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# CONTENTS

EDITORIAL	7
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## ARTICLES

---

MOTIVES FOR FIRST SEXUAL INTERCOURSE IN THE CONTEXT OF RISK AND ETHICAL ASPECTS OF SEXUAL CAREER <b>Dagmar Marková</b>	11
THE PHENOMENON OF MULTICULTURALISM. THE CASE OF POLAND <b>Anna Śliz, Marek S. Szczepański</b>	37
THE PROGRAM OF CRIME PREVENTION AND SOCIAL PATHOLOGY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC – CHOSEN HISTORICAL ASPECTS <b>Miroslav Pilát</b>	53

---

## REPORT

---

DIRECT AND CLEAR SUPPORT OF THE EDUCATIONAL INCLUSION <b>Eva Zezulková</b>	79
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## BOOK REVIEW

---

SEX IN HUMAN LOVING <b>Kamil Janiš</b>	87
---	----



Dear Readers,

through the constantly changing circumstances often accompanied by varying stressful situations, the fate of human kind falls into situational schemes which are quite difficult to understand or approach in an adequate manner. The predictable imbalance in terms of opinion constructs or attitude constructs in relation to the aforementioned understandably emerges in the general public. However, professional public does display certain shortcomings as well – especially when lacking orientation necessary for the present context whose factual framework and etiological basis may be diverse, multifaceted, and multifactorial; whose impact determines the quality of life not only for those who are concerned by individual phenomenon. However, some critical impact can be observed in the whole of its social environment.

The papers in this issue of the journal are essentially yet another instalment of contributions to the field of social pathology and prevention. Addressing all the themes in the varying texts is on the one hand a matter of the scientific base of the author or authors, and on the other hand of the recipient or recipients by whom the contents of the following communications are received. To maintain a critically objective and, at the same time, desirable view of the matters at hand, it is also necessary to mention in this context the role of the communication channel and its potential and existing possibilities to modify the content, the processes, the whole, or parts of it. Even during the transfer, it is in some cases possible to detect intentionally constructed reduction or extension, but also total transformation from the perspective of inputs and outputs. As in other issues elsewhere, here too interventions of functional nature may come into consideration.

The above generated content of the editorial aims to call for objective, perhaps to this day still different way of viewing the contents presented here in each of the articles, reports and information pieces. It leads to thinking about who presents, what is being presented, why it is being presented, how and to whom,... The enumeration of similar points of view could be longer. However, this is to be directed by every one of us on our own – by everyone who, in short, knows, wants and decides for themselves...

The compiled issue of *Social Pathology and Prevention* offers a sort of theoretical, theoretical-empirical discourse on the issue of multiculturalism. An authorial tandem of colleagues from the Opole University and from the University of Silesia in Katowice present their view on the matter. Similarly, a colleague from Comenius University in Bratislava presents her view in her information piece. An author from Silesian University in Opava contributes to this discourse with a text on crime prevention.

We have not forgotten to share reports of field praxis and the review of a publication for possible inspiration.

Martin Kaleja





	<b>ARTICLES</b>	
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# MOTIVES FOR FIRST SEXUAL INTERCOURSE IN THE CONTEXT OF RISK AND ETHICAL ASPECTS OF SEXUAL CAREER

**Dagmar Marková**

## **Abstract**

The text is focused on the issue of ethical and risk context of the motives of the first sexual intercourse in heterosexual relationships. We present the results of a broader study that dealt with attitude and behavioral attributes of majority and minority sexual life styles of men and women of younger, middle and older adult age in Bohemia and Slovakia and with their sociocultural and ethical contexts. The results suggest that the first sexual intercourse is most frequently related to love and partnership. A frequent incidence of sexual debut motives containing different degrees of elements of high-risk sexual behaviour was identified. That may suggest some aspects of sexual morals and at the same time serve as a useful tool of sexual education in connection with the development of sexual health.

## **Keywords**

Sexuality, sexual morals, first sexual intercourse, coital sexual activities, sexual research, sexual health, high-risk sexual behaviour.

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## **Introduction<sup>1</sup>**

The research of the first sexual experience provides important ethical information about the normative systems shaping social interactions and individual experience. The first sexual experiences, as compared to all other sexual activities, are even more related to a comprehensive series of cultural and moral regulations and expectations. As Supeková

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<sup>1</sup> The text was created thanks to the support of the VEGA 2/0027/17 grant: *Traditional and alternative parenthood of the 21<sup>st</sup> century: motivation, dilemmas and consequences.*

and Bianchi (2000) state, to understand an individual's sexual behaviour, it is important to know the behaviour motivation, as well as the individual patterns (scenarios) of sexual behaviour or the context of such behaviour.

The beginnings of partner-oriented sexuality are diverse. As Dannenbeck and Stich (2005) mention, the beginning of the process of partner experiences and learning cannot be exactly defined, similarly to the beginning of the process of sexual learning. There are many beginnings: first falling in love, first friendship defined as couple relationship by the youth, first caresses, intensive kissing, first experiences with petting, first sexual intercourse, etc. The first sexual intercourse is usually considered an important key event in the individual's sexual career. Bernik and Hlebec (2003) point out that at individual level, the first sexual intercourse is considered a critical stage of the individual life story and personality development. Stich (2003), on the other hand, states that the first sexual intercourse is only an event in the sexual learning process. Boys and girls experience their first intercourse as an important step, but it is not a loss of something that has a preservation value but a celebration of an important transition to the best possible beginning.

As for the investigation of motives, circumstances and factors of sexual debut, the research (Nöstlinger & Wimmer-Puchinger, 1994) suggests that boys and girls fell in love for the first time, had their first date and got their first kiss at the age of thirteen. They had the first permanent partner about the age of fourteen and the first petting at the age of fifteen. They had the first homosexual petting at the age of thirteen and half and the first sexual intercourse usually at the age of sixteen. It has been also shown (BZgA, 2006) that the first petting experience are very important for the ability of sexual behaviour, as boys and girls learn to recognize the other person's signals and to communicate in sex through them. Dannenbeck, Stich (2005) state that those who did not have petting experience before their first sexual intercourse tried to justify it (e.g. by missing opportunities) during the interviews. It is difficult to distinguish whether the missing sexual experience was the cause of problems at the first sexual intercourse or whether it was caused by a former problematic attitude to sexuality. Both causes usually contribute to an unfavourable beginning of partner-oriented sexuality. The natural petting practice leads the youth to bilaterally suppose some sexual experience. If such experience is missing, sexual understanding is burdened by irritations, as own former experience cannot be implemented as familiar. Absolutely inexperienced girls are twice as much uncertain during the first sexual relationships: they have troubles to correctly distinguish situations and signals and they are afraid to confess their low sexual experience, which restricts sexual curiosity and relaxed feeling of sex.

With respect to the differences between boys and girls, the results of an extensive American study (Laumann, Gagnon, Michael, & Michaels, 1994) summarize that men start sooner, have more sexual partners and they are motivated by curiosity and interest in sex. Women start later, have sex primarily with their husbands or in permanent relationships and are more interested in protection. Martin (2002) states, based on

her research findings, that boys and girls get to sex through different paths – girls are usually forced to sex and boys are those who force them. The first and initial sexual experiences have different psychological consequences for boys and girls. Sexual experiences of boys often lead them to feel older, more masculine and more connected with other men. Such positive consequences are much more difficult to achieve in case of girls. Their first and initial sexual experiences usually lead to confused feelings of uncertainty about themselves and about their bodies. European studies refer about general reduction of differences between men and women in connection with the first sexual intercourse (e.g. Bozon & Kontula, 1998; Narring, Wydler, & Michaud, 2000, etc.). Also Schmidt's studies (2003) suggest that romanticization of male sexuality goes hand in hand with self-determination of female sexuality – in 1970, 80% adolescent girls reported to have had the first sexual intercourse "to make the boy happy"; today, less than 20% girls state it.

Studies of motivation of the first sexual intercourse made in Slovakia and in Bohemia suggest disappearing of inter-gender differences in the issue of the age of start of sexual life, as well as some taking over of boy's motives to first sexual intercourse by girls. Lukšík (1997) found out that most frequently the following motives for the first sexual intercourse are reported: desire to have it (b: 64.5%, g: 52.5%), love to the partner (b: 44.4%, g: 65.5%), curiosity (b: 22%, g: 25.7%), the partner wanted it (b: 34.4%, g: 17.9%). Koliba (1996) warns in connection with the importance of love at the first sexual intercourse that 30% boys and 22% girls think that love is not so important. Our study (Szabó & Švihelová, 2001) shows that the age of the first sexual experience and the motives of the first sexual intercourse are mutually related. Those who had their first sexual intercourse before the age of seventeen reported love to the partner as a motive by 16% less than those who had it after the age of seventeen years; curiosity was reported as a motive by 29% of those who had their first sexual intercourse before the age of seventeen, while the second group reported it only in 4%, etc.

Bianchi (2001) states that in relation to the risk level of sexual behaviour, the average age is most frequently researched and important correlates of risk level of sexual career with early sexual debut (before the age of sixteen) are often found, for example in the number of sexual partners in life, in the number of accidental sexual partners, in consumption of habit-forming psychoactive substances, etc. The research of motives of the first sexual intercourse, made at a population sample with high-risk behaviour (Bianchi, 2001) shows major differences in the incidence of individual motives in different countries. In Slovakia, the motives include primarily: high incidence of emotional blackmail (in women), "desire" / hormones (in men), opportunity – willing female partners (in men), opportunity – favourable circumstances (in men), peer pressure (in men) and feeling of social obligation (in men). In the Netherlands, the motives include primarily: low incidence of feeling of social obligation, peer pressure, "desire" / hormones, opportunity – adequate partner, physical attraction and opportunity – favourable circumstances and frequently reported natural development / progress of the relationship as a motive for the first sexual intercourse. Finally, in England, the motives rarely include natural progress

of the respondent's sexual development and they frequently include spontaneity / "it just happened" (in women), feeling of a correct thing, physical attraction and influence of alcohol / drug consumed.

The above stated facts show that the sexual debut is not only an important event in the individual's sexual career but that the first sexual experiences are embedded in specific normative and cultural frameworks. The high-risk aspects of the first sexual intercourse are connected not only with a lower age of the first sex but also with its motivation and other circumstances containing both first-level and second-level aspects of sexual health which, according to Lukšík and Supeková (2003), constitute personal, personality, social and cultural dimensions of sexuality. Therefore this text analyzes the motives of the first sexual intercourse in the contexts of risk level from the perspective of sexual health and of its moral aspects.

## Research

This text presents partial results of a broader research concerning majority and minority heterosexual partner and sexual life styles and preferences in the area of sexual moral of men and women of younger, middle and older adult age in Slovakia and in Bohemia. We focus only on the analysis of the data concerning motivation for the first sexual intercourse in heterosexual relationships and we describe the differences in the motives of the sexual debut related to age, gender, Czech and Slovak nationality, as well as religious and moral preferences (narrowed to three types: absolutism, relativism and hedonism).

## Research methods

Our research made use of several quantitative and qualitative methods. The research tools included also a questionnaire constructed by us, which included a part focused on sexual career. That part of the questionnaire was divided into two sections: sexual and partner experiences in the period before and after the first sexual intercourse were investigated separately. The results presented in this text were acquired through the questionnaire and they concern the motives of the sexual debut.

## Research set

The research set consisted of 1,022 persons of younger, middle and older adult age from Slovakia and the Czech Republic. It was put together by full-time and external students of Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Komenský University in Bratislava, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Prešov University in Prešov, University of Hradec Králové, Silesian University in Otava and their separate units. It must be mentioned that

the research set is not a representative selection, that women, younger adult persons and Slovak respondents prevailed in it and that university students participated in the research.

## **Research findings**

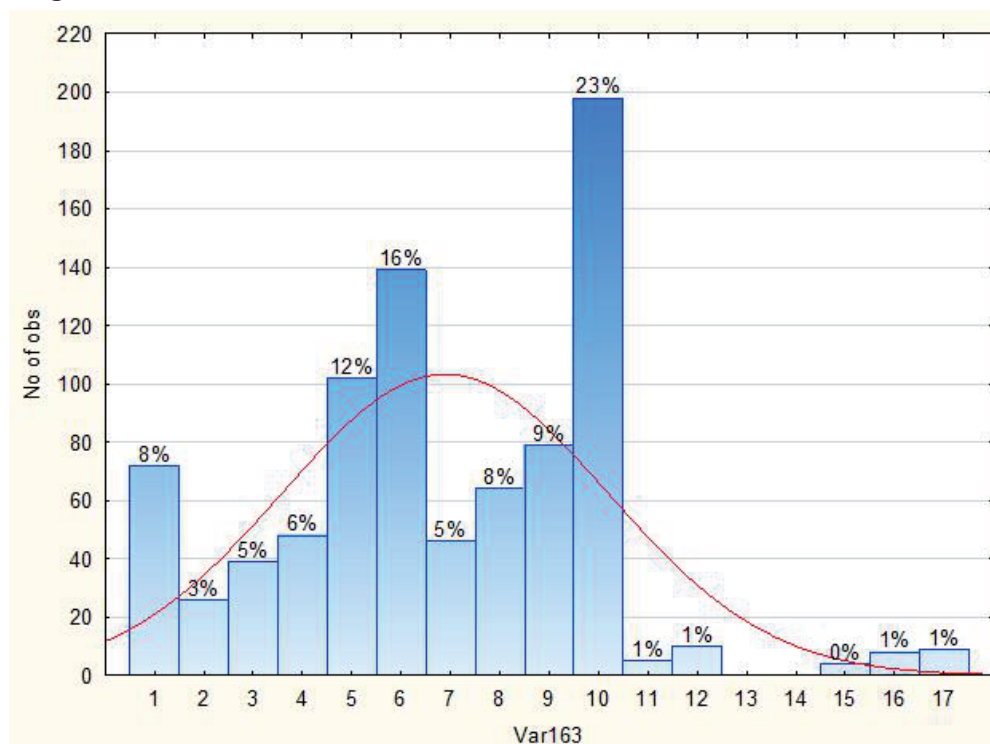
### **Motivation for first sexual intercourse**

The study of the beginning of partner-oriented sexuality also ascertained the motives of the first coitus. According to our data, the beginnings of couple sexuality are most frequently motivated by love (table and diagram No. 1) – 23% of the respondents reported love to the partner as the motive for the first sexual intercourse. The data analysis shows that the second most frequently reported motive (16%) is the desire to have sexual intercourse, and the third most frequent motive (12%) consists in favourable circumstances. The desire to start a partnership with a sexual partner constituted the motive for the first sexual intercourse in 9% of the respondents, and other 8% reported curiosity and existence of a permanent relationship. 6% study participants felt to have been seduced by an experienced sexual partner and 5% reported consumption of alcohol or drug as a motive. On the contrary, other 5% felt to be mature for the sexual debut. 3% men and women made the first coitus because of the partner's willingness. The following answers had 1% representation: the desire to equal a more experienced friend, the desire to lose virginity and the fear of losing the partner. An important finding consists in the fact that less than 1% reported rape. Answers suggesting coercion (i was coerced, intimidated) and sex for a reward were not chosen at all. There were 1% "other" answers, including primarily wedding and infidelity.

It is evident that the respondents' answers are quite scattered. It can be seen that love is the most frequent motive of sexual debut and the first sex is also often linked to partnership. Other respondents start sexual life for different reasons, some of which may contain some risk elements from the perspective of first-level and second-level aspects of sexual health. Up to 44% motives for sexual debut may contain more or less risky elements of sexual behaviour (curiosity 8%, female partner's willingness 3%, consumption of alcohol or drug 5%, seduction by an experienced partner 6%, favourable circumstances 12%, equalling a more experienced friend 1%, loss of virginity 1%, rape – less than 1%, fear of losing partner 1%, or possibly also desire to have sexual intercourse 6%); and it can be also speculated that also the above mentioned fact of existence of partnership could potentially contain hidden forms of pressure as the motive for the first intercourse in a part of the respondents, but that would require a more detailed quality research. In relation to violence, although the respondents did not state coercion as the motive of the first sexual intercourse, different other answers suggest some forms of pressure (loss of losing partner, seduction by experienced partner, etc.). And it is important to state that rape was also reported as the motive for the first sex.

**Table 1 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex**

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	198

**Diagram 1 Motives for first sex**

Legend: Motives for first sexual intercourse: 1 – curiosity, 2 – partner's willingness, 3 – consumption of alcohol, drug, 4 – I was seduced by experienced partner, 5 – favourable circumstances, 6 – desire to have sex, 7 – I was mature already, 8 – existence of permanent relationship, 9 – desire to start partnership with sexual partner, 10 – love to partner, 11 – I wanted to equal more experienced friends, 12 – I wanted to lose virginity, 13 – I consented to sex for promised reward, 14 – I was coerced / intimidated, 15 – I was raped, 16 – I didn't want to lose my partner, 17 – other motive. Comment: The legend is related also to the remaining diagrams and tables in the text.

### Motives for the first coitus by genders

The study ascertained also the differences in the motives for the first sexual intercourse from the perspective of the respondents' gender. The results of Mann-Whitney U test, shown in table No. 2, prove statistically significant differences.



The data analysis (tables and diagrams No. 2.1 to 2.3) shows that the most female respondents reported love to the partner as the motive of the first coitus (27% – f), while the men stated love as the third most frequent answer (14% – m). The men's most frequent answer reported the desire to have sex (25% – m), while the women stated it as the second most frequent motive (13% – f). For better clarity, table 2.3 lists the motives for the first sex by order of incidence, from the most frequent to the least frequent, separately for male and female respondents.

Although a relative diversity of the data must be considered, the comparison of male and female motives for starting sexual life shows that fear of loss of partner as the motive for the first sex was not stated by men at all and that the female respondents, as compared to male respondents, state more frequently the motives like love and partnership.

Men, as compared to women, state more frequently the following motives to start sexual life: desire to have sex, favourable circumstances, seduction by more experienced partner or partner's willingness.

On the other hand, the motives like curiosity and consumption of alcohol or drug (as well as the lowly represented motives (1% or less): feeling of social obligation, rape) were reported with the same frequency regardless of the respondents' gender.

