalization, but to face the problems that globalization brings. We must do so individually and collectively and take action to face these issues positively in hopes that we can make a positive difference in

response to personal and social problems and promote equal opportunities for education and self-realization potential of everybody - including seniors. Geragogy can play an important role in the “humanization” of society in which the human dimension is disappearing under the pressure of a rapidly evolving world that has been torn by conflicts, discrimination and oppression driven by the pursuit of power and wealth. This often happens at the expense of other important aspects of life, such as compassion, a sense of humanity and spiritual satisfaction. Geragogy can play only a small, yet significant and valuable role.

4 Target groups of geragogic education

The specificities of senior education are that it is necessary to create an integrated program of life-long education focused on professional training and cooperation of primary, secondary and higher education schools. Although there are good universities and research centres in Slovakia, they are often isolated, have minimal influence and lack participation in major European projects. Therefore, it is necessary to create a space for development, promote the transfer of knowledge into real practice, and support excellence. We also need to create a space for education of seniors knowing that education in every sense plays an important role in a life of both the individual and society. Education is an important factor of employment, but it also plays an important part in social integration of a person, so that he or she do not feel isolated and lonely but they know how to adapt to social changes. Education has also political significance, since educated people react differently to political changes, democracy, global issues, they have a different perspective, different knowledge, they are more resistant to demagoguery and populism, half-truths, manipulations, nationalism, xenophobia and fanaticism. Education is also a significant cultural factor, through which it is possible to promote ethical and legal standards, build understanding and respect which in turn improves interpersonal relationships. Education helps to preserve and develop cultural heritage that every nation needs to pass on to future generations especially through life-long and further education aimed at all classes of the population, not excluding seniors.

When developing target programs of the geragogy study department, we can include pre-senior education, senior education and pro-senior education as part of generational target education activities. They are implemented as part of the short-term, mid-term and long-term preparation for ageing and old age using selected forms of education in old age, which include: Universities of the Third Age, Academies of the Third Age, Virtual Universities of the Third Age, Intergenerational education and Daily centres. Other programs include: Senior Centres, Educational programs 50+, 60+, 70+; Cultural-Educational Activities, Summer Camps and Summer schools, Thematic tours, etc.

Mead and Bateson offer significant inspiration for the education process of seniors in their concept of “deutero-learning” - “learning to learn”. In the process

of teaching and learning they ascribe the primary and decisive role to the social context and methods of transferring knowledge rather than to the content itself. Mead (as cited in Bauman, 2004) concluded that the social structure of the society and the methods of learning, transferring knowledge from mothers to daughters, from fathers to sons, from uncles to nephews..., are more important than the content of education itself, through which individuals are learning to think, as well as the method, in which the overall set of different knowledge and skills is shared and used. "Proto-teaching" is the opposite of deuterio-learning. It is the process of primary learning, or the learning of first level, when contents and results can be monitored and recorded, or even scheduled and planned. However, deuterio-learning is a hidden, unconscious process and it is especially during this process, when learners acquire knowledge important for their lives ... without it, the results of learning would be rigid minds unable to adapt to different situations ... Bateson (as cited in Bauman, 2004) sums his theory by claiming that deuterio-learning, "learning to learn", is an essential addition to the whole proto-teaching, because without deuterio-learning, the results of "first degree learning" would be rigid minds, incapable to adapt to different situations, they were not prepared for in advance. Later Bateson concludes the concept of second degree learning with the concept of "third degree learning - tertiary learning". Here, the taught person acquires skills to modify the set of alternatives, with which he or she learned to work during deuterio-learning. The reason to adapt this concept is "a feeling of general crisis". Our time excels in deconstructing frameworks and demolishing patterns, suddenly and without warning. Under these circumstances, tertiary education gains sovereign adaptation value and becomes almost the key component of "necessary equipment for life". Life in this postmodern era (referred to as late modernity, reflexive modernity or surmodernity by others) helps the argument. This postmodern time puts great demands on people of its time in a form of immediate destruction of existing patterns which must be replaced with new ones at once. It can be said that life success and rationality of postmodern men and women depends on how fast they are able to get rid of old habits and how fast they are able to learn new ones. According to Bauman (2004), "in tertiary learning there is the habit of working without habits".

The postmodern world places emphasis on tertiary education, however neither the actors themselves, nor the educational institutions are prepared for it. The existing education builds on established structures (it is clear, who is the student, the teacher and what is the content of education). We must accept the existence of education without a structure, where even the democratic society itself can be perceived as a "giant pedagogical institution" (Castoriadis, as cited in Bauman, 2004). And so in this context we experience a general feeling of crisis, and a crisis of universities. In history, a university was a vital place where the values serving social integration emerged. It was also a practice field for the educators to train so they could spread these values and transform them into social skills.

None of this is true today. Technological advancement reduces the life-span of knowledge for which we are awarded university diploma. Short-term professional education provided by non-university settings has been used today more often.

This process university crisis can be changed by the process of excellence of universities and their departments, and by a variety of educational programs that would respect the requirements of our times, would quickly react to socio-cultural changes and demands of potential learners. With that in mind, let us answer the question: What is the role of university education? The answer is: university education should also instil tolerance towards diversity and otherness, strengthen courage to accept responsibility for own choices, practice the ability to change frameworks and encourage freedom to accept anxiety over uncertainty that brings freedom with joy from the new and unknown.

5 Response of the international socio-political environment to demographic trends

In recent years, the socio-political space of international structures is reacting to demographic changes, which are affected mainly by population growth and an increasing age of population (see also Simándi, 2018; Goriup & Lahe, 2018). This demographic trend introduces new problems in relation to socio-political measures, which would ensure tools for questions of old age, ageing and quality of life of this target group in the form of activities focused on their social, economic and cultural specifics.

