



FORUM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, POLITOLOGY, AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

CONTENT:

- INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION - ITS ROLE IN THE MODERN GLOBALISED ENVIRONMENT
 - GRUNDVERSTÄNDNIS DER VERBALEN KOMMUNIKATION FÜR DEN INTERNATIONALEN ARBEITSBEREICH
 - DEUTSHUNTERICHT KOMPAKT LERNPROZESSE IN THEORIE UND PRAXIS
 - L'INTERCOMPREHENSION ET LA COMMUNICATION PLURILINGUE SUR L'EXEMPLE TCHÉCO-SLOVAQUE
 - LINGUISTIC INTERPRETATION OF HUMOR, PARODY AND SATTIRE IN SCIENCE FICTION NOVELS
-
- THE STATUS OF THE SELF-GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE ACT ON THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE LIGHT OF THE PRACTICE
 - EASTON'S SYSTEMS THEORY (EXAMPLE ON POLITICAL ISLAM IN AUSTRIA)
 - IMPLEMENTATION OF SMART SPECIALISATION STRATEGY: THE CASE OF SLOVAKIA
 - CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADER FOR AN EFFECTIVE PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTIG CHANGES IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
-
- SPORT DIPLOMACY WITHIN S INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL POLITICAL ACTIVITIES

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FORUM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, POLITOLOGY, AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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politológiu a medzinárodné vzťahy**

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Fórum cudzích jazykov, politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov je recenzovaný vedecký časopis vydávaný na CD nosičoch Vysokou školou Danubius. Bol založený v roku 2009 ako Fórum cudzích jazykov ako recenzované neimpaktované periodikum. Od roku 2017 je rozšírený o novú sekciu politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov.

Forum of Foreign Languages, Politics and International Relations is peer to peer reviewed scholarly journal published on CD-ROM by Danubius University. It was established in 2009 under the title Forum of Foreign Languages as non-impact journal. In 2017 new section of politics and international relations was added.

Časopis si klade za cieľ byť otvorenou platformou pre uverejňovanie inovatívnych výsledkov z teoretického, aplikovaného a empirického výskumu zo širokej oblasti lingvistiky, politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov, výmeny názorov, skúseností a získaných nových poznatkov a tvorivej práce prispievateľov zo SR a zo zahraničia. Je určený predovšetkým akademickým pracovníkom univerzitných i neuniverzitných vysokých škôl a vedeckých ústavov.

The journal aims to be open platform for publishing the innovative results based on theoretical, applied and empirical research in the fields of linguistics, politics and international relations. Sharing the research results and experience of Slovak and foreign contributors are in the focus of the journal editors. The scope of target spreads to academics active in tertiary education and research institutes.

Časopis vychádza dvakrát ročne a vydáva štúdie, odborné príspevky, diskusné príspevky a recenzie, pričom je rozdelený do dvoch sekcií a to na lingvistiky a oblasť politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov. Prispievatelia sekcií lingvistiky môžu svoje publikácie písať v anglickom i v inom svetovom jazyku a prispievatelia v sekcii politológia a medzinárodné vzťahy v anglickom jazyku.

The journal is published twice a year and it published studies, academic articles and polemical articles, and reviews. It is divided into two sections: Linguistics and the field of politics and international relations. Language of the publication is English or other for linguistics and English for politics and international relations.

Časopis vychádza dvakrát ročne, uzávierky čísel sú k 31. máju a k 30. novembru.

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Editoriál

Vážení čitatelia,

po ôsmych rokoch existencie vedeckého časopisu **Fórum cudzích jazykov**, ktorý vznikol v roku 2009, nastal čas na zmenu. Ročník 2017 sme otvorili nie len zmenou názvu časopisu, ale aj rozšírením o novú sekciu.

Dovoľte mi, aby som Vás niekoľkými slovami oboznámil s novým zameraním časopisu VŠD pod názvom **Fórum cudzích jazykov, politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov**. Publikuje štúdie, odborné príspevky, diskusné príspevky a recenzie.

Prvá sekcia - **lingvistika** - bude tak ako aj doposiaľ venovaná potrebám a výsledkom výskumu v oblasti jazykovedy, didaktiky, svetovej literatúry a jazykového vzdelávania. Naším prvotným cieľom je, aby časopis dosiahol vysokú odbornú a metodickú úroveň a zároveň sa stal i užitočným pomocníkom pre všetkých tých, ktorí sa podieľajú na výučbe cudzieho jazyka.

Druhá sekcia - **politológia a medzinárodné vzťahy** - sa bude zameriavať na vedecké a odborné príspevky, štúdie, recenzie a informácie o dianí v politologickej obci. Tematicky zahŕňa oblasti politickej filozofie a teórie, komparatívnu politológiu, politickú sociológiu, analýzy policy, európskych štúdií, medzinárodných vzťahov, či bezpečnostných štúdií

Verím, že Vás zameranie nášho časopisu osloví, že Vás nami predkladané výsledky poznania a výsledky výskumu zaujmú a že postupne sa rozšíri okruh čitateľov a aj prispievateľov.

doc. PhDr. et Mgr. Peter Ondria, PhD.
šéfredaktor časopisu

Editorial

Dear readers,

after eight years of existence of the Foreign Language Forum scientific journal, which was created in 2009, it is time for change. We opened the volume 2017 not only by changing the title of the magazine, but also by adding a new section.

Let me introduce the new title of the journal **Forum of Foreign Languages, Politology and International Relations**. The journal publishes research, scholarly articles, discussions and reviews. The platform is based on peer to peer reviews.

The first section - **linguistics** - will continue to publish the research in the fields of linguistics, world, literature and language education. It aims to be both research platform and offer the support for those who are active in language education.

The second section - **politology and international relations** - will focus on research, discussions, reviews, and information in the field of politology. It aims to publish the papers on political philosophy and theory, comparative politology, political sociology, policy analysis, European studies, international relations, and security studies.

I believe the new focus of the journal will be interesting to the scholarly public and we can together improve the knowledge on the mentioned topics.

Assoc. Prof. PhDr. et Mgr. Peter Ondria, PhD.
Editor in chief

Obsah

I. LINGUISTIC SECTION	6
INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION – ITS ROLE IN THE MODERN GLOBALISED ENVIRONMENT	7
GRUNDVERSTÄNDNIS DER VERBALEN KOMMUNIKATION FÜR DEN INTERNATIONALEN ARBEITSBEREICH	15
DEUTSCHUNTERRICHT KOMPAKT LERNPROZESSE IN THEORIE UND PRAXIS	26
L’INTERCOMPREHENSION ET LA COMMUNICATION PLURILINGUE SUR L’EXEMPLE TCHÉCO-SLOVAQUE	39
LINGUISTIC INTERPRETATION OF HUMOUR, PARODY AND SATIRE IN SCIENCE FICTION NOVELS	55
II. SECTION OF POLITOLOGY	63
THE STATUS OF THE SELF-GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE ACT ON THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE LIGHT OF THE PRACTICE.....	64
EASTON’S SYSTEM THEORY (EXAMPLE ON POLITICAL ISLAM IN AUSTRIA).....	72
IMPLEMENTATION OF SMART SPECIALISATION STRATEGY: THE CASE OF SLOVAKIA.....	78
CHARACTERISTICS OF A LEADER FOR AN EFFECTIVE PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTING CHANGES IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.....	90
III. SECTION OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.....	112
SPORT DIPLOMACY WITHIN US INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL POLITICAL ACTIVITIES	113

I. LINGUISTIC SECTION

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION – ITS ROLE IN THE MODERN GLOBALISED ENVIRONMENT

Mária BLÁHOVÁ

Abstract:

The submitted paper tends to focus on new challenges and approaches to a relatively new subject of interest, i.e. intercultural communication and its importance for a number of branches including foreign language training, entrepreneurial activities, sports, or arts activities. It has become an inevitable part of globalisation that has influenced the modern world as a whole, with all its positive as well as negative impacts.

Key words: *Intercultural communication, intercultural competence, globalisation, culture clashes, stereotypes*

Introduction

The modern globalised world has changed the entire nature of lifestyles of the world's population and all of us have become part of an international complex network. These changes have resulted in a new concept of communication in all areas of humans' activities - in businesses, organizations, institutions, etc. As the business has turned more international and globalised, intercultural knowledge competence and skills become inevitable. Being able to work successfully in an international context has become increasingly important in general and especially in any form of entrepreneurial activity. It requires interculturally competent professionals which means not only expert knowledge of one's job and professional approach, but also foreign-language skills and the ability to cooperate smoothly with people from different cultures. An interculturally competent person is someone who is able to work successfully in or with another culture. This is highly relevant to those who live and work in countries others than their own but also to those who stay in their own culture but work in an international or multinational company. Therefore a need for more effective and clear communication among people who speak different languages and coming from different cultures has been urgently triggered.

Intercultural communication

Intercultural communication has been a vital issue since the beginning of human beings existence, it is before anything else an instance of interpersonal communication and can be

described as such. The difference is that the interlocutors are culturally different, i.e. their respective set of values, intentions, conceptualizations, and categorizations, as well as their perceptions of communicative behaviour may differ. These differences, however, are made situation-dependent and are analytically individual in characteristics.

As Byram claims an intercultural speaker possesses the ability to “identify areas of misunderstanding and dysfunction in interaction and to mediate between conflicting interpretations or phenomena (Byram, 1997, p. 52). He also declares that intercultural communicative competence involves several domains including attitude, knowledge, and skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness. All of them have a significant role in avoiding critical circumstances, e.g. stereotypes, prejudice, misunderstanding, discrimination, ethnocentrism, etc.

Intercultural competence can lubricate the wheels of business negotiations, it can help teams win, whether they be sports teams or teams of international research workers. Intercultural, cross-cultural, or multicultural competence can end disputes, save lives, radically transform the existence of millions of people. No wonder then, that as the globalisation of business and leisure propels international contact forward, international communication is a phrase to be heard more and more in the world of business, education, training, culture, sports, etc.

Culture and Communication

The extent to which language, culture, and thought have influenced one another, and which is the dominant aspect of communication, have been matters of controversy for a number of decades. The three aspects are three parts of a whole and cannot operate independently, regardless of which one most influences the other two. It is conceivable that the lack of acceptance of artificial languages such as Esperanto may be explained by their isolation of language from culture (Tomalin, Stempleski, 1996).

While it is true that an artificial language may be a politically wise choice for intercultural communication because it is offensive to none, on the other hand, it is a poor choice because no one can feel, and therefore think deeply, in an artificial language.

The object of the study of intercultural communication is not the culture-specific categories and ways of interaction of the speakers, but the way in which these categories contribute to the construction of a situation-dependent consensus. Culture in intercultural communication is a heterogeneous phenomenon, manifesting itself in various shapes both at an a-priori as well as

at a situation-dependent level. “Awareness” and “sensitiveness” are no miracle solutions, since every consensus is subject to situation-specific negotiations between the participants (Valdes, 1996).

It may be easy to generalize about other cultures, but when it comes to one’s own culture, we like to differentiate much more. When a visitor comes to our country, almost everyone is glad to show him the way of our life or our culture but what do we show him and what do we tell him? How do we know what to show and tell him? We can choose to show him some characteristic items of the area and we will tell him the favourable generalities that we have been taught about ourselves, which may happen to be the same favourable generalities he too has learnt about himself and his culture. As Valdes (1996) continues, occasionally someone among us wishing to pose as an intellectual may criticize a thing or two, or everything. But we are really rather helpless to interpret ourselves accurately and to describe what we do, because we have grown up doing it and we do much of what we do through habit, acquired almost unnoticed from our elders and our cultural environment.

The culture we have acquired, of course, influences the way we communicate. We could say that our culture has fitted us with a set of filters that influence both our perceptions and our conceptions of the world. Our inability to describe our cultural ways parallels our inability to describe our language unless we have made a special study of it. We cannot hope to compare two cultures unless we have a more accurate understanding of each of the cultures being compared.

Culture Clashes

Cultural differences are seen as the main reason for international conflicts. Culture is often presented as an undifferentiated and transcendental influence upon the affairs of the world (Tomalin, Stampleski, 1996). If two people are culturally different, there will always be a high potential for conflict because of these cultural differences. Culture is not only influenced upon the identity of the interlocutor but also upon the situation as a whole.

According to Gibson (2004), when two individuals with a different cultural background meet, two different sets of concepts, categories, customs, routines, and presuppositions are involved. Certain sets of meanings, however, are not translatable nor interpretable by the other. Certain phenomena, ideas, or experiences simply cannot be conceptualized and expressed. The possible set of exchangeable meanings has to be constructed in the course of interaction itself. This

consensus is a one-time construct, it is completely situation-dependent and has an extremely strong temporal dimension.

Whenever culturally different interlocutors meet, their cultures meet too, and as Frenco (2005) states, whenever they have a conflict their cultures collide. What usually happens in such cases is *a culture bump*. It occurs when an individual from one culture finds himself or herself in a different, strange or uncomfortable situation when interacting with persons of a different culture. This phenomenon results from a difference in the way people from one culture behave in a particular situation from people in another culture. A culture bump occurs when an individual has expectations of one behaviour and gets something completely different. The unexpected behaviour can be negative, neutral, or positive. Unlike culture shock, which extends over an extended period of time, culture bumps are instantaneous, usually over within minutes or even seconds, though the effect may be long-lasting, and can occur any time one is in contact with members of a different culture. One does not have to leave one's own culture in order to experience a culture bump (Valdes, 1996).

It is the process of acculturation that leads to avoiding potential forms of culture shocks and culture bumps. It can be defined as a process of "*acquiring*" a second culture, as the gradual adaptation to the target culture without necessarily forsaking one's own native language identity. The model of acculturation may comprise several stages from the early one (tourist), in which the new culture is almost totally inaccessible, through the phase of functional understanding the language (survivor). The so called immigrant stage is reached by most literate people who spend an extended period of time studying or working and living in a foreign culture. The final stage (citizen) is almost at the level of the native speaker, in which one has acculturated to the degree that both his pronunciation and gestures are very similar to those of natives (Byram, 1997. pp. 50 - 54).

Typicalities and Stereotypes (National Cultures)

Our potential for communication is not without limits - there are restrictions on what can possibly be expressed. We simply do not have a mode of expression for a number of experiences, phenomena, items, and objects. We can assume that it is impossible or at least very complicated to describe other cultural language data as they are. "*Typicality*" only exists by consensus, but cannot be defined in absolute terms (Tomalin, Stempleski, 1996).

As long ago as in the middle of the 18th century, the French philosopher Montesquieu

contemplated the idea of national character. It assumed that people belonging to specific cultures are more or less identical in nature. He believed that people's characters were influenced by the climate they lived in. Those who lived in cold climates were more vigorous while people in warm climates were more timorous. Though the direct influence of climate on the character cannot be assessed on a scientific basis, there is something that can be denoted to as stereotypes. Stereotypes are fixed images of what a particular type of person or thing is like. Not surprisingly, many of typical national characteristics are negative and are the basis of many jokes, including the one about European heaven and hell. (Gibson, 2004)

In European heaven, the police are English the cooks are French, the mechanics are German, the lovers are Italian, and it is all organized by the Swiss. In European hell, on the other hand, the police are German the cooks are English, the mechanics are French, the lovers are Swiss and it is all organized by the Italian (Gibson, 2004, p. 15).

Although such stereotypes can be entertaining, they can also get in the way of effective communication. It is inevitable to categorize knowledge in order to make sense of it, however, the problem with stereotypes is the very fact that they are fixed. Stereotypes about national character seem to be largely cultural constructions, transmitted through the media, education, history, or jokes. It would be wise to trust less in general beliefs about national characters. They can be dangerous and the basis for discrimination.

Management Styles and International Environment

There is a number of definitions of international management styles. For some (Ferraro, 2005), management is the art of the possible, for others (Trompenaars, 1993), it is organizing and directing the work of a company. The emphasis on goals and tasks is not universal. Many cultures focus more on people and relationships. And some cultures expect managers to spend more time doing things themselves rather than on getting things done by others. To some extent, differences in management style can be traced back to differences in educational culture. In Britain, for example, managers see their role as coordinators and use persuasion rather than authority to get their staff to do things. On the other side, in France, managers often see control as their main task. (Gibson, 2004)

There is also variation across cultures about who is involved in the decision-making process and who ultimately makes the decision. According to Geert Hofstede's definition (2000), "masculinity" cultures expect managers to be decisive and assertive, and they expect conflicts

to be resolved by fighting them out. In contrast, in Scandinavian countries, where there is a number of women in managerial positions, managers try to create a consensus in the group, and conflicts are solved by compromise and negotiation.

The word “team” is understood very differently in different cultures. In the USA or Australia, a team is a group of individuals with particular skills and roles. The manager leads because of his ability to coordinate, rather than because of the authority given to him by the firm. In more collectivist countries, such as Sweden, teams will spend a considerable amount of time trying to reach consensus. (Gibson, 2004)

More and more business people are faced with situations with complex interfaces between several cultures and possible reactions to the basic dilemma: trying to take the global approach while respecting local values. C. Hampden-Turner and F. Trompenaars (2004) focused on the technique of dilemma reconciliation. According to their theory, there is an option not to be active globally at all and simply to “stay at home”. This approach is hardly possible for many people in globalised business today. Another extreme approach they introduce is an attempt to standardize everything internationally without considering local differences - to “colonize”. The other way is “let it be”: not to standardize at all, and let each culture follow their own way. The authors submit also a sort of compromise called “When in Rome, do as the Romans do”. However, they suggest the most effective approach is- to create synergies by combining the strengths of all cultural elements. The whole is then more than the sum of the parts and it results in “synergy”.