The above stated data can be interpreted from the perspective of prevailing gender stereotypes, which is confirmed also by Bianchi's (2001) findings, showing that a strong influence of the family and of traditional ideas of asymmetric division of roles among men and women persists in Slovakia, which is reflected also in the area of sexuality.

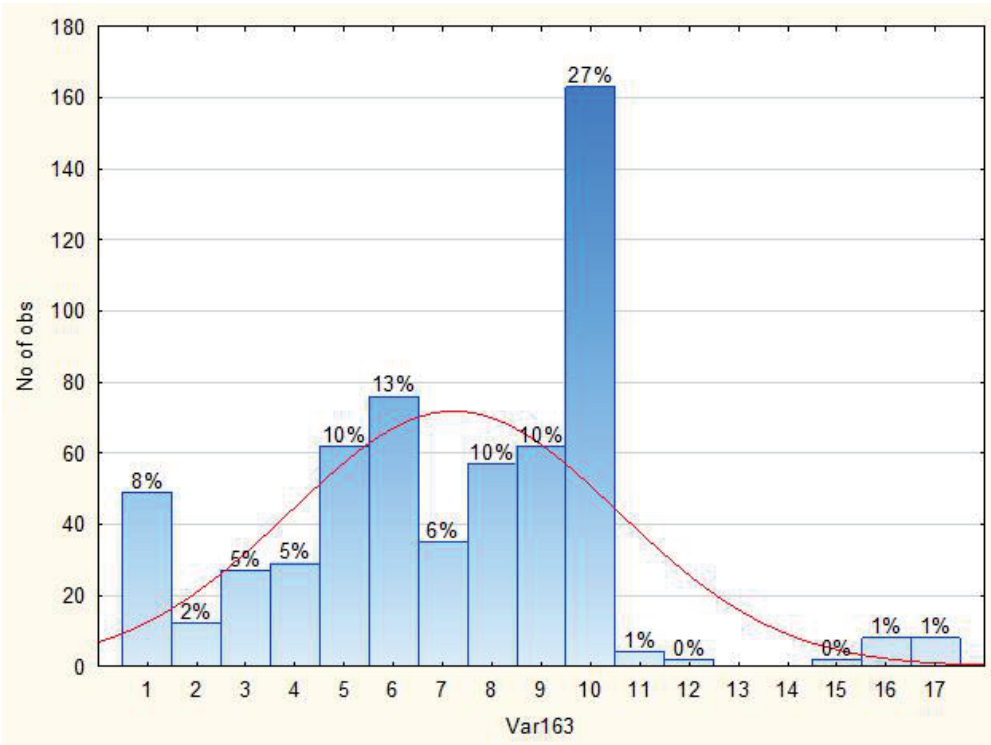
**Table 2 Results of Mann-Whitney U test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of respondents' gender**

	Mann-Whitney U Test (w/ continuity correction) (SK CZ)						
	By variable Var4						
	Marked tests are significant at p <,05000						
variable	Rank Sum Group 1	Rank Sum Group 2	U	Z	p-value	Z adjusted	p-value
Var163	269167,5	91657,5	59526,5	4,85504	0,000001	4,9071	0,000001

Table 2.1 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – women

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (F SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	163

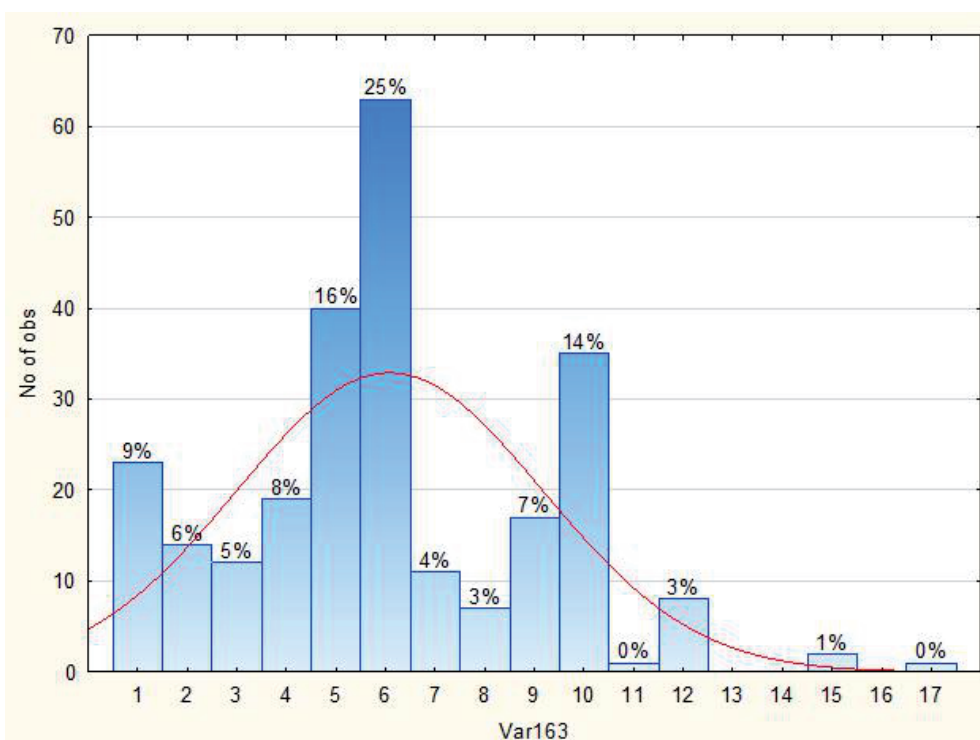
Diagram 2.1 Motives for first sex – women



**Table 2.2 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – men**

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (M SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	6,000000	63

**Diagram 2.2 Motives for first sex – men**



**Table 2.3 Comparison of motives for first sex in female and male respondents (shown by order of incidence)**

Order	WOMEN	%	MEN	%
1.	love to partner	27	desire to have sex	25
2.	desire to have sex	13	favourable circumstances	16
3.	favourable circumstances	10	love to partner	14
4.	desire to start partnership with sexual partner	10	curiosity	9

Order	WOMEN	%	MEN	%
5.	existence of permanent relationship	10	seduction by experienced partner	8
6.	curiosity	8	desire to start partnership with sexual partner	7
7.	I was mature already	6	partner's willingness	6
8.	seduction by experienced partner	5	consumption of alcohol, drug	5
9.	consumption of alcohol, drug	5	I was mature already	4
10.	partner's willingness	2	I wanted to lose virginity	3
11.	I didn't want to lose my partner	1	existence of permanent relationship	3
12.	other motive	1	I was raped	1
13.	I wanted to equal more experienced friends	1	I wanted to equal more experienced friends	less than 1
14.	I wanted to lose virginity	less than 1	other motive	less than 1
15.	I was raped	less than 1		

### Motives of sexual debut in Slovak-Czech comparison

As for the description of the differences in the motives of the first coitus from the perspective of Czech or Slovak nationality, table No. 3.1 shows the results of Mann-Whitney U test, without statistically significant difference between the answers of the respondents from the Czech or the Slovak Republic.

The diagrams and tables No. 3.1 and 3.2 show that both the Czech and the Slovak respondents reported love to partner as the most frequent motive to start sexual life, followed by desire to have sexual intercourse, and the third most frequent answer consisted in favourable circumstances. A difference in the answers can be seen only in the motive "desire to start partnership with sexual partner" – it was stated by 8% respondents from the Slovak Republic and up to 12% respondents from the Czech Republic. The answers to this item are also relatively scattered, both in Czech and in Slovak respondents.

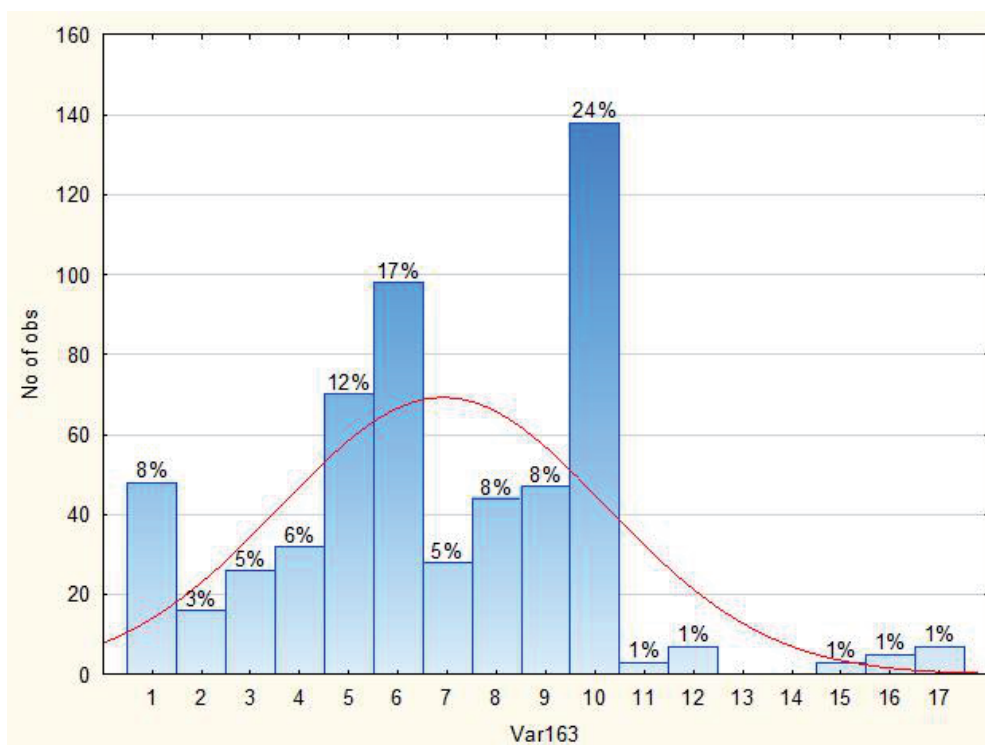
**Table 3 Results of Mann-Whitney U test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of Slovak and Czech nationality**

variable	Mann-Whitney U Test (w/ continuity correction) (SK CZ)						
	By variable Var2						
	Marked tests are significant at p <,05000						
	Rank Sum Group 1	Rank Sum Group 2	U	Z	p-value	Z adjusted	p-value
Var163	244155,5	116669,5	78166,5	0,3149	0,752825	0,3183	0,750261

### 3.1 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – Slovak Rep.

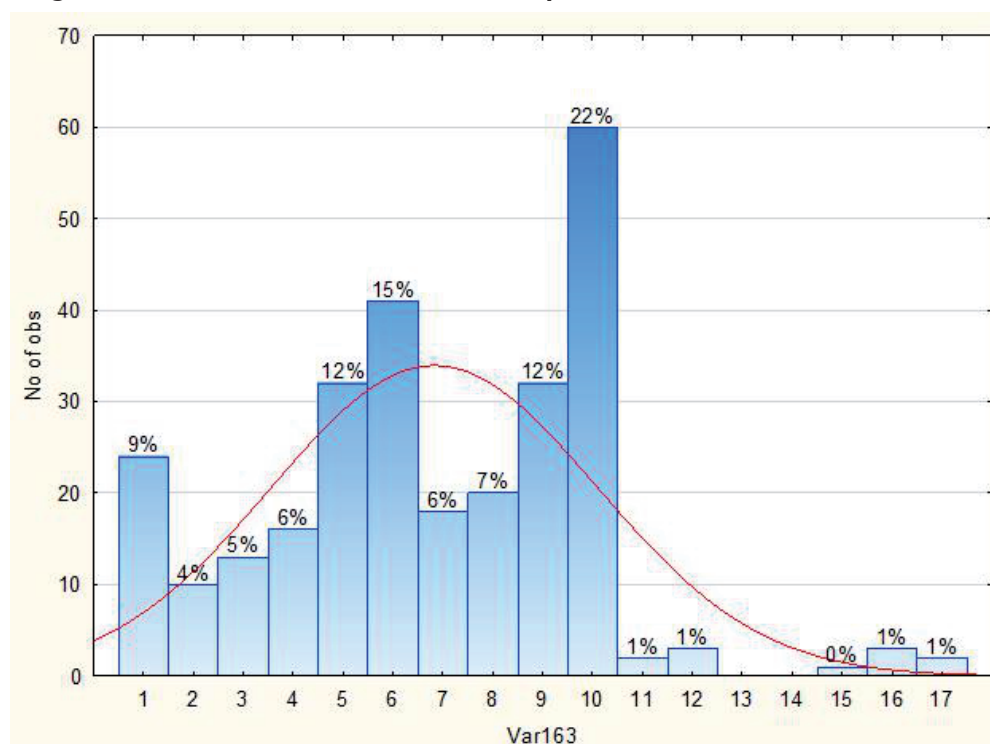
Variable	Descriptive Statistics (SK)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	138

**Diagram 3.1 Motives for first sex – Slovak Rep.**



**Table 3.2 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – Czech Rep.**

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	60

**Diagram 3.2 Motives for first sex – Czech Rep.**

### Motives for sexual debut in intergeneration perspective

As for the differences in the motives for the first sexual intercourse from the perspective of the respondent's age, we created three age categories – persons of younger adult age (under thirty years), middle adult age (31–40 years) and older adult age (over 41 years). The results of Kruskal-Wallis test (table No. 4) show that no statistically significant difference was found at 5% level of significance in the issue of the motives of sexual debut with respect to the three aged categories compared.

Analogically to the comparison of the motives of the first sex by the respondents' gender or Czech or Slovak nationality, the specific results, separated for the three age categories

observed, are presented in tables and diagrams No. 4.1–4.3. Love is stated as motive for the first sex most frequently, regardless of the age categories. The second most frequent motive is desire to have sex in respondents of younger (16%) and older (18%) adult age; the respondents of middle adult age chose favourable circumstances at the second place (20%). The third most frequent motive of the first sexual intercourse is: favourable circumstances in respondents of younger adult age (11%), desire to have sex in middle adult category (16%) and curiosity in older adult age (15%).

Although no statistically significant differences were found in the motives of the first sexual intercourse from the perspective of the three age categories observed, the percentage of the answers suggests that persons of younger adult age stated more frequently, as compared to the other age categories, the consumption of alcohol or drugs and own maturity as motive of sexual debut, while stating less frequently seduction by a more experienced partner. Persons of middle adult age, as compared to the remaining two age categories, stated more frequently favourable circumstances and less frequently own maturity as the motive for sexual debut. The respondents of older adult age, as compared to the other age categories, reported most frequently curiosity as the motive to start sexual life and – on the other hand – less frequently the existence of a permanent relationship and the desire to start partnership with a sexual partner.

**Table 4 Results of Kruskal-Wallis test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of age categories**

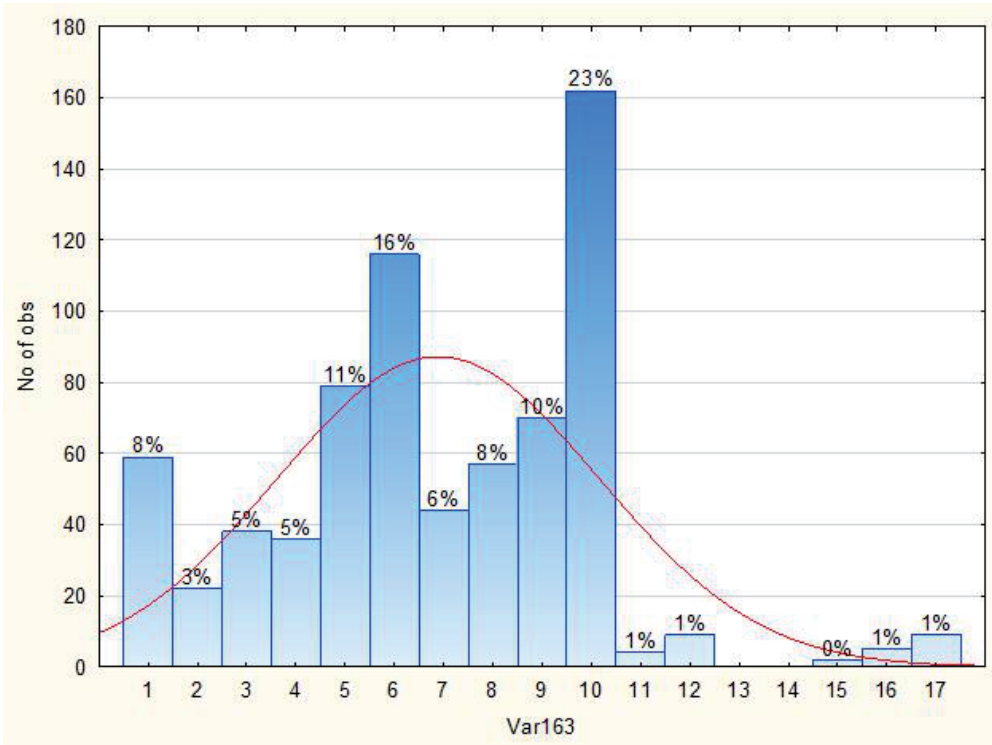
Multiple Comparisons p values (2-tailed); Var163 (SK CZ Independent (grouping) variable: Var1 Kruskal-Wallis test: $H(2) = 9972399$ $p = .6074$			
Depend.: Var163	1 R:425,78	2 R:437,51	3 R:396,25
1		1,000000	1,000000
2	1,000000		1,000000
3	1,000000	1,000000	

Legend: 1 – younger adult age, 2 – middle adult age, 3 – older adult age

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – younger adult age

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (Y SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	162