The discussion on support in this area in the context of international socio-political sphere started more intensely in 1993. That year was declared the European Year of Older People and Solidarity between Generations. However, this issue was not a one-off in the centre of international political attention and political representations dealt with it also in 1999, which was declared the International Year of Older Persons. 2012 was thus far the last year that was linked to previous ones and was devoted to issues of ageing and risks this phenomenon entails in the life of a person. The European Year for Active Ageing and Solidarity between Generations aimed to integrate this selected target group into social life and strengthen solidarity between generations that should have been implemented not only in the international field, but also on regional and local level, using a decentralization model, focused on active measures in the field of economic, cultural and social life of seniors and improvement of processes of intergenerational communication.

In addition to the EU, the World Health Organization also dealt with the concept of active ageing and defined this phenomenon as: “the process of optimization of opportunities for health, participation and safety, with the aim of promoting quality of life in the aging process” (Active 2002). The Vienna European Centre for Social Policy and Research continued in this issue and created the so-called

Active Ageing Index. This measurable indicator consisting of four domains (employment, participation on life of society, independent, healthy and safe life, capacity and support conditions for active aging) was based on the assumption that by increasing the average lifespan, people will participate on the formal labour market longer, just like in other unpaid productive activities, and they will be able to live independently and autonomously” (Zaidi, Lelkes, & Hofmarcher, 2012, as cited in Repková, 2015).

The European model, in terms of rights and obligations of its signatories, is transposed also into national legislatures. In the Slovak Republic, the concept that covers this area (Europe 2020) is reflected in the document National Program of Active Aging for 2014 - 2020 approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic approved in 2013. Slovakia committed to accept the principles in the creation of public policy supporting active aging, such as the principles of dignity, equal treatment, gender equality, solidarity, self-realization, participation, etc. The reflection of international socio-political environment is an equally important indicator in the implementation of measures that have made the senior issue one of the basic priorities that should be (and must be) addressed.

Conclusion

As the creators of content, setting, form and method of senior education we should acknowledge the great responsibility that comes with the creation of senior education. Nevertheless, we would like to argue that if these considerations are true, there is the task to create the theory of formative process with an open goal that will be set by the learner, in our case the senior. In creating programs for seniors, respecting the theory of Baltes and Mead, it is possible to create strategies leading to promotion of mental equilibrium proposed by Švancar (as cited in Kalvach et al., 2004), who provides seniors with a program entitled Five points of optimal adaptation, which are 1. prospect, 2. flexibility, 3. foresight, 4. understanding others, 5. joy. Two thousand years ago, Marcus Tullius Cicero stated that feasting, revels, sexual pleasure and gladiator matches are not for the elderly. They can, however, get much pleasure from nature, arts and learning about the world. Research confirms this statement, because seniors say that learning brings them much happiness and joy. It is the joy of contact with other people, joy of own creativity and also the creativity of the team.

Majority of today’s seniors enter the new millennium with a strong sense of danger. They are increasingly concerned about the situation of a human in an accelerated period of consumer hypertrophy. For the senior to succeed in this process, he or she should be sufficiently equipped to be able to accept social changes. A modification of Baltes’ deuterio-learning to the level of tertiary learning can be of great help. The Senior creates content, forms and methods of

learning independently. According to Hiemstr (2002, as cited in Rabušicová, 2006) there are three forces behind the need of life-long learning. The first is the speed and permanence of technological, economical, and social changes, which, if not anticipated in school systems, will lead to a “shock from the future”. Secondly, there is a speed, at which our knowledge, with which we enter the labour market, becomes obsolete, Knowledge and technologies keep changing every 15 years and we are all in danger of being only half competent to do our job in this period, for which we were originally trained. Therefore, an adult should be repeatedly engaged in educational activities. The third force is a significant change in value orientation which has been recorded by European societies since the 1970s. This change lies in significant individualization of lifestyles, self-actualization, knowledge that a full-fledged life is possible only with maximization of individual potentials.

These fundamental philosophical-methodological concepts have contributed to the establishment of geragogy as a separate field, to the definition of basic requirements for a geragogue training, with an emphasis on meeting the needs of the educated - who is a long-time active senior. Despite this constitutional shift, it remains a challenge for the professional public to continue to seek the most fitting definition of geragogy, to add goals, methods and content to the educational process in a symmetric atmosphere of a geragogue and a senior, in the context of social events. What is also needed is a clear definition of competences that a geragogue must possess in order to work with seniors. Defining criteria for a geragogue’s pre-graduate training must not be omitted either.

References

- Balogová B. (2010). Profesionální kompetence sociálního andragóga na UTV a ATV. In C. Határ, L. Fenyvesiová, M. Miklošíková et al. (Eds.), *Profesionální kompetence pracovníků v edukaci dětí, mládeže a dospělých* (pp. 7-33). Ostrava: VŠB, Technická univerzita.
- Bauman, Z. (2004). *Individualizovaná společnost*. Praha: Mladá fronta.
- Belz, H., & Siegrist, M. (2001). *Klíčové kompetence a jejich rozvíjení*. Praha: Portál.
- Čípová, Š. (2011). Geragogické proměny ovlivňující edukační rovinu seniorů. In J. Veteška, T. Vacinová et al. (Eds.), *Aktuální otázky vzdělávání dospělých* (pp. 121-151). Praha: UJAK.
- Čornaničová, R. (2007). *Edukácia seniorov. Vznik, rozvoj, podnety pre geragogiku*. Bratislava: FF UK.