Globalisation and Intercultural Communication

More than fifty years ago, Marshall McLuhan predicted that the world was going to become a global village, and sure enough, he was right – all these satellites, faxes, e-mail, the internet and social networks have changed the world. So indeed, today we witness a worldwide reformation of cultures, a tectonic shift of habits and dreams, called “globalisation”. It is, in fact, an inexact term for a wild assortment of changes in politics, business, health, entertainment, and education. Increased speed of communication and the ability for people to read about, spread, and react to global news quickly, forces us to become more involved with others from various social groups and countries around the world and to be more aware of our global responsibilities (McLuhan, 1964, p. 5)

How people feel about this depends a great deal on where they live and how much money they

have. Yet globalisation is reality, not a choice. It may be argued whether globalisation is a danger, a threat or an opportunity. Whatever the answers or arguments, it is an irreversible phenomenon which has become increasingly important. Thus, intercultural communication and intercultural competence present and important phenomena to face new challenges of the modern globalised world.

Conclusion

Humans have been weaving commercial and cultural connections since the first camel caravans crossed continents. Now computers, the internet, cellular phones, social networks have not only accelerated but also complicated these connections. Still, the basic dynamic remains the same: as people move, ideas and goods move, too - and it results in changing cultures. The difference now is the speed and scope of these changes. It took television thirteen years to acquire fifty million users; the internet took only five.

Not everyone is happy about this. Some social scientists, politicians but foremost educators believe that a sort of cultural cloning will result from what they regard as the “cultural assault” of McDonald’s, Coca Cola, Disney, and the English language itself. More than a fifth of all the people in the world now speaks English to some degree. It is the language of business and negotiations on different levels and therefore it reflects all changes in human civilization development. Intercultural communication is just one of them. It should not be neglected, just the opposite way round, it should form an integral part of education, business, entertainment, scientific research area, or politics. The process should result in considering the possibility that cultures provide us with different views, different organizations of reality. This is the key to understanding and appreciating the difference. Acceptance and adaptation lead to cultural empathy, where people are able to easily shift between cultural frames of reference.

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GRUNDVERSTÄNDNIS DER VERBALEN KOMMUNIKATION FÜR DEN INTERNATIONALEN ARBEITSBEREICH

Milena HELMOVÁ

Abstrakt:

Nach einschlägigen Untersuchungen verwenden Manager, Kooperationspartner, Verhandlungsführer, Berater, Kunden, Mediatoren und alle, die sich im internationalen Arbeitsumfeld bewegen, 70 Prozent ihrer beruflichen Arbeitszeit auf Kommunikation. Das Wirtschaftsleben ist und wird weiter internationalisiert, was mit sich bringt, dass auch ihre Kommunikation immer internationaler wird, sei es durch Kontakte mit Tochterfirmen und Niederlassungen im Ausland und Mitarbeitern ausländischer Herkunft im Inland oder durch Kontakte mit ausländischen Kunden. Infolge der Intensivierung internationaler Kontakte wird Interkulturelle Kommunikation „das Thema“ unserer Zeit. Der Beitrag fokussiert auf Formen und Aspekte vor allem der verbalen Kommunikation, die kulturabhängig sind und im internationalen Kontext problematisch werden können. Dieses Risiko besteht besonders in der interkulturellen Kommunikation, die sich von der intrakulturellen Kommunikation dadurch unterscheidet, dass sich mindestens einer der Kommunikationspartner für ihn fremder Sprache bedient. Weitere Inhalte des vorliegenden Textes außer der Fremdsprachenkompetenz stellen: die Lingua-franca-Kompetenz, Stile der Kommunikation, die Übersetzungskompetenz und andere dar. Der Artikel bietet Antwort auf die generelle Frage: Warum können die verbalisierten Sprachhandlungen in einer fremdkulturellen Kontaktsituation Missverständnisse oder Probleme nicht vorbeugen? Um die Frage beantworten zu können, wird in den einzelnen Abschnitten des Beitrages zuerst die Wichtigkeit der Sprache für das Verstehen erläutert. Auch wird kurz auf die Kommunikationsstile eingegangen. Weiter werden nicht nur sprachliche, sondern auch kulturelle Kenntnisse für die Verständigung im internationalen Umfeld hervorgehoben. Auch die Aufgaben der Übersetzer für die problemlose interkulturelle Kommunikation zwischen zwei Verfassern eines Textes werden behandelt. Dieser Artikel will innerhalb des umfangreichen Rahmens - Kommunikation - einen inhaltlichen Aspekt der Kommunikation hervorheben. Es handelt sich um verbale Kommunikation im interkulturellen Kontext. Infolge dessen, dass die Fachliteratur zum Thema nur schwer zu übersehen ist, wird methodisch der Text durch Literaturrecherche verfasst.

***Schlüsselwörter:** Internationalisierung, Kommunikation, Sprache, Fremdsprachenkompetenz, Arbeitsbereich*

Einführung

Der zunehmenden Internationalisierung des Wirtschaftsbereichs ist es zuzuschreiben, dass auch Kommunikation intensiv internationaler wird. Die Formen und Inhalte der Kommunikation sind kulturabhängig, was zugleich eine Zunahme der interkulturellen Kommunikation zur Folge hat. Fachkenntnisse und technisches Wissen reichen nicht mehr aus, um im globalen Markt und Handel erfolgreich zu sein. Nur derjenige, der den fremdkulturellen Partner und sich selbst gut kennt und versteht, kann in allen Kommunikations- und Kooperationssituationen erfolgreich sein.

Wenn eine grenzüberschreitende Firmenfusion oder Gruppenzusammenarbeit vorgenommen wird, gibt es in jedem Fall keinen neutralen Start, also keinen Neubeginn beim Nullpunkt, denn jeder Beteiligte steht mitten in einem lebensgeschichtlich und unternehmensgeschichtlich kontinuierlich verlaufenden Ereignisstrom, aus dem er seine Werte, Überzeugungen, Erfahrungen und Orientierungen gewonnen hat und weiter gewinnen wird. Was die internationale Arbeitsgruppe oder der internationale Zusammenschluss für die beteiligten Mitarbeiter auf allen Ebenen an Neuem bringt, ist auf jeden Fall eine Anreicherung durch bisher unbekannte Aufgaben, Anforderungen, Entwicklungschancen, aber auch Belastungen.

Wenn Menschen unterschiedlicher Kulturen miteinander kommunizieren, wird dieser Prozess als interkulturelle Kommunikation bezeichnet. Gemäß einer Definition von interkultureller Kommunikation, wie sie von den Sprachwissenschaftlern verwendet wird ... „lässt sich interkulturelle Kommunikation auf solche Situationen beschränken, in denen zwei oder mehr Individuen mit unterschiedlichem kulturellem Hintergrund mittels Sprache oder nonverbalen Ausdrucksmitteln unmittelbar miteinander kommunizieren“ (Ertl/Gymnich, 2007, 77). Wenn man in eine fremde Kultur geht, merkt man bald, dass es nicht reicht, gelernte Kenntnisse anzuwenden. Man steht vor der Frage: Wie kann man die fremde Kultur verstehen? Mit der Problematik des Verstehens haben sich vor allem die Geisteswissenschaften beschäftigt. Sie haben „Verstehen“ zu ihrem Zentralbegriff gemacht, um sich damit von der

Erklärung der Naturwissenschaften abzugrenzen. Dilthey behauptet, dass Natur erklärt wird, aber das Seelenleben wird verstanden (online). Die Linguistik versteht das Konzept als einen Aspekt der sprachlichen Verständigung in Form von Dialog zwischen Menschen, wo der eine den anderen und umgekehrt verstehen will. Und „verstehen“ heißt: ... „erfassen, was der Partner meint, was er sagen vermitteln will“ ... (Hörmann, 1978, S. 207). Es kommt hier also zur Wechselseitigkeit. Das Verstehen einer fremden Kultur erstreckt sich auf das Begreifen dessen, was der Partner meint, aber auch auf das Einfügen von Neuem in bereits Bekanntes. Wie oben schon erwähnt, verläuft die Kommunikation unter anderem mittels Sprache. Im interkulturellen Kontext kommen Fremdsprachen zum Tragen. Welche es sind und wie sie funktionieren, das wird im nächsten Teil erläutert.

Bedeutung der Sprache in der internationalen beruflichen Kommunikation

Bevor die Fremdsprachenkompetenz näher betrachtet wird, ist es wichtig, sich zuerst dem Begriff „Sprache“ zu widmen. Nach Brockhaus Enzyklopädie „... ist sie ein Mittel zum Ausdruck von Gedanken und Gefühlen, ein wichtiges und artspezifisches Kommunikationsmittel des Menschen, ein strukturiertes System von Zeichen, ein verinnerlichtes System von Regeln, und wird als Menge von Äußerungen in einer Sprachgemeinschaft oder als Werkzeug des Denkens definiert“ (Brockhaus online). Laut Heringer (2014, 113) ist Sprache die Grundlage menschlicher Kommunikation. Sprache ist ein komplexes Phänomen. Ohne sie und die körperlichen Ausdrucksmittel wäre die Kommunikation mit anderen Menschen nicht möglich. Sie ist der Bezug zu der Gemeinschaft, in der die Individuen leben. „Sprache ist Gebrauch und Artikulation von Wörtern durch einen Organismus, durch Sprache fasziniert die Kommunikation das Bewusstsein und durch Sprache nimmt das Bewusstsein an Kommunikation teil“ (Baecker, 2004, 115).

Wie schon angedeutet wurde, bewegen sich die Menschen in bestimmten Gruppen, in denen sie die Ideologie mit anderen teilen. In Bezug darauf ist es der Frage nachzugehen, wie diese Ideologie bewahrt und weitergegeben wird. Das Instrument, das diese Funktion erfüllt, ist gemeinsame Sprache. Mittels der Sprache wird die Welt wahrgenommen, analysiert und interpretiert. „Wer die Sprache und die sie begleitenden Zeichen interpretieren kann, hat große Vorteile ... ,weil er nicht nur wahrnimmt, was jemand sagt, sondern auch , wie er das sagt und meint“ (Salewski, 2008, 61).

Sprache hat zwei gegensätzliche Eigenschaften, wie Glaser (2003, 76) behauptet. Sie meint, dass Sprache einerseits Missverständnisse herbeiführen kann, aber andererseits auch Missverständnisse aufklären. Somit nimmt sie in der menschlichen Kommunikation sowohl innerhalb der eigenen Kultur, als auch zwischen den Kulturen eine Schlüsselrolle ein. Es wird demnach besonders in der interkulturellen Kommunikation als wichtig erachtet, dass Vertreter westlicher Kulturen ihr Sprachverhalten so wählen, dass sie weder bei den fernöstlichen noch bei einem der westlichen Gesprächspartner einen Gesichtverlust bewirken, da dies unbedingt den Abbruch aller Beziehungen zur Folge haben kann. Da es eine Grundeigenschaft der Sprache ist, Missverständnisse nicht nur zu klären, sondern solche innerhalb der gleichen Kultur, vor allem aber auch zwischen den Kulturen, herbeizuführen, wurde bereits vor langer Zeit die Idee einer einzigen Sprache geboren, die allen Kulturen als Verständigungsmittel dienen kann. Der Wunsch nach einer Universalsprache lässt sich bis ins Griechenland des ersten Jahrhunderts vor Christus zurückführen. Bereits damals träumte man von einer Sprache, die frei von Mehrdeutigkeiten ist, in der man alles so beschreiben kann, wie es wirklich ist. Da jedoch damals die empirische Überzeugung vorherrschte, dass Menschen ungeachtet aller Sprachbarrieren miteinander kommunizieren wollen, wurden seit dem 17. Jahrhundert einige Hundert künstliche Sprachen geschaffen, um die Kommunikation über Sprach- und Kulturgrenzen hinweg zu ermöglichen. Die bekannteste von ihnen war Esperanto, das von mehr als zwei Millionen Menschen weltweit gesprochen wird. Es wurde allerdings als Zweitsprache und somit nicht mit der Absicht konzipiert, die jeweilige Muttersprache ihrer Sprecher zu ersetzen (Bailey, 2002). Die Idee einer Universalsprache ist eine Fiktion geblieben. In den vergangenen Jahrzehnten wird Englisch immer mehr als lingua franca im Kontakt zwischen den Kulturen eingesetzt. Englisch ist zweifellos „die“ lingua franca der internationalen Wirtschaft, doch wie auch Ammon (1999) feststellt, potenziert die Lingua-franca-Kommunikation in Englisch sprachlich und interkulturell bedingte Kommunikationsprobleme. Hier stoßen nämlich aufeinander Kommunikationspartner, die sich hinsichtlich der Kompetenz in dieser Sprache unterscheiden können, deren englischsprachige Kommunikation mit Interferenzen aus verschiedenen Muttersprachen beeinträchtigt werden kann. Die verbreitete Praxis in ausländischen Niederlassungen internationaler Unternehmen ist es, sich als internes Kommunikationsmittel des Englischen zu bedienen, was aber auch Verständigungsprobleme mit sich bringen kann. Als Beispiel kann die Verwendung des Englischen als „lingua franca“ in vielen Niederlassungen japanischer Unternehmen in Deutschland aufgeführt werden (Knapp, 2000). In Deutschland lernt man üblicherweise britisches Englisch mit britischem soziokulturellem Kommunizieren, während man in Japan amerikanisches Englisch mit US-

amerikanischen Kommunikationskonventionen lernt. Es ist in dieser Kommunikationssituation nicht klar, welche kulturellen Standards gelten - die deutschen, die japanischen, die britischen, die amerikanischen oder andere von den Interaktionspartnern ad hoc geschaffenen Mischformen. Grundsätzlich gilt: Mit der Wahl einer „lingua franca“ ist die Frage des kulturellen Rahmens, innerhalb dessen sich die Partner bewegen, noch nicht entschieden. Bei der Wahl des Englischen kommt noch erschwerend hinzu, dass es außer in der britischen oder amerikanischen Variante noch in zahlreichen weiteren Standardvarianten vorkommt, die formal, linguistisch und soziokulturell stark von den lokalen Sprachen beeinflusst werden, dass sie nicht einmal von Muttersprachlern des Englischen verstanden werden können und sogar gedolmetscht werden müssen, wie es z. B. laut Fisher (1980) in den Verhandlungen zwischen US-amerikanischen und philippinischen Regierungsvertretern der Fall war.

Kommunikation verschiedener Kulturen

Die Art und Weise, wie Personen aus unterschiedlichen Kulturen miteinander kommunizieren, ist eines der Kriterien zu ihrer Unterscheidung. Verbale Kommunikationsmuster variieren von Land zu Land. Indem man sprachliche Äußerungen macht, werden gleichzeitig bestimmte sprachliche Handlungen vollzogen. Man macht z. B. Feststellungen, Angebote, fordert auf, stellt Fragen, lobt, kritisiert, usw. Darüber hinaus gibt es kulturspezifische Präferenzen, nach denen bestimmte Handlungen bevorzugt realisiert werden. Morozkina behauptet, dass im interkulturellen Sprachhandel sowohl Sprachkenntnisse, als auch die Kulturkenntnisse akzeptiert werden müssen (2017, S. 86-91). Sie charakterisieren auch den kommunikativen Stil einer Kultur, der eine häufige Ursache von Missverständnissen sein kann. Kommunikative Stile lassen sich u. a. durch den Grad der präferierten Direktheit oder Indirektheit sprachlicher Handlungen unterscheiden.

Für die verbale Kommunikation in internationalen Unternehmen oder multikulturellen Arbeitsteams ist es von großer Wichtigkeit, mit den Kommunikationsstilen unterschiedlicher Kulturen vertraut zu sein. Nach Hall (1976) wird insbesondere zwischen „Low-Context-Kommunikation“ und „High-Context-Kommunikation“ unterschieden. Die Repräsentanten der Kulturen, die in „low context“ kommunizieren, werden durch individualistische Werte, lineares und logisches Denken, einen direkten Kommunikationsstil, der sich stark am Sprecher orientiert, und vor allem durch eine Kommunikation, in der das Wort im Vordergrund steht. Der Sprecher bemüht sich, sein Gesicht nicht zu verlieren und sich selbst gut darzustellen. Er

drückt persönliche Standpunkte, Gedanken und Gefühle aus und versucht, seine Botschaft so explizit zu formulieren, dass das Gegenüber sie versteht, ohne sie zu reinterpreten. Eines direkten Kommunikationsstiles bedienen sich Vertreter des deutschsprachigen Raumes, die anglophonen Kulturen und das Skandinavien. Denen gegenüber stehen die in „high-context“ kommunizierenden Individuen, die den ostasiatischen, arabischen und den südeuropäischen Raum vertreten. Sie stellen das Gegenüber in den Mittelpunkt. Dieser übernimmt die Aufgabe, die Botschaft selbst zu interpretieren und somit zwischen den Zeilen zu lesen. Der Sprecher nimmt sich eher zurück und sendet neben der verbalen Botschaft zahlreiche nonverbale Signale, die dem Gegenüber bei der Entschlüsselung der Botschaft helfen. „High-context-Kommunikation“ bezieht sich auf vielschichtige, jedoch nicht explizit erwähnte Zusammenhänge, wie geschichtliche Hintergründe, soziale Rollen, Status, Normen, Beziehung zwischen den Sprechern, auf die der Empfänger aus dem Gesprächskontext aber schließen kann. Der Stil der Kommunikation ist indirekt, die Botschaft muss nicht klar formuliert werden. Für Vertreter vieler Kulturen ergeben sich daraus Frustrationsgefühle, weil sie es in ihrer Sozialisation nicht gelernt haben, nonverbale Botschaften aufzufangen und sie als einen Teil der Botschaft zu verstehen. Sie empfinden den Kommunikationspartner als unehrlich und glauben, dass er etwas verschleiern will.