Diagram 4.1 Motives for first sex – younger adult age

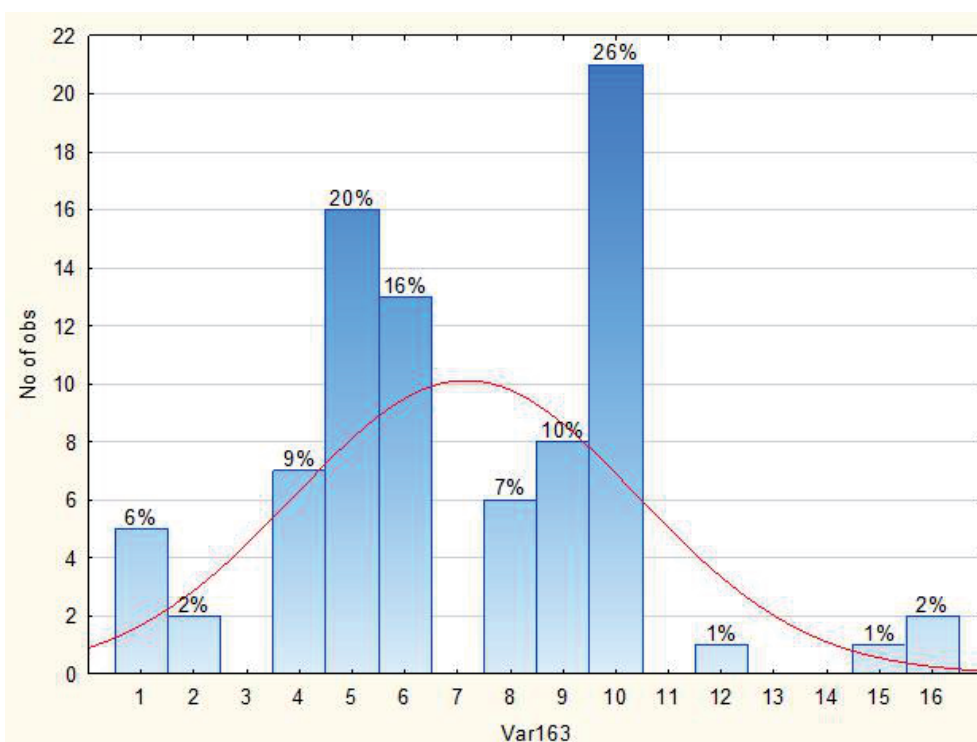




**Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – middle adult age**

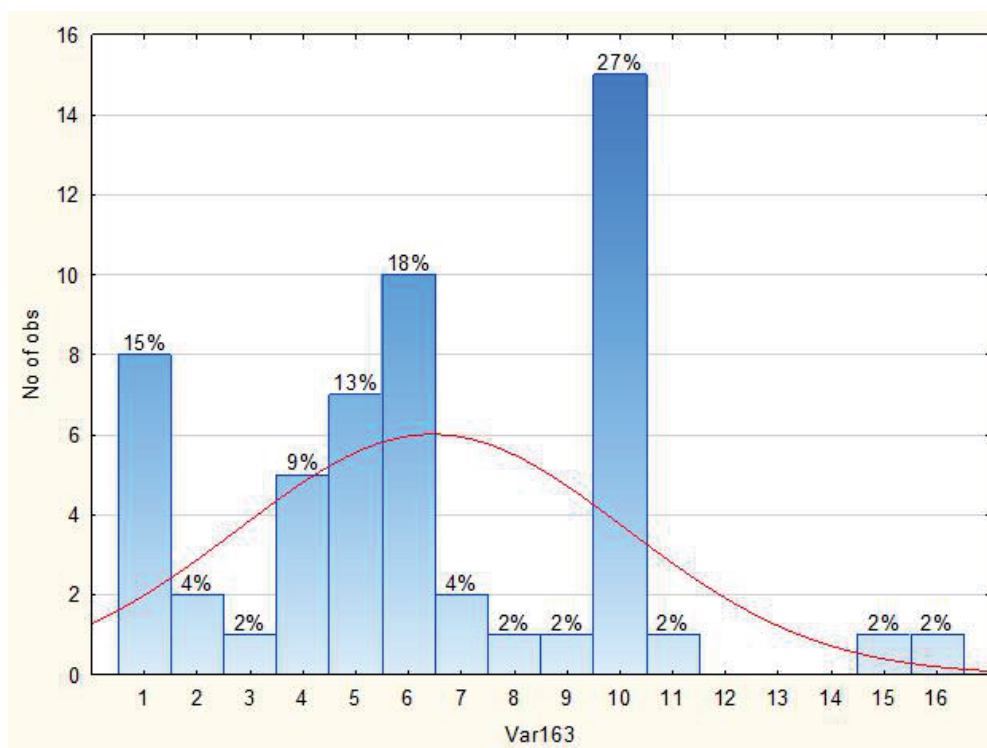
Variable	Descriptive Statistics (M SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	21

**Diagram 4.2 Motives for first sex – middle adult age**



**Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – older adult age**

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (O SK CZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	15

**Diagram 4.3 Motives for first sex – older adult age**

### Motives for the first sex from the perspective of moral preferences

Based on Knox and Schacht (2011), we divided the respondents into three main categories by their prevailing moral systems – absolutism, relativism and hedonism. The following tables and diagrams No. 5 show the answers to the question about the motives for the first sexual intercourse only for the respondents who could be classified in one of the above stated three groups, and the analysis does not include the answers of those classified in the "mixed" group. Thus the data interpretation must consider the fact that the number of respondents is reduced in the analysis.

The results of Kruskal-Wallis test shown in table No. 5 prove that, from the perspective of the three observed moral preference groups, the answers to the question about the motives for the first sex significantly differ between relativists and hedonists.

The most frequent motive for the first sex stated by relativists (and absolutists) is love to the partner (24% – r, 26% – a), while hedonists (24% – h) state the desire to have sex (tables and diagrams No. 5.1–5.3). The second most frequent motive stated by the relativists is the desire to have sex (17%), while the hedonists state love to the partner and favourable circumstances (16%) and the absolutists the existence of a permanent relationship and favourable circumstances (17%). The third most frequent motive of the first coitus of the relativists consists in favourable circumstances (14%), while the hedonists state curiosity (11%) and the absolutists curiosity and desire to have sex (11%).

The relativists, as compared to the other groups, stated most frequently seduction by a more experienced partner and desire to start partnership with a sexual partner, and less frequently curiosity. The hedonists stated more frequently desire to have sex and less frequently love to the partner. The absolutists stated more frequently the existence of a permanent relationship and less frequently consumption of alcohol or drug, seduction by an experienced partner and desire to have sex.

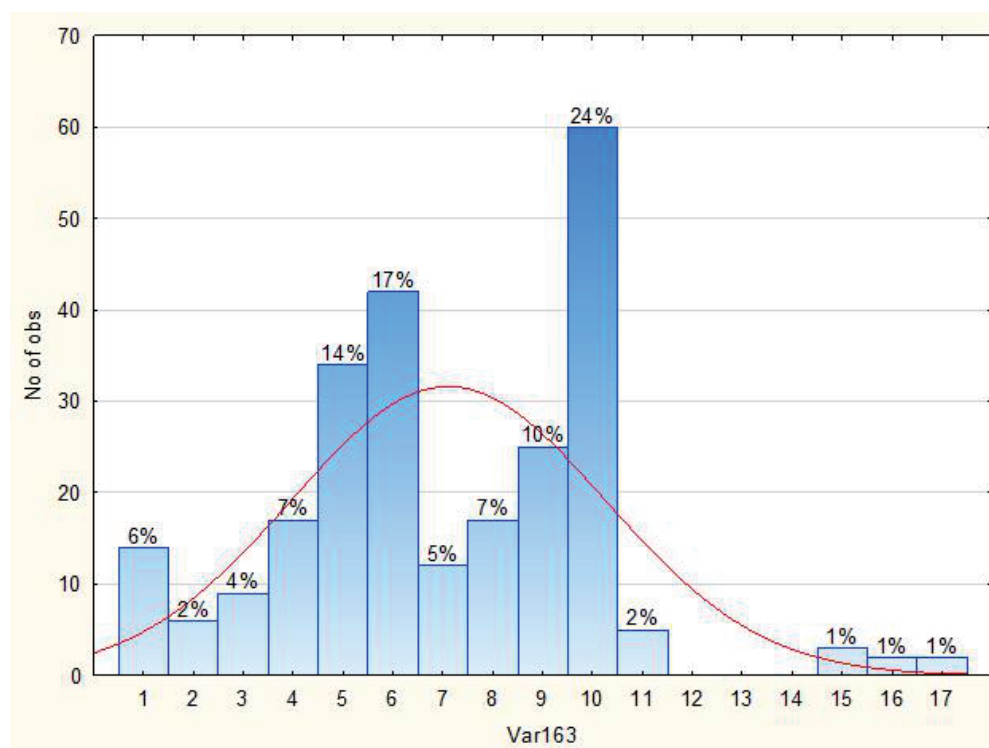
**Table 5 Results of Kruskal-Wallis test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of moral preferences**

Multiple Comparisons p values (2-tailed); Var163 (moral SKCZ Independent (grouping) variable: Var363 Kruskal-Wallis test: $H(2) = 8,853540$ $p = ,0120$			
Depend.: Var163	1 R:218,10	2 R:222,81	3 R:181,57
1		1,000000	0,014109
2	1,000000		0,208736
3	0,014109	0,208736	

Legend: Moral preferences: 1 – relativism, 2 – absolutism, 3 – hedonism

**Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – relativists**

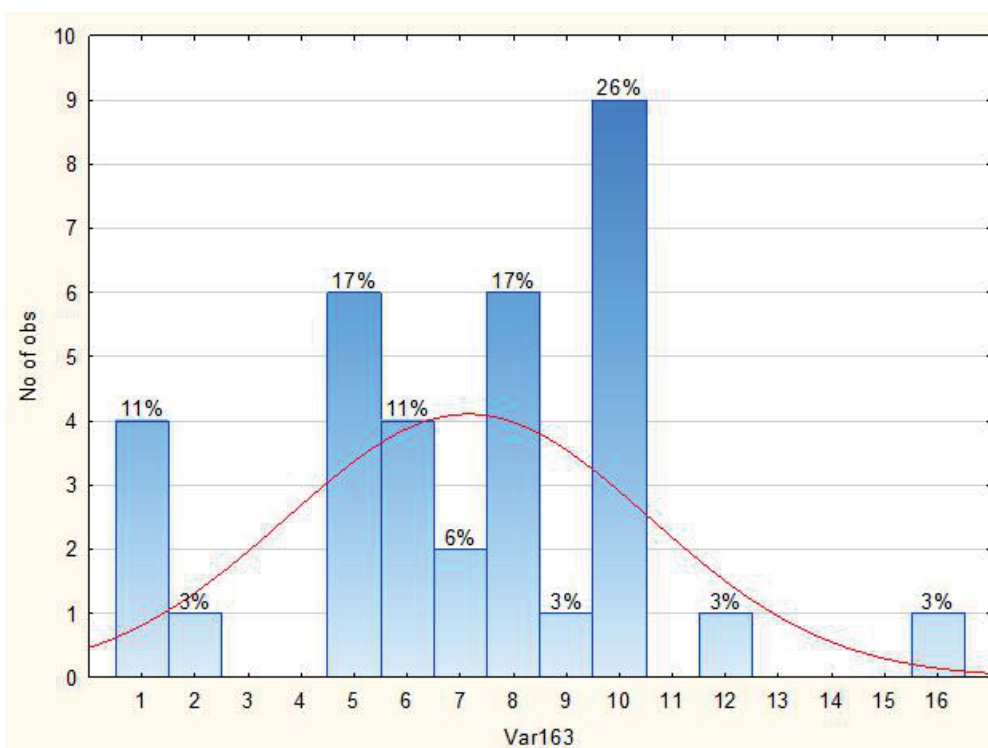
Variable	Descriptive Statistics (R SKCZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	60

**Diagram 5.1 Motives for first sex – relativists**

**Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – absolutists**

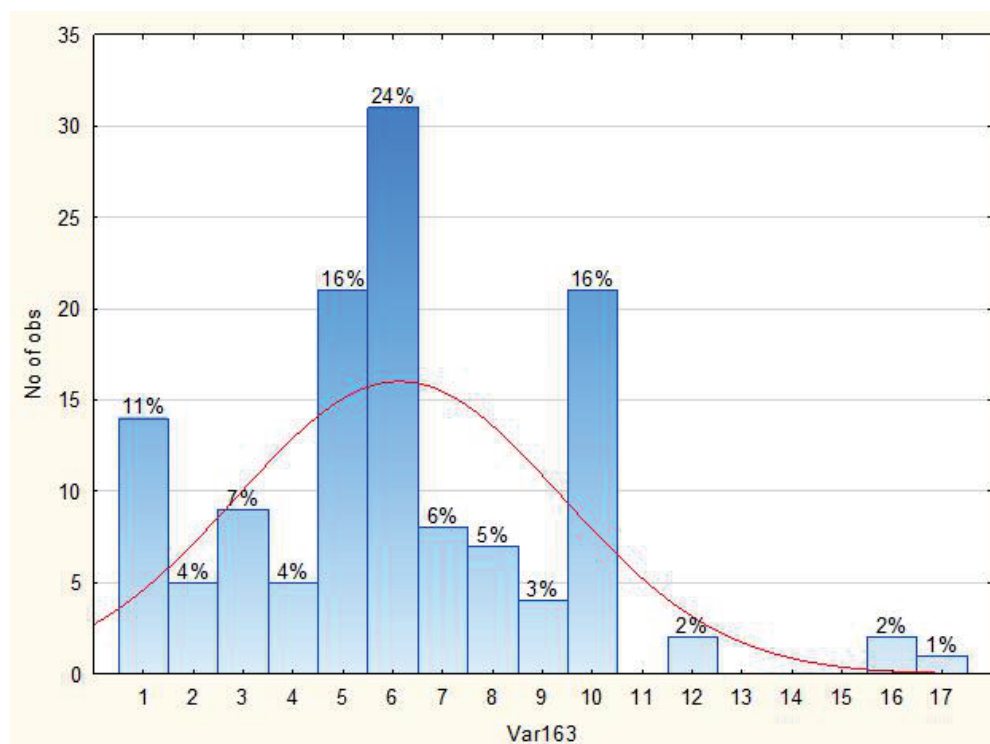
Variable	Descriptive Statistics (A SKCZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	10,00000	9

**Diagram 5.2 Motives for first sex – absolutists**



**Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics: motives for first sex – hedonists**

Variable	Descriptive Statistics (H SKCZ)	
	Mode	Frequency of Mode
Var163	6,000000	31

**Diagram 5.3 Motives for first sex – hedonists**

### Motives for the first sex from the perspective of religious belief

Without a more detailed analysis and description, but also because of the relevance from the perspective of moral preferences, we also state the results of the differences in the motives for the first sex from the perspective of religious belief.

The results of Kruskal-Wallis test, shown in table No. 6.2, suggest that from the perspective of strength of belief, no statistically significant differences at 5% level of significance were found, but from the perspective of religious belief (tab. No. 6.1), there are statistically significant differences in the answers of the respondents who consider themselves

Catholic-Protestant believers going occasionally to the church, and of the respondents who consider themselves atheists (disbelievers).

**Table 6.1 Results of Kruskal-Wallis test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of religious belief**

Depend.: Var163	Multiple Comparisons p values (2-tailed); Var163 (SK CZ) Independent (grouping) variable: Var6 Kruskal-Wallis test: $H(4) = 10,57395$ $p = ,0318$				
	1 R:435,47	2 R:450,03	3 R:409,00	4 R:371,69	5 R:420,55
1		1,000000	1,000000	0,330292	1,000000
2	1,000000		0,591339	0,026181	1,000000
3	1,000000	0,591339		1,000000	1,000000
4	0,330292	0,026181	1,000000		1,000000
5	1,000000	1,000000	1,000000	1,000000	

Legend: Religious belief – question: I consider myself: 1 – Catholic-Protestant believer – I go regularly to the church; 2 – Catholic-Protestant believer – I go occasionally to the church; 3 – Catholic-Protestant believer – I don't go to the church; 4 – atheist-disbeliever; 5 – other.

**Table 6.2 Results of Kruskal-Wallis test: motives for first sex – comparison from the perspective of strength of belief**

Depend.: Var163	Multiple Comparisons p values (2-tailed); Var163 (SK CZ) Independent (grouping) variable: Var7 Kruskal-Wallis test: $H(4) = 6,651783$ $p = ,1555$				
	1 R:441,69	2 R:423,91	3 R:552,61	4 R:348,82	5 R:315,68
1		1,000000	1,000000	1,000000	1,000000
2	1,000000		1,000000	1,000000	1,000000
3	1,000000	1,000000		0,517689	0,315904
4	1,000000	1,000000	0,517689		1,000000
5	1,000000	1,000000	0,315904	1,000000	

Legend: Strength of belief – question: Are you religious? 1 – very strongly; 2 – strongly; 3 – on average; 4 – weekly; 5 – not at all.

## Conclusion

The identified motives of sexual debut show a considerable variedness, which reflects also the diversity in individual sexual and partner curricula and moral and axiological preferences (for more details see: Marková, 2017a, 2017b).

From the perspective of sexual moral, it must be pointed out that love was stated as the most frequent motive for the first coitus, but still only by one fourth of the

respondents. Moral structures linking sexuality to partnership can be assumed too (8%). 5% respondents see the first sexual intercourse as the result of a natural course of their sexual development, and 8% respondents see the motive for their first sexual experience in their own maturity or preparedness with respect to the development of the partnership. 16% respondents see the motive for the first sex in the desire to have it. The above stated findings are in accordance with our preceding findings (Marková, 2015a) suggesting that sex legitimized by love is a dominant moral philosophy of 10% respondents. At the level of moral approval, sexuality is most frequently linked to partnership based on love, fidelity and confidence, but liberal constructions of sexuality, hedonistic and conservative moral preferences are represented as well.

Further results presented suggest that some respondents start sexual life for reasons that can be considered risky from the perspective of first-level or second-level aspects of sexual health. As Bianchi (2001) found, motives for sexual debut can be identified as pressure to sexual intercourse, consumption of alcohol or drug, favourable circumstances, curiosity, etc. As for their incidence, although such answers are varied, reflect different elements of risk level and can be assessed in different relation frameworks, up to 44% of the motives for the first sexual intercourse may suggest some risk level (among other things, a serious finding consists in the fact that less than 1% stated rape as the first sexual experience).

The motives for the first sexual intercourse showed statistically significant differences from the perspective of gender, moral preferences and religious belief; on the other hand, no statistically significant differences were identified from the perspective of Czech or Slovak nationality and age. The results suggest also gender-stereotypic constructing of sexuality, which is in accordance with the statement of many authors (e.g. in Slovakia: Bačová, 2005; Lukšík, 2003; Lukšík & Supeková 2003; Bosá, 2003a, 2003b; Bosá & Minarovičová, 2005 etc.) that so called "double moral standard" still survives in the perspective on male and female sexuality.