- Goriup, J., & Lahe, D. (2018). The role of education and knowledge about aging in creating young people's attitudes to the elderly. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(1), 63-75. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0004
- Gruss, P. (2009). *Pespektivy stárnutí*. Praha: Portál.
- Határ, C. (2009). *Sociálna pedagogika, sociálna andragogika a sociálna práca*. Praha: Česká andragogická spoločnosť.
- Hotár, S. V., Paška, P., Perhács, J. et al. (2000). *Výchova a vzdelávanie dospelých - andragogika. Terminologický a výkladový slovník*. Bratislava: Svornosť.
- Jesenský, J. (2000). *Andragogika a gerontagogika handicapovaných*. Praha: UK - Karolinum.
- Kalvach, Z. et al. (2004). *Geriatric a gerontologie*. Praha: Grada Publishing.
- Keller, J. (2012). Sociologie jako konstrukt středních vrstev. *Sociológia*, 44(4), 407-431.
- Kosová, B. (2006). Profesia a profesionalita učiteľa. *Pedagogická revue*, 58(1), 1-13.
- Koťa, J. et al. (2007). *Pedagogika pro učitele*. Praha: Grada Publishing.
- Livečka, E. (1979). *Úvod do gerontopedagogiky*. Praha: Ústav školských informací MŠ ČR.
- Mühlpachr, P. (2004). *Gerontopedagogika*. Brno: Masarykova Univerzita.
- Novosad, F. (1994). *Vysvetľovanie rukami*. Bratislava: Iris.
- Palán, Z., & Langer, T. (2009). *Základy andragogiky*. Praha: UJPK.
- Petřková, A. (1994). Vzdelávaní seniorů jako aktuální problém vzdelávaní dospělých. In V. Bočková, *Aktuální problémy výchovy a vzdelávaní dospělých* (pp. 24-32). Olomouc: UP.
- Petřková, A. (1999). *Aktuální problémy vzdelávaní seniorů*. Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého.
- Pöggeler, F. (1976). *Erwachsenenbildung. Einführung in die Andragogik*. Stuttgart.
- Prusáková, V. (2005). *Základy andragogiky*. Bratislava: Gerlach Print.
- Rabušicová, M. (2006). Miesto vzdelávaní dospělých v konceptu celoživotního učení. *Studia Paedagogica*, 54(11), 14-26.
- Repková, K. (2015). Podpora aktívneho starnutia. In B. Balogová (Ed.), *Kompendium sociálnej práce pre bakalársky stupeň štúdia* (pp. 319-323). Prešov: Pavol Šidelský - Akcent print.
- Simándi, Sz. (2018). Intergenerational learning - Lifelong learning. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 8(2), 63-71. doi: 10.2478/atd-2018-0012

- Švec, Š. (1998). *Metodológia vied o výchove*. Bratislava: IRIS.
- Vašutová, J. (2004). Profesionalismus vysokoškolských učitelů v reflexi nového paradigmatu vzdělávání. *Academia*, 15(4), 12-17.
- Veteška, J., & Tureckiová, M. (2008). *Další vzdělávání jako nástroj rozvoje jednotlivce i společnosti*. Praha: UJAK.
- Veteška, J. (2010). *Kompetence ve vzdělávání dospělých*. Praha: UJAK.
- Wolf, J. et al. (1982). *Umění žít a stárnout*. Praha: Svoboda.

Some Issues Concerning Values in Measuring Achievements in Education

*Mátyás Turós**

Received: November 9, 2018; received in revised form: February 7, 2019;
accepted: February 10, 2019

Abstract:

Introduction: This study analyzes the mode of value transmission and those set of values that promote the measurement of educational outcomes.

Purpose: The focus of this contribution is to discover helpful guidelines for a set of educational values.

Methods: In the present study, we applied source analysis as a traditional research method in the philosophy of education.

Conclusion: We would like to point out that education is the observation, consideration and formation of needs and, at the same time, pedagogy is at least as a regulating as a descriptive kind of an activity. The ideal educational system of methods and objectives are neither open nor closed, it only contains elements that provide possibilities for the individual to fulfill requirements in quantity and quality according to their aptitude. On the other hand, it assures forming behavior and socialization simultaneously.

Key words: socialization, education, norms, values.

Introduction - normative and norm-critical concepts in values and in value transmission

A key topic in educational theory and a fundamental paradox is how to derive and control the legitimacy of the transition between the individual and the social, the natural and the spiritual. It is a fact that the mechanism of negotiations between the individual and the social organizations operates in a bureaucratic, institutional and organizational network and turns out to be far too complicated in the social, technical and economic systems in a democratic society. For this reason, a person conforming to norms can realize their intentions in cooperation with other people. A straightforward interpretation following this is that socialization requiring cooperation creates the ability in an individual to come to accurate social and personal predictions in a way that this ability helps the