In jeder Kommunikationssituation liegen zwei Hürden: Zum einen, sprachliche Verständigungsprobleme zu vermeiden bzw. auf eine gemeinsame Drittsprache auszuweichen, zum anderen, in der Fähigkeit, nonverbale Botschaften zu entschlüsseln (Mimik, Gestik, Körpersprache). Das setzt allerdings Kenntnisse über die Kultur der Anderen voraus. Man muss wissen, was man zu wem wie sagt oder wann man lieber schweigt. Und eben das Schweigen übernimmt eine wesentliche Funktion in der Kommunikation zwischen den Kulturen. In einer interkulturellen Situation ist die Beziehung zwischen Reden und Schweigen kulturbedingt. Für einige (Deutsche, Amerikaner, Südeuropäer oder Araber) ist es peinlich, wenn in einer Kommunikationsinteraktion eine längere Pause gemacht wird. Sie versuchen sie zu überbrücken, weil Schweigen für sie Unterbrechung der Kommunikation bedeutet. In anderen Kulturen hingegen (Japan, Ostasien, Finnland) wird Schweigen als Antwort akzeptiert. Auch in einigen U.S.-amerikanischen Indianer-Stämmen wie bei den Apachen hat Schweigen einen hohen Stellenwert, wenn die Beziehungen unklar sind und man eigene Verletzungen vermeiden möchte. In Japan, z. B. gilt ein Mann, der viel redet, als „leicht“, ein chinesisches Sprichwort sagt: Der Wissende schweigt, der Unwissende redet, auch in Korea fühlen sich Menschen mehr zu Individuen hingezogen, die nicht so viel reden. In diesen Kulturen ist Schweigen

gleichberechtigt mit Reden, weil ohne Worte auch kommuniziert werden kann. Ein schweigender Zuhörer signalisiert durch Gesten und Kopfnicken oder Lautäußerungen seine Anteilnahme an dem Gespräch. Schweigend beisammen zu sitzen wird in Finnland als angenehm empfunden und die Finnen sagen: Rede nur, wenn du etwas zu sagen hast. Dahinter ist eine Verhaltensstrategie zu sehen: Sich anderen nicht aufzudrängen und selbst nicht bedrängt zu werden (Broszinsky-Schwabe, 2011). Im Gegenteil dazu gibt es gesprächige Kulturen, wie Italiener, die hitzige Debatten mit teatralischen Gesten führen. Bei ihnen bedeutet es etwa: Wenn jemand schweigt, gibt es Differenzen und Ärger. Laut Collett (1996) ist diese Gesprächigkeit der Italiener ein Zeichen, Zuneigung zu zeigen, Anteil zu nehmen, Körperkontakt herzustellen. Selbst Durcheinanderreden (das Ins-Wort-Fallen) wird toleriert, weil das auch zur Interaktion gehört.

Die Gesprächsregeln sind kulturabhängig. Eine wichtige kulturspezifische Kommunikationsregel ist der Sprecherwechsel, das sog. „Turn geben“. Es handelt sich (meistens in Deutschland oder England) um bestimmte Kopfbewegungen und Augensignale, die anzeigen, wenn jemand in einer Gesprächsrunde das Wort wünscht. Ein Sprecherwechsel wird durch die Lautstärke reguliert, wobei eine leiser werdende Stimme des Redners ein Zeichen sein kann, um den Kommunikationspartnern das Ende des Redebeitrages anzuzeigen.

Es soll an dieser Stelle auch die Rolle der Übersetzer für die Verständigung nicht außer Acht gelassen werden. Wenn den Kommunikationspartner im interkulturellen Kontakt bewusst ist, dass sie nicht über die ausreichenden Mittel verfügen, sich zu verständigen, wird ein Übersetzer zu Hilfe gerufen. Dessen Aufgabe ist es, interkulturelle Verständigung zu ermöglichen, indem er einen von der Ausgangskultur A verbalisierten Text versteht und in einen für die Zielkultur B deutbaren Text umwandelt. Der Übersetzer muss einer doppelten Herausforderung gerecht werden, nämlich einerseits gegenüber dem Ausgangstext und andererseits gegenüber dem Empfänger (Stolze, 1986, S.134). Die Übersetzer müssen nicht nur in zwei Sprachen, sondern auch in zwei Kulturen zuhause sein, um mit Hilfe der Kenntnis der jeweiligen kulturspezifischen Deutungsmuster selber verstehen, beziehungsweise Verstehensprobleme antizipieren zu können. Kulturkenntnisse sind in gewisser Hinsicht wichtiger als Fachkenntnisse in dem jeweiligen Sachbereich, in dem der Übersetzer tätig ist. Die Aufgabe des Übersetzers ist nicht einfach. Es erfordert nicht nur die sprachlichen Kompetenzen, führt Sesarová (2018, 27-) an, sondern auch die kreativen Fähigkeiten, die ihn befähigen, die Heimtücke der Sprachen zu überwinden. Autorin besagt weiter, dass der Übersetzer nicht nur die entsprechende Fremdsprache tiefgreifend beherrschen muss, sondern

vor allem auch die eigene Sprache, damit er einen „originaltreuen“ Zieltext verfassen kann. Die Übersetzungsprobleme treten immer dann auf, wenn Einheiten des Ausgangstextes nicht quasi automatisch durch eins zu eins Umkodierung in der Zielsprache wiedergegeben werden können, sondern lexikalische, grammatische, funktionalstilistische, sogar semantische Veränderungen vorgenommen werden müssen.

Schlussfolgerung

In der Weltwirtschaft des 21. Jahrhunderts steht die internationale Gemeinschaft aufgrund der zunehmenden Internationalisierung vor wachsenden Anforderungen an die internationale Kommunikation. Gemeint ist die Verständigung untereinander. Die Wissenschaftler interessieren sich seit jeher dafür, wie die Kommunikation zwischen Menschen funktioniert, welche Faktoren dabei eine Rolle spielen und wieso es oft zu Missverständnissen und Problemen kommt. Konrad Lorenz hat es zutreffend formuliert: Gesagt ist es noch nicht gehört. Gehört ist es noch nicht verstanden. Verstanden ist es noch nicht einverstanden. Einverstanden ist es noch nicht durchgeführt und durchgeführt noch nicht beibehalten. Dieser Artikel will innerhalb des Rahmens „Kommunikation“ einen Aspekt hervorheben. Es handelt sich um die verbale Kommunikation im interkulturellen Kontext. Multinationale Konzerne breiten sich durch Übernahmen, Fusionen, Joint Ventures und so weiter immer rascher aus. Mitarbeiter werden ins Ausland geschickt, ohne besonders darauf vorbereitet zu werden.

Es wurde im Text die Bedeutung der verbalen Kommunikation für die Verständigung zwischen Menschen im internationalen Umfeld erläutert. Betont wurde auch die ausschlaggebende Rolle der Sprache im beruflichen Zusammenleben. Es war der Frage nachgegangen, warum die verbalisierten Sprachhandlungen in einer fremdkulturellen Kontaktsituation Missverständnisse oder Probleme oft nicht vorbeugen können. Zur Beantwortung dieser Frage wurden im Text mehrere Ursachen für Kommunikationsprobleme angedeutet:

- Eine häufige Ursache von Schwierigkeiten beruht eben auf der sprachlichen Ebene der Verständigung. Die falsche Wahl der Sprache kann eine Hürde bei der Kommunikation sein. Zum einen geht es um die Situation, wenn die Partner nicht über eine gemeinsame Muttersprache verfügen, sondern sich in einer für sie fremden Sprache verständigen (lingua franca). Ihre sprachliche Kompetenz ist begrenzt, was den Wortschatz, die Grammatik und auch die Aussprache betrifft. Wie groß die Verständigungsprobleme werden, hängt mit der Fähigkeit

der Partner, entstandene Situationen zu sensibilisieren und auch von der gegenseitigen Bereitschaft zur Toleranz.. Zum anderen resultieren mögliche Missverständnisse aus der mangelnden Beherrschung der gewählten Kommunikationssprache eines der Partner, der infolge dessen nicht exakt das sagt, was er sagen möchte. Und schließlich resultieren die Probleme daraus, wenn die Gesprächspartner verschiedene Varietäten einer Sprache sprechen. Die sprachliche Kompetenz ist zwar hoch, doch es kann vorkommen, dass die Varietäten in Bezug auf den Wortschatz, die Grammatik und die Aussprache sehr stark voneinander divergieren.

° Mangelnde Kenntnis der Kommunikationsstile, insbesondere was den Ausdruck von Direktheit oder Indirektheit anbelangt, führt oft zu Problemen, sogar zur Unterbrechung der Geschäftskontakte. Es gibt Kulturen, die direkt oder indirekt kommunizieren, weil sie es in ihrer Kultur so gelernt haben. Diese Hürde kann überwunden werden, wenn sich die Partner vorhin auf einander gut vorbereiten im Sinne der Stärkung ihrer eigenen kulturellen Sensibilität.

° Weitere Probleme bereiten in der mündlichen Verständigung einige Kommunikationsregeln wie Sprecherwechsel oder Schweigen. Diese stellen zwar keinen reinen verbalen Ausdrucksmittel dar, weil sie sich in gewisser Weise mit den nonverbalen Zeichen überschneiden. Damit verbundene Probleme lassen sich durch Erhöhung der kulturellen Kompetenz beseitigen.

° Und nicht zuletzt sind auch die Übersetzungsprobleme zu erwähnen, die dann auftreten, wenn es an der sprachlichen und kulturellen Kompetenz eines Übersetzers mangelt. Die Missverständnisse lassen sich durch tiefgreifende Beherrschung der eigenen Sprache und der des Partners vermeiden und durch die Kenntnis um den kulturellen Hintergrund des Textverfassers.

Zusammenfassend lässt sich festhalten, dass die verbale Kommunikation in allen ihren Facetten ohne Zweifel eine für die Verständigung unersetzliche Funktion hat. Sie bietet den Kommunizierenden gemeinsam mit den nonverbalen Mitteln und paraverbalen Signalen ein vollständiges Instrumentarium für den menschlichen Kommunikationsausdruck.

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DEUTSCHUNTERRICHT KOMPAKT LERNPROZESSE IN THEORIE UND PRAXIS

FERTIGKEIT LESEN

Viera LAGEROVÁ

Abstrakt:

Die Fähigkeit der Lernenden, ihre Bedürfnisse nach Informationen, die in einem fremdsprachlichen Text enthalten sind, selbständig zu befriedigen.

Die Förderung wissensgesteuerter Verstehens Prozesse geht von der Voraussetzung aus, "dass die Verstehbarkeit eines Textes zu einem wesentlichen Teil darauf beruht, dass er Wissen versprachlicht, das, zumindest in Teilen, beim Leser schon vor der Lektüre vorhanden ist" (Stiefenhöfer 1986, S.300). Je mehr Wissen der Leser aktiviert, desto weniger Informationen muss er dem Text selbst entnehmen, korrekt aktiviertes Wissen macht das Verstehen zum Wiedererkennen.

Schlüsselwörter: *Leseverstehen, Lernziele, Lesestile Lesestrategien, der Prozess des Leseverstehens*

Fertigkeit Leseverstehen:

Aufgrund der Unterschiede zwischen den Lese- und Hörtexten lassen sich schriftliche Texte leichter dekodieren als Texte zum Hören. Didaktisch bedeutet das, dass sie inhaltlich und sprachlich komplexer sein können als diese. Je nach Textsorte kann das Totalverständnis angestrebt werden (wie auch bei Lerntexten), was für auditive Verstehens texten kein sinnvolles Verstehens Ziel darstellt. Geschriebene Sprache ist zudem sorgfältiger geplant und formuliert, anders als spontane gesprochene Sprache stimmt mit der vermittelten Regelgrammatik und dem expliziten Sprachwissen der Lernenden überein, was gelegentlich das Verstehen erleichtern mag. In Literatur werden verschiedene Lesestile unterschieden, die zu einer unterschiedlichen Tiefe des Textverstehens führen.

- **überfliegendes Lesen:** Lesen, um einen ersten globalen Überblick über einen Text zu erhalten und zu erkennen, worum es inhaltlich geht,

- **orientierendes Lesen:** Lesen mit dem Ziel zu erfahren, ob etwas über ein bestimmtes Thema oder einen Sachverhalt in einem Text steht, ob in Text für den Leser relevante oder interessante Informationen enthält usw.,
- **kursorisches Lesen:** Lesen, um die wesentlichen Aussagen einen Text zu erfassen, dabei will man aus wenigen Daten möglichst viel über einen Text erfahren,
- **selektives Lesen:** Lesen, um in einem Text bestimmte Informationen zu finden
- **totales Lesen:** Lesen mit dem Ziel, den Inhalt einen Text möglichst vollständig zu erfassen.

Der jeweils angemessene Lese Stil hängt von der Textsorte und der Leseintention ab.

Lesen Sie die Hinweise aus dem Curriculum und versuchen Sie die Ziele für die Fertigkeit Leseverstehen zu setzen. Gibt es Unterschiede je nach Alter und Sprachniveau?

Was wird im Curriculum empfohlen, mit welchen Textsorten soll man das Leseverstehen trainieren? Lesen mit Plan: Der ABC-Plan

Wir zeigen dir jetzt, was du beachten musst, wenn du einen Text in einer Fremdsprache liest.

Vor dem Lesen

Lesen fängt schon vor dem Text an. Erinnerung dich an den Wetterbericht. Du weißt, was im Text steht, auch ohne den Text zu lesen.

Sieh dir das Beispiel unten an: Wenn du das Foto siehst, dann weißt du schon viel: Im Text steht wahrscheinlich etwas über Technik, über Züge oder Lokomotiven, über Geschwindigkeit oder über die Leistung. Vielleicht auch über die Kosten oder über Probleme und Vor- und Nachteile. Vielleicht auch über den Mann, der aus dem Fenster schaut, usw. Wenn du darüber schon vorher nachdenkst, dann wirst du auch beim Lesen diese Informationen schneller erkennen und verstehen.

Überlege dir vor dem Lesen, was du mit den Informationen machen willst oder musst. Im Unterricht musst du meistens Fragen und Aufgaben zum Text bearbeiten. Wenn es im Kursbuch Fragen oder Aufgaben zum Text gibt, dann schau sie dir an, bevor du den Text liest. Schon vor dem Lesen über das Thema des Textes nachdenken und die Aufgaben ansehen.

Nach dem Lesen

Was machst du mit den Informationen?

- du machst dir Notizen für dich. Du willst die Informationen nicht vergessen.
- du machst dir Notizen. Du willst die Informationen weitergeben (z.B. einem Freund oder in der Schule dem Lehrer).
- du machst dir Notizen. Du musst im Unterricht Aufgaben zum Text bearbeiten.

Hier sind einige Aufgaben und Fragen zum Text.

Denk nach: Welche Lesestrategie brauchst du? Kreuze zu den einzelnen Aufgaben die Strategie an:

Aufgabe 1

Wie alt ist Peter?



Aufgabe 2

Was ist das Thema des Textes?

- a Schule b Sport c Technik

Aufgabe 3

Übersetze den Text in deine Muttersprache.

Aufgabe 4

Wie schnell ist der ICE?

- 230 km/h

- 240 km/h

- 250 km/h

Das Lesen als Zieltätigkeit und Mitteltätigkeit

- Als Zieltätigkeit: d.h. Informationsentnahme aus einem Text durch Lesen
- Als Mitteltätigkeit: d.h. Lesen dient dem Lernen = dem Erwerb fremdsprachlicher Kenntnisse – z.B. sprachlicher Mittel wie Wortschatz oder Grammatik
- Lesen als Mitteltätigkeit ergänzt direkt andere Arten des Fremdsprachenlernens, z.B. Lernen durch Sprechen oder Schreiben

Lernziele

<p>Traditionelle Auffassung</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alles muss verstanden werden • Unbekannte Wörter müssen übersetzt werden • Satz für Satz übersetzen 	<p>Neue Auffassung – KD (kommunikative Didaktik)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • je nach Leseabsicht, erwartungsunterschiedliches Verstehen (global, selektiv, detailliert ...)
<p>Nachteile</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • alles gleich wichtig • Übersicht und Mut, Motivation verlieren • Lernziel ist nicht das Lesen selbst (Grammatik, Wortschatz, Übung, etc.) 	<p>Lernziel ist das Lesen selbst</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ um aus (authentischen) Texten Informationen entnehmen können • Lerner zum Lesen fremdsprachlicher Texte motivieren (Leseinteresse)

Der Prozess Leseverstehen

Phasen:

- A. Leseinteresse/Vorentlastung
- B. Dekodieren
- C. Antizipieren
- D. Behalten/Speichern

A. Der Prozess Leseverstehen – Leseinteresse/Vorentlastung

- Leseinteresse wecken – Impulse geben, einen Text lesen oder nicht = im Fremdspracheunterricht muss erzeugt werden
- Text – Vorentlastung = Elemente, die das Verstehen belasten, vor dem Lesen entlasten. Einfacher gesagt: ein schwieriger Text soll leichter zugänglich gemacht werden. Das kann auf Unterschiedliche Weise geschehen, z.B. durch:
 - bildliche Vorentlastung
 - sprachliche Vorentlastung

Exkurs Text – Vorentlastung

- bildliche Vorentlastung

Teile des Textes oder Textaussage werden bildlich (z.B. Zeichnung, Foto) dargestellt

- sprachliche Vorentlastung
 - a) unbekannter Wortschatz wird vor dem ersten Lesen geklärt,
 - b) mit Hilfe eines Unterrichtsgesprächs/ Assoziogramme wird der wesentliche Inhalt wichtiger Wortschatz vor dem ersten Lesen erarbeitet,
 - c) zu vorgegebenen (richtigen u./o. falschen Aussagen), zu Inhaltsangaben zum Text sollen im Text Entsprechungen gefunden werden,
 - d) eine vorangestellte, vereinfachte Fassung des Textes ("Zubringertext") soll das Verständnis des Textes erleichtern

Vorentlastungsübung:

Es handelt sich nicht um Übungen zur Schulung der Lesefertigkeit, sondern die Elemente, die das Verstehen belasten werden vor dem Lesen erleichtert (entlastet).