The acquired research data may suggest some aspects of sexual morals and at the same time serve as a useful tool of sexual education in connection with the support of first-level and second-level aspects of sexual health. As Bianchi (2001), Marková (2007a, 2007b), Rovňanová (2010, 2013, 2014a, 2014b) and other authors state and as our research findings suggest, the sexual education should address the gender-stereotypic and rigid expectations from male and female sexuality, as well as conformity that can be seen in different forms of pressure and decision making about making the first sex, and last but not least in the impulsiveness and situationality related to favourable circumstances, the partner's willingness or consumption of alcohol or drugs.



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## THE PHENOMENON OF MULTICULTURALISM. THE CASE OF POLAND<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

One of the most important global processes nowadays is migration. Its result is, inter alia, the deepening multiculturalism. It can take the form of a social phenomenon, political project or society. In this article we have focused on multiculturalism as a social phenomenon. It means the presence of different cultures with an ethnic background of their diversity in a specific social space and historical moment. They exist together and accept the mutually distinct ethnic (cultural) difference. The origins of the phenomenon of multiculturalism go back to ancient times, although then the phenomenon did not have a scientific framework of analysis. Such ones appeared in the 70s and 80s of the twentieth century. An example of a society in which multiculturalism is present is modern Poland.

### Keywords

multiculturalism, ethnic groups, national and ethnic minorities, Poland

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### Multiculturalism, what is that?

Since the 1970s and 1980s, the interest in multiculturalism has increased. At that time its first studies appeared. Still, they were accompanied by theories, concepts and ideas worked out in the past, such as assimilation, segregation, or cultural pluralism (Rokicki,

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<sup>1</sup> In this article fragments of the first chapter of the book by Anna Śliz, *Wielokulturowość: stygmat współczesnego świata? Próba analizy socjologicznej* [Multiculturalism: stigmata of the contemporary world? An attempt of sociological analysis] were used (the book submitted for publication in the UO Publishing House in May 2017).

1996). Particularly important were the assimilation ideologies, which fail both in the United States and in Australia, paved the way for cultural pluralism and multiculturalism. At first the interest in multiculturalism started in societies shaped by the immigration process. They were Canada and Australia, which in the 70s adopted, as the foundation of existence, the official policy of multiculturalism. It is based on three pillars: "the equality in the treatment of all citizens in the opportunities for individual and collective development, the abolition of racial barriers and the right of individual minority groups to define and express their unique cultural heritage and identity, among which special place is occupied by language and religion" (Zubrzycki, 2000, p. 229). The United States is led by pluralism. It means the conscious effort of minority groups, combined with the state's permission to uphold their ethnicity, while simultaneously seeking to occupy a prominent place within the dominant group (Sadowski, 1999, p. 34). Cultural pluralism therefore means the social movement of minority groups, aimed at preserving their distinctiveness within the dominant culture.

Today, the interest in multiculturalism is centered mainly on Western European countries and increasingly Central-Eastern Europe. This is connected with the increasing number of refugees and immigrants arriving on the Old Continent. This situation is perceived as an important cause of many problems, including, above all, terrorist acts. The events in France, Belgium or Germany confirm such a thinking. Contemporary interest in multiculturalism helps its unequivocal understanding. It is important to point out three basic concepts of multiculturalism in the context of different social spaces. It is multiculturalism as a social phenomenon, a political project, and multicultural society. The topic of this article will be multiculturalism as a social phenomenon. Let's just say that multiculturalism is "an ideology and a policy of respecting and harmonizing cultural differences in the area of a given country" (Golka, 2007, p. 224). It is a trial to help the ethnic (cultural) groups, who are aware of and emphasizing their distinctiveness, are demanding a law guaranteeing the equalization of their cultures with the dominant culture in the public sphere. Political projects have become an important element of Western states' policy. Multicultural society is the one "that is uniform in the public sphere but encourages diversity within what is considered private or common" (Mucha, 2005, p.53). Multicultural society is "an open society that has achieved a high degree of institutionalization and dynamics of cultural diversity and is prepared to make full use of the benefits and because of that has no special problems" (Sadowski, 2011, p. 58). In today's world there are two fully formal multicultural societies. It is Canada, whose government has adopted the general assumptions of federal multicultural policy presented in the form of "the Multiculturalism Act" and adopted by the Parliament in 1971. The Prime Minister was Pierre Elliot Trudeau of the Liberal Party (Debates. 12 October 1971). And it is Australia, whose government in 1977 adopted the report "Australia as a Multicultural Society" (Australian Ethnic Affairs Council, 1977). This is a document that sanctioned Australian multiculturalism. It was defined as a social cohesion that guarantees: equality, cultural identity, and policy to implement these values.

### Multiculturalism as a social phenomenon

Florian Znaniecki recognized sociology as a science of social phenomena that exist and change as a result of the actions of individuals and groups. They are clearly separated from natural phenomena. Social phenomena are linked to a specific cultural system "that exists for certain conscious and active historical entities, i.e. in the sphere of experience and activity of a certain people and communities living in a specific part of the human world in a particular historical age [...] a cultural system is really and objectively, what was (or is) given to those historical subjects when they experienced (or are experiencing) with it actively being dealt with" (Znaniecki, 2008, pp. 67–68). Each cultural system exists when it is manifested in human activities. In multiculturalism, the point is in a social space, containing several cultural systems. Most often there is one dominant system and minority systems. They are made up of ethnic (cultural) groups and their members. This is the occurrence of different cultures with different ethnic background in a particular space and historical time. They exist together and accept each other's differences. Such social reality is characterized by the phenomenon of multiculturalism, which in this article is of exclusively ethnic character (Mucha, 1999)<sup>2</sup>. This means, firstly, the state of visible cultural diversity of the society and the noticeable identity of the people shaped by their belonging to cultural groups. Secondly, the level of social awareness towards various values and norms and the realization of the various cultural practices manifested by people in everyday life. Thirdly, the ideological system that integrates cultural diversity into social practice (Mucha, 1999, pp. 41–50). Ethnic multiculturalism, then, is not a simple cultural differentiation, but the coexistence of groups consisting on "naming their incommensurability, emphasizing boundaries and different identities, whose behavior requires a policy of identity based on the difference" (Hałas, 2015, p. 19). Each ethnic group strives to preserve its own culture. Its members take steps to preserve the foundation of the axiological and normative systems. It is about preserving an ethnic (cultural) identity. These groups are simultaneously entering the dominant culture system, making its more or less distinctive elements. This is a phenomenon that constitutes the specific conditions of a particular social reality supported by ethno-cultural groups (Iverson, 2010, p. 2). The phenomenon of multiculturalism is one of the most important phenomena of the modern world. It is dynamic. Migration movements promote the differentiation of racial, ethnic, religious and linguistic spaces. At the same time people living in such spaces experience these differences in everyday life.

The *sine qua non* condition of the existence of multiculturalism is the common occurrence of separate groups with diverse ethnic background. Tadeusz Paleczny writes: "Multiculturalism is a phenomenon consisting of the coexistence of two or more groups with separate languages, religions, customs, traditions and systems of social organization on the boundaries of the state-territorial borders. The coexistence of cultures is a consequence

<sup>2</sup> Janusz Mucha writes about ethnic and non-ethnic multiculturalism: Janusz Mucha, *Wielokulturowość etniczna i nieetniczna*, "Sprawy Narodowościowe", 1999, nr 14–15.

of cultural contact resulting from conquest, colonization, annexation and migration" (Paleczny, 2007, p. 43). Multiculturalism occurs in societies where multiculturalism is a constant element of social life, but it does not pose any particular interest due to the minimal participation of minorities in public space. But even with their small share in society, change is happening. It breaks the absolute dominance of the majority over minorities, which promotes the manifestation of different cultures. The cultural imagination of the people and the freedom of choices widen. Multiculturalism is the prospect of many alternative choices. It is a clear rejection of assimilation, which forced people to accept a single system of values and norms. Living in contact with many cultures consists of shaping among people the attitudes of tolerance, respect and understanding for the different cultures and people representing them. On the other hand, it should be highlighted that some ethnic (cultural) groups remain at a high axiological and normative distance, which may give rise to antagonisms and conflicts (Szahaj, 2010, pp. 27–30). The social world is transformed under the influence of different ethnic (cultural) groups within its borders. The phenomenon of multiculturalism occurs exclusively in the democratic world. This is a problem of reconciling individualism, which preferred by the liberal-democratic states with a sense of strong community that characterizes peripheral states<sup>3</sup>. Ethnic (cultural) groups are characterized by strong community. They bind individuals strongly, limiting the perspective of their individualism. Such a relation may lead to a great dissonance, when a unit has to decide which way to respect: its own individualism or respecting the idea of community. The choice they will make depends on the degree of internalization of the foundations of the ethnic group of their origin. In the case of a high degree of integration, they will probably choose the community. With weaker integration, the idea of individualism becomes a reality. This is an example of a dilemma that will be accompanied by an increasing number of people. Multiculturalism is an inevitable and increasingly common phenomenon. Ryszard Kapuściński wrote [...] "let us consider whether living in different cultures, civilizations, religions, we want to look for the worst things in other cultures to strengthen our own stereotypes, or we will rather try to find points of contact [...] Our world is at a crossroads. A certain tendency seems inevitable – we will live in a world of multiculturalism" (Domosławski & Kaczorowski, 2001). Such a world requires action from us, the action which will promote the coexistence of the representatives of cultures in a specific social reality. It is primarily the acceptance of cultural differences, but also the postulate of [...] "equality in the treatment of all citizens in the created individual and collective development opportunities, the abolition of racial barriers and the right of individual minority groups to define and express their unique cultural heritage and identity, among them the language and professed religion occupy the most important place" (Zubrzycki, 2000, p.229). This is a highly desirable image of the space described. Its creation depends on several important issues. Firstly, it depends on the level of saturation of a given space with ethnic diversity. If the saturation level is low, then there are rarely

<sup>3</sup> It is a reference to Immanuel Wallerstein's world's system concept, *Analiza systemów światów. Wprowadzenie*, translated by Katarzyna Gawlicz, Marcin Wielgosz, Dialogue, Warsaw 2007.



problems with substrate related to ethnic (cultural) differences. Secondly, it depends on the cultural distance between the groups. As the distance increases, the threat of ethnic conflict increases. Thirdly, historical past between peoples or ethnic groups are important, as they affect contemporary relationships. Fourthly, it concerns the level of entitlements related to the availability of goods and privileges. A conflict arises when there is a clear difference in access law. These issues may favor or limit the probability of a conflict that disturbs the coexistence of groups of different ethnic (cultural) backgrounds and delays the process of creating a new social order based on ethnic (cultural) diversity.

Multiculturalism is a modern global process whose dynamics can no longer be stopped, but one can prepare well for it. It depends only on policies of individual countries and people, what the multicultural future will be: can we in the diversified world seek and show what connects us, live in peace and create one common but internally differentiated world? Or on the contrary – to indicate what divides us and, inter alia, to cite stereotypes and fears, to provoke antagonisms, divisions and conflicts? The answers to those problems are neither simple nor unequivocal. Multiculturalism is a variety of images, the common denominator of which is the multiplicity of different ethnic cultures, which make up both the past and the present of the world. But it is primarily a phenomenon of the future.

### **Multiculturalism in a historical sight**

The phenomenon of multiculturalism is not new. It reaches ancient times, though then it was not scientifically analyzed. It was only a phenomenon that created a specific social reality. It is difficult to point to the birth of the phenomenon of multiculturalism, but it is possible to recall its original documentation, which dates back to ancient times, when "it was realized that different societies were characterized by different lifestyles" (Linton, 2007, p. 403), and when representatives of different cultures lived in the walls of the Pharaoh courts in Egypt. It was most often the result of wars, conquest and migration. The result of these events were the contacts of people from different cultural worlds. Such meetings can be regarded as the beginning of the phenomenon of multiculturalism. It also appeared in ancient Greece – *polis*, when it came to intercultural relations. On the one hand, there were the citizens of Greek cities, on the other Metics (foreigners). It was similarly among the slaves from different ethnic groups. Herodotus (484 BC – 425 BC) realized how culturally diverse world was, when addressing the Greeks: "No, we are not alone – he told the Greeks [...] – we have neighbors, they in turn have their neighbors, and we all populate one planet" (Kapuściński, 2004, p. 203). These are the observations of Herodotus on his journey as he reached different tribes and peoples. He saw their history and culture, which sometimes meet and cross in infinite number of points (Kapuściński, 2004, p. 203).

The original framework of the multicultural phenomenon is also created by the Roman legions. As a result of the recruitment, they had representatives from Dalmatia, Spain, Germany and Syria. Ancient Rome was also the epitome of the city in which the different

cultural worlds met (Golka, 2010, pp. 66–67). The phenomenon of multiculturalism that began in the ancient world deepened in the next centuries that people's wanders did not stop as well as wars and conquests. They brought together representatives of different cultures in a specific social space. A good example may be the Ottoman Empire, which at the height of territorial development (14<sup>th</sup>–20<sup>th</sup> centuries), has spread on three continents: parts of south-west Asia, northern Africa and south-east Europe. Within the borders of the empire there were diverse religious communities. Each of them ruled by its own rights, recognizing in return the administrative authority of the state and paying for its maintenance (Buchowski, 2008, p. 26). Neither in the ancient times nor in later centuries there was, however, a scientific basis for the elaboration and analysis of multiculturalism. This state changed in Enlightenment. It contributed to the realization, first of all in Europe, of the existence of cultural diversity. The "Persian Letters" by Charles Louis de Secondat Baron de la Brède et Montesquieu (1689–1755) highly contributed in the process. This is a polyphonic epistolary novel consisting of 161 letters written by two Persians wandering across Europe. In the letters they shared their impressions of the journey (1712–1720), writing: "it is a peculiar spectacle for the Mohammedan to watch the first Christian city. I'm not talking about things that hit the front, like the difference of buildings, clothes, and customs: in everything in the smallest details there is something separate, something I feel even though I can not describe it" (de Secondat, n.d., pp. 21–22). These are words about cultural diversity not only of Europe but of the world. The ancient times and later centuries are the oldest intellectual sources of multiculturalism, not based on the theoretical foundations of scientific analysis. In this context Bogdan Szlachta writes that "multiculturalism is an ancient phenomenon. This truism refers us to antiquity, in which we would in vain seek for theoretical projects reminiscent of those formulated today [...]" (Szlachta, 2010, p. 17). Theoretical foundations for contemporary multicultural analysis emerged in the 1970s when multiculturalism was recognized as the foundation of the existence of Canada and Australia.

Ethnic diversity has been associated with societies for centuries and has been an important link in the construction of their social structure. Today's "novelty in policy is to foster the idea that the state should be aware of the cultural diversity that characterizes its population" (Savidan, 2012, p.1). These words confirm the fact that the phenomenon of multiculturalism was present before the theoretical structures and political projects of multiculturalism emerged. Nowadays, this phenomenon is related to the need for individual freedom and participation in culture and the world, which on the one hand is subject to the process of globalization and on the other – to regional integration. It is a fact that ethnic diversity (cultural) is one of the oldest phenomena in the history of mankind. Human beings have always migrated, changing their habitat, and thus differentiating social spaces. On the way of a journey they met further communities with which they either started sharing space or waged war:

*In 70 AD, Jerusalem, one of the largest and most famous cities of its time, bringing together the highest aspirations of the Jewish people, both religious and national after*

*a heavy siege was devastated by Roman troops. For the next few centuries the Jews were pushed to the margins of the empire society, and Rome became in their eyes the embodiment of hostile tyranny. Never before in the history of the Roman Empire had such a polarization of two cultures coexisting till that time in conformity happened. (Goodman, 2007, p.7)*

This is just one of many examples of the clash of different cultures leading to their antagonistic relationships. Similar dramas of societies do not belong exclusively to the past. The Balkan conflict of the 1990s, or the revolution in the countries of North Africa – Libya or Syria – are more contemporary examples when different ethnic groups had lived in harmony with each other for many years and then suddenly began to fight and mutilate each other. They are very brutal and tragic events, occurring in the context of inter-ethnic relations. It is difficult to prevent them even more if we realize that there are more ethnic groups in the world than countries. There are over 5,000 of the first ones, among them nearly 600 language groups have been singled out. Meanwhile, there are 194 sovereign states (De Swaan, 2001, p.1).

Looking for the beginnings of the phenomenon of multiculturalism one should refer, *inter alia*, to the work of the Polish sociologist Ludwik Gumplowicz, who not only recognized the diversity of human groups, but recognized them as an important cause of social development. According to him, humanity comes from different groups, which he called races. He borrowed this term from ethnology and social anthropology rather than racist theories, which he was accused of (Gella, 1966, pp. 86–89). The race was not a product of biological and physiological processes for Gumplowicz, but a historical process connected with "unity, which starting point is in the spiritual elements (language, religion, customs, law, culture) and only then comes the most powerful physical element which connects, to the unity of blood" (Gumplowicz, 1910, p.195). The history of mankind begins with the clash of the first hordes of the *Homo sapiens*. The intensity of the phenomenon was proportional to the degree of group diversity. People naturally were equipped with hatred for all those who belonged to other hordes. By joining one, they were connected by a common culture to create ethnic or national group. The variety that is indicated by Gumplowicz is called *polygenism*, that is, multitribes. Separate human hordes as a result of fights and wars created larger and more complex communities. The Polish sociologist conceded that conquest and multiplicity are closely related, and that fighting has been a factor of development since the dawn of time "in the primitive times when the human race was made up of countless different tribes and groups, who were fighting all the time and as a result of the forced union of various elements in the state [...]" (Gumplowicz, 1910, p.253). For Ludwik Gumplowicz, the ethnic and cultural diversity of the world had its origins in the concept of *polygenesis*, to which he remained faithful for many years. Gumplowicz's conception was confronted with the idea of Lester F. Ward, who said that the nature could create only one form of a man, and the differentiation of color, figure, and height is the result of adaptation to different geographical conditions. Humanity has a common origin, but while spreading of the world it has varied ethnically and culturally

(Gella, 1966, pp. 228–237). Such diversity is on the one hand the foundations of states, whose history is reduced to the struggle of culturally distinct groups. On the other hand, societies as those that in a given space are concentrated in different ethnic and cultural groups. This is another path to the formation of the phenomenon of multiculturalism. Patrick Savidan drew attention to the different path of the formation of multiculturalism. He pointed to the significant dependence of the democratic and national state. As a result of the loss of integration forces by the national state, the democratic state is weakening. It is a condition leading to the weakening of the sovereignty of the state, whose strength is its inclusion in the framework of the nation state. Then ethnic (cultural) diversity is revealed and the primary source of change is the decline of social ties. People start living in harmony with their own ethnic culture, demanding its recognition within the framework of a democratic state.