* Mátyás Turós, Doctoral School of Pedagogical Sciences, Eszterházy Károly University, Eger, Hungary; turosmatyas@gmail.com

individual to avoid or keep unpleasant sanctions and consequences at a tolerable level in one's personal life. The majority of social, societal norms producing patterns keep the possibility of failure low and maintain stability in one's life. School is basically the informal, individualized system of conditions in a family's social space and it necessarily transmits norms and values while serving as a transition toward the formal, social system of conditions. Very often, conceptions of powerful organizations of society represented by institutional education are realized in norms and they are to play a significant role in preserving the stability of society and in enhancing a peaceful coexistence and personal success. In this respect, one of the most important objectives of education is to improve the ability in the student to make individually successful, accurate, and socially valuable predictions as a social agent. Furthermore, the objective of educational institutions during the process of transmitting values and fostering personal development is to enable the individual gradually to carry out their social tasks with an acceptable human behavior. In the process of value transmission, norms that are transmitted are to be regarded as permanent within time and space but not within the different societies or not as being timeless and universal. Fulfilling the function of socialization in education is essential but applying norms over the boundaries of legal practice reduces the impulses coming from the individual toward the community, and extreme normativity creates antipathy and later resistance. Finally, methods of pedagogy overestimating socialization agents, interpreting themselves coming from authority, belong here as well, which, by connecting the concepts of education and community too closely and directly together, tend to forget about the individualizing, humanizing and moralizing function of education producing destructive results (Mészáros, 2015; Trencsényi & Nagy, 2016, pp. 88-89). It is presented through:

- 1) social level-straightforward, deterrent examples of oppressive, repressive social systems;
- 2) institutional level-ineffectiveness in the transmission of values, because educators who praise their professional autonomy are not willing to accept the detailed description of procedures reducing the diversity of pedagogical situations.

1 The criticism of criticism

Experiments trying to overcome the basically normative approach began in the 19th century (Dilthey, [1888] 1962) until the birth of the Sciences of Education. In the 20th century pedagogy, the educational process already had at least three concepts. The first one was the free concept, in which educational process was identified with the individual's spontaneous, mainly biological development. The second one underlined the social aspect of education or understood education as a result of effects on the individual coming from the environment. In the third one, education was received in a community and in institutions where

personality was shaped by pre-planned, predictable effects (Oelkers, 2000). Now, at the beginning of the 21st century, it seems that norm-critical educational theories formulate valuable sub-goals but they cannot separate from normativity wished to be exceeded.

According to Ruhloff (1979), although the Emancipatory Pedagogy denies most norms, it is against all kinds of power and ideology, still it is built on four dogmas:

- 1) belief in the senselessness of having power over other people;
- 2) belief in human history and in the possibility of the evolution of a more perfect rationality;
- 3) belief in the fact that the requirements of fairness can be achieved if people understand each other;
- 4) belief in the absolute reason for a democratic turn in history.

Based on Freire (2005) and McLaren (2015), it may seem that the main aim of the empiricist, critical and norm-critical tendencies in pedagogy is creating a scientifically proven educational technology. Although, the necessary conditions here prevail as well:

- 1) to assess the different behaviors according to criteria, to keep up selection;
- 2) to give help and points of reference in education while teaching how to live one's life;
- 3) to explain empirical reality and to trans-illuminate it with thinking.

Therefore, besides applying processes adjusted to the actual pedagogical situation, pedagogy cannot do without an image of a general set of agreed objectives (Hanan, 2008, 2016; Penalva, 2014; Vajda, 2014, 48-53; Jozek, 2015; Krek & Zabel, 2017). The theoretical and practical tasks of pedagogy are to formulate values to be generalized at the different levels; and to achieve a balance in conforming to external and internal norms in the educational process and to create an innate need for this balance in the individual that is later upheld by self-control. Henceforth, the emphasis is on these two.

2 Educational values

Various reasons are offered for the fact that development is unimaginable without teleologicalness. At the same time, it is obvious that moral and educational objectives, depending on the different views on human nature and social expectations, might be valued high or low, and very often are manipulated by the different worldviews (Sáska, 2006). This can be eliminated by interpreting education in an objective, idealistic, value theoretical way. This reveals significant, common and positive elements of the various views and it derives the objective of education from the evaluating conscientiousness of the individual independent from social practices. In the literature (Bábosik, 2000), we can find educational aims that are general, ideologically independent and form the human being into a value-orientated, deliberately moral, independent but social being within the boundaries of education:

- 1) the ability for self-regulation makes it possible to synchronize the external expectations and the internal needs, intentions;
- 2) the sense of reality can help the individual to examine and modify already internalized norms according to their experiences in reality;
- 3) rationality enables the individual to provide reasons for already internalized norms regulating their behavior;
- 4) sensibility enables one to take into consideration the social consequences of one's deeds and other people's interests, problems and motives.
- 5) creativity is the ability to develop and refine the system of behavioral norms innovatory and independently;
- 6) social extensivity makes it possible to generally apply accepted social norms outside the small group, in all other groups as well as;
- 7) being able to check legitimacy is the ability not just to adapt to normative expectations but to reconsider their grounds.

Two possibilities can be highlighted from the various ways these criteria can be grouped. According to the first grouping, the ability for self-regulation means a human being who conducts life, individual and social activities by inner instincts and ceases to behave according to the situations. The ability of social extensivity and sensibility opens up the possibility to rise above the personal and communal interests, to be selfless and be focused on the community.

The sense of reality, rationality, creativity and being able to check legitimacy all contribute to making it impossible for someone to be manipulated, to pair up self-direction with self-control, where it is essential that self-regulation does not mean that the internalized system of norms should become rigid, functioning purposelessly; but should continuously develop, differentiate and enrich in its elements.

The second grouping helps to dissolve the discrepancy between the purely personal and purely social by pairing up the criteria around one central element: sensibility. The ability for self-regulation and being able to check legitimacy ensures the simultaneous possibilities for stability and improvement and the balance between the internal and external points of reference. The sense of reality and social extensivity contribute to a behavior that is critical, but considers social viewpoints as well. Creativity and rationality harmonize the person's emotional and cognitive dimensions, this way supports the ability of a person to be able to change their social judgments and self-reflection.