B. Der Prozess Leseverstehen – Dekodieren

- Dekodieren (Grundlagen des Verstehens)
- Sprachkenntnisse (Vokabeln, Grammatik, Satzbau ...)
- eigene Vorkenntnisse der Schüler aktivieren
- Außersprachliches Wissen/Weltwissen

Wir unterscheiden folgende Bereiche von Vorkenntnissen:

Kenntnisse über:

die Wahrscheinlichkeit von Buchstabenkombination

z. B. Galgenspiel - für jeden falsch genannten Buchstaben wird Strich für Strich ein Galgen aufgebaut. Richtige Buchstaben werden über den Strich geschrieben – CH-L-E, den Wahrscheinlichen Verlauf von Sätzen, von Wort Kombinationen z.B. Lückentexte, Logische Strukturen, außersprachliches Wissen/von Weltwissen, z.B. die soziokulturellen Gelegenheiten sind unterschiedlich, Normen, Werte, Verhaltenswesen, Einstellungen....

C. Der Prozess Leseverstehen – Antizipieren

- Erwartungen formulieren – aus den verstandenen Textteilen Hypothesen auf den Inhalt der folgenden Textpassagen aufstellen, überprüfen (evtl. revidieren)
- Vorkenntnisse auf mehreren Ebenen:
 - Satzbau (entweder ... oder ..., ..., weil ... → Inhalt: Begründung)

- Wortschatz (Meine Damen ...→ und Herren, bei einem Vortrag ... - halten aber nicht: essen, spazieren)
- und Inhalt (verallgemeinerte und gespeicherte Schemata über Vorgänge und Situationen)

D. Der Prozess Leseverstehen – Behalten/Speichern

Beim längeren Text:

- schon verstandenen Informationen speichern, um den Faden nicht zu verlieren → selektieren und vereinfachen
- man behält: was interessant, wichtig, einigermaßen, bekannt, mit möglichst vielen anderen Informationen verknüpft ist Lesestile, Lesestrategien

- **orientierendes/globales/kursorisches Lesen:**

Gesamtzusammenhang und Sinn eines Textes erfassen, d.h. einen Text "überfliegen", um sich den ersten Eindruck zu verschaffen, um global zu erfassen, worum es geht Express-Strategie

- **suchendes/selektives Lesen:**

den Text gezielt nach bestimmten Informationen durchsuchen d.h. eine gewisse, spezifische Information im Text finden wollen Schnüffel Strategie

- **detailliertes Lesen:**

aus dem Text oder aus kürzeren Passagen des Textes möglichst viele/alle Informationen herausholen (Mikrostruktur)

Detektiv Strategie

- **totales Lesen:** vollständiges Verständnis (Wort für Wort lesen, z.B. Übersetzung)
Kriterien für die Auswahl von Lesetexten
- motivierende, interessante Texte
- die keine Unter- oder Überforderung für die Schüler sind, sowohl sprachlich als auch in der Art der gestellten Aufgabe
- authentische Texte
- von Muttersprachlern verfasste und nicht (oder nur wenig) für den Fremdsprachenunterricht bearbeitete Texte und Materialien, die ursprüngliche Textmerkmale aufweisen (z.B. die Zeitungstexte: Hauptüberschrift, Untertitel, Zwischenüberschriften). Originalform oder leicht überarbeitet.

- verschiedene Textsorten
- Brief, Lebenslauf, Nachrichtensendung, Bahnhofdurchsage, Märchen, Zeitungsartikel, Aufgaben zum Lesen
- Aufgaben zum Speichervermögen und Antizipationsvermögen

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wörter und Wortverbindungen aufschreiben und wiederholen lassen <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Die Zahl der Wörter ständig steigern ○ Wortschatzspiele, wie z.B. Kofferpacken 	<p>Antizipieren = Vorausdenken:</p> <p>Aus bereits gelesenen Textteilen auf nächste Textteile zu folgen, sowohl vor als auch während der Tätigkeit lesen:</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mitschreibübungen zu Lesetexten <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Am Ende die schriftliche Fassung des Textes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Satzergänzungsübungen mit Strukturwörtern → Wegweiser für kommende Informationen ○ Versuchen aus einem kürzeren Textabschnitt den nächsten zu erschließen

Vorbereitung auf den Text (Einstieg – Vorentlastung)

Aktivieren von Vorkenntnissen und Erfahrungen, Interesse wecken

- außersprachliche Signale: Bilder, Zeichnungen, Objekte, Geräusche
- ASSOZIOGRAMME zum Inhalt/Wortschatz
- Fragen (inhaltbezogene und inhaltsunabhängige → bei jedem Text verwendet werden können)
- aus Einzelwörter oder aus vorgegebenen Abschnitten einen sinnvollen Text zusammenstellen und mit dem Original vergleichen
- Vorgabe eines vereinfachten Hörtextes
- Wortfelder (Bedeutungsverwandte Wörter)

z.B. Wohnen – Bild dazu – Fragen zum Text bilden – Ich vermute ..., Ich bin vermutlich ..., Ich denke ...

Präsentation des Textes (Lesephase 1)

- Ohne sprachliche Aktivität

- Wahl von Titeln/Untertiteln
- Zuordnungsübungen: Bild – Text, Sinnabschnitte, Sätze, Überschriften zu Textteilen ordnen
- Systematische Anordnung von Schlüsselwörtern
- Unterstreichen von Schlüsselwörter
- Informationssuchübungen anhand Inhaltsverzeichnisse, Tabellen, Registern (Infos ankreuzen)
- Sprachlich – reproduktive Aktivität
 - W – Fragen: Wer? Was? Wann? Wo? Wie?
 - Raster/Flussdiagramme
 - Informationssuchübungen anhand Inhaltsverzeichnisse, Tabellen, Registern (Infos einfügen)
- Sprachlich – produktive Aktivität
 - Verstehens Inseln schaffen: Was habt ihr alles verstanden?
 - eigene Meinung äußern, z.B. Lesephase mit w- Fragen – Vermutungen überprüfen:
 - Wo wohnt er? Was tut er? Alle Antworten können sie in Text finden?

Intensivierung der Textarbeit (Lesephase 2)

- Detailliertes Lesen – enges Verständnis des Textes, Detailverständnis
 - Sprachlich – reproduktive Aktivität
 - Multiple Choice/ W - Fragen zum Text – in besondere Warum?
 - Zuordnungsübungen zu besonderen Aspekten
 - Haupt-/Nebeninformationen trennen
 - Informationen nach Wichtigkeit ordnen
 - Sprachlich – produktive Aktivität
 - Titel/ Schlagzeilen/Überschriften finden lassen (Den Text in Sinnesabschnitte teilen, Überschriften verfassen)
 - "eingeschmuggelte" falsche Informationen finden
 - Ähnliche Texte vergleichen
 - Fehlende Textpassage (Anfang, Schluss, Mitte) ergänzen
 - Abschnittweise lesen, Hypothesen bilden und dazu ständig die Belegstellen aus dem Text herausuchen

Reproduktive Arbeit nach dem Lesen

- Lückentexte

- memorieren, Zusammenfassung des Textes mit Hilfe von Schlüsselwörtern, Flussdiagramm/ Raster/ Illustrationen/ Textkarten
 - Zusammenfassung der Informationen in Rollen spielen
- z. B. reproduktive Textarbeit – Lückentext, Zuordnungsübung



Produktive Arbeit nach dem Lesen:




- die im Text gestellte Aufgaben erfüllen (Rezept)
 - auf den Text reagieren (einen Lesebrief schreiben, Brief an den Verfasser, ...)
 - Textsortenwechsel (Lese Text → Text zum Hören)
 - Dramatisieren eines Erzähltextes (Rollenspiel/Inszenieren)
 - Eigenen Textproduktion anhand von Bildern/ Bildserien
 - Den Inhalt des Textes graphisch wiedergeben (Zeichnung o. ä.)
 - Pro/Contra: Diskussion, Referat
 - Freie Diskussion/ schriftliche Äußerung
 - Freie Diskussion: interkultureller Vergleich
- z. B. produktive Textarbeit – schreiben oder sprechen – Ich finde es schön

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG:

<p>VOR DEM LESEN</p> <p>Vorbereitung</p> <p>– eine Basis schaffen</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leseinteresse • Vorentlastung: Vorwissen aktivieren → Antizipation
<p>BEIM LESEN</p> <p>Hören, Verstehen</p> <p>gelenktes Lesen</p> <p>→ Verstehens- und Behaltens Leistung eingrenzen</p> <p>Intensivierung der Arbeit</p>	<p>1. Lesephase</p> <p>EXPRESS- und SCHNÜFFEL STRATEGIE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • weites Verständnis des Textes, ständige Antizipation <p>2. Lesephase</p> <p>DETEKTIV STRATEGIE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enges Verständnis des Textes, Textverständnis (der ursprüngliche Zielsetzung entsprechend) erreicht

<p>NACH DEM LESEN</p> <p>Nachbereitung</p> <p>→ Integration der Fertigkeiten</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reproduktive Übungen <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Sicherung und Überprüfung des eigenes Textverständnisses • Produktive Übungen <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Transfer, Wechsel der Textsorte, ○ Öffnung: Eigene Meinung
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LESETECHNIKEN		
	Ziel	Vorgehen
<p>überfliegendes Lesen</p>		
<p>Orientierendes Lesen (Skimming)</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich kann schnell herausfinden, wovon der Text im Wesentlichen handelt und entscheiden, ob er für mein Thema wichtig ist. • Ich kann erkennen, wie der Text aufgebaut ist und mir einen Überblick über die einzelnen Textteile verschaffen. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich erkenne Absätze/Gestaltung des Textes. • Ich finde (Zwischen-)Überschriften. • Ich suche Schlüsselwörter. • Ich schaue mir Abbildungen an und überlege, welche Bedeutung sie haben können. • Ich erkenne manche Textsorten.
<p>Suchendes Lesen (Scanning)</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich kann gezielt Textstellen mit bestimmten genaueren Informationen finden. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich überfliege den Text ein- oder mehrmals und finde Einzelbegriffe wie Namen, Jahreszahlen und ähnliches. • Ich markiere bewusst gesuchte Begriffe und lese über Unwichtiges hinweg.

<p>intensives Lesen</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich kann den Text umfassend verstehen und ihm Sinn oder Informationen entnehmen. Ich kann Erklärungen, Begründungen oder Zusammenhänge innerhalb des Textes erkennen, Schlussfolgerungen ziehen, über den Text nachdenken und meine Meinung dazu äußern. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ich setze bewusst, je nach Ziel, verschiedene Lesestrategien ein. • Ich kann wichtige Informationen erkennen und markieren. • Ich kann Fragen an den Text stellen. • Ich kann, wenn möglich, den Text in eine andere Darstellungsform übertragen.
<p>unterhaltendes Lesen</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesen macht mir Spaß. Ich kann mein Lesetempo selbst bestimmen. Meistens kann ich zügig lesen, wobei ich den Sinn gut erfasse. 	 

Zusammenfassung:

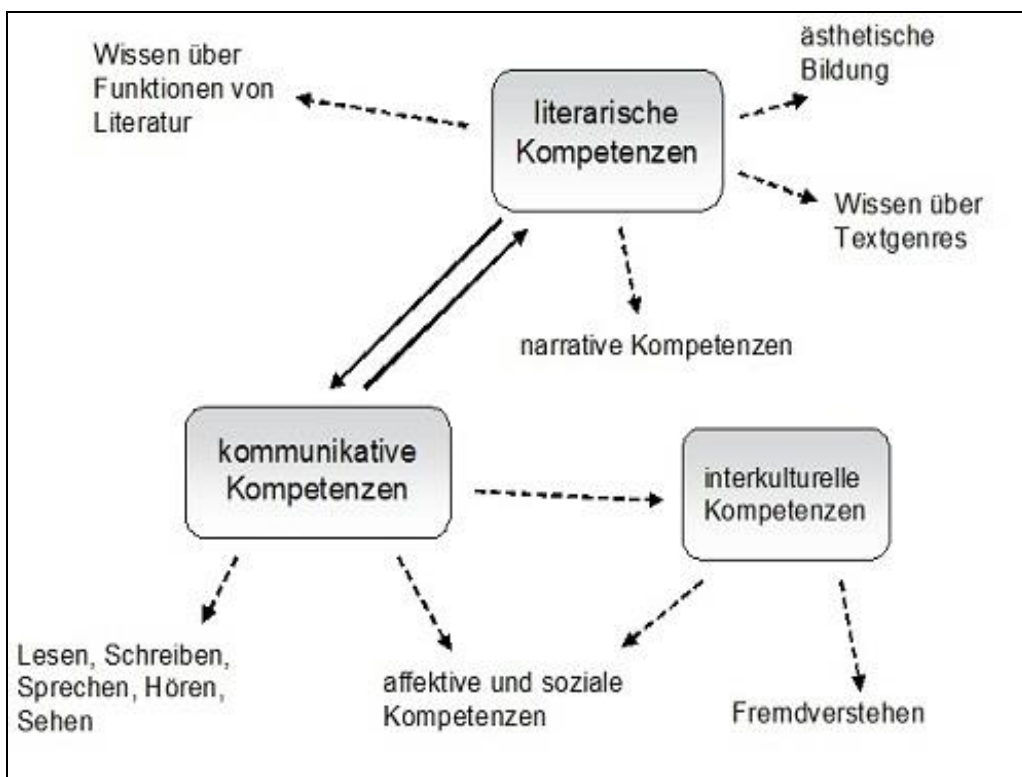
Laut versus Leise: lautes Lesen, Dekodierung der Buchstaben, korrekte Aussprache, der Satzmelodie- laut Lesen können ist nicht gleichzusetzen mit senneentnehmenden Lesevermögen, leises Lesen ein individuelles Lesetempo, uneingeschränkte Konzentration auf das Leseverstehen

Funktionen des Lesens: Erwerb fremdsprachigen Kenntnisse, Informationen zu entnehmen, Fertigkeit an sich zu üben, sie besser zu beherrschen, Lesestrategien zu erlernen, anzuwenden, authentische Texte kennen

Aufgaben zum Lesen: Fragen- Inhaltbezogene, Inhaltsunabhängige, Strukturaufgaben- richtige Reihenfolge bestimmen, Definitionen mit Begriffen verbinden, richtige Überschrift zu den Satzteilen finden, Informationen in dem Raster schreiben, Informationen in richtigen Absätzen finden

Lernaktivitäten zum Lesen: Text in bestimmte Absätze teilen oder wieder zusammensetzen, Text schnell durchlesen und das Thema feststellen, wichtige Teile unterstreichen, Wörter im Wörterbuch nachschlagen und Synonyme suchen, Kriterien feststellen, die dazu dienen Haupt und Nebeninformationen zu erkennen

Lesestile: Überfliegendes /Globales Lesen- worum geht es? Orientierendes Lesen – sind die Informationen relevant für uns? Kursorisches/detailiertes Lesen- welchen Informationen sind am wichtigsten ? selektives Lesen- bestimmte Informationen zu finden- wer sagt was? totales Lesen-Ziel vollständiges Verständnis



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L'INTERCOMPREHENSION ET LA COMMUNICATION PLURILINGUE SUR L'EXEMPLE TCHÉCO-SLOVAQUE¹

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Résumé :

Afin de promouvoir le développement du plurilinguisme dans l'Union européenne, des experts européens ont travaillé sur l'idée de l'intercompréhension et sa mise en œuvre dans le processus d'apprentissage des langues. Didactisée surtout pour les langues romanes et germaniques, l'intercompréhension possède également un grand potentiel pour les langues slaves qui comptent parmi les branches les plus importantes de la famille indo-européenne. L'attention de cet article est portée sur l'intercompréhension entre les locuteurs slovaques et tchèques, plus particulièrement sur les modèles d'interaction linguistique issus des contacts tchéco-slovaques. Dans la première partie, nous aborderons les spécificités résultant de l'histoire commune des États aujourd'hui indépendants et dans la deuxième partie, nous analyserons le bilinguisme réceptif tchéco-slovaque en tant que résultat des contacts directs et indirects des locuteurs des deux communautés linguistiques.