Today the phenomenon of multiculturalism is seen to some extent as a natural process of meeting the representatives of various *ethnos* in a particular social space. They live together within the framework of state structures, recognizing each other's social status. It is a reality where there is a dominant culture and ethnic (cultural) groups. Their participation in social life is minimal. No special action is required, neither by the authorities nor by the co-inhabitants. An example of such a defined social reality is Poland.

### **A phenomenon of multiculturalism: an example of Poland**

The phenomenon of multiculturalism in Poland, as it appears from literature, has a long history of "carrier of ethnicity and multiculturalism, which has grown out of the intuition of researchers from mainly (but not only) Polish perspective, because what appeared in science as ethnicity and multiculturalism is most often found in American social sciences while ethnicity and multiculturalism has its pioneers in Europe, and I will even dare say that in Poland it has its precursors" (Żelazny, 2012, pp. 78–80). Walter Żelazny considers Ludwik Zamenhof (1859–1917) and Ludwik Gumpłowicz (1869–1942) as such precursors. It also reaches the times of the Commonwealth of the Two Nations, when Poland was a multinational state. At the same time, it can not be assumed that the Commonwealth was a multicultural society at the time, although we certainly can talk about the phenomenon of multiculturalism. It was the result of religious wars in Europe but also agreements when members of religious minorities – Jews and Karaites (Judaism), Crimean Tatars (Muslims), Mennonites settled in Zulawy (radical Christian croaker) – arrived in Poland from Western Europe. They could freely practice their religion and tradition in Poland. They were not forced to accept Catholicism. Poland had been a multinational state for centuries, although in times it was attempted to diminish its role in social life. The reasons for such actions were political. This note refers to the times after the end of World War II. Before the war, in 1931, the results of the Census indicated that Poles constituted 68.9% of the population, Ukrainians – 13.9%, Jews – 8.6%, Belarussians – 3.1%, Germans – 2.3%, and other nationalities – 3.2% (Łodziński, 1995).

Such population composition of Poland was radically changed after the end of World War II. As a consequence of the extermination of the Nazi ideology towards the Polish people of Jewish origin, as a result of mass movements caused by border changes, forced displacement and voluntary migration, and the policies of the authorities, the number and quantity of national and ethnic minorities decreased markedly. At the turn of the 1960s and 1970s, the Ministry of the Interior – obliged to carry out appropriate statistics – reported that all national and ethnic minorities living in Poland constituted 1.5% of the total population: 500,000 people. The most numerous were the Ukrainian and Belarussian minorities, whose total number was estimated at 400,000 people. The existence of a German minority was questioned, including only 3,000 people from non-Polish evangelical churches in Pomerania and Lower Silesia. Other estimates from this period assessed the number of people belonging to national and ethnic minorities at 450,000. It was estimated that there were 180,000 Ukrainians, 165,000 Belarussians, 31,000 Jews, 21,000 Slovaks, 2,000 Czechs, 19,000 Russians, 10,000 Lithuanians, 3,000 Germans, 12,000 Roma (Gypsies) and 10,000 Greeks and Macedonians. However, even such a minor share of the minority was – in postwar Poland (1944–1989) – hidden (Szczepański, 1999, pp. 17–18). The official news was that Poland was a one nation country.

The changes in perception of the level of ethnic (cultural) diversity of Poland took place after 1989. They were, inter alia, the consequence of the following:

*1. the abolition of institutional barriers, censorship (>>gag<<) of natural cultural communication, development and choice of their own cultural values in society, 2. changes in the treatment of the citizen by the state connected with the respect of human rights, one of the fundamental ones is the right of every person to his or her own cultural identity. The right to be different includes, but is not limited to, the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion, teaching, possession and expression the opinions. Thanks to the policy of respecting human rights, cultural minorities are no longer hidden, private and passive, but active, public and demanding, 3. Opening of borders, on the one hand facilitating the importation of new content, values, cultural objects etc., on the other, causing the inclusion of Polish society in the >>international<< and universal culture, 4. The crisis of the canon (>>center<<) of Polish culture already described above. Traditional Polish culture slowly loses its center (hierarchy and authority) and takes on a liberal-folk character, for which freedom of expression and local bonds are most important. Polish culture in a descriptive sense becomes more and more >>flattened<<, multicentric and regionalized. (Kempny, Kapciak, & Łodziński, 1997, p.16)*

These changes became apparent in public life and ethnic (cultural) differences began to openly contribute to the image of society. Today Poland is a nation state with ethnic and national minorities. It is an example of social space in which multiculturalism is present. The results of the National Population and Housing Census of 2002 also indicate this. For the first time, Poles were asked about national identity and a language used at home.

Obtained data showed that 1.23% of the inhabitants of Poland declared other than Polish nationality. The largest number of declarations concerned the German minority. At the same time, 1.47% of the Polish population said that they used a language other than Polish in their family contacts. Most often it was German and English (Janusz, 2011, pp. 131–133). The second Census in XXI century (2011) revealed that in Poland were 2.19% of people declaring jointly Polish and non-Polish national identity and 1.46% declaring exclusively non-Polish nationality (Narodowy Spis Powszechny Ludności i Mieszkań, n.d.). It's a slight increase but comparing to 2002 – noticeable.

The largest number involved the identification of Silesian and Kashubian and the smallest of Spanish and Dutch (Gudaczewski, 2015, p. 66). In the case of declarations of belonging to the Silesian nationality, in 2002 there were 173,153. The largest number in the Silesian Voivodship (148,500) and Opolskie (24,200). Also in the area of the Polish part of Cieszyn Silesia (Cieszyn District, Bielsko-Biala District, Bielsko-Biala), 1045 people declared their Silesian nationality (Wyniki Narodowego Spisu Powszechnego Ludności i Mieszkań, 2002). The National Census of 2011 made it possible to identify a complex ethnic identity. This was not possible in 2002. Probably this change, among other things, caused the Silesian nationality to be declared by 817,000 people in 2011, among them 362,000 as the only one. Silesian national identity was declared as the first one by 418,000 people (Narodowy Spis Powszechny Ludności i Mieszkań, 2011). Similar changes occurred in Kashubian identification. In the year 2002 there were 5,062 such identifications, and in 2011 there were 232,547 of them, of which 16,377 indicated the Kashubian minority as the only national identification group (Kaszebsko.com, n.d.). Such results show the real level of ethnic (cultural) diversity in Poland. It is small, which authorizes Walter Connor to describe Poland in a justified way, with such states as Iceland as a nation state (Connor, 1994, p. 96). The level of ethnic (cultural) diversity of Poland practically excludes the occurrence of problems related to multiculturalism. This situation may change in the context of the wave of refugees and immigrants arriving in Europe. Poland, as a member of the European Community, has certain obligations in this regard. This results, for example, from the fact that Poland signed the Geneva Convention on the Status of Refugees of July 28, 1951. Poland joined the Convention on September 2, 1991, and the act itself states, among others, the principle that "all people without discrimination should benefit from fundamental rights and freedoms" (Internetowy System Aktów Prawnych, n.d.).

In 2017, the level of ethnic diversity in Poland does not require special actions from the state administrative structures. However, Poland has two important documents defining the rights of national and ethnic minorities. In the Constitution in Art. 35 there is the record:

*1. The Republic of Poland assures Polish citizens belonging to national and ethnic minorities the freedom to preserve and develop their own language, preserve customs and traditions and develop their own culture. 2. National and ethnic minorities have the right to establish their own educational, cultural and religious institutions and to*

*participate in the settlement of matters relating to their cultural identity.* (Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, 2010, pp. 13–14)

Poland allows representatives of ethnic and national minorities who are citizens of Poland to cultivate their traditions within the Polish society. It does not mention minority members who do not have Polish citizenship. By defining the rights of minorities simultaneously in the preamble to the Basic Law of April 2, 1997 Poland puts believing Poles on the first place "we, the nation of Poland – all citizens, both believers in God, the source of truth, justice, good and beauty, and not relying on this faith, and these universal Values derived from other sources [...]" (Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, n.d.). This is a record emphasizing the dominant role of the Polish people and its culture (Buchowski, 2008, p.37). For comparison, the Constitution of Canada, which is a multicultural society, begins with the words:

*Whereas Canada has been created in accordance with the principles of God's sovereignty and the rule of law [...] the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms guarantees the rights and freedoms it expresses and subject only to such limitations which are set by law and have clear justification in a free and democratic society. [...] Everyone has the following fundamental freedoms: (a) freedom of conscience and religion; (b) freedom of thought, beliefs and expression of opinions, including freedom of the press and other means of communication; (c) freedom of peaceful assembly; (d) freedom of association.* (Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, 1998, p.94)

The Polish and Canadian Constitution's submissions show the fundamental difference between the two societies. Poland, which is characterized by the phenomenon of multiculturalism, clearly indicates the national foundations of society and the state. Canada, on the other hand, is a formal multicultural society, born of a long process of immigration, where there is no single, national (cultural) domination.

In 2005, a special law on national and ethnic minorities and regional language was adopted in Poland (Ustawa, 2005). The law fully respects the rights and obligations of minorities living in Poland. It defines, among other things, the concept of national minorities – it recognizes nine national and ethnic minorities – it recognizes four ethnic minorities and one regional language (Kashubian). Indicates "that it governs the preservation and development of cultural identities of national and ethnic minorities and the preservation and development of the regional language, as well as the manner of implementing the principle of equal treatment of people irrespective of ethnicity and defines the tasks and powers of governmental and local government bodies in connection with these matters" (Ustawa, 2005, roz. 1, art. 1). The law also explicitly prohibits discrimination on grounds of national or ethnic affiliation. Such a prohibition is also in the 1997 Constitution and the Penal Code. However, there are situations when in practice these prohibitions seem dead. But it should also be stressed that many of the discriminatory behavior of Poles against immigrants or refugees is finalized in the courts. An example is the verdict for the

perpetrators of beating students from Turkey in Toruń. They came to Poland thanks to the Erasmus program.

The Constitution of the Republic of Poland and the Act on National and Ethnic Minorities and Regional Language fulfill the needs of national and ethnic minorities in Poland. Although the Minority Act is subject to various amendments, it does not change the essential part. Strong domination of Polish national culture and the low participation of national and ethnic minorities do not require the adoption of special political projects. It does not, however, free Poles from showing understanding and sensitivity to any ethnic or national issues. It is particularly important in the context of the contemporary problems of refugees and migrants coming to Europe. Poland should in this regard be guided by solidarity with the countries of the European Union. Today Poland remains a society in which multiculturalism occurs.

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The phenomenon of multiculturalism arouses different attitudes among people, although they are rarely extreme. As the participation of minorities in society life is not big, so it does not raise fears of different cultures. They do not change the established social order but only integrate into existing state and administrative structures and rules of socio-cultural life. Hence the level of their acceptance in society is high. Minorities live within the boundaries of a dominant culture respecting its laws. They can manifest their cultural distinctiveness. They can have their own religion and use their own languages. This arrangement ensures the easy coexistence of representatives of different cultures, although minor antagonisms also occur. An example of such a constituted society and state is Poland today.

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# THE PROGRAM OF CRIME PREVENTION AND SOCIAL PATHOLOGY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC – CHOSEN HISTORICAL ASPECTS

**Miroslav Pilát**

## **Abstract**

The article describes the basis, the theoretical framework of criminality prevention in the Czech Republic until the year 2015, the structure of criminality prevention in the Czech Republic, the levels of prevention activities, the history of Criminality prevention and social pathology program in the Czech republic, the strategy of criminality prevention in the Czech republic, the organization of criminality prevention programs in the Czech Republic, the phases of criminality prevention creation on the local level.

## **Keywords**

Crime prevention, social prevention, situation prevention, preventive policy, prevention strategy objects of crime prevention.

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## **Preface**

At the end of the last century, the Czech Republic, in accordance with good practice criminological advanced democracies, pushed the idea that increasing crime can not in any case face a mere increase in repressive means. It was recognized that the mere threat of stricter criminal repression (or direct application of criminal sanctions), or related augmentation of numbers in the police, the number of prosecutors or judges or prison capacity expansion, never led to the removal and even often do not reduce crime. In addition, the highly repressive means a very challenging economic and burden the state budget (Večerka, 2001). Večerka (2001) have their work wonders why repression alone does not meet the expected purpose?

According to the author, to which we incline, it is mainly because the personal characteristics of the conscious criminally prepared and committed people are in an overwhelming number of cases such that it will not allow the idea that they could be in

the commission of the offense detected, located and subsequently affected. Repression is these people perceived as "other problem". And even if you have personal experience with the criminal sanction. His identification and punishment of delinquency tend to interpret as punishment for the former awkwardness or small preparedness (which is no longer in the future will not repeat), as coincidence fatally adverse done deeds or betrayal accomplices. The actual sentence, however, is not what it could be and certainly enough to deter them from future criminal behavior. Calling the general public for increased criminal repression as the only effective means of countering crime is therefore naive. In accordance with Večerka (2001) can therefore be concluded that well-managed preventive work is an effective means of reducing crime and other undesirable phenomena in society. Prevention is not only a natural regulator of antisociality and asociality, but also an important factor in the development of a society based on law, justice and respect for others.

## 1. Background and Theoretical Framework for Crime Prevention in The Czech Republic

Crime Prevention Department of the Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic (Crime Prevention, 2008) in accordance with the theory and practice defines the basic concepts in the field of crime prevention in the following manner.

**Preventive policy** is a proactive crime control strategy, which relies primarily on non-punitive means. It deals with the elimination of social pathologies, and reducing the motive and opportunity to commit crimes. Range of entities preventive policy includes among agencies involved in criminal proceedings – justice system, the police, prosecutors, courts and prison system (which of course does not play a major role), and other institutions – such as non-punitive public authorities, public interest associations, churches, businesses and individual citizens. Crime prevention is the next part of the criminal policy of repression.

**Crime prevention** involves a set of repressive measures, i.e. all activities by state, public and private entities seeking to prevent the commission of crime and reducing the fear of it. These include measures aimed at or resulting in a reduction of the extent and severity of the crime and its consequences, whether through reducing criminogenic opportunities, or by potential offenders and victims of crime. It is a measure of social prevention, situational prevention, including public about how to protect against crime and assist victims of crime. Crime prevention is closely linked to the prevention of other social phenomena, the most serious of which include various forms of addiction. In the literature we can find different notion of prevention.

One of the most comprehensive definitions considers the definition Vlček and Zapletal (in Večerka, 1997, p. 6), according to which crime prevention "...includes all activities aimed at preventing crime, to reduce the incidence way to prevent the perpetration or

neutralization of causes and conditions of crime offenses (criminogenic factors). These include measures aimed at or resulting in a reduction of the extent and severity of the crime. Whether through reducing criminogenic opportunities, or by potential offenders and victims of crime. Prevention therefore represents an attempt to eliminate criminal activity before the start of or prior to the proceeding."

Criminogenic factors (social environment, the causes and conditions of crime), potential or actual perpetrators of crime and potential or actual victims of crimes are treated as **objects of crime prevention**.

Crime prevention includes all measures to reduce the risk of crime and their harmful consequences to individuals and society, including the fear of crime. Crime prevention tries to influence diverse causes of crime. Law enforcement and criminal sanctions in this context be left aside, despite their potential preventive effects<sup>1</sup> (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

### The general goal of crime prevention

The overall aim of the preventive work in the area of crime is "maintaining the behavior of members of society in a majority of citizens consensually agreed standards and values, using funds primarily of non-penalty nature. Prevention is therefore deliberately sought to avoid major distortions of the most important social regulative. These include the first rules of substantive criminal law, which are (or should be) an extract of low morals of society. These standards, of course, does not exhaust all the citizens in the area of standards and values of formal and informal means of protecting against disruption" (Havrdová, 2007, p. 84).

Crime prevention, however, can not be fully assessed in isolation, but must be understood in the broader context of prevention of risky behavior.

"The term risky behavior while we mean behavior, which results in a demonstrable increase in health, social, educational and other risks for the individual or society." (Miovský, 2010, p. 23)

Among others (bullying, violence in schools, substance abuse, racism, truancy, etc.) into the patterns of risk behavior ranks as general criminal conduct (Miovský, 2010).

Unlike traditional criminal repression, which is implemented formal crime control institutions (police, prosecutors, courts) already represents a response to the offense and the offender through the criminal process and the consequent imposition of criminal sanctions. Crime prevention in the broadest sense can be understood as interventions implemented by different actors at different stages, the main purpose is basically to prevent crime before it occurs. In essence it concerns to prevent crime (Štefunková, 2012).

<sup>1</sup> 12<sup>th</sup> United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Salvador, Brazil, 12–19 April 2010.

## 2. The Structure of Crime Prevention in The Czech Republic

In the literature, mainly in Czech Republic assert tripartite division crime prevention:

- a) in terms of content on social prevention,
- b) in terms of opportunities for situational prevention,
- c) in terms of sacrifice for victimological prevention, or prevention of how not to become a victim of a criminal offense.

**a) Social prevention** is an activity affecting the process of socialization and social integration, and activities aimed at changing negative social and economic conditions that are considered key causes of crime. Social prevention is part of social policy. The effectiveness of social prevention is difficult to statistically or economically measurable; it can be only inferred, in terms of estimates of the social perspectives of individuals – Objects preventive action (Crime Prevention, 2008).