These educational objectives do not exclude other positive aims, factors and sub-goals such as discipline, helpfulness, openness, cooperation which can be derived from them. In the process of transmitting values, the transitions between them cannot be left out of consideration, more precisely; they are adjusted to the developmental stages and the mode of transmission.

3 Transition of values

The existence of control in moral-social behavior and the existence of factors taking place during socialization in a personality, as well as, the development of a moral disposition, were linked to internalizing moral norms and as such were regarded cognitive in nature by the intellectual tendency. Psychoanalysis regarded them as experiential in nature linking it to the internalizing of the moral-social norms of the primary caretakers. Behaviorism regarded them as a characteristic feature based on conditioning and recurrence, so it is an ingrained habit in nature. As we can see from this, psychology described the principles of creating the system of moral criteria controlling behavior with three mechanisms being cognitive, emotional and willful, but in the institutional, value teaching processes, these three features are rarely present at the same time and in equal measures. Cognition, as one of the agents of socialization, became overrated because cognitive sciences were declared to be independent and it was acknowledged that socialization was a complex process that could not be explained only by reflexes and reinforcement. One of the valuable contributions of modern pedagogy is that personal development and the gradual decline of external controls; in other words, the appearance of freedom and responsibility simultaneously and at an equal level; is possible because of a general, and not an exclusively intellectual, maturity of the personality. Reaching it is defined by the road taken from a formally heteronym, externally controlled, impulsive-egocentric-in-content kind of behavior to a formally autonomous, internally controlled, norm-keeping-altruistic-in-content type of principles guiding behavior. Because of this, it is worth considering that:

- 1) in personal development, a good result comes from a kind of support that keeps in view individual sensibilities on each agent, child developmental stages and all three horizons at the same time;
- 2) the student is not a passive recipient, in other words, a student is someone who confronts norms already intact, outspokenly or unspoken, as well as, their conscious or unconscious objectives of life by school requirements; what is the source of conflicts between teacher-student, student-institute and the source of mutual socialization; for the educator, it serves as a source of touching the impulses for the future of humans, a source of shaping future based on understanding these impulses (at the same time, performing the descriptive and controlling functions of pedagogy);
- 3) transmitting values and shaping personality are not the only best, but high-ranking ways for creating a positive and a generalized feeling of lack; where this feeling of lack means the difference between the child developmental stage and the aim, and the task of pedagogy is resolving this difference (Bábosik et al., 2011);
- 4) children practice how to keep to social norms and how to cooperate during their public education with far fewer consequences than later in adult life. Along with this, besides ensuring the emotional safety of a child and

promoting harmony between the circumstances and relations, the potential and the task of education are to assist and to urge the student to surpass themselves, which process might involve inner and outer conflicts for the student.

Conclusion

The possibilities in education and educational affairs in a democratic society are far from being under total control (mechanization) or total self-regulation (atomization). The proportion of being self-regulated and under external sanctions and keeping up a good balance in them are required to be optimal at all levels in the system, regarding the educational values and the transition of values as well. Individuals are not the only sufferers of social integration, and social development does not only emerge on the level of individuals: individual and society are mutually interdependent. For this reason, modern pedagogy simultaneously ensures that: 1) besides shaping personality, students are offered choices; in other words, while conforming to norms, nobody is forced to move away from their own urges, desires, ideals in life; 2) the various outcomes and divergences do not obstruct students from orientating towards a meaningful and constructive activity that is linked to a social subsystem and also from becoming capable of carrying that task out.

References

- Bábosik, I. (2000). Az iskola nevelési hatékonyságának mutatói. *Új pedagógiai szemle*, 50(4), 3-11.
- Bábosik, I., Borosán L., Hunyady Gy., M. Nádasi, M., & Schaffhauser F. (2011). *Pedagógia az iskolában*. Budapest: ELTE Eötvös.
- Dilthey, W. (1888). Möglichkeit einer allgemeingültigen pädagogischen Wissenschaft. In (1962) *Gesammelte Schriften. Band VI., Die Geistige Welt 2. Hälfte*. Stuttgart/Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht.
- Freire, P. (2005). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. London: Continuum.
- Hanan, A. A. (2008). What is common about common schooling? Rational autonomy and moral agency in liberal democratic education. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 41(4), 609-624. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9752.2007.00592.x
- Hanan, A. A. (2016). What is critical about critical pedagogy? Conflicting conceptions of criticism in the curriculum. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 50(10), 903-916. doi: 10.1080/00131857.2016.1228519
- Jozek, M. (2015). Interpersonal communication in the process of value formation. *Acta Technologica Dubnicae*, 4(2), 36-42. doi: 10.1515/atd-2015-0004

- Krek, J., & Zabel, B. (2017). Why there is no education ethics without principles. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 49(3), 284-293. doi: 10.1080/00131857.2016.1217188
- McLaren, P. (2015). *Life in Schools. An Introduction to Critical Pedagogy in the Foundations of Education*. New York: Routledge.
- Mészáros, Gy. (2015). Beilleszkedésre nevelünk?: A társadalmi normák szerepe, változó normák, a normák elnyomó dimenziója, a normakritikus pedagógia. In K. N. Kollár & N. Rapos, (Eds.), *A társas, társadalmi viszonyok* (pp. 13-20). Budapest: ELTE Eötvös.
- Oelkers, J. (2000). Democracy and education: About the future of a problem. In J. Oelkers & H. Rhyne (Eds.), *Dewey and European Education* (pp. 3-19). Dordrecht: Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-94-011-4185-7
- Penalva, J. (2014). The non-theoretical view on educational theory: Scientific, epistemological and methodological assumptions. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 48(3), 400-415. doi: 10.1111/1467-9752.12087
- Ruhloff, J. (1979). *Das ungelöste Normproblem der Pädagogik. Eine Einführung*. Heidelberg: Quelle und Weyr.
- Sáska, G. (2006). Az oktatási ideológiák változékonyságáról: a 19. és a 20. századi liberális oktatáspolitikák. *Új pedagógiai szemle*, 56(10), 36-55.
- Trencényi, L., & Nagy, Á. (2016). Tanórán innen, iskolán túl: a szociálpedagógiai gondolat létjogosultsága. *Iskolakultúra* 26(10), 81-97. doi: 10.17543/ISKKULT.2016.10.81
- Vajda, Zs. (2014). *A gyermek pszichológiai fejlődése*. Budapest: Saxum.