Mots-clés : *Bilinguisme réceptif, contacts linguistiques, intercompréhension, langues slaves, plurilinguisme, signes bivalents, tchéco-slovaquisme, tchèque, slovaque,*

Abstract:

Several European experts have worked for the intercomprehension and its implementation in the language learning process, in order to promote the development of plurilingualism in the European Union. Developed especially for the Romance and Germanic languages, the intercomprehension also attracts researchers of the Slavic languages which constitute one of the most important and most homogeneous branches of the Indo-European family. In this article, we will focus on the intercomprehension between Slovak and Czech speakers, more particularly on the models of linguistic interaction resulting from Czech-Slovak linguistic contacts. In the first part, we will pay attention to the specificities resulting from the common

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history of two states and in the second part, we will examine the Czech-Slovak receptive bilingualism as a result of direct and indirect linguistic contacts.

Keywords: *bivalent signs, Czech language, intercomprehension, linguistic contacts, plurilinguism, receptive bilingualism, Slavic languages, Slovakian language.*

Depuis presque deux décennies, les didacticiens des langues et les instances européennes militent pour un renouvellement de l'enseignement des langues et un repositionnement de l'apprenant face à son apprentissage. L'objectif de l'enseignement des langues s'en trouve alors profondément modifié : « Il ne s'agit plus simplement d'acquérir la "maîtrise" d'une, deux, voire même trois langues, chacune de son côté, avec le "locuteur natif idéal" comme ultime modèle. Le but est de développer un répertoire langagier dans lequel toutes les capacités linguistiques trouvent leur place » (Cadre européen de référence pour les langues, 2001). On peut ajouter que cette remise en question par le Cadre européen de référence pour les langues (CECRL) de la conception binaire de l'enseignement-apprentissage des langues fondée sur le rapport traditionnel apprenant étranger-locuteur natif est directement liée au processus de mondialisation tous azimuts de nos sociétés qui touche également l'enseignement des langues (Schmitt, 2019). Ainsi, le développement de la compétence plurilingue permet, pour un élève ayant étudié trois ou quatre langues, d'acquérir une connaissance au moins passive de nombreuses autres langues.

Cette promotion du plurilinguisme par le CECR impliquerait une offre en langues suffisamment diversifiée dans les établissements d'enseignement scolaire pour permettre aux élèves de développer leur compétence plurilingue. Cependant, l'idée d'une éducation plurilingue a du mal à se concrétiser. Si elle a gagné un nouvel essor ces derniers temps, c'est aussi grâce à l'intercompréhension (IC). Considérée comme une forme de communication plurilingue où chacun comprend les langues des autres et s'exprime dans la ou les langues qu'il maîtrise, « elle instaure ainsi une équité dans le dialogue, tout en développant, à différents niveaux, la connaissance de langues dans lesquelles on a des compétences de réception, c'est-à-dire de compréhension, permettant notamment de mettre en place des stratégies de déduction favorisant la production » (Gaid, 2016). Ce mode de communication est tout particulièrement adapté entre locuteurs d'une même famille linguistique, mais il est également possible pour les locuteurs de familles linguistiques différentes.

Si, au départ, l'idée de recourir à sa propre langue en communication exolingue tout en étant en mesure de comprendre celles des autres (Doye, 2005, p. 7) était facilement acceptée dans le cas des régions frontalières ou dans celui des mobilités internationales (Capucho, 2008), elle est aujourd'hui également imaginable dans le contexte de l'apprentissage scolaire, l'aspect innovateur de l'IC résidant principalement dans le fait que l'on puisse comprendre une langue sans l'avoir apprise auparavant (Capucho, 2013). L'intercompréhension est devenue un des concepts à la fois les plus stimulants et les plus complexes de la didactique des langues (Pietri, 2016) et recourir à ce mode de communication comporte de nombreux bénéfices, en particulier au niveau professionnel dans les relations interculturelles (Kubeková, 2017).

Des équipes de recherche européennes ont étudié cette idée et travaillé pour sa mise en œuvre dans le processus d'apprentissage des langues afin de promouvoir le développement du plurilinguisme dans l'Union européenne. Didactisée surtout pour les langues romanes (Chovancová, Ráčková, Zázrivcová, 2018) et germaniques, l'intercompréhension attire également des chercheurs des langues slaves qui constituent l'une des branches les plus importantes et les plus homogènes de la famille indo-européenne.

Dans cet article, nous porterons notre attention sur l'intercompréhension entre les locuteurs slovaques et tchèques, plus particulièrement sur les modèles d'interaction linguistique issus des contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques, et ceci dans le contexte européen susmentionné. Dans la première partie, nous aborderons les spécificités résultant de l'histoire commune des deux États aujourd'hui indépendants et, dans la deuxième partie, nous analyserons le bilinguisme réceptif tchéco-slovaque en tant que résultat des contacts directs et indirects des Tchèques et des Slovaques.

Les spécificités historiques des contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques

La question des contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques d'aujourd'hui est indissociable de l'existence de la minorité tchèque en Slovaquie, tout comme de la minorité slovaque en République tchèque. Cependant, les deux « communautés » se distinguent des autres minorités vivant sur le territoire de ces pays de par le fait qu'elles ne sont réellement devenues minorités qu'à partir de 1993 suite à la partition de ce qui était jusqu'alors l'État commun : 60 000 Tchèques, Moraves et Silésiens se sont ainsi retrouvés de l'autre côté de leur frontière après la scission, tout comme environ 300 000 Slovaques sur le territoire tchèque ; deux nouvelles

minorités nationales, les plus jeunes d'Europe centrale, ont ainsi vu le jour sur la base du droit international.

Les deux minorités sont caractérisées par l'absence de peuplement compact d'une région en particulier la présence des Tchèques en Slovaquie étant une réalité découlant du développement historique de la Slovaquie, et ce depuis le Moyen Âge. Ce phénomène s'est échelonné en plusieurs vagues à des époques différentes et pour des raisons diverses qui ont amené familles, groupes de personnes et exilés religieux à s'installer sur le territoire slovaque, bientôt rejoints par des experts du domaine industriel, des représentants de l'intelligentsia et des employés de différentes institutions, nationales ou non.

Les disparités entre la population slovaque et les migrants tchèques arrivés en Slovaquie entre la fin du 19^e et le début du 20^e siècle n'étaient pas d'ordre ethnique mais plutôt social et culturel (Zelinová, 2000). Elles provenaient non seulement des différences sociales, culturelles et éducationnelles dans les deux milieux, mais également d'un certain positionnement dans la société lié à la profession exercée. La langue n'était pas perçue comme le principal signe de distinction ethnique, les différences se manifestant plutôt au travers de phénomènes concrets liés au mode de vie et à la culture.

Les Tchèques de Slovaquie n'ont pas appliqué le principe d'endogamie dans le choix du conjoint, ce qui a occasionné une tendance à assimiler les Tchèques issus de mariages mixtes (Zelinová, 2000). L'importance des communautés traditionnelles tchèque et morave sur le territoire slovaque diminue ainsi progressivement depuis plus que deux décennies². La situation est cependant différente dans les familles où les deux parents sont d'origine tchèque. On assiste alors à un maintien du sentiment d'appartenance de l'ethnie à la nation tchèque ou à une conscience plus forte de l'origine des ancêtres, ce qui a pour effet de faire perdurer une connaissance active de la langue tchèque, le bilinguisme restant fréquent tout comme l'intérêt pour la culture tchèque.

La minorité tchèque est établie de façon dispersée sur l'ensemble du territoire slovaque, surtout dans les régions voisines de la Tchéquie, puis dans les grandes villes et dans les zones peuplées depuis longtemps par des citoyens de nationalité tchèque présents depuis l'époque de l'État

² Cette baisse touche principalement les Tchèques qui vivaient en Slovaquie avant la partition, certains d'entre eux étant des descendants d'immigrés de la Première République.

commun. Cette minorité s'organise dans le cadre de la société des Tchèques de Slovaquie qui est présente sur tout le territoire ainsi qu'au sein du club slovaco-tchèque. Ces organisations se concentrent sur la réalisation d'activités vouées à maintenir et à développer la connaissance de la langue maternelle, de la culture tchèque et de ses traditions et coutumes ainsi qu'à favoriser l'essor de la vie culturelle et sociale.

Il y a plus de Slovaques en République tchèque que de Tchèques en Slovaquie, ce qui présupposerait une pratique plus élevée du slovaque en Tchéquie (Nabělková, 2009a). On distingue cependant deux catégories de population de langue et de culture slovaques : 1) « les Slovaques tchèques » et 2) « les Slovaques slovaques ». Ceci se traduit différemment dans la pratique quotidienne de la langue slovaque en milieu tchèque, moins empreint du bilinguisme réceptif de l'époque tchécoslovaque que la Slovaquie. La première catégorie représente la minorité slovaque la plus nombreuse en République tchèque : selon le recensement de la population effectué en 2011, la grande majorité de ceux qui ont déclaré être de nationalité slovaque (147 152 personnes, ce qui correspond à peu près à 1,4 % de la population du pays) ont choisi le slovaque comme langue maternelle (Slovenská menšina v ČR a česká menšina v SR, 2014). Ces minorités slovaques ne forment pas des enclaves comme en Hongrie, en Roumanie et en Voïvodine, mais sont réparties sur tout le territoire tchèque. Aussi se sont-elles bien intégrées dans la population tchèque, ce qui suppose un bilinguisme actif reposant sur le choix naturel d'une des deux langues : généralement le tchèque dans la communauté tchèque et le slovaque dans la communauté slovaque.

Quant à la deuxième catégorie mentionnée préalablement, il s'agit surtout d'étudiants slovaques faisant leurs études dans les universités tchèques. En 2017, ils étaient au nombre de 21 500³. Les Slovaques représentent une part très importante du nombre total d'étudiants. Les données de l'année académique 2015/2016 nous permettent notamment d'apprendre que 6,8 % des étudiants étrangers inscrits dans les universités tchèques étaient de nationalité slovaque – ce qui constitue de très loin le groupe le plus nombreux. Grâce à des accords bilatéraux signés entre les deux pays à partir de 1999, ces étudiants ont le droit d'utiliser le slovaque tout au long de leurs études, y compris pour les examens d'entrée, même si, en pratique, cela exige un certain

³ Selon le ministère de l'Éducation nationale de République tchèque, le nombre d'étudiants slovaques augmente constamment. En 2001, il y avait seulement 5159 Slovaques étudiant en Tchéquie, ainsi, en une décennie, leur nombre a quadruplé. Cf. <http://aktualne.centrum.sk/domov/zdravie-skolstvo-spolocnost/clanek.phtml?id=1209740>

niveau de bilinguisme réceptif de la part des enseignants tchèques, ainsi que de la part de tous les étudiants se trouvant en situation de communication bilingue.

Selon une enquête sociologique intitulée « *Communication des étudiants slovaques en République tchèque* », élaborée par K. Musilová à partir des données issues de sondages effectués en 2005, 2007 et 2009, la majorité des étudiants « *comprennent tout le temps* » les productions tchèques écrites (2005 : 60 %, 2007 : 60 %, 2009 : 78 %) ainsi que les productions orales (2005 : 64 %, 2007 : 64 %, 2009 : 79 %), le reste des étudiants disant de ne pas comprendre quelques expressions tchèques. Lors des prises de notes, les étudiants utilisent généralement les deux langues : en moyenne 30 % prennent des notes uniquement en slovaque, 60 % combinent les deux langues, c'est-à-dire qu'ils écrivent en slovaque avec des mots tchèques (Musilová, 2010). La parenté des langues est un avantage pour tous les étudiants slovaques en ce qui concerne leur communication avec les enseignants tchèques : un tiers utilise uniquement leur langue maternelle, mais la majorité parle une langue mixte (tchéco-slovaque). En dehors de l'université, plus de la moitié des Slovaques résidant en République tchèque parle uniquement slovaque, à peu près un tiers mélange les deux langues et seulement une faible minorité parle uniquement tchèque.

Selon M. Sloboda (2020), les citoyens slovaques inscrits dans les universités tchèques constituent le groupe le plus intéressant du point de vue des contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques. Ces étudiants entrent en effet à l'université à un âge où leur compétence linguistique en slovaque est déjà formée tandis que leur connaissance pratique et active de la langue tchèque se construit plus lentement que chez les jeunes enfants. Cela induit de meilleures conditions d'utilisation du slovaque pour une communication dans un environnement de langue tchèque, et donc une communication bilingue. La présence d'étudiants de Slovaquie est indubitable et se reflète également dans la dimension affective et émotionnelle du contact tchéco-slovaque.

La façon dont les étudiants slovaques se perçoivent et se déterminent dans leurs rapports aux Tchèques est également instructive. Y. Leontiyev (2006) estime qu'il est possible de délimiter trois situations ou groupes. Dans le premier cas, les étudiants slovaques se considèrent comme étant étrangers, ne comprennent pas la majorité tchèque et une certaine barrière linguistique est perceptible. La seconde catégorie se concentre sur le positionnement de sa personne en tant qu'étranger dans un milieu très semblable. Le dernier groupe est composé d'étudiants considérant

l'environnement tchèque comme le leur et le slovaque comme une langue étrangère. Ces trois ensembles se rejoignent cependant sur un point : les plus jeunes générations de Tchèques ne comprennent plus la langue slovaque. Les étudiants se sentent principalement Slovaques, mais la construction de leur identité ethnique englobe également une identité tchécoslovaque.

En Tchéquie, il y a aussi beaucoup de travailleurs slovaques : quelques dizaines de milliers de personnes répartis un peu partout, ces personnes pratiquent leur langue maternelle dans diverses situations et domaines de la vie courante. Les institutions et entreprises tchèques ont employé en 2017 plus de 177 000 Slovaques, ce qui correspond à environ 40 % du total des employés étrangers en République tchèque (V Česku přibývá lidí ze Slovenska, 2019).

Si ces données officielles relatives aux Slovaques employés en République tchèque englobent majoritairement des personnes installées depuis longtemps sur le territoire tchèque, il est néanmoins important d'observer les rapports réguliers du pays avec des immigrants de courte durée, notamment du point de vue de la migration circulaire (qui se répète de façon saisonnière). Certains visiteurs comme les touristes ou les employés et entrepreneurs en voyage d'affaire rentrent également en ligne de compte. Malgré l'absence de données quantitatives précises relatives à la migration circulaire en provenance de Slovaquie, M. Sloboda (2020) mentionne néanmoins l'impact essentiel du contact direct entre la population tchèque et celle venue de Slovaquie en citant la présence évidente et nombreuse de travailleurs de langue slovaque, employés pour de courtes missions au sein de certains services (notamment les supermarchés et autres magasins) lors des mois estivaux.

La présence d'immigrants de langue slovaque employés pour de courtes missions en République tchèque vient également stimuler la demande des entreprises locales implantées sur le territoire tchèque en matière de travailleurs de langue slovaque. C'est notamment le cas des opérateurs téléphoniques et d'autres professions communiquant avec des clients de Slovaquie. Cette situation s'explique par le fait que de nombreuses entreprises sur le territoire tchèque possèdent une centrale ou des agences comprenant le marché slovaque dans leur zone de compétence (Švec, 2010).

Tous les faits mentionnés préalablement posent la question du statut des langues. Si, en Slovaquie, le statut du tchèque n'est pas officialisé, en Tchéquie la situation a changé en 2006

par l'adoption de la loi sur le droit d'utiliser la langue slovaque dans les services publics sur tout le territoire tchèque (Kolman, 2005), ce qui peut être perçu comme une certaine volonté de renouer avec la tradition bilingue de l'État précédent (Nábělková, 2009a).

Quelle intercompréhension entre le slovaque et le tchèque ?

Les contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques sont assez intenses, même si on peut y constater des asymétries évidentes, concernant l'ouverture de la société à l'autre langue et la présence réciproque de ces langues dans les deux communautés. Ces asymétries, slovaque-tchèques et tchéco-slovaques, sont conditionnées tant historiquement, l'ouverture au tchèque étant toujours plus importante du côté slovaque, que socialement (Nábělková, 2007a). Le niveau de bilinguisme réceptif est la condition préalable pour la compréhension et la communication directe en deux langues. S'il dépend, en grande partie, de la diversité et de l'ampleur des contacts mutuels, c'est-à-dire des relations individuelles, sociales, culturelles, économiques ainsi que politiques, on peut constater une présence plus évidente du tchèque, dans l'environnement slovaque, surtout en ce qui concerne les médias et la littérature, prouvant que le niveau de bilinguisme réceptif est plus élevé en Slovaquie (Nábělková, 2009a).