**b) Situation Prevention** builds on the experience that certain types of crime occur at certain times at certain locations and under certain circumstances. Through action regime, physical and technical protection seeks to minimize the criminogenic conditions. Operates most effectively in reducing property crime. The success of situational prevention is high, but it is conditioned by adequate choice of measures and financial and personnel resources invested in it. The focus of responsibility for situational prevention measures rests with citizens and communities and within the defined competencies of the Ministry of the Interior, or the Czech Police (Crime Prevention, 2008).

**c) Victimization prevention** and assistance to victims of crime is based on the concepts of safe behavior differentiated with respect to various criminal situations and mental readiness at risk. In practice, it is a group and individual medical, psychological and legal counseling, training in self-defense strategies and promotion of technical means of protection against crime. It uses methods of social and situational prevention, according to the degree of danger to the primary, secondary and tertiary levels (Crime Prevention, 2008).

The above concept of prevention to be broken down in terms of the main addressees of the tripartite further divided into:

1. Primary prevention,
2. Prevention of secondary,
3. Tertiary prevention.

This breakdown allows the combination of both criteria, such as social or situational prevention is tracted mostly as primary, secondary or tertiary.

In contrast, Schneider (in Večerka, 1997), based on the work Lejins (1967) distinguishes three main categories of crime prevention:

- a) Prevent lawful, i.e. based on the criminal law or closely related,
- b) Prevention intervention, which has similarities with the concept of prevention of social,



c) Preventing mechanical, which has many of the same characteristics with situational prevention, as in the Czech Republic used in the literature.

## 2.1. Levels of prevention activities

As mentioned above, social and situational approaches are complementary in primary, secondary and tertiary prevention.

- 1) **Primary prevention** is in our conditions is seen as a strategy of indirect and involves primarily educational, educational, recreational, educational and consulting activities focused on the general public. Particular attention is focused on the positive influence especially children and youth (leisure time, sports facilities). The focus of primary prevention lies in families, in schools and in local communities.
- 2) **Secondary prevention** is seen as a direct strategy focused on risk individuals a group of persons who have an increased likelihood of becoming offenders or victims of crime (specialized social care), socially pathological phenomena (such as drug and alcohol abuse, truancy, gambling, loafing, vandalism, and interethnic conflicts, long term unemployment) and causes of criminogenic situation. It also aims to protect the material value, which are often the object of interest offenders.
- 3) **Tertiary prevention** is designed as a direct strategy, which consists in re-socialization criminally disturbed persons (jobs, retraining, social and family counseling, assistance in obtaining housing ...). Its aim is to maintain the results of previous interventions and reconstruction of dysfunctional social environment (Crime Prevention, 2008).

Responsibility for the primary prevention of Social and falls within the scope of family, community and the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Secondary and tertiary prevention with regard to the technical demands of the individual activities of affairs of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and in some contexts and the Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Health. In the specific part of the population has the Ministry of Defence (Crime Prevention, 2008).

## Victimological crime prevention

A special kind of preventive activities (which began to develop in the context of the concepts of situational prevention) are by Štefunková (2012) projects aimed at protecting potential victims of crime (the so-called Victimological prevention; victima word – Latin, victim – English = sacrifice). Victimological prevention combines elements of social and situational crime prevention. Its purpose is to prevent crime with the active participation of potential victims. States that this type of prevention is also done in three basic steps.

### 3. History of The Program of Crime Prevention in The Czech Republic

#### 3.1. The first steps in the field of crime prevention in the Czech Republic

Since the early eighties in democratic countries preventive policy in effect become equal part of criminal policy, which has since been trying in access to crime to achieve a balance between prevention and repression. Preventing crime in the Czech Republic, as systematically and systemically conceived action at the government level, became operational after 1993.

At the end of the era of the socialist state, although the importance of prevention of crime verbally acknowledged, but its concept and execution were very formal, prevention existed more on paper than in practice and this formal approach to prevention rather led to the discrediting of the notion of prevention at all than to practical effects. After 1990, concurrently with the profound social changes, there was a significant expansion of the crime. From 1989 to 1993, increased the number of recorded offenses more than tripled. In the same period, but the number of crimes increased by only 35% and the number of perpetrators by 50 %. There are forms of crime previously little known or less widespread, such as crime associated with drugs, symptoms of organized crime, crimes in the economic sphere, etc. The media began to invest crime substantially more attention than before. These phenomena, together with other influences considerably impressed with the social consciousness, which increased public concern over crime and heighten the sense of danger crime (Havrdová, 2007).

Due to an increase in fear of crime have been sharpening repressive attitudes of the public, calls for stricter penalties for offenders. Along with this, but especially the professional community began to deeply explore the possibilities and limits of criminal repression and the need to draw up a comprehensive criminal policy, focusing on the causes of crime and its influencing or stimulating factors. Gradually the rehabilitation of the discredited concept of prevention, understanding of the need for preventive policies and to search for new content and organization of preventive work. In 1991, Czechoslovak Helsinki Committee opinion on the issues of crime and potential expansion of criminal legislation this expansion face. In an opinion entitled "The right of citizens to safety in the rule of law"<sup>2</sup> has requested that in all three governments (federal, Czech and Slovak), that committees of crime prevention as their inter-departmental bodies. It also landed requested that such committees were also in the assemblies of the city's most vulnerable crime and that these committees prepare the necessary preventive programs. In this opinion, outlined a number of measures that such programs should take into account (Havrdová, 2007).

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<sup>2</sup> Posted in Literary papers of 8 January 1991 Lawyer magazine 1/1992, 83–86.

The above opinion had played a significant role in discussions about the need for preventive policies and organization of preventive action, and so in 1993 the Government of the Czech Republic in its Resolution No. 22/1993 to handle social program and crime prevention. The foundation stone of the construction of the institutional conditions for the development of preventive policies in the Czech Republic was laid in 1993, when the Government Decree No. 617/1993 established the Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic Committee for Crime Prevention, whose composition a representation of the different ministries and institutions are presented in the following chapter.

National Committee for the Prevention of Crime was established with the task of coordinating the activities of the relevant central bodies of state administration in the field of crime prevention, collaborate with non-public sector (civil initiatives and movements, churches and other organizations), methodically lead and support the development of preventive activities and the activities of local authorities for crime prevention, to support the implementation of preventive programs and projects and evaluate their effectiveness, prepare and submit to the government policy documents relating to the prevention (Osmančík & Novotný, in Havrdová, 2007).

The central idea of the establishment of this committee, which became the basis for building a prevention system in the Czech Republic, was that his role is not to prevent drive, but rather to coordinate and initiate and support. The focus of prevention from the outset was directed to the activities of the local authority and local governments, depending on specific local conditions, problems and needs. The establishment of the National Committee for the Prevention of Crime therefore did not only mean systemic solutions to prevent crime at the level of central government authority and the emergence of authority for the preparation of preventive policies but also heralded the basic orientation of this policy, emphasizing the key role and responsibility of local authorities for developing and implementing their own preventive policy.

At the same time, in January of the same year established the Department public relations and prevention of the Ministry of the Interior and exactly after three years of his tenure, the department was abolished and its powers took over part of the newly established Department of Prevention, at 1 October 1996, the department was renamed the Department of Crime Prevention and the Department bears the name today.

In the same year, the prevention of crime in the Czech Republic for the first time from the state budget funds earmarked a major pillar of preventive activities became a crime prevention program at the local level, which was implemented with the assistance of local self- government special-purpose grants. These financial grants allocated on the basis of the submitted projects, the National Committee for the Prevention of Crime.

The main characteristic of the period 1996–2007 was building a system of crime prevention including organizational, personnel, information and financial security. The generated system is based on preventive programs ministries represented in the Committee of crime prevention, crime prevention programs at the local level, the research, analysis, evaluation and prevention activities of the Ministry of Interior and the Police of the Czech Republic on cooperation with non-governmental organizations and entities that operate in situational prevention.

### 3.2. Crime Prevention Strategy in the Czech Republic from 1996 to 2007

The first crime prevention strategy was prepared by the Ministry of the Interior in 1996, originally as a four-year strategic document. Until now, the Czech government approved the implementation of several other strategies that gradually encompass a range of measures, activities and approaches in the field of crime prevention. Especially in the period from 1996 to 2004, formed the other areas and bodies of crime prevention are closely related (e.g. caused by the Probation and Mediation Service, adopting new laws related with the prevention of crime).

An important step to stabilize the financial security has been made by the Government Resolution No. 137 of 1996, which were both released funds from the state budget for the implementation of this program in 1996, and at the same time, this amount was divided into chapters budgetary sector represented in the Committee for the Prevention of Crime. At the same time the Minister of Interior and Chairman of the National Committee for the Prevention of Crime deposited submit a draft of association and spending of funds from the state budget for social prevention programs, crime prevention and drug addiction (Gjuričová, in Havrdová, 2007).

In this way, in the mid-nineties of the last century in the Czech Republic built in phases and subsequently stabilized system of preventive work.

He was appointed the National Committee for the Prevention of Crime as coordination, conceptual and methodological body of the Government of the Czech Republic and system support prevention activities from the state budget. They were first developed departmental crime prevention programs and in particular it was decided to focus on the basic focus of preventive work at the local level, ie in cities and municipalities, and the responsibility and accountability of local public authorities.

These abovementioned basic principles of prevention in the Czech Republic were incorporated into the Crime Prevention Strategy in 2000, which was a fundamental conceptual document crime prevention approved by the Czech Government Resolution No. 209 of 9 April 1997. At this first ever Crime Prevention Strategy then followed her other updates on the fulfillment of which the government is informed in its annual reports in which they are currently defined which tasks in the field of crime prevention for the future (Havrdová, 2007).

### 3.3. Strategy for Crime Prevention 2008–2011

Crime Prevention Strategy for the years 2008–2011 (the "Strategy"), which was approved by the Czech government in 2007, builds on the previous strategy and aims to continue to increase the perception of safety and to reduce the rate and severity of the crime. The strategy was based on the latest findings of scientific research and home and foreign experience. In addition to the above content preventive activities, the Strategy

emphasizes the need to build implementation capacity, this means strengthening the prevention of crime, including the conditions for the implementation of national, regional and local prevention strategies and ensure their financial and personnel support (Štefunková, 2012).

As part of the Crime Prevention Strategy for 2008 to 2011 there was a change in the organizational scheme of crime prevention in the Czech Republic, which was divided into three levels – the republican county and city. By creating a regional level to enhance the coordination and methodological role of regions to municipalities falling under the jurisdiction of counties. Municipal level accounted for a large city (over 25,000 inhabitants), which had an opportunity, subject to conditions, to draw funds from the state budget for crime prevention for the duration of the Strategy. The condition for inclusion in the regional and municipal levels of crime prevention was to process safety analysis, which may have been formulated in regional and urban crime prevention, which are subject to approval by regional council or village.

### **3.3.1. Improving the interdepartmental system of care for vulnerable and at-risk children**

A key project to criminally risky and vulnerable children and young people in this period **Early Intervention System** (hereinafter referred to as "EIS"), which has long been developed by the Ministry of the Interior (author and administer the projects), the Ministry of Justice (Probation and Mediation Service) and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. The project<sup>3</sup> is aimed at improving cooperation institutions in whose jurisdiction the care of vulnerable children in the earliest stages of socio-pathological child development, crime, as well as cases of abuse, neglect and child abuse. The aim is to exchange information about problem child in the position of perpetrators, witnesses or victims of crime, rapid correction of unsatisfactory condition (measures) and targeted and specific preventive measures. Between 2008 and 2009 the MLSA to the Government three materials related to the transformation of the system of care for vulnerable children. The first was the "Analysis of the current state of institutional provision of care for vulnerable children" (Government No. 293/2008), which charted the situation in the system of care for children at risk in terms of the inclusion of this agenda under different ministries. The second "Proposed measures to transform and unify the system of care for vulnerable children – basic principles" (Government Resolution No. 16/2009), which define the basic assumptions and principles on which the transformation process based. The final then the "National Action Plan to transform and unify the system of care for

<sup>3</sup> The project was the Crime Prevention Department in 1998 as a response to serious problems and deficiencies in the system of care for high-risk and vulnerable children. From 2000 to 2006 he was a pilot basis at two selected cities in the Czech Republic (Ostrava, Svitavy) (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

children at risk for the period 2009–2011" (approved by Government Resolution No. 883/2009)<sup>4</sup>.

The transformation process continues to contribute significantly inter-ministerial coordination group to transform the system of care children<sup>5</sup> at risk. In terms of legislation to strengthen the protection of children's rights in their maintenance, increased the rate of child protection from arbitrary interference in their private and family life and the new Penal Code has strengthened the criminal standard of protection of children against abuse, exploitation, neglect and child trafficking (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

### 3.4. Crime Prevention Strategy in the Czech Republic for 2012–2015

Another important step in the prevention of crime in the Czech Republic was the development and adoption of a strategic document entitled Crime Prevention Strategy in the Czech Republic for 2012–2015, approved by the Czech Government Resolution No. 925 of 30 November, 2011. The present document benefited from the conclusions and results of previous crime prevention strategies, from the practical experience gained, international knowledge and research in the field of crime prevention. It builds on coordinated system collaboration between institutions and stakeholders at all levels of government and civic life. We comply with international recommendations and in accordance with proven knowledge and experience at the national level, it governs<sup>6</sup> (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

<sup>4</sup> Its aims are: preference childcare in the family to institutional care and thus reduce the number of children in institutions; deepening preventive work with vulnerable families and reduce the number of children withdrawn from parental care, individual approach and multidisciplinary work and active involvement of children and their families in solving their own situation, personnel and financial strengthening of social-legal protection of children within local authorities, who will play a key role in coordinating the cooperation of all authorities providing assistance to vulnerable families; alignment of legislative changes, methodological materials and practices within the scope of all departments involved in the care of vulnerable children (Home Office, 2011).

<sup>5</sup> Member of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Regional Development and the Minister (Agent) Human Rights (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

<sup>6</sup> The Czech government in shaping and implementing the policy of crime prevention in the long term respects international recommendations, especially from the United Nations. Experience gained with the implementation of crime prevention initiatives since 1996, largely supported and recommendations of the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice, which is one of the important agendas of the UN.

The strategy formulates the following basis for its implementation, which are in accordance with established Conclusion 12 UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Salvador, April 2010) and correspond to the experience and knowledge of the current implementation of crime prevention in the Czech Republic:

- (a) The head of state's role at all levels in order to create and maintain the institutional framework of crime prevention;
- (b) Integration of crime prevention strategies among socio-economic development;
- (c) Cooperation between government, civil society and the business sector;
- (d) Sustainability and responsibility, it is appropriate long-term financing, production, maintenance and evaluation of programs and total transparency of the use of resources;
- (e) Procedure based on knowledge, as a basis for any crime prevention strategy used multidisciplinary body of knowledge about the problems of crime, its causes and best practice;
- (f) Respect for human rights and the rule of law and promoting a culture of legality;
- (g) The attention paid to the links between local crime and transnational organized crime;
- (h) Differentiation strategies for specific groups, especially for boys and girls, men and women and vulnerable members of society (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

In this material, the government claimed the above definition of crime prevention and the basic principles of crime prevention that have been defined and adopted at the 12<sup>th</sup> United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Salvador, Brazil, April 12 to 19, 2010) and established the vision, strategic goals and priorities in the field of crime prevention.

### 3.5. International cooperation in crime prevention

International activities of the Czech Republic in the field of crime prevention will focus on cooperation within the European Union. Ministry of the Interior represents the Czech Republic in the European Crime Prevention Network (European Crime Prevention Network, EUCPN) established by the Council Decision 2009/902/JHA. This network provides the tasks of member countries through multi-year strategy to strengthen the role of crime prevention and more effective prevention activities throughout the European Union. One of the successful activities is the annual award of prizes for the best European preventive project (European Crime Prevention Award, ECPA), which allows for the sharing and exchange of good practice in crime prevention within the EU. Similar competitions are taking place in Canada, USA, Australia or the United Nations announced it. The Ministry of Interior will be in accordance with the rules ECPA annually nominate one project on the topic and the need for an objective nomination will fund an annual national two-round selection (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

Strategic priorities in the field of crime prevention are addressed in the framework of the United Nations (UN Office on Drugs and Crime – UNODC, the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination – CERD, Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women – CEDAW, the UN Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice – CCPCJ. Czech Republic is represented in these institutions and regularly informed of specific activities in the field of improving safety and compliance with applicable international conventions. An important partner of the Czech Republic in the field of international cooperation at the level of NSAs European Forum for Urban Safety<sup>7</sup> (The European Forum for Urban Safety) (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

<sup>7</sup> EFUS is a European non-profit organization that was established in 1987 as platform mayors of European cities. It aims to build a network of European local authorities, to exchange information and practical experience in reducing crime and promoting the role of local government in the national and European politics. Today, it has approximately 300 local governments and its main focus is the issue of security in cities. The Czech Republic is a member of EFUS city of Brno (Prevention Strategy, 2011).

## 4. The Organization of Crime Prevention Programs in The Czech Republic

### 4.1 The level of organization of crime prevention in the Czech Republic

In the Czech Republic, the prevention of crime organized on three levels:

1. **The inter-ministerial level** – the focus of inter-agency cooperation is the creation of a preventive policy of the Government in relation to traditional (general) crime prevention and coordination of the activities of individual departments represented in the Committee on Crime Prevention and encouraging new activities.
2. **At the departmental level** – crime prevention programs are based on the substantive scope of the various ministries, enrich their daily activities with new elements and approaches and affect the formation of the relevant legislation.
3. **At the local level**, involving public authorities, police, NGOs and other institutions operating in the villages. The essence of crime prevention at the local level is the optimal distribution of powers in the areas of social and situational prevention with regard to the local situation, needs and possibilities (Crime Prevention, 2008).

In terms of efficiency are the most **effective crime prevention programs at the local level**. They represent a system of methodological, conceptual and financial support from the central state and local governments and support of crime prevention programs in cities and towns loaded high rates of crime and other crime-risk events. The essence of these programs is the cooperation of the state government, local government, police and NGOs. Shot of the program is conditional upon the local situation in the development of socio-pathological phenomena, needs, interests and abilities of people and resources. For the implementation of crime prevention programs are the responsibility of the municipal council (Crime Prevention, 2008).