The Pedagogical Work of Vieth and GutsMuths¹

*Irén Virág**

Received: September 19, 2018; received in revised form: October 20, 2018;
accepted: October 22, 2018

Abstract:

Introduction: Philanthropism as it evolved at the end of the 18th century in Germany wanted to break completely with the contemporary methods persisting in education, with the hegemony of classical languages, and with the study of antique authors' works; instead, it laid emphasis on practical and useful knowledge, on teaching modern languages, on acquiring knowledge based on demonstration, and on an intimate connection to nature. The aim of philanthropist education was to train virtuous citizens who honestly pursue their ordinary profession, in whose training they assigned a central role to physical education.

Purpose: In our paper, which is a part of our research exploring the appearance of the pedagogical ideas of philanthropism in Hungary, we set out to investigate the question: What was the focus of physical education in the philanthropinums? As a first step in our investigation, we give an overview of the philanthropists' ideas regarding physical education, then we take a close look at how these ideas were put into practice in two selected institutions, namely among the walls of the philanthropinums in Dessau and Schnepfenthal, by relying on the contemporary works of Gerhard Ulrich Anton Vieth and Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths. Finally, we consider their impact in Hungary.

Methods: In this study we apply the source analysis as a traditional research method in the history of education.

Conclusions: The impact of philanthropism on contemporary Hungarian public education, especially in the first half of the 19th century, can be clearly detected, which can be accredited to study trips to Germany and the Hungarian translations of German works. The presence of philanthropism can also be perceived in swimming instruction. Basedow and GutsMuths initiated the instruction of swimming and lifeguarding, and the general institutionalization of swimming instruction. The impact of philanthropists could also be felt in Hungary. Károly (Carl) Csillagh's textbook on swimming appeared in German in 1841 with the title "Der

¹ The first author's research was supported by the grant EFOP-3.6.1-16-2016-00001 ("Complex improvement of research capacities and services at Eszterházy Károly University").

* Irén Virág, Eszterházy Károly University, Institute for Education, Eger, Hungary; virag.iren@uni-eszterhazy.hu

philantropische Schwimmmeister” (“The Philanthropist Swimming Instructor”). The first book on swimming in Hungarian appeared in 1842.

Key words: history of education, education, philanthropy, physical education.

Introduction

Philanthropism as it evolved at the end of the 18th century in Germany wanted to break completely with the contemporary methods persisting in education, with the hegemony of classical languages, and with the study of antique authors' works; instead, it laid emphasis on practical and useful knowledge, on teaching modern languages, on acquiring knowledge based on demonstration, and on an intimate connection to nature. The aim of philanthropist education was to train virtuous citizens who honestly pursue their ordinary profession, in whose training they assigned a central role to physical education.

1 The philanthropists on physical education

The first prominent representative of philanthropism was Johann Bernhard Basedow (1723-1790). Among his numerous works, at this point we focus our attention on his four-volume “Elementary Book” (“Elementarwerk”), which contained in an encyclopaedic fashion all knowledge children were supposed to acquire up to the age of fifteen. His writing created a stir; besides praising words critical opinions were also voiced. One of the most prestigious journals, the “Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliothek”, received the work with the highest appreciation, so did Emperor Joseph II. However, it also had fierce critics, such as the journal “Göttinger Gelehrte Anzeigen”, or even Goethe (Fináczy, 1927).

According to philanthropists, education should be playful by foregrounding physical activity and exercise in accordance with the child's age; and practical by applying a rich illustration of work-related practical skills, bodily movements and handling tools.

One of their most important principles is that the cultivation and perfection of the soul depends on the body, i.e. the body is the vehicle for the development and the manifestation of inner forces. Philanthropist education emphasized physical movement and bodily exercise adjusted to the child's age (Frank, 1922). Based on a close inspection of the most important writings in Hungarian on the questions surrounding physical education (Frank, 1922, Fináczy, 1927, Czeke, 1938, Pukánszky-Németh, 1996, Mihalovicsné, 2006) we have collected the instructions found in them pertaining to the physical education of children. According to our findings the child spends 16 hours of the day actively: of these, six are devoted to learning, four are taken up by meals and constitutional walks, as well as by longer breaks between classes, and finally, two hours are spent with dancing, singing or arts under the guidance of an instructor. It is an integral

part of the education of the adolescent to acquire the basics of various trades, which can also be used in house-keeping. They emphasize learning the use of simpler machines and tools from experts who are outstanding in their field. We also encounter admonitions reminiscent of knightly virtues, whereas young men must come to the rescue of their fellow-men in emergencies. For this reason, they need to acquire the skills of rock-climbing, riding, open water lifesaving, carriage driving, loading and unloading carts, and protection against animals, furthermore the art of fishing and hunting with the help of experienced trainers. They considered it to be of great importance that young men can find their way around in every situation, thus they have to learn to prepare simple meals and beverages, to make a fire in the open as well as in a stove, to slaughter poultry and wild fowl, and to treat bleeding wounds in case of accidents. Acquiring comprehensive experience is articulated as a primary objective, in the frame of which young men are obligated to spend 14 days in every season at a farm under the guidance of an instructor. By the age of 16 he should be given the chance to fulfil the following duties for 14 days in every year: to live in a military camp, to work in a mine, in a naval port, and at the office of a wholesaler, to help the work of an orphanage pastor, and to spend four weeks in a winter with his instructor at a residency. Beyond all these, they had to learn to endure the following hardships: sleeping in a cold room, surviving the heat, sleep deprivation at given circumstances, orientation in the dark and on unknown terrain, and enjoying simple dishes.