En République tchèque, on entend surtout le slovaque dans les chansons diffusées à la radio, car il a pratiquement disparu de la télévision. Le public slovaque peut écouter la langue tchèque tous les jours sur les chaînes de télévision slovaques et regarder des films tchèques ainsi que des films étrangers doublés en tchèque. En 2006, par exemple, la télévision publique slovaque (STV) a diffusé un dixième de toutes ses émissions en tchèque, et la plus grande télévision privée, Markíza, en a diffusé à peu près 12 %. En outre, les Slovaques regardent les chaînes tchèques, dont la part moyenne sur le marché slovaque avoisine 10 % (Čeština sa zo Slovenska vôbec nevytratila, 2007). Quant à la littérature, on peut constater qu'un grand nombre de Slovaques lisent des livres tchèques, ce qui est surtout évident dans le cas de la littérature spécialisée : la version tchèque étant souvent plus rapidement disponible que la version slovaque, à moins que celle-ci ne soit, tout simplement, inexistante. La majorité des auteurs tchèques sont lus dans la version originale et les situations où les lecteurs slovaques choisissent la version tchèque même si la version dans leur langue existe, ne sont pas rares. Si la littérature tchèque ne se traduit pas, c'est parce que le marché slovaque ne l'exige pas.

Il en résulte qu'aujourd'hui les jeunes tchèques sont généralement moins ouverts au slovaque, ce qui signifie que la réception des textes slovaques est moins naturelle pour eux qu'à l'époque

de l'État commun. Or, selon M. Nabělková, ce « sous-développement » de la compétence réceptive des jeunes générations tchèques peut aussi être lié à une méconnaissance des processus d'acquisition de la compétence langagière chez les enfants. Celle-ci suppose une certaine exposition du locuteur à la langue apparentée, comme c'était le cas pendant la période tchécoslovaque où les jeunes tchèques étaient en contact avec des textes slovaques. Après la division de la Tchéco-slovaquie, l'exposition au slovaque en République tchèque s'est amoindrie aussi bien à l'école que dans les médias. Ainsi, constater, comme c'est souvent le cas, que « *nos enfants ne comprennent « plus » le slovaque* » démontre la non-compréhension du caractère nécessairement progressif de l'acquisition de la compétence réceptive. Ce constat contredit le fait que l'avenir de la communication bilingue dépende surtout du niveau de bilinguisme réceptif des enfants (Nabělková, 2009b).

Or, le ministère de l'Éducation de République tchèque s'est rendu compte de cette situation. Désirant se conformer à la politique européenne sur les relations entre pays voisins, il a adopté en 2006 le « *Plan national d'enseignement des langues étrangères* »⁴ qui soutient aussi les langues peu enseignées. Si ce plan propose d'élargir l'offre actuelle des langues, il donne aussi davantage d'espace aux langues des États frontaliers, c'est-à-dire l'allemand, le polonais et le slovaque.

C'est surtout ce dernier qui occupe, grâce à la tradition bilingue du pays, une position spécifique par rapport aux autres langues, l'objectif n'étant pas seulement de l'introduire comme une autre langue étrangère dans le système d'enseignement, mais aussi de le faire apprendre aux élèves par l'intermédiaire d'une nouvelle méthode : « *apprenez le slovaque à travers toutes les matières d'enseignement primaire* ». La valeur ajoutée du programme « *le retour du slovaque dans les écoles* », démarré en 2007, est non seulement d'élargir les connaissances des élèves en ce qui concerne la culture slovaque, devenue étrangère aux écoliers tchèques, mais surtout d'augmenter la capacité d'intercompréhension entre les jeunes des deux pays, ce qui pourrait aussi permettre une valorisation des compétences langagières nécessaires à l'apprentissage de toute autre langue étrangère, apprentissage qui est souvent source de blocages ou d'inhibitions (Kopecký, 2020). Le programme donne un rôle positif aux compétences réceptives en montrant que les échanges sont possibles sans qu'il ne soit nécessaire de parler parfaitement une langue étrangère et ceci sans augmenter le nombre de langues enseignées.

⁴ Cf. « Národní plán výuky cizích jazyků », sur <<http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/narodni-plan-vyuky-cizich-jazyku>>.

Cette démarche du ministère de l'Éducation tchèque va dans le sens de nombreuses recommandations européennes encourageant l'intégration de l'intercompréhension dans les programmes scolaires de tous les pays membres, sans chercher à restreindre la prédominance de certaines langues privilégiées ou sans attaquer l'enseignement traditionnel des langues étrangères. L'intercompréhension y est comprise comme un complément et non une alternative au système traditionnel d'enseignement des langues (McCann, Klein, Stegmann, 2003) et elle vise la qualité de la communication entre les nombreuses personnes qui « *doivent s'entendre aujourd'hui, et plus encore à l'avenir, par-delà les frontières culturelles* », sachant que la simple « *capacité à communiquer langagièrement n'est pas un bagage suffisant pour les jeunes aujourd'hui, appelés à de multiples échanges dans l'Europe du 21^e siècle* »⁵.

L'espace médiatique pourrait apporter lui aussi un changement dans cette situation de déséquilibre : un sondage d'opinion, réalisé en 2008 par la télévision tchèque Prima, concernant la diffusion possible d'une série télévisée slovaque, intitulée Panelák, a montré que 76,6 % des téléspectateurs tchèques préféreraient regarder certaines émissions en langue slovaque. Le sondage a également nié le constat que les Tchèques ne comprenaient plus la langue de leur voisin de l'Est, car 94 % des personnes interrogées ont avoué ne pas avoir de problèmes avec la compréhension de cette langue⁶. Cette information souligne certains aspects importants des relations tchéco-slovaques. Toutefois, ce sondage ne doit pas être surestimé puisqu'il ne contient aucun détail concernant l'échantillonnage sondé. Le plus important étant le fait qu'il s'agisse, à notre connaissance, du premier texte médiatique publié depuis longtemps sur l'intérêt des téléspectateurs tchèques concernant l'augmentation du nombre d'émissions slovaques, bien qu'on puisse aussi trouver sur Internet plusieurs discussions à ce sujet et ceci sur toute la période concernée.

Si on peut constater que la sphère médiatique après la séparation était moins riche en discours mixtes tchéco-slovaques par rapport à la période précédente, cet état de fait a changé dans les années 2000 par la diffusion d'émissions de type « télé réalité », notamment la « *Star Academy*

⁵ C'est pourquoi ils ne souhaitent pas que l'on traite l'apprentissage et l'enseignement des langues séparément de la tâche générale d'éducation interculturelle. En particulier, ils entendent préserver la diversité linguistique et culturelle de notre continent à l'aide de programmes de diversification au sein de l'enseignement des langues et ils sont convaincus que la réalisation d'un programme d'intercompréhension est un bon moyen pour atteindre cet objectif.

⁶ Cf. <http://www.iprima.cz/index.php/plain site/content/view/full/51626>

tchéco-slovaque » (ČeskoSlovenská SuperStar) et « *La TchécoSlovaquie recherche un talent* » (ČeskoSlovensko má talent) où, grâce aux animateurs et membres du jury, on peut suivre le ping-pong verbal visant surtout les unités différentielles entre les langues, ce qui montre que la Tchéco-Slovaquie est toujours vivante.

Ces programmes jouissent d'une certaine popularité. L'émission « Česko Slovensko má talent », diffusée par la chaîne tchèque Prima en octobre 2013 a recueilli un taux d'audience de 17 %. Les demi-finales de ce concours, diffusées en novembre 2013, ont été suivies par 18 % des spectateurs (ATO-Mediaresearch, 2013, 2013b). Si la création de ce type de programmes tchéco-slovaques répond à une logique essentiellement économique liée à la taille du marché, elle peut néanmoins aboutir à un rapprochement culturel de nature non économique. Cette analyse est également partagée par les professionnels de la télévision interrogés par J. Michálek dans le cadre de son enquête (2016, p. 144).

Il convient encore de porter notre attention sur le passage du bilinguisme réceptif au bilinguisme productif, c'est-à-dire à un phénomène beaucoup plus « visible » dans la période précédente de l'État commun. Globalement, on peut dire que la communication tchéco-slovaque s'appuie sur la parenté structurelle des deux langues consistant surtout en signes bivalents⁷ et parallèles⁸. Si la deuxième catégorie peut représenter une certaine source d'inconfort pour ceux qui n'ont pas atteint un niveau suffisant pour être capables de produire des textes dans l'autre langue, il s'agit, toutefois, d'un problème assez facilement surmontable. C'est surtout l'ensemble des signes différentiels qui pose des difficultés lors des échanges bilingues tchéco-slovaques, tant pour la compréhension que pour la production des textes.

Dans ce contexte, M. Nabělková (2008) parle de choix stratégique de la bivalence dans le but d'éviter l'intercompréhension. Il s'agit du phénomène qu'on pourrait observer par exemple chez les journalistes slovaques à la télévision tchèque (ou inversement). L'utilisation de signes bivalents, c'est-à-dire le remplacement de signes différentiels par des signes bivalents et parallèles, signifie une compétence linguistique non triviale. Pour qu'une personne sache que le signe linguistique qu'elle veut utiliser dans sa propre langue appartient aussi à l'autre langue

⁷ C'est-à-dire des unités existant sous la même forme dans les deux langues – « *strom – strom* » (arbre), « *ruka – ruka* » (main, bras).

⁸ Il s'agit surtout des unités lexicales dont l'apparenté est évidente mais avec une différence relevant des processus linguistiques différents, par ex. : « *lad – led* » (glace), « *ulica – ulice* » (rue) « *píšu – píší* » (ils/elles écrivent).

et pour qu'elle soit capable de trouver, dans son propre « fond linguistique », un équivalent à cette unité bivalente, la simple compétence réceptive n'est pas suffisante. Ainsi, à l'échelle du « bilinguisme réceptif - bilinguisme productif » on peut dire qu'il s'agit, dans ce cas-là, d'une position intermédiaire, qui est quand même plus près du bilinguisme productif.

Conclusion

Aujourd'hui, nous pouvons constater un large spectre de modèles d'interaction linguistique entre les locuteurs tchèques et slovaques que nous dénommons collectivement le « tchéco-slovaquisme », en tant que forme langagière productive consistant en un mélange ou une intersection des deux langues. Cependant, si dans le passé l'expression de « tchécoslovaque » portait sur des relations linguistiques et un contexte idéologique très important, c'est le contenu communicationnel qui prédomine aujourd'hui. Englobant un large spectre de phénomènes discursifs liés au passage entre le tchèque et le slovaque en situations de contact, cette expression désigne également des caractéristiques individuelles dans le comportement langagier. Le tchéco-slovaque (ou slovaço-tchèque, équivalent beaucoup moins fréquent), n'est pas défini dans les dictionnaires ou les encyclopédies, mais il représente une catégorie naturelle et spontanée, étant dénommée par les locuteurs, eux-mêmes.

Le présent article nous a permis d'attirer l'attention sur un type de communication spécifique résultant aussi bien de la mobilité des personnes (contact direct) que de celle des moyens linguistiques et des discours (contact indirect). La fréquence du contact direct des jeunes Tchèques avec la langue slovaque s'avère relativement élevée de nos jours en raison du nombre important de Slovaques vivants sur le territoire tchèque. Notre analyse démontre que si le phénomène de l'éparpillement géographique des Slovaques installés en République tchèque, tout comme celui des Tchèques en Slovaquie, peut avoir un impact favorable sur le maintien et le développement de la perception du bilinguisme tchéco-slovaque, il peut également avoir une influence négative sur la préservation du slovaque et du tchèque en tant que langues minoritaires. L'absence de « cohésion minoritaire » au cours des prochaines années pourrait donc s'avérer néfaste pour les contacts linguistiques tchéco-slovaques. En d'autres termes, la communication tchéco-slovaque telle que nous la connaissons actuellement pourrait ne plus être une évidence pour les générations suivantes.

De plus, le contact indirect des jeunes Tchèques avec la langue slovaque surtout dans les médias – à l'opposé de la situation de la langue tchèque en Slovaquie – n'est plus cultivé

systématiquement au niveau national. Cette réalité implique la nécessité d'une réflexion visant à renforcer les compétences plurilingues tchéco-slovaques de la jeunesse tchèque et slovaque en inscrivant les conditions de leur développement dans les pratiques scolaires. Ce travail rendrait possible la création d'un espace permettant la didactisation de l'intercompréhension tchéco-slovaque, voire de l'intercompréhension au sein du groupe des langues slaves, ce qui serait conforme aux recommandations linguistiques européennes analysées en introduction du présent article.

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LINGUISTIC INTERPRETATION OF HUMOUR, PARODY AND SATIRE IN SCIENCE FICTION NOVELS

Alena ŠTULAJTEROVÁ – Kateryna BOIKO

Abstract

*Science fiction is considered to be a serious genre and its main aim is mostly the plausible near-scientific proof. The aim of work was to examine how humorous effect can be achieved in contemporary science fiction novels *Hitchhiker's Guide to the Galaxy* by Douglas Adams and *Martian* by Andy Weir. We analysed the peculiarities of humour, parody and satire in the novels using the semantic-based theories of humour by Attardo and Raskin.*

Key words: *science fiction; comedic devices; humour theories; incongruity theory; absurdity; parody; satire.*

Introduction

„The table of elements does not contain one of the most powerful elements that make up our world, and that is the element of surprise.”

Lemony Snicket, *The Ersatz Elevator*

Science fiction is the genre which tries to incorporate the element of surprise into science. It is highly associated with new inventions, break-throughs in perceiving the world. Generally it describes world of scientifically proved phenomena, leaving a vast field for imagination and at the same time providing inspiration for the scientists. Still, the word „seriousness“ is the wrong description to the whole genre, because humour in science fiction do exist.

Both novels are perfect representatives of contemporary science fiction following the main principles of the genre taking its solid place among other masterpieces of soft science fiction. Still both authors chose their own extraordinary ways of moving the plot and conveying the never-changing thought of this genre – exploration and revelation. They avoided lecturing the reader on what the future may bring, but showed how their characters live through everyday

challenges. The main aim is to distinguish what makes the reader laugh and how the authors achieved a humorous effect on the level of language.

1 Theories of humour

Although the first hints of linguistic research of humour appeared in Ancient Greece and Rome, a linguistic approach to this field of study had not been applied until the 20th century. As stated by Attardo (1994), towards the late 1970s, the linguistic research of humour was focused mainly on the study of puns.¹ In the last quarter of the 20th century, linguistics joined scientific disciplines which significantly contributed to the study of humour.

Linguistics focused on verbally expressed humour in various discourses and studied their content, form and expressive means. Humour universals had been thoroughly elaborated by Raskin (1985) by presenting linguistic theory of humour which its author called script-based semantic theory of humor. According to this theory, linguistics studies humour from several points of view: phonological, morphological and syntactical, however the emphasis of the linguistic studies lies mainly on semantics. In 1991 Raskin et al. extended this theory into a general theory of verbal humour. This theory takes into consideration new areas of linguistics: text linguistics, speech acts theory and pragmatics. However, both humour theories have their roots in philosophical tradition and are commonly divided into three general approaches: superiority, incongruity and relief’.

1.1 Incongruity Theory

The most popular right now is incongruity theory which focuses on “the element of surprise”, and presupposes that humour is created by the conflict between expectation and the reality. Attardo (1994) claims that the main feature is an ambiguity, or double meaning, which deliberately misleads the audience, followed by a punchline.

What distinguishes this theory from others is its essentially cognitive nature that can be embodied only in verbal form. Generally, it requires at least two different lines of thought, two contexts, which are quite opposite in nature, but share something in common to make the shift

¹ Berson and Freud studied language mechanisms in jokes, however, later research of this topic proved that described mechanisms were not specific only to verbal humour – they related to any language forms as well. (Attardo, 1994)

from one to another possible. When the reader or listener creates a definite vision of the situation based on some stereotypes or typical conclusions, the vision is shattered by another one exposing the contradiction and thus provoking humorous effect. A good example of such humour is presented via lexical stylistic devices such as metaphor, simile, hyperbole, or personification:

“Chemistry, being the sloppy bitch it is, ensures...” (Weir, 2014, p. 50)

“I towed the panel away like a redneck removing a tree stump...” (Weir, 2014, p. 134)

This theory cannot cover the humor in its vastness and only represent its cognitive component. When we leave the field of verbal humor and analyze the situations that make people laugh, we may proceed to the superiority theory.

1.2 Superiority Theory

As stated by Boyd (2004, p. 16), people laugh when they feel their superiority over other people or situations.² He claims that laughter arises from understanding of our superior position in comparison to others. To reach a comic effect, writers can often turn to stereotypes and interweave satiric descriptions. In such case the reader need to have some background knowledge on social situation in the mentioned country or some cultural peculiarities.

Of course, such humor can regard universal human mistakes, so it covers as much varieties as humor based on incongruities. We can say that Adams’ work can be analysed on the basis of this theory, since it’s highly satirical. For example, the author mocks the English poetry claiming that it is the worst in the universe:

“Vogon poetry is of course the third worst in the Universe. The second worst is that of the Azagoths of Kria. During a recitation by their Poet Master Grunthos the Flatulent of his poem ... four of his audience died of internal haemorrhaging, and the President of the Mid-Galactic Arts Nobbling Council survived by gnawing one of his own legs off. The very worst poetry of all perished along with its creator Paula Nancy Millstone Jennings of Greenbridge, Essex, England in the destruction of the planet Earth.”
(Adams, 2001, p. 66)

² BOYD, B. 2004. *Laughter and Literature: A Play Theory of Humor*.

The author does not state directly how terrible the poetry was, but it still creates a powerful impact on the reader due to the previous descriptions. When expressing relief to the fact that this poetry vanished, author delivers a final merciless blow to the described object. Still, the analysis of the given passage in terms of superiority theory is quiet ambiguous, since author's satire rarely targets definite person, but rather the whole social class or the humanity in general. It is difficult to say that the reader feels actually superior to something or rather sees an ultimate inferiority instead. We could describe this passage also from the point of view of incongruity theory, since it has an obvious cognitive component and element of surprise. On the other hand, the emotional component of the humorous part is very powerful and it contributes the greatest part to influencing the reader.