Crime Prevention Department of the Ministry of Interior acts as a central authority in the field of internal order and security in the development and implementation of the concept of crime prevention. At the same time acts as the Secretariat of the National Committee for the Prevention of Crime. National Committee for the Prevention of Crime is to co-initiating, coordinating and methodical body set up by the Ministry of the Interior of the Government Resolution dated 3 November 1993 No. 617 It is governed by statute Rules and regulations approved by the Government of the Czech Republic. Usually meets at one month and follows the plan of action. The activities of the National Committee is designing preventive policy of the Czech Government Inter-ministerial level and its instantiation at the local level and is responsible for the processing of materials for the Government of the Czech Republic in the field of crime prevention and approve applications for grants for crime prevention projects submitted by cities, including the funds earmarked in the state budget chapter Ministry of the Interior. National Committee has eighteen members, the chairman



of the National Committee is the Minister of the Interior and Executive Vice is one Deputy Minister of the Interior.

Other members include representatives from:

- Ministry of Finance of the Czech Republic,
- Ministry of Defence of the Czech Republic,
- Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of the Czech Republic – Department of Family Policy,
- Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of the Czech Republic – Department of Social Services,
- Ministry of Justice of the Czech Republic,
- Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic,
- Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic,
- Ministry of Health of the Czech Republic,
- Supreme Prosecutor's Office of the Czech Republic,
- General Directorate of the Prison Service of the Czech Republic,
- Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention,
- Police Presidium of the Czech Republic,
- Probation and Mediation Service of the Czech Republic,
- Czech Republic Government Council for Roma Community Affairs,
- Government Council for Drug Policy Coordination,
- Union of Judges Czech Republic.

This committee establishes the Commission for the selection of projects for urban crime prevention program, which is an advisory body of the National Committee for the granting of subsidies from the state budget. As a result of interdepartmental cooperation is an established system of crime prevention in the Czech Republic, which is based on the departmental prevention programs, crime prevention programs at the local level, the activities of the Police of the Czech Republic, NGOs and businesses.

The prevention of crime in the Czech Republic modified three levels which reflect the involvement of senior local government units (counties) in the system:

1. **on national and departmental** – coordinating role is played by an interdepartmental body of the National Committee,
2. **Regional** – Regional Offices,
3. **Local** – governments of cities and municipalities burdened by high levels of criminal risk phenomena.

#### 4.2. Organization of crime prevention in the Czech Republic at the local level

Preventing crime at the local level, as was in the previous chapter, opinionated, is the basis of crime prevention in the Czech Republic. The preparation and practical implementation of preventive work are the responsibility of the municipal council, with an emphasis on collaboration and cooperation of all stakeholders involved in prevention activities, including

a significant involvement of non-governmental organizations which have, in the area of crime prevention at the local level irreplaceable function.

Synergies at the local level in our terms and conditions expressed in particular in the so-called Complex in cooperative programs to prevent crime and social pathology at the level of cities, which gradually involved in prevention activities. These prevention programs were implemented since 1996 in cities of over 10,000 inhabitants burdened by higher crime rates and other social risk phenomena, from the year 2001 were made under the name of crime prevention program at the local level. Such program has been implemented gradually in CR 95 cities with more than 10,000 inhabitants and in 2003 was created the program in 24 other towns and villages. Under these programs were as in 2003, financially supported by the 3,188 sub-projects with a total amount of over 550 million CZK (Havrdová, 2007).

In order to engage in prevention activities supported by smaller towns and more use of the experience and the potential of the Police of the Czech Republic was established partnership program, which was based on analytical and proactive role of police, from the regional level to the district level (local) department, which was based on the experience and the assumptions made in the implementation of crime prevention programs at the local level. The program is based on a partnership of the Police of the Czech Republic with municipalities, regional authorities and other stakeholders in addressing crime in high-risk areas and the preparation and implementation of projects that aim to limit local criminogenic conditions and positively influence the perception of safety. The pilot implementation was approved in 2003 and since 2005 has been announced as the only program of crime prevention at the local level. In addition to prevention programs announced and implemented at the local level, ie at the municipal level, are part of the preventive work in the Czech Republic also some specific nationwide preventive programs aimed at the selection of specific problem areas (drug problems, child protection, prevention of human trafficking for sexual abuse, etc.) (Havrdová, 2007).

### **4.3. Phase formation of crime prevention at the local level**

#### **4.3.1. First phase – create the institutional prerequisites for preventive work in location**

A prerequisite for the success of preventive work at the local level deemed Večerka (1997) a political decision of the municipal council to address issues of crime prevention and social pathology in its territory long-term plan. It should be borne in mind that activities related to preventive work modifying the lives of all citizens of the municipality and require their consent pronounced just resolution of their elected representatives, i.e. the municipal council.

## Commission of Crime Prevention

A very important element in the structure of preventive work at the level of the village is the creation of a commission of crime prevention, which should be an advisory body of the municipal council within the meaning of the Act No. 128/2000 Coll., the municipalities (local government), as amended, and the establishment of which should come from the initiative board or municipal council.

The task to form the commission should have been given according to Večerka (1997) to the employee of the municipal (city) office, which was chosen for this task, based on challenging the bankruptcy proceedings, and shall be the coordinator of preventive work at the local level (the coordinator)<sup>8</sup>.

The function of coordinator should be prestigious enough and therefore according to Večerka (1997) he or she should be placed at the level of head of department of the municipal office and are therefore the service line directly subordinate to the Office of the Secretary, as a personnel manager.

This requirement, as well as a requirement Crime Prevention Department of the Czech Republic in the early days of the crime prevention program that the coordinator reports directly to the mayor of the municipality is often not fulfilled in practice. Rather, it may be seen by the fact that in the best case, the worker subordinate to the Head of Department (mostly Social Affairs) of the Municipal Office, in smaller communities or communities of moderate size often this function is combined from different functions (coordinator of community planning of social services, drug coordinator etc.) However, it is without doubt that the coordinator (sometimes we encounter the concept of crime prevention manager) should be a person of high professional and organizational well-founded, his competence and basic characteristics will be discussed below.

It is important that the composition of the commission of crime prevention as an advisory body of the municipal council, responded to local specificities and needs based on local human resources. The Commission should not in any event be calculated on the basis of a uniform dysfunctional schema or structure of another municipality. On the contrary, it is very appropriate that its composition responded to local differences and to include representation of all possible intervening entities in the widest range (institutions of public administration, non-governmental organizations active in the field of crime prevention, charitable and religious institutions and associations, individuals who have a preventive including the work). Experience shows that it is desirable that the committee members were together in mutual state of superiority or inferiority, because the problems that can often arise stems from involuntary award acceptance challenges. It is important that committee members at their institutions, which represent the Commission, held an important position so that they have the competence to implement measures promised. A very important role is played by the Czech Police Komsí that the coordinator can

<sup>8</sup> Government Resolution No. 341 of 15 June 1994 "program of social and Crime Prevention – current status and starting in 1996," advises municipal experimentally verified in practice, the coordinator of preventive activities.

provide invaluable information on recorded crime in the area of such high quality that can be the basis of security analysis in the village (Večerka, 1997).

### **Coordinator (manager) prevention activities**

As mentioned above, a key role in developing and implementing crime prevention programs at the local level plays coordinator (manager) prevention activities at the local level. Večerka (1997) points out that the main responsibilities of the coordinator include analytical and advisory activities, i.e. continuous analysis of the situation in the region and communication with the municipality and the municipal office.

The coordinator is essential to have access not only to basic police statistics, but also to all the important analytical materials of the socio-economic area. Another key task of the coordinator is to create and update reports about people (their formal and informal groups) who provide (or could provide) a kind of preventive assistance and individuals who support this need in various forms. Finally, the coordinator should have an overview of socially excluded localities or areas at risk of social exclusion. Irreplaceable role has also coordinator in the preparation, management and coordinating the commission of crime prevention in the village. Another important role is played by the coordinator at popularization and dissemination activities, whose task is to create a favorable climate for prevention in the locality.

The above described activity suggests that the coordinator must be a person with good judgment, ability to communicate with people who are strongly motivated to do the job and able to work at different levels of the social structure and overcome difficulties associated with this. The coordinator should not only be a social worker, but also the manager. According to the research, implemented Večerka (2007) among social workers should be ideal coordinator man or woman aged 30–40 years with secondary or university education, with a length of 3–5 years experience in a related field, residing in a place where will perform their work as at least partial knowledge of a foreign language. Conversely irrelevant according to the results of research for performance coordinator, according to the experts, sex, marital status and number of children in the family, as well as confession or atheism coordinator and length of experience in a management position. Among the personal characteristics of respondents queued optimism, extroversion, self-confidence, self-control, emotional stability, empathy, flexibility, activity and responsibility.

A survey of the Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention implemented in the municipalities and counties in 2009 showed that more than  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the respondents were in their functions prevention coordinator officially designated, most commonly Council resolution or even the city council. This appointment was anchored, and their function is reasonable to assume that in this way the representatives of municipalities showed their commitment to systematically deal with the prevention and longer term. Only a fifth of respondents coordinator (mainly from the cities to do preventive work involved for many years ) was in its functions taken on new posts and only less than 13 % underwent the procedure of bankruptcy or any other form of tender.

The work is undoubtedly Manager depends, inter alia, from the fact that the proportion of their working time can devote to prevention, not all managers can devote prevention program full time equivalents. In the abovementioned research, on average, managers estimated that dealing with crime prevention in 43 % of the time.

The survey found that only rarely (in 14.3 % of cases) is the activity coordinator of preventive activities only job description of the respondents. These workers operate in larger cities, which also have long experience in preventive work.

#### **4.3.2. Second phase middle – analysis, which should be implemented to prevent**

##### **Legal framework of preventive activities**

Večerka in his work (1997) points out that a good preventive work communities must be based on appropriate use of the legal system and the preventive potential of institutions, which may in a particular territorial area or region on the basis of existing legislation in the field of crime prevention work. This is especially the Police of the Czech Republic, whose main responsibilities under the Act No. 283/1991 Coll., On the Police of the Czech Republic, as amended, and territorial public authorities such as regional offices and various specialized bodies of local government, such as the Office work of the Czech Republic, the district social security, etc. the important role played by interest groups of citizens who can primarily prosocial act on its members, on the basis of existing legislation may be liable for those citizens who have committed any anti-social behavior, they have a real opportunity to positively influence their behavior and ultimately provide synergy administrations, courts and other public authorities in the exercise of their powers under the provisions of relevant legislation. Crime prevention at the local level, should primarily focus on public authorities such as municipal (city) police, which is established based on the Act No. 553/1991 Coll., The municipal police, as amended, the design of the advisory bodies local (municipal) councils and committees of the Council, a number of preventive measures in community exercises its delegated authority, to the extent determined by special laws<sup>9</sup>. Is governed by the laws and other generally binding regulations within their boundaries and also government resolutions and directives of the central government authorities.

<sup>9</sup> Delegated Powers of local government means that the content of the power of government is in a certain range of the delegate (delegated) to local governments. Delegated Powers circuit is therefore a matter of exercising the municipal authorities of the State, not on its own behalf, for the quality of the performance of the scope of responsibility of the state to the public that it has entrusted to the municipal authorities. It is a consequence of the Czech Republic applied the principle of a mixed model of public administration, which aims to bring government to the citizens. A somewhat different conception of the exercise of state administration can register in the Slovak Republic. "The state is the sum of the political institutions through which power is distributed in the coexistence of people. In the state include the Parliament, Government, Government and its agencies, local government, police, courts, etc." (Almášiová, 2012, p. 99). "The local government usually conducts its scope within the existing administrative-territorial division of the country. Currently, the only body of government with general competence is the district office. It is a local government authority in sections general internal administration of trade, civil protection and management in crisis situations outside the period of war and state of emergency" (Gejdošová, 2012, p. 173).

### Summary of socio-demographic aspects

The second phase of the process of systematic preventive work (and thus the protection of citizens against crime) can generally be regarded as a preparatory phase, which can be divided into two major areas. The first deals with work related to mapping problems of social pathology in a place where you have to implement preventive programs (analytical work), the second part is focused on activities critically evaluating the current activities in the field of crime prevention including determinant of preventive work in the area (Večerka, 1997). The analytical phase of the Commission on Crime Prevention at the local level should begin a detailed description of the terrain in which to carry out planned preventative activities. It is a summary of the basic characteristics of the site in terms of socio-demographic and economic, i.e. primarily:

- Population (total and by individual neighborhoods),
- composition of the population by age and sex,
- the proportion of economically active people and addicts,
- occupational and educational structure of the population,
- national and ethnic composition,
- other local specifics in the composition of the population (Večerka, 1997).

The analysis should also affect such factors as the predominant type of buildings in the village, the rate of migration of the population, the number and type of jobs, an analysis of the causes of unemployment and its structure, development index of unemployment, but also non-economic variables, such as marriage, divorce and abortion. Inalienable has institutional analysis, this is a summary description of the amenities in the area, in particular the educational facilities, educational facilities, social services in the area of cultural and entertainment venues, and sports equipment. The aim of this activity is to clarify and streamline the basic givens locations that significantly determine the possible preventive procedures (Večerka, 1997).

Analysis of the initial pro-preventive social climate in Večerka in his work (1997) highlights, or analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of the sites can not, of course, reveal subtle patterns of social functioning mechanisms in the village. Similarly, it is not possible forensic analysis, which will be briefly discussed in the next sub-section, to clarify the location of people's social situation at the site in terms of their possible efforts to purposefully prevent emerging difficulties. The most important findings can be considered as citizens' views on the security situation in the village, their level of fear of crime, satisfaction with work safety authorities, etc. However, it is important to realize that even a high degree of sense of threat and considerable effort best to secure itself against criminal attacks may not bring people to the knowledge of the importance of preventive work. The person or body responsible for the creation of a system of prevention in the community should know the atmosphere prevailing opinion in respect of preparation of preventive activities. In smaller towns it is possible to rely on continuous monitoring of public opinion, in larger cities it is possible to use a smaller probe poll on whether

prevention of yes or no and what direction focus. Many larger cities also let agencies develop a sociological analysis of the security situation, which respond to the current status in the incidence of social pathology. Preparation of crime prevention at the local level can also be based on the results of a sociological survey focused on the perception of the safety of the citizens.

### **Forensic analysis of sites**

Another important step in the preparation of crime prevention at the local level is a criminological analysis of the site, which aims to clarify where, when and what crime (or social pathology) is committed in the village and what are the characteristics of offenders (or holders of socio-pathological phenomena), or what conditions the occurrence of a certain type of criminal activity or socially pathological behavior depending on certain specific conditions that are present on the site. In effect, this means clarifying the determinants of antisocial behavior in terms of the type of offenders, victims, or other characteristics of the spatial context of social, economic, possibly environmental in nature (Večerka, 1997).

Important information in this area can provide us with both the city police and the Police of the Czech Republic, thanks to which we can determine the frequency of the most serious crimes in the area, what their character and composition of offenders.

Creating a list of real resources that are available in the implementation of prevention activities A very important part of the analysis of material determinant of location is to determine what resources a community prevention activities available. This inventory must be carried out systematically in order not omitted any personal or material resources that can be of use preventive work. It is necessary to take stock of all the possible subjects of preventive action that are under consideration, including their current factual possibilities, and interest to cooperate in prevention programs at the local level. The task of the committee members, crime prevention, as representatives of various ministries and agencies, the law should be to provide full information on the area. An important role in this phase plays undoubtedly coordinator (manager) crime prevention at the local level, which should have an idea of the possible deficiencies of personnel or material nature with respect to the issue of municipalities in crime and social pathologies (Večerka, 1997).

#### **4.3.3. The third phase – the creation of individual preventive programs and approval.**

Based on the information collected in the second phase it is necessary to proceed to decision problems in the village are treated as a priority and the solution of which the municipality has currently sufficient funds. It is necessary to emphasize that the individual preventive programs were complementary and that formed the core of the

emerging comprehensive prevention program village. This means that the formation of the program must be based on specific ideas about what the community wants in a certain timeframe to achieve and how it intends to mobilize human, material and financial resources, which has provided to do so. Equally important is the creation of a specific prevention program at the local level balance sheet over who will be the subject or bearer of preventive action, as even the best preventive program proves to be as wrong, if not properly and responsibly sure who it will actually take place. Intensity targets specific preventive program should be consistently aligned with the skills, experience and professional knowledge of those individuals who will ensure the program. Finally, it must be clear who is going for the implementation of specific prevention program responsible, who will manage the entire program and which has competence in this direction. Well based preventive program is not without sufficiently precise description and specification means and methods that will be used to carry out the intent. An essential part of proper implementation of specific prevention program is of sufficient financial coverage, which should be carried out from three basic sources, namely from the state budget, sponsors and the community. Project specific program should be allocated to the individual if possible controllable phases in the control of the project plays a key role in crime prevention managers, who checks in cooperation with the economic department of the municipality (Večerka, 1997).

Assessment of specific prevention programs should be in the opinion Večerka (1997) form the opposition procedure, coordinator of prevention activities should be responsible for ensuring that each project has merits discussion in the Commission on crime prevention at the local level and then at least two opponents. In the context of expert opinions should in particular examine whether partial preventive program compatible with other programs that are currently being implemented, whether directed to the achievement of the agreed goals of preventive community and whether it is secured for all sites.

After discussion of a comprehensive prevention program in the Commission on Crime Prevention considers it useful to discuss the management structures of community planning in the village. Subsequently, the program should be crime prevention discussed and approved by the council and municipal council, if the municipality will require the implementation of its contribution from the state budget, it must submit for consideration republican Crime Prevention Committee and the Commission for the selection of projects for urban crime prevention program, which is an advisory body.

#### **4.3.4. The fourth phase – the evaluation of the success of prevention programs**

During each of the prevention program should be monitored and crime prevention manager at the regular meetings of the Commission on Crime Prevention at the local level. Final evaluation of the success or failure of a particular prevention program should be implemented on the basis of predetermined indicators. Our experience shows that the creation of a comprehensive Cooperation Programme and prevention of crime and



social pathology is from the creators of the definition of indicators neglected, which complains and in many cases even impossible to evaluate the program.