2 The Philanthropinum in Dessau and Gerhard Ulrich Anton Vieth

Basedow founded an educational institution operating based on his own principles in 1774 with the support of the prince of Dessau, bearing the name Philanthropinum. He was also the head of the institution till 1778. Later, he passed the position to Joachim Heinrich Campe. The Philanthropinum was closed in 1793 (Pukánszky & Németh, 1996).

The emphatic fields of education in the Philanthropinum in Dessau were expertise, bodily training, freedom and naturalness. One of their fundamental principles was that the cultivation and perfection of the soul depends on the body, i.e. the body is the vehicle for the development and the manifestation of inner forces (Fináczy, 1927, Mihalovicsné, 2006).

Contrary to contemporary fashion, students of the institution in Dessau had their hair cropped short; they were not allowed to wear neck-ties, and they had to wear their shirts with open collar.

Their clothes were loose and comfortable. They bathed in cold water and slept in hard beds. In food and drink they followed a natural diet. They spent a lot of time in the open; they often went on excursions, and frequently devoted themselves to wood carving and turnery. They played a lot in the open and did controlled physical exercises with pleasure. It might also have caught the

visitors' eyes that classes lasted only half an hour, and between classes children were always allowed to have half an hour for refreshment (Czeke, 1938).

The distinguished treatment of physical education was a significant feature of the work done in the Philanthropinum. They wanted to develop the students into being strong, physically skilled and trained. The children's life was characterized by a lot of exercises, games and excursions in the open. It was also part of the physical training that students had to sleep in hard beds, to bathe in cold water, and to wear thin clothes also in the winter. Furthermore, they swam, rowed, rode, fenced, and shot at target.

Philanthropist educators encouraged every conceivable form of physical exercise. Villaume advised even playing wind-instruments for the reason that it develops the strength of the lungs. In a similar fashion he did not advise playing the piano, because it develops musicality, but simply because of its strengthening effect on the fingers (Fináczy, 1927).

The most prominent educator of the the institution in the field of physical education was Gerhard Ulrich Anton Vieth (1763-1836), who is often considered to be one of the founding fathers of German gymnastics for his general propagation of gymnastic exercises and for his work done in their scientific description (Neuendorf, 1932).

Vieth studied law, mathematics, and physics at the University of Göttingen and Leipzig. He was a professor at the Hochfürstliche Hauptschule, then its director, a professor of mathematics, and a school inspector. He was closely connected to the Philanthropinum from early on. In his work as a teacher both music and gymnastics played a central role; and it was his initiative that English and Italian became separate language classes in the Hauptschule (Euler, 1895).

His major work is the three-volume book "Versuch einer Encyclopädie der Leibesübungen" (Berlin 1794, 1795, 1818).

The title of the first volume was "Beiträge zur Geschichte der Leibesübungen". It contains historical sources and travel accounts, which report on the physical exercises of foreign or long extinct people. With this book he was the first to write a cultural history of physical exercises. In the introduction he discusses the naturalness of physical exercise, which has been defining the daily routine of children since the most ancient times (Vieth, 1794).

The second volume bears the title "System der Leibesübungen". It gives a detailed description of the particular exercises and of their regular execution. The book distinguishes between passive (e.g. sitting, lying, bathing) and active exercises. The latter are divided further into mental and physical exercises. He discusses the health of children at various ages at length, from the correct way of swinging up to being confined to the bed (Vieth, 1795).

The third volume of the trilogy is a supplement to the first two.

The significance of the Philanthropinum in Dessau in the field of physical education can be best grasped in the fact that this institution was the first

German school where students did physical exercises regularly under the supervision of teachers who taught also other subjects.

3 The philanthropinum in Schnepfenthal and Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths

Another prominent figure of German philanthropism, Salzmann (1744-1811), founded his own institution in Schnepfenthal, Thuringia, near Gotha, modelled on the Philanthropinum in Dessau. In 1786 Salzmann trusted Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths with the task of physical education at the institute in Schnepfenthal (Schmitt, 2007).

Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths (1759-1839) studied theology, physics, mathematics, and history at the University of Halle, where he also attended the lectures of Trapp on pedagogy. He is identified in the history of education as the originator of regular physical education (Waßmannsdorf, 1884).

GutsMuths considered physical education to be an inseparable part education. In the beginning, the physical exercises practised in Dessau served as a model, then after two years he reshaped physical education according to his own ideas. In his own methodology he considered the individual abilities of the children to be the starting point. Physical exercise was carefully designed methodologically; children's physical load was increased gradually.

He was the first educator who - besides being a teacher himself - in his publications reflected on the practice, synthesized teaching practices in a complex general system, and through his extensive publishing activity became also known to the general public (Geßmann, 1998).

His works include "Gymnastik für die Jugend" (1793), the first systematizing work on physical education in schools, and "Spiele zur Übung und Erholung des Körpers und Geistes" (1796). This book collected movement and mental games based on observation into a coherent system. GutsMuths studied the pedagogical and physical educational functions of various games. The book qualifies as the first pedagogical game-book of Germany.