To present counter arguments to this theory, we need to mention Roberts (2019, p. 36), who claims that superiority theory does not explain why people actually laugh, because even when we feel superior to something we may feel also negative emotions. For example, if we see someone outside in need when it is raining heavily, and we sit by the fireplace we may feel rather pity. Thus, Roberts (ibid.) states that superiority theory is an affective component of humor.

1.3 Relief Theory

The relief theory is based on the idea that nervous energy needs to change into body movement, for example attacking when angry or crying when sad. If the energy has no aim, but needs to indicate the relief, it may change into laughter. The theory of relief cannot be used in both analysed novels, since their dark and dry tone maintain relatively the same level of tension throughout the story.

"Everything was where I'd left it (very few car thieves on Mars). (Weir, 2014, p. 295)

Like the main character, reader encounter unbelievable situations and unreasonable creatures, and the absurdity of the outer world is never resulted in any kind of a decent explanation. The key to all events is absurdity, logical fallacy.

2 PARODY AND SATIRE IN SCIENCE FICTION NOVELS

Satire and parody are both characterized by the attitude towards some event or person, or more general target. They may often go together, but it should not be considered a rule, since not all

satirical texts are parody. Still, most instances in analysed novels are satirical and parodical at the same time. The difference between these phenomena is that satire mocks some in-text items, classes, races, surroundings, whereas parody is realized on the level of language. Parody can be specific transforming the representation of particular people or it can be general parodying the whole style or era.

Adams tried to create a whole picture of contemporary society, thus he stuffed his work with allusions to different professions and classes. The following example includes a transformed clichés of the language of literary critics:

“I thought that some of the metaphysical imagery was really particularly effective. Oh interesting rhythmic devices too, which seemed to counterpoint the surrealism of the underlying metaphor of the ... Ah yes, Vogonity of the poet's compassionate soul, which contrives through the medium of the verse structure to sublimate this, transcend that, and come to terms with the fundamental dichotomies of the other, and one is left with a profound and vivid insight into ... Into whatever it was the poem was about!” (Adams, 2001, p. 69)

In the given passage, we see a variety of abstract words and phrases meant to sound solid and smart, but at the same time, they have no definite content. Author uses typical phrases such as “rhythmic devices”, “to counterpoint the surrealism”, “verse structure”, “fundamental dichotomies”. This way he refers to the language of literary critics, which intentionally create an ambiguity and make a lengthy description of what seemed to be nothing. The comic effect is increased with final phrase of Ford who states the indifferent attitude and absolute ignorance on the topic. The given example also shows how comic situations in the text often have traits of anti-climax.

Rossen-Knill (1997) outlined the following four features of parodical instance: a) verbal representation of the object, b) flaunting of this representation, c) critical attitude and, d) comic act. In the given example verbal representation is embodied in literary clichés, flaunting is showed in incongruity between the formal expressiveness of the words and lack of actual understanding of situation. Comic act is a beautiful but senseless description of the terrible Vogon poetry, whereas critical attitude is expressed through the Guide. We can say that critical attitude is relatively detached from the situation, but it created the context of it so it can be considered as the part of the given example.

The Martian is also a good example of general parody, transforming the main traits of science fictional novel. As Cuddon (ibid.) mentioned, it is difficult to write a good parody since the author has to find the balance between mockery and the rules that should be followed. We will observe what changes brought Weir (2014) to the tradition of the Science Fiction and which rules he followed.

1. First and foremost is the main rule of science fiction – to provide proof to theory. Though formally acceptable, the proofs author provides are absurd and parodies the very essence of human understanding on the plane of the content.

2. Typical for science fiction is the usage of scientific terms. They serve to make the content more credible, to persuade the reader, though it is not the case for the given novel:

*„...I know the recipe: Take hydrogen. Add oxygen. **Burn.**” (Weir, 2014, p. 24)*

The author introduces a confusing amount of scientific terms to explain how it was used to break the ice at parties. This also a good example of grotesque in the book. Author often uses difficult complex words to describe something unimportant and vice versa. The grotesque of Weir’s humor contributes to the expressive impact of the satire and also creates the body for typical English deadpan humor.

CONCLUSION

Presented science fiction novels prove that science fiction can provide authors with a numerous possibilities to create humorous effect. On the level of written discourse we can produce humour using knowledge resources which unite main principles of verbal humor. Authors incorporate a set of expressive means and stylistic devices among which the most frequent are personification, irony, litotes, repetition and hyperbole. The humour is also very context-dependent, which results in a greater number of referential jokes.

On the level of content authors use satire to outline the main problems of contemporary society. Consequently, allegory and allusion play a great role in depicting the society and making the acute reference to definite classes, professions or even humanity in general. Since the contemporary society was in state of depression, authors paid attention especially to bureaucrats, politicians, philosophers and scientists.

Thus, humor in science fiction can be realized by the common set of expressive means and stylistic devices and the characteristics and structure of the genre is usually rigid for the sake of providing the scientific proof. Still in case when humorous effect is the main aim, science fiction becomes flexible on most planes.

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II. SECTION OF POLITOLOGY

THE STATUS OF THE SELF-GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE ACT ON THE CITY OF KOSICE IN THE LIGHT OF THE PRACTICE

Jozef ANDREJČÁK

Abstract

In the contribution we will address the status of the self-government of the City of Košice in the Act on the City of Košice from the perspective of practice. The article is content oriented on the specific status and functioning of the Board of Mayors, acting as a joint body of the city wards consisting of the Mayors of the city wards. As a part of our contribution, we will try to outline the issues relevant to the status of the Board of Mayors and possible proposals for solutions for the effective acting of the Board of Mayors in the performance of the self-government of the City of Košice.

Keywords: Board of Mayors, Act on the City of Košice, self-government of the City of Košice

1. The status of the City of Košice

In the conditions of the Slovak Republic, the Capital City of Bratislava and cities with a population of more than 200,000, i.e. the City of Košice, are governed by a special law in terms of territorial organization and self-government authorities. In such cases, cities have two layers of self-government - municipality and city ward. The structure of the authorities is as follows, the city wards are legal entities and participate in the performance of the self-government to the extent provided by law.¹

The status of the municipality is regulated by the Act No. 369/1990 Coll. on Municipal Establishment, as amended, in particular in its first part, in the Section 4. The status of the City of Košice is governed by the Act No. 401/1990 Coll. of the Slovak National Council on the City of Košice, as amended (hereinafter referred to as the “Act on the City of Košice”). The self-government of the City of Košice is regulated in the second part of the Act, as referred to in the Sections 5 to 9.

These provisions of the Act on the City of Košice regulate:

¹ Act No. 377/1990 Coll. on the Capital of the Slovak Republic of Bratislava, as amended and Act 401/1990 Coll. of the Slovak National Council on the City of Košice, as amended

- *Section 5 Performance of the self-government*, the self-government is exercised by residents
 - through city or city wards authorities, the residents have the right to vote the representatives of city or city wards authorities (active right to vote) and to stand for an election (passive right to vote),
 - by a referendum concerning important issues of life and community development in the municipality or city wards,
 - by an assembly of the city or city wards residents, the residents have the right to participate in public gatherings and to attend the meetings of the City or City Ward Council.

The exercise of the self-government from the point of view of citizens' rights includes also the right to refer their complaints and incentives to city or city wards authorities, then the right to use the facilities and other assets of the city and city wards serving for public purposes, then to require cooperation in the protection of their person, family and their property located in a city or city ward and to request assistance in the event of a sudden emergency.²

- *Section 6 Municipal authorities*

- The City Council and the Mayor of the City are the municipal authorities. Under the Act on the City of Košice, the City Council has its bodies, namely the City Board and City Commissions as advisory and control bodies.

- *Section 7 City ward authorities*

- The City Ward Council and Mayor of the city ward are the city ward authorities. The City Ward Council may set up, as appropriate, a City Ward Board and City Ward Commission as advisory and control bodies. So-called large city wards in the City of Košice have set up a City Ward Board and commissions are set up at practically all City Ward Councils in the City of Košice.

- *Section 7 (a) Board of Mayors*

² Palúš I. and others (2010): *Obec ako základ územnej samosprávy (Municipality as the basic unit of territorial self-government)* UPJŠ in Košice, Faculty of Public Administration, Košice, p. 23

- The Board of Mayors is a joint body of the city wards composed of the Mayors of the city wards.

- *Section 8 Referendum of the municipality*

- The criteria for calling a referendum by the City Council are defined in the Act on the City of Košice.³

- *Section 8 (a) Referendum of the city ward*

- The criteria for calling a referendum by the City Ward Council are defined in the Act on the City of Košice.⁴ The City Ward Council may also call a referendum of the city ward on the refusal of a generally binding city regulation in accordance with Paragraph 3 (3) of the Act on the City of Košice, if the city ward is territorially affected, i.e. establishing, merging, abolishing or dividing the city ward or changing its borders, which can be implemented by the City Council by adopting a generally binding city regulation.

- *Section 9 Assembly of residents*

- To discuss matters concerning the whole municipality or the city ward, the City Council or City Ward Council may call an assembly of city or city wards residents.

2. Board of Mayors in the performance of the self-government of the City of Košice

In this part of the article we will outline the status of the Board of Mayors in the self-government of the City of Košice, as a joint body of the city wards also in the light of the practice. The existence of the Board of Mayors, as a body and at the same time an additional part of the self-government, is laid down only in the Act on the City of Košice, the Act No. 377/1990 Coll. of the Capital City of the Slovak Republic of Bratislava did not recognise that concept. Mayors of Bratislava city wards are the members of the City Board as a body of the City Council in Bratislava. In this context, it should be pointed out that

³ Section 8 (1) (a) to (d) of the Act No. 401/1990 Coll. of the Slovak National Council on the City of Košice

⁴ Section 8 (1) (a) to (d) of the Act No. 401/1990 Coll. of the Slovak National Council on the City of Košice

the Board of Mayors in the City of Košice is a unique so-called “sui generis authority” in the exercise of the self-government.

The status of the Board of Mayors is laid down in Section 7 (a) (1) to (4) of the Act on the City of Košice. The Board of Mayors was codified by the Act No. 222/2006 Coll., which amended the Act of the Slovak National Council No. 401/1990 Coll. on the City of Košice, as amended.

The Board of Mayors is composed of the Mayors of the city wards. The Deputy Mayor of the relevant city ward represents the Mayor of the city ward in the Board of Mayors during the City Ward Mayor's absence. The Board of Mayors shall act by a majority of all its members.

The Board of Mayors shall elect its Chairperson from among its members. The Chairperson shall represent the Board of Mayors externally, convene and chair its meetings; the Chairperson shall be obliged to convene a meeting without delay if at least one third of its members so request. The Chairperson may be recalled by the Board of Mayors at any time. The Chairperson shall be elected or recalled with the consent of an absolute majority of all Members of Board of Mayors. The Deputy Mayor may not be elected as the Chairperson of the Board of Mayors. When electing the Chairperson of the Board of Mayors, it is a long established rule of rotation of chairmen from a large and small city ward.

The Board of Mayors represents the interests of the city wards in making decisions on issues that are reserved for the City Council /Section 10 (3) of the Act on the City of Košice/; for this purpose, the Board may take initiative to submit proposals to the City Council, it formulates opinions on matters which are subject to the City Council; the City Council is obliged to discuss the opinion of the Board of Mayors before deciding on the matter.

The Board of Mayors may submit their comments on decisions on matters pursuant to the Act on the City of Košice, Section 10 (3) (a) /the approval of the Statute of the City of Košice/, Section 10 (3) (c) to (e) /the establishing the principles of management and disposal of municipal property and entrusted property, the approval of the municipal budget and its amendments, the approval of the zoning plane and its parts/ within 15 days from the date of their posting on the official notice board and may request the City Council their renegotiation and approval.

2.1 Board of Mayors from the perspective of practice

The Board of Mayors in the City of Košice, as a joint body of the city wards has been acting in the municipal self-government for several electoral terms. As the entire self-government, this body has gone through its development and has searched for its place in the structure of the municipal self-government bodies. The Board of Mayors has become a sort of official platform and space for discussion between the city wards and the municipality.

The Board of Mayors is headed by a Chairperson, elected by the Mayors of the city wards, having regard to the rule of rotation of chairmen from a large and small city ward. The Chairperson represents, convenes and directs the Board of Mayors. The Chairperson plays a significant role in communication with the City Council and the city management. In its regular meetings, the Board of Mayors discusses the City Council meeting agenda and current issues of the municipality concerning city wards. The management of the city and City Hall is regularly invited to the meetings to debate the requirements of the city wards.

The provisions laid down in the Act on the City of Košice, relating to the status of the Board of Mayors with regard to the City Council, are also acceptable drawing on the practice perspective. The City Council takes account of opinions delivered by the Board of Mayors, discusses them or they are presented by the Chairperson of the Board of Mayors or his Deputy. From the point of view of the Members of the City Council, the resolutions of the Board of Mayors on materials negotiated by the City Council are viewed positively, as they reflect the views of the city wards' representatives.

There are greater discrepancies in individual topics in the relationship between the Board of Mayors and the city management. Most of them are the requirements of the city wards when drawing up a budget, the redistribution of local taxes, grants for a special purpose, and so on. Some other discrepancies between the Mayors of the city wards and the city management arise from the discussions on possible merging the city wards or the adjustment of competencies between the city and the city wards.

2.2 Board of Mayors as a modern factor in the self-government of the City of Košice

The Board of Mayors, with its status laid down in the Act on the City of Košice and its long-term acting in the self-government of the City of Košice, may become a model factor in the self-government with its clear role and competencies.

The Statute of the City of Košice (hereinafter referred to as the “Statute”) provides the details of relations between the Board of Mayors and the City Council. It is a basic internal document of the self-government of the City of Košice, defining extensively the redistribution of tasks and self-governing powers of the city in accordance with the Act on the City of Košice. It is the Statute of the City that provides sufficient space to clarify and specify some of the other competencies of the Board of Mayors in relation to the city and the City Council.

It requires rules to be specified more clearly in relation to the city wards at least in some areas, such as grants for a special purpose or additional financing of city wards, which have to bear increased financial costs due to legal obligations, and so on.

To ensure a quality relationship between the Board of Mayors and the City of Košice in the future, it will also be important to accept the opinion of the city wards in the exercise of the competence rights by the municipality, departments of the City Hall and municipal enterprises. All this contributes to quality communication and acting of the Board of Mayors as a joint body of the city wards in the self-government of the City of Košice.

The Board of Mayors may also act as a forum for the generation of new knowledge and information, as well as for the exchange of experience on the informatisation of the self-government in Slovakia. The City of Košice may play a helpful role in this area, mainly for small city wards which are not able to perform the necessary actions with their capacities.

In conclusion, the status of the Board of Mayors in the self-government of the City of Košice is justified based on the experience gained from previous electoral terms. It should be noted, however, that it is desirable for a more efficient acting to be provided with a clearer definition of the relationship between the municipality and the Board of Mayors, thus avoiding that the Board of Mayors becomes a mere formality.

Conclusion

The Board of Mayors, as an independent body of the self-government of the City of Košice, representing all city wards, has its firm place and a lawful basis in the Act on the City of Košice. It is important to see the acting of this joint body and its direct exercise in relation to the municipal authorities also in the light of the practice. The Board of Mayors may be regarded as an essential element for better performance of tasks of the self-government in the City of Košice. This municipal self-government body gives sufficient room for direct and official communication from city wards to city representatives. The potential of the Board of Mayors and its positive impact should be the interests of all representatives of the self-government of the City of Košice.

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EASTON'S SYSTEM THEORY (EXAMPLE ON POLITICAL ISLAM IN AUSTRIA)

Kristína KIŠŠOVÁ

Abstract

The basic question standing for the nexus between rulers and ruled in the field of research of theories of public powers is the definition of the political system. The beginnings of its research are connected with the name of David Easton and his theory of interactions, through which values are authoritatively distributed in society. Today, in the current political science, the category of the political system is the starting point for further theoretical and methodological orientations, and for the needs of our research we will deal specifically with the method of inputs and outputs. Our aim is to apply it to political islam in Austria, which plays a central role of our scientific interest. It examines the influence of islam on the Austrian political system and, conversely, the reactions of the political system of this state to this religion, especially in the form of its legal regulation and subsequent feedback through the acceptance of these elements in society.

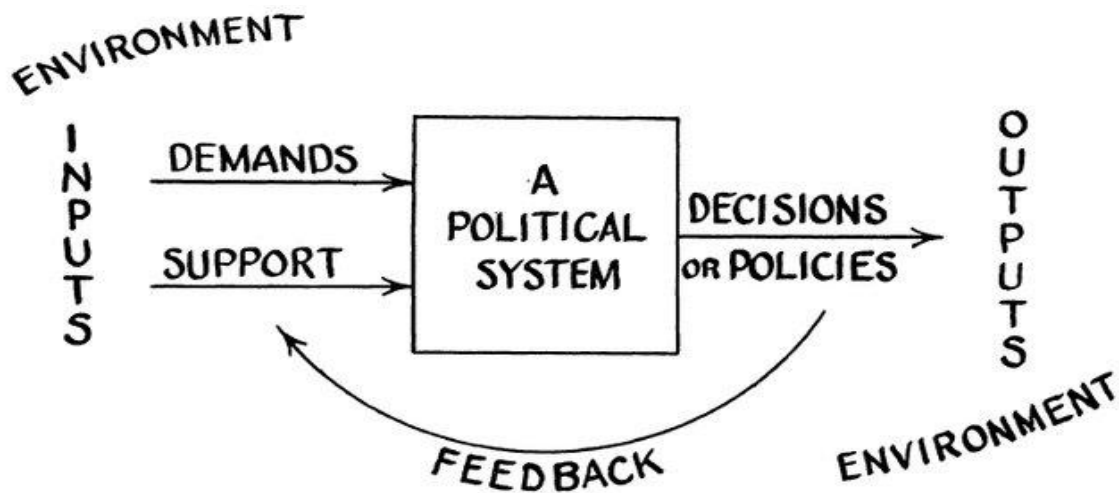
Key words: System theory, Political system, Islam, Political Islam, Austria.