Evaluation of preventive programs or activities to date (not only in our country) pays relatively little attention and disorganized. It is certainly worth pondering why this is; after all, the attributes of human creative endeavors include general Fundamental need to ask about the meaning of effort, the result of commitment. The general answer to this question is discussed in our area is the very fact of great difficulty adequate and objective evaluation. There is no general measure of success of a prefabricated preventive work. It is always necessary over and over again depending on the type and nature of the problem and influenced by means of the modification. In any particular project we are faced with the need to re-formulate realistic goals and time horizon of a specific program of action here and now. It is important to clarify what can be considered a success of the project and then to the stage, in relation to the nature of the modified entities or situations. Paradoxically, sometimes seemingly slight shift in the attitudes and behavior of individuals affected by the so-called tertiary prevention can actually be far more successful than bombastically proclaimed successes circuit of events that can be incurred when certain resources or activities regarded as almost self-evident. It should be also taken into account that the objective reasons, not all of the effects of certain preventive actions are immediate and measurable results that preventive activities often have a mechanical linear character. In any particular project we are faced with the need to re-formulate realistic goals and time horizon of a particular action. Similarly, we are not always able to do their considerations include all the possible consequences of a bequeathed state. From what has been stated above, does not mean that we should give up on evaluation as a process, which is what most brings to mind the reasons for our preventive options. Evaluation is not a mechanical process, but rather a factual analysis of the relevant documents. It is necessary to show what you can prove and what to do with regard to the project objective sense. Can not settle for saying that something works (or does not) in the expected direction of, but need to constantly question the causes and conditions of the functioning of the preventive mechanism. Scoring is ideally, focused process of balance sheet over the existing activities with an intention to learn in the future. This process is not – as is unfortunately often the case – in mindless scoring for evaluation (Večerka, 2001).

## 5. Conclusion

At the end of the last century, the Czech Republic, in accordance with good practice criminological advanced democracies, pushed the idea that increasing crime can not in any case face a mere increase in repressive means. It was recognized that the mere threat of a tightening of criminal repression nor related augmentation of numbers in the police, the number of prosecutors or judges or prison capacity expansion, never led to the removal and even often do not reduce crime. In addition, the highly repressive means a

very challenging economic and burden the budget of each state. The mere repression addition aim in particular does not meet expectations because the conscious personality characteristics criminally prepared and dedicated people are in a crushing number of cases such that will not allow the idea that they could be in the commission of the offense detected, located and subsequently affected. Increased criminal repression intimidates particularly upstanding individuals who inappropriately involve their fear of punishment and believe that suffer from the same fears and criminal population.

Crime prevention in varying degrees match whole society, but primarily public authorities, both at central and at regional and local level. Without a multidisciplinary approach, the crime can be controlled or reduced only with difficulties, prevention activities must be directly aimed at subjects of prevention at the local level and reflect local characteristics and the situation.

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	<b>REPORT</b>	
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## DIRECT AND CLEAR SUPPORT OF THE EDUCATIONAL INCLUSION

Eva Zezulková

**Inclusive education** is seen as education allowing not only for equal access to education but also for the necessary and adequate support, taking into account the different educational needs of pupils so as to take full advantage of their learning potential. The priority goal of inclusive education is to establish positive conditions for the education of all pupils so that education may be performed preferably by mainstream means. Within the inclusive educational concept, pupils are no longer separated into those with special educational needs and those who do not have such needs but there is only one heterogeneous group of pupils who have individual educational needs. (Lechta, 2010) In inclusive education, the emphasis is primarily laid on a certain degree of support in order to fulfil the expected outputs of education. It does not only take into account the **special educational needs** of children and pupils, as was the case previously. The so-called support measures reflect the current trends in the field of school education and the purpose of their implementation is to achieve the maximum development of all children and pupils. The term **support measures** is becoming a key concept in the process of inclusive education. It is a response to a long-discussed necessity for teaching and counselling practice to provide pupils with support measures for the equalization of their difficulties in education. Increased attention will be paid to effective assessment of appropriate support measures to allow for overcoming or mitigating the consequences of the health, social, cultural and other personal disadvantages (Kaleja & Zezulková, 2016).

Amendments to the Education Act (82/2015 Coll.) defines the support measures and subsequently provides rules for their application in the relevant implementing legislation. The Education Act justifiably mentions as first of the support measures the need for **the provision of counselling assistance of schools and school counselling units**. The range of services provided by the school counselling staff is wide and mainly depends on the personal composition of the school counselling workplaces. The team of a school counselling centre mostly consists of the teachers authorized for the position of educational counsellors and the school prevention methodology specialist. This model of the school counselling unit is considered as basic. Where the school's possibilities allow, the advanced model of the school counselling unit team also includes a **school special needs teacher** and a **school psychologist** (Kucharská et al., 2013). However, the last two occupations mentioned are not represented at most of the schools. The counselling provided directly at schools allow them to provide early educational intervention, which

has a positive effect on the pupils and students, especially from the perspective of preventing major educational difficulties (Zapletalová & Mrázková, 2016).

The activities of the school psychologist concentrate on diagnostics and helping pupils in their problems, as well as developing a positive and safe school climate. The involvement of the school special needs teacher is focused on technical support for pupils with special educational needs and all other pupils who need special pedagogical support and care. This support may be based on short-term or long-term support measures. The standard operation of the school psychologist and school special needs teacher is provided for by the regulation 72/2005 Coll., as amended, and divided into screening, diagnostic, consultative, counselling and intervention, methodological, coordinating and educational activities. The activity specification is focused on the methods and expert procedures rather than the content of service provided.

The concept of the project named *Direct and clear support of the educational inclusion – the question of school, family, neighbourhood CZ.02.3.61/0.0/0.0/15\_007/0000239*, currently implemented by the Faculty of Public Policies in Opava, reflects the current needs of teaching praxis to understand the needs of students manifesting school failure risks. It also builds on the results of research investigation in the area of inclusive educational tendencies with substantive intervention into the family environment matters, school environment matter, counselling matters and the competences of teachers and other staff involved in the issues solved<sup>1</sup>. The objectives of the project are directed toward systematized changes leading to the prevention of school failure.

Due to the thematic focus of this paper, we will continue to pay attention to the selected area of the project purpose, i.e. **to extend the activities of the school counselling centre by the position of the school special needs teacher.**

In the select schools participating in the project, the new position of the school special needs teacher was created whose job description is in accordance with the applicable legislation and the project purpose. The main objective is to provide educational intervention by means of this position with the prerequisite for effective coordination of educational strategies for the prevention of school failure of the pupils by applying individualized forms of education and individual approach to pupils. The objectives set also predict positive change in favour of inclusive education.

**By continuous analysis of the monthly performance reports on the activities of the school special needs teacher, data were collected which are at the same time presented as examples of good practice in counselling services of direct support in schools. The expert services of the special needs teacher provided include:**

**Screening activities:** detecting manifestations of risks in the instruction of pupils, detecting manifestations of risks in the pupils' behaviour, detecting manifestations of risks in the field of language and communication skills in first grade pupils, etc.

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<sup>1</sup> Kaleja, 2015, 2014; Zezulková, 2015, 2014; Kaleja & Zezulková et al. 2015; et al.



**Diagnostic activities:** *systematic observation* (of students at risk of school failure in the instruction of mathematics, Czech language, English language; of a pupil with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) at risk of school failure in the instruction of the English language and of social studies; pupils with problem behaviour and manifestations of the risk of learning disorders; of a pupil with moderate hearing impairment in the instruction of mathematics, the Czech language and reading, focusing on the efficiency of communication with the teaching assistant; a pupil at increased risk of school failure who was examined at preschool age at a pedagogical psychological counselling office because of suspected reduced intellect; a pupil with medium degree dyslalia; a pupil with developmental dysphasia, etc.); *individual screening of school skills* in selected pupils (mathematics, reading, language, level of sociability, etc.); *analysis of the results of written assignments* of students with manifestations of risk in the area of learning potential in the Czech language and mathematics; *analysis of the documentation of the school counselling unit* (pedagogical-psychological counselling office, hereinafter PPCO, special needs teaching centre, hereinafter SNTC) in order to establish individual educational plans (IEP) for students with developmental dysphasia, for students with mild intellectual disabilities, etc.;

**Intervention activities:** *proposal of plans for pedagogical support* (PPPS) for pupils with risk manifestations in behaviour, and pupils at risk of school failure in the instruction of the Czech language, the English language and mathematics; *proposals for educational interventions* (e.g. due to conflict behaviour of a pupil with ASD); *proposals for stimulation programs in the context of home preparation* (for pupil with increased risks of school failure); *individual pedagogical intervention* (for students with low learning potential, pupils with specific learning disorders, pupils with dyslalia, etc.); *the teaching of subject of special pedagogical care* (for pupils with developmental dysphasia; pupils with ASD, etc.); *collective pedagogical intervention* (for pupils with pronunciation disorders in the 1st and 2nd year; for pupils with specific learning disorders on the 2nd level of compulsory schooling, etc.), *continuous updates to PPPS and IEP*; *proposals for individualized forms of instruction in the context of direct support* (at the request of teachers of pupils at risk of school failure due to problem behaviour and lower learning potential); *proposals of individual approach options* (at the request of teachers and classroom assistants of pupils with disabilities, for example ASD or hearing impairment), etc.;

**Methodological activities:** *completion of portfolios* (of students with 1st degree supportive measures); *procedural schemes of support measures creation*; *participation in the continuous updates of plans* (PPPS, IEP); *practical examples of the application of special needs teaching methods* (structured learning, visualization, stepping, etc.);

**Coordinating activities:** *consultation with the legal representatives of pupils* (on educational and disciplinary issues with recommendations of stimulation home training program, personal consultations with the school psychologist, or if need be, examinations

at a counselling workplace); *consultation with the staff of specialized counselling and other workplaces* (e.g. for the purpose of control examination of a pupil with moderate hearing impairment, revisions of and subsequent updates to the support measures for pupils with ASD, etc.); *organization of the purchase and registration of special need didactic aids* (e.g. educational software for pupils with ASD, aids for the re-education of dyslalia, specific learning disorders (SLD), developmental dysphasia, etc.);

By describing the selected activities of the special needs teacher, we mean to point out the effective possibilities of counselling services in schools for the purpose of timely support and, at the same time, prevention of school failure rates of all pupils. It follows from the stated analysis and the results of the surveys hitherto conducted<sup>2</sup> that pupils, parents and teachers may be provided with recommendations of the experts of the school counselling units, however, they are more often of a formal nature. Their practical implementation is difficult also because of incomplete staffing of the school counselling workplaces. An important condition of inclusive education is the improvement of counselling services in schools with the permanent participation of a school special needs teacher.

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	<b>BOOK REVIEW</b>	
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## SEX IN HUMAN LOVING

**Kamil Janiš**

Berne, E. (2017). *Sex v lidském milování. [Sex in Human Loving]*. Prague: Portál.

The word "sex" summons special attention in many of us. Sex as such, in particular its reproductive function, has always been an interesting topic for a variety of authors, in particular with different points of view. Lately, a tendency comes to the forefront not only to address constructively the reproductive function of human sexuality and the often unpleasant demographic curve, but also to allow the subject of the role that sex plays in the life of each individual a more frequent part of the discussion. In any case, issues connected with sexuality are very often discussed. In the introductory part of the book, the author pays attention to the terminology concerning sex; one could even say entering the area of scatology. (At this point I would recommend to become acquainted in detail with K.J. Obrátil's book *Kryptádia*, or from the same collector with the contemporary edition of *Dictionary of Dirty Words [Slovník sprostých slov]*, which forms a part of this work, or possibly with the two publications issued currently: *The First Bouquet of National Filth [První kytice národních prasáren]* and *The Second Bouquet of National Filth [Druhá kytice národních prasáren]* which include Obrátil's work.). What cannot be overlooked are not only the sufficient examples in the realm of humans, but also those in the animal kingdom, which is very informative.

Immediately in the introduction, the editor (M. Těřhalová) briefly characterizes the book: "Despite the inaccuracy of some facts and also its period-specificity, Berne's book is wonderfully timeless. Indeed, similarly, to love and sex which are companions to mankind since its inception and which will remain with us as long as we exist. Therefore, in love and sex, too, let us allow the child within us to become captivated from time to time, thoughtlessly throwing him or herself into adventure..." (p. 10)

From the perspective of pedagogy and prevention of risk behaviour with sexual overtones, a very interesting little sub-chapter occurs here (p. 24–25) where the author presents his view on sex education for beginners. In the context of explaining sexual topics to children, he states literally: "The real problem, however, does not lie in the parents but in the belief that something like sex can be explained. It is nonsense, the same way as cooking cannot be explained." In addition to the already mentioned sub-chapter, the following one, Sex Education for the Advanced (p. 25) is also worth the attention as it touches the issue of the views of sexuality and attitudes to it. He arrives at five possible categories (s. 25–27):

1. Sex is a giant squid.
2. Sex is an angelic gift.

3. Sex is a triumph of engineering.
4. Sex as a rebellion.
5. Sex as entertainment.

The induction to the whole issue is found in Part 1 "Sex and Sexual Organs" (p. 33), and in particular the first sub-chapter "Why s/he needs sex" (p. 34) and "What is it all good for?" (p. 37), where a total of twelve questions are raised and answered on the following pages, including some examples.

It is probably going to be of great surprise that the author uses curse words in the text as well, using, of course, asterisks in place of some letters. In the next chapter, the author focuses on intermediate sex education, underlining the significance of "Sex and Health or Intimacy as Prevention" (p. 178). He quite clearly points to the fact that "every human being who lacks the care of loving hands and soothing words deteriorates on the inside and ultimately perishes." (p. 179) Against the background of varying wisdom and life truths, it is one of the deepest thoughts that resonate throughout the whole name of the book.

Equally interesting is part 3 "Finale". In this chapter, the author summarizes his own experience and knowledge from many years of practice both as a psychiatric doctor and a psychotherapist. From this perspective, the entire book is truly captivating and, moreover, it is written in a clear language which is not typical in books of similar focus. Although he lectured medical students, his lectures were open to all interested parties. At the first glance, it might seem that it is an extremely beneficial and highly up-to-date publication. Every contribution, every opinion can undoubtedly be thought-provoking and inspiring but in this case, we need to be somewhat careful. In the publication, which is without a doubt well crafted and pleasantly readable, the author presents the results of his own investigation of some forty years, which from a demographic point of view represents one of the previous generations. As stated on the last page: "The book is based on the author's lectures, which he gave in 1966 at the University of California. In his typical essayist humour, the author discusses sexuality from all angles imaginable: on how to talk about sexuality, how to deal with obscenity, how to carry out sex education, talking about the orgasm, the use and the abuse of sexual organs, about the relation of sexuality to science, religion, health, ethics, aesthetics, intimacy and marriage." There is no doubt as to whether we do find all of these things on the pages of the book, however, the vast majority is merely sketched. Those looking for deeper knowledge will in no way find it here, not even as model situations analyzed in detail. Each bullet-point would have deserved much greater attention. Given the overall focus of the publication, one can assume that the pages would contain such concepts and activities associated with them, as the use of the penis, the use of the vagina or the genital organs and utilization and management of time, the use of the orgasm, etc. These surely are very interesting topics, for example the assertion, that women's breasts "are used as advertising panels", etc. In some scientific publications, one may come across annexes or appendices. This publication has an Appendix as well: "Classification of Human Relations" (p. 233 and



following). The author presents specific examples from his own praxis for each of the individual types. In addition, individual relations are accompanied by a graphical representation. To further draw the whole issue closer, he gives even two examples with direct application to partnerships (p. 243). On the other hand, it is necessary to reproach the Supplement for falling "somehow" short on the content side (at least apparently) – see for example the last paragraphs: "The easiest and maximally straightforward relationships are simple, symmetrical and direct. Conversely, relationships which are complex, asymmetric and indirect are the most difficult ones. Such relationships provide fertile ground for games and other types of ulterior transactions." (p. 246)

It is a shame that some issues in the publication are paid too little attention (and wrongly so). Examples of this can be seen in the sub-chapters "Sex and science" (pp. 43–44) or the next sub-chapter "Sex and religion" (pp. 44–46). Both topics are not only very interesting, but they are also widely discussed, often becoming the subject of debates. Concluding the review submitted here, it is appropriate to provide a few thoughts by the author of the book, i.e. some Short Wisdom and Sad Wisdom quotes (pp. 227–232), such as:

- The sooner you get new acquaintances, the sooner you will have old friends.
- Your body is your friend. Do not treat it like an enemy.
- The Buddha once said that women bind men in eight ways: dancing, singing, playing, laughing, crying, their looks, touch and questions.
- Work performance of a man often depends on the current stage of the wife's menstrual cycle.
- Some men lose their potency as a result of overwork, others because of lack of work.

In any case, the above mentioned book reads very well. It is not overexposed to professional vocabulary, complicated syntax or long complex sentences. Its readability is only intensified by the fact that the text itself is richly interlaced with examples from practice with a certain bird's eye view resulting from life experience. Therefore, the assumption that the book will not only find a large number of readers, but also that the readers will be coming back to it from time to time is very realistic. The publication can also be recommended to all those who are moving into the area of prevention of the various manifestations of risk behaviour in primary or secondary schools, but also to those dedicated to partnership, marriage or parenting education, or to sexual education itself. A large part of the problems between partners as such have this base, as indeed, the interest in sexual activity is one of the leading motives in the activities of boys of that age. At the same time, possible negative experience can then be projected not only to an optimistic perception of life, but the case of negative experiences, they may result in adverse social behaviour, aggression, rudeness, bullying and irresponsible behaviour (e.g. in cases of irresponsible sex life without adequate contraception).

Instead of a final conclusion, suffice the opinion of the author himself:

"In every human, there shines a star, you can see it from afar, shining as a bright flame

of courageous spirit. And it is too bright to draw closer to it without a proper portion of courage and honesty. Every person lives alone in their own personal space, however, intimacy only awaits them across its borders. Intimacy is the space of the cosmos around you, and if you find yourself in it, it is good not to swear at the stars." (p. 232)

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