It is divided into the following major chapters: ball games, playground games, marble (or small/heavy ball) games, skittles games, games involving poles and rings, winter games, parlour games, night games, individual games, further games.

He is also known as the author of the first book on the methodology of instruction in swimming, with the title "Kleine Lehrbuch der Schwimmkunst", which appeared in 1798.

Beyond providing the foundations for the specialized content used in physical education in schools, GutsMuths writings are also systematic works of German gymnastics and games (Schröder, 1996).

4 The impact of the philanthropists

Based on the examples of Vieth and GutsMuths it can be stated that teachers of physical education in philanthropinums were not merely instructors of the exercises any more, but school-teachers, who laid the foundations of German literature on physical education.

The impact of philanthropism on contemporary Hungarian public education, especially in the first half of the 19th century, can be clearly detected, which can be accredited to study trips to Germany and the Hungarian translations of German works. Salzmann's institution, founded in 1784 was visited by 366 Hungarian educators, among others by Terézia von Brunszvik, who also gave an account of her impressions in her memoirs (Czeke, 1938), yet, we also need to mention Samuel Tessedik, who made good use of his experience gained during his journey to Germany in his school in Szarvas.

It is a noticeable impact on physical education that the official physical education teacher appears also in Hungary, in the person of the painter, Vilmos Egger (1792-1830). He was the first professional instructor of physical education in Hungary, and also a private tutor in the service of Baron Miklós Vay.

The presence of philanthropism can also be perceived in swimming instruction. Basedow and GutsMuths initiated the instruction of swimming and lifeguarding, and the general institutionalization of swimming instruction. The impact of philanthropists could also be felt in Hungary. Károly (Carl) Csillagh's textbook on swimming appeared in German in 1841 with the title "Der philanthropische Schwimmeister" ("The Philanthropist Swimming Instructor"). The book is devoted to swimming instruction, introduces water gymnastics, and discusses hygienics. The first book on swimming in Hungarian, "Aradi Úszómester" ("Arader Swimming Instructor"), appeared in 1842.

Conclusion

The impact of philanthropism on contemporary Hungarian public education, especially in the first half of the 19th century, can be clearly detected, which can be accredited to study trips to Germany and the Hungarian translations of German works. The presence of philanthropism can also be perceived in swimming instruction. Basedow and GutsMuths initiated the instruction of swimming and lifeguarding, and the general institutionalization of swimming instruction. The impact of philanthropists could also be felt in Hungary. Károly (Carl) Csillagh's textbook on swimming appeared in German in 1841 with the title "Der philanthropische Schwimmeister" ("The Philanthropist Swimming Instructor"). The first book on swimming in Hungarian appeared in 1842.

References

- Czeke, M. (Ed.). (1938). *Brunszvik Teréz grófnő naplói és feljegyzései*. Budapest: Magyar Történelmi Társulat.
- Euler, C. (1895). Vieth, Gerhard Ulrich Anton. In *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie* (pp. 682-684). Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot.
- Fináczy, E. (1927). *Az újkori nevelés története*. Budapest: Királyi Magyar Egyetemi Nyomda.
- Frank, A. (1922). *A testi nevelés a filantropistáknál*. Budapest: Királyi Magyar Egyetemi Nyomda.
- Geßmann, R. (Ed.) (1998). *Beiträge und Bibliographie zur GutsMuths-Forschung*. Sankt Augustin: Academia-Verlag.
- GutsMuths, J. Ch. F. (1796). *Spiele zur Übung und Erholung des Körpers und Geistes*. Schnepfenthal: Buchhandlung der Erziehungsanstalt.
- GutsMuths, J. Ch. F. (1798). *Kleines Lehrbuch der Schwimmkunst zum Selbstunterrichten*. Weimar: Verlag des Industrie-Comptoirs.
- GutsMuths, J. Ch. F. (1804). *Gymnastik für die Jugend, enthaltend eine praktische Anweisung zu Leibesübungen*. Schnepfenthal: Buchhandlung der Erziehungsanstalt.
- Kämmel, H. J. (1879). Guts-Muths: Johann Christoph Friedrich. In *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie* (pp. 224-225). Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot.
- Lukas, G. (1964). *Gerhard Ulrich Anton Vieth. Sein Leben und Werk*. Berlin: Sportverlag.
- Mihalovicsné Lengyel, A. (2006). A filantropizmus pedagógiája. Johann Bernhard Basedow munkássága. *Iskolakultúra*, 4, 111-120.
- Neuendorff, E. (1930-1936). *Geschichte der neueren deutschen Leibesübung vom Beginn des 18. Jahrhunderts bis zur Gegenwart*. Dresden: Wilhelm Limpert Verlag.
- Pukánszky, B., & Németh, A. (1996). *Neveléstörténet*. Budapest: Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó.
- Schmitt, H. (2007). *Vernunft und Menschlichkeit: Studien zur philanthropischen Erziehungsbewegung*. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt.
- Schröder, W. (1996). *Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths. Leben und Wirken des Schnepfenthaler Pädagogen*. Sankt Augustin: Academia-Verlag.
- Vieth, G. U. A. (1794, 1795, 1818). *Versuch einer Encyclopädie der Leibesübungen*. Berlin: Hartmann.
- Waßmannsdorf, K. (1884). *Johann Christoph Friedrich Guts Muths*. Heidelberg.
- Welle, F. (2000). *Der Körper ist nur Werkzeug. Die Konstruktion bürgerlicher Subjekte durch die Philanthropen*. Magisterarbeit. München. Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München.