Introduction

The theory of the political system helps us to practically grasp and simply name the well-known processes and phenomena present in political society, while combining its parts into one whole. The construct of the political system put together in this way helps us not only to better define the position and roles of actors, but also in a broader context in the subsequent comparison of political systems of individual states, of course based on adequately selected comparative criteria, which will then faithfully reflect common elements and differences of those policies. We can date the theory and analysis of the political system to the 50s - 60s of the 20th century, which can be described as a period strongly influenced by positivist methods in the social sciences. Based on this connection, the methods of natural sciences, now known as quantitative, help us to better explore the qualitative elements present in social science research. In this respect, positivism can be characterized by the possibility of distinguishing facts from value prejudices and subsequently falsifying or verifying these neutral facts using the mentioned methods (Smith, 1997).

System elements

According to David Easton's system theory, a political system consists of four main elements. Those are: *system*, *environment*, *response* and *feedback*. Widely, but simply explained, the system deals with the never-ending cycle of society's *demands* with *support* of the *system* in a form of *inputs* conversing into *outputs* by system's *authorities*, reflecting the information *feedback* from *society* itself.



Pic. No.1: David Easton's Model of a Political System (Adenskog, 2018)

From our point of view, focusing on nexus between the islamic religion and Austrian political system, the elements present as following:

- Environment - Austrian political system
- Input – Islam, as an foreign element
- Demands – muslim people's rights
- Support - analysis, evaluation of requirements
- Output – laws and regulations like „Islamgesetz”
- Feedback - citizens' response to the changes adopted.

More than hundred years ago, when islam came to Austria as a new and foreign religion, the environment such as a political system dealing with WWI problems, couldn't obviously handle any type of demands from these inputs. As the system was developing and getting stronger, the muslim's demands were pending. It is very essential, for system to be able to solve the the demands and change the inputs into outputs, because when those aren't satisfied, the support declines and the system goes highly fragile, becomes instable. Authorities therefore have to deal with the demands in time, because when not it should cause several conflicts between

individuals in society, especially when those demands have religious basis, as we stated with islam in Austria. Our research interest is mainly focused on outputs and feedback of this model – in our further research we analyze if the law and orders that regulate Austrian muslims' lives, religious praxis and the non-muslims' behavior near to mosques in particular feasts are adequate and how could the feedback given on this law and its amendments help to regulate muslims' rights and obligations across the Europe.

Easton himself claims that political systems are making a double effort – both on a perpetual change inside the system and also on its stability (in a meaning of a balanced retention). He sees the change as a partial characteristic, but stability as an essential characteristic of the system. Goals are achieved through features that are system's dynamic responses to challenges coming from the environment. The basis of the method of input and output, as we simply call it in political science, is therefore not only the examination of changes in the system but also the analysis of system regulators in the form of responses to changes arising from environment's challenges (Kulašik, 2007).

According to Easton, the most basic group of inputs are non-system inputs – those signals that come into the system from the outside – in our focus area those are the muslims' demands on their rights in a non-muslim country, like Austria. Easton divides the signals into two main groups:

- Requests, wishes – addressed to the political system,
- Support – expressed by members of society.

Groups of requirements can include requirements that can be simply met and transformed into outputs (for example, changes in health care or school system), but there may be also requirements for changes in a system that may be way unacceptable, unsatisfiable by the system (for example, the secession of separatist territory).

But what could stand as a support in this model? For example, we can include elections, demonstrations or strikes here for some purpose, but also supporting petitions or referendums. In connection with inputs, an important term is the *node point*. Through the so-called nodal points, the flows of demand or support pass into the system and the nodal points have a regulatory character.

In most of the systems, there are usually individuals or groups (called gatekeepers) who can monitor the number and value of the demand's flow. In modern societies, interest groups,

political parties, the mass media can be assigned to them, and in traditional societies the „guardians” mentioned are officials, aristocracies or churches. In terms of the functionality of the political system, on the input side there may be a so-called *overload* (or inputs overload) and in this case the political system is not able to respond to all requirements to meet them.

Another mechanism by which pressures on the political system can be regulated is outputs. It is through the output that the inputs can be effectively modified. In a way, it is a partial reward to members of the system whose inputs have been at least partially accepted. In any political system, this beneficial feeling must be shared by at least a part of the member of society. Outputs can be synonymously exchanged for:

- specific type communication between the system and the environment,
- rules of the game,
- relations between events outside and inside the political system,
- fullness of input,
- one of the means of self-regulation.

The concept of input and output represents only a basic model of binding. All systems need to obtain additional information and reactions from the environment to their activities, or to system outputs. David Easton conceived the concept of feedback, which provides the political system with reports on how decisions were made by members of society. The overall construction of the political system then acquires a definitive form and logic until the completion of this last element. We can definitely include media as one of the components of feedback. This „feedback loop” can be analysed from different angles. From the view of system-maintenance or specific support gaining, its operation can be divided into four known stages:

- Situations of feedback, which can come out of authorised direction, associate outputs, or outcomes. They all are part of the political system. But its estimation depends on its perception or observation.
- Feedback-responses in the form of satisfying the demands, or positive or negative support.
- Feedback-responses communicated to the political authorities.
- After completion of the feedback-circuit the authorities deliberate, discuss, and arrive at certain decisions. Much depends on variables like responsiveness of authorities, time-lag, availability of information-resources for decision-making, etc.

Resources of the system as a whole are all involved. The feedback loop, in Easton's input-output analysis, interlinks authorities and its members also in a manner that the former may take steps soon after they get information through the feedback (4 Major Premises., 2017).

Conclusion

There are many indicators that the democratic political system is currently facing serious legitimacy challenges. Two central indicators of these challenges are changing patterns of political participation and a decline in system support. Against this backdrop, a growing number of governments claim that democratic innovations could reconnect institutions with citizens (Adenskog, 2018). Therefore, we identify ourselves and our research with the view that the main premise of any system is its survival. And for this, the basis is the most perfect connection and cooperation of individual elements of the system, control of its correctness and constant up-to-dateness. In our opinion, this is provided by adequate feedback, whether we perceive it as the company's acceptance of the outputs or it is represented by the media.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF SMART SPECIALISATION STRATEGY: THE CASE OF SLOVAKIA

Vladimír KOVÁČIK

Abstract

The basic precondition for a competitive implementation of research, development and innovation in Slovak Republic is to ensure sufficient financial resources, as well as the implementation of the new strategies in economic state policies. The Smart specialization strategy is an innovative approach to the research and innovation area in the European Union, where each Member State and region can define, through their Smart specialization strategy, their priority investment agenda for knowledge based jobs and growth. In Slovakia, the Smart specialization strategy has been adopted in 2013, although the critical part of the implementation is the governance of the research and innovation area. The aim of this paper is to characterize the structure of S3 government in Slovakia and the basic features of its implementation in the context of analyzing and identifying some of the main weaknesses of the system that are possible obstacles to the effective implementation of defined objectives.

Keywords: *Smart specialisation strategy, Sustainable development, Knowledge based economy, Research and innovations, Competitiveness, Governance*

Introduction

Smart specialization is an innovative, context-based and local approach that aims to support economic growth and jobs in European Union (EU) by allowing each Member State or region to identify and develop its own competitive advantages, thereby prioritizing research and investment in innovation in its specific areas of competitiveness. Smart specialization is an innovation policy concept that aims to boost regional innovation, contributing to growth and prosperity by helping and enabling regions to focus on their strengths. Smart specialization is based on partnerships between businesses, public entities and knowledge institutions (Marie Curie Alumni Association, 2014).

Smart specialization strategy (S3) means the national or regional innovation strategies which set priorities in order to build competitive advantage by developing and matching research and innovation own strengths to business needs in order to address emerging opportunities and market developments in a coherent manner, while avoiding duplication and

fragmentation of efforts; a smart specialization strategy may take the form of, or be included in, a national or regional research and innovation (R&I) strategic policy framework (European Parliament, 2013).

Implementation of S3 is becoming the most important element of R&I strategic policy making in EU Member States, though this processes are provided with many challenges in implementing and managing their smart specialization strategies. In the S3 process, entrepreneurial actors play the leading role in discovering promising areas of future specialization (European Commission, 2016). One implication for policy makers is that this requires policy tools to collect the "entrepreneurial knowledge" embedded in the country to transform it into policy priorities. Prioritization process is often very challenging as besides setting the RIS3 priorities it unmistakably deprioritize some others. Moreover, the increasingly local and global combination and interaction of cross-sectoral and cross-border activities require adaptation of strategies with the new challenges for which a smart policy mix combining synergies across policy instruments is of the utmost importance to ensure the effectiveness of the process (European Commission, 2014).

Under the Europe 2020 Strategy, the European Commission aims to promote smart, sustainable growth in the EU (European Union, 2010). S3 has emerged as key processes for structural changes that are more focused on knowledge-based activities and have higher added value. In the EU budget, the R&I funding is playing an important role, as in the current programming period 2014 - 2020 approximately 1/3 of the total funding for cohesion policy (€ 110 billion – of the € 351.8 billion) is linked to innovation investments. In line with the goal to spend these resources effectively in the current programming period, the regional and national policy-makers are required to implement S3 before investing EU resources in R&I.

There are many publications from authors that are dealing with the definition and comparative analysis of the S3, such as Foray et al. (2009), McCann (2012), Rusu (2013), Radosevic et al. (2017), Balland et al. (2018) or Pronesti (2019). Other authors are dealing with the problems regarding the possible malfunction of the S3 in practice due to fact, that S3 seems to be the perfect example of policy running ahead of theory (Foray, David, & Hall, 2011), or lacking an evidence base (Morgan, 2015; Thissen et al., 2013).

1. State of play in Slovakia's research and innovation environment

The basic problems of Slovak R&I are low expenditure and the fragmentation of the R&I system. The level of public and private R&I expenditure is among the lowest in the EU in the long term. In Slovakia, the share of high quality research publications is relatively low, as well as the low patenting activity. The cooperation between the universities and research centers with business in the field of research is also not as high as it could be due to relatively weak support of private R&I in the Slovak legislation. In 2015, there were some improvements made by the government in this area as the hybrid tax allowance was introduced, that was set at a rate of 50 % to labour costs and at a rate of 25 % to other qualifying expenditures. Another significant problem is that the private investments in R&I are on the very low level. The R&I investments relies highly on foreign sources of funding, most notably the EU funding. The level of R&I infrastructure is insufficient in qualitative and quantitative terms in the long term. At the same time, R&I cannot be realized without the existence of high-quality human resources and without high-quality technical equipment.

Research, development and technological innovation are indispensable and the greatest source of high quality knowledge. They are the pillar of every knowledge economy. R&I is a basic prerequisite for maintaining the steady development of the economy and competitiveness of the Slovak Republic (SR) in the long term. The basic precondition for a competitive implementation of research, development and innovation (R&D&I) is to ensure sufficient financial resources, as well as the need for new and necessary strategies changes in economic state policies, in particular as regards the funding and management of education, research, innovation and business support.

The Slovak research and development ecosystem has undergone extensive material and ideological transformation over the last decade, inspired by international trends in the position and use of research infrastructures as a driving force for innovative and socio-economic progress. In the programming period 2007 - 2013, the SR's priority in this area was to mitigate technological, research and organizational barriers to fully exploit the potential of our top research institutions. The creation of an environment conducive to the realization of excellent research, in which modern and technically most advanced research infrastructures would form the basis for the performance of scientific institutions of the SR, was the main objective in the 2007 - 2013 programming period in the area of R&D&I support.

This concept of mitigating the vast technological gap between equipment of our research institutions compared to the international standard and the process of rebuilding and developing research infrastructures would not be feasible without large-scale investments, mainly due to EU funds and our EU membership. Similarly, in the 2014 - 2020 programming period, the R&I support area is a coherent framework of funding, through which EU funding provide significant resources for sustainability and development of the infrastructure system.

2. Smart specialization strategy in Slovakia

With the goal to stimulate the structural change of the Slovak economy towards growth based on increasing innovation and excellence in research and development in order to promote sustainable growth in income, employment and quality of life, the Slovak government adopted the Research and Innovation Strategy for Smart Specialization of the Slovak Republic in November 2013 – RIS3 SK. Targeted support and stimulation of public-private R&D&I cooperation, unlocking growth opportunities for all stakeholders, is the core of the strategy (Operational program Research and Innovation, 2013).

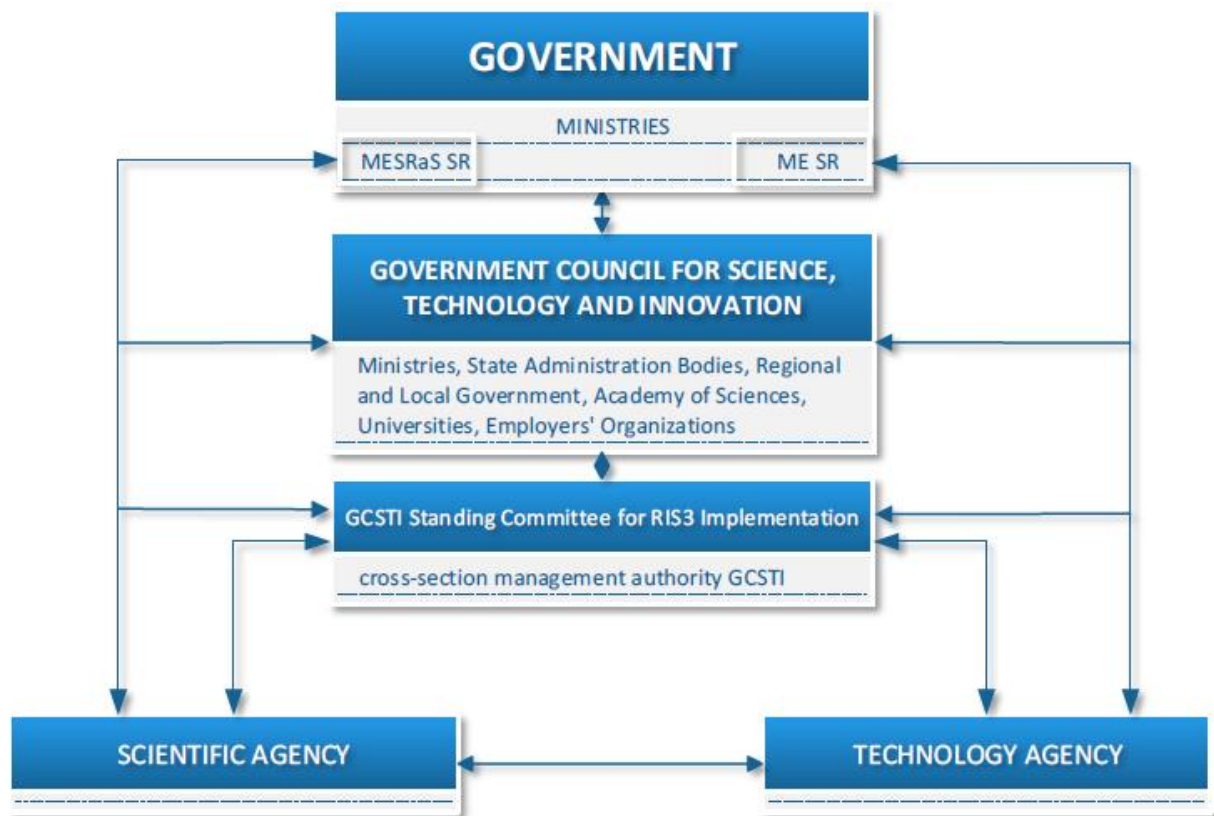
The document RIS3 SK is a strategic material of the SR meaningfully transcends not only the narrow barriers of competencies of individual ministries and is elaborated for the programming period 2014 – 2020. To emphasize the importance and synergy approaches proposed in the document, it was submitted jointly by the Ministry of Education, Science and Research of the SR and the Ministry of Economy of the SR. The document sets out the strategic task on functioning of the new comprehensive, cross-sectoral science and innovation management system represented at the top level by the Government Council for Science, Technology and Innovation (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of the SR, 2013).

The system of science and research management in Slovakia before the adoption of RIS3 SK strategy was fragmented, which led to a non-systemic and inefficient distribution of financial resources to R&D&I area. The RIS3 SK strategy introduced a new, revolutionary element in the management of science and research in Slovakia by removing the long-term sectoral approach and replacing it with a cross-sectoral management system up to the level of the Slovak government. The first and the most important step was to establish the newly created Government Council for Science, Technology and Innovation (Government Council) as an essential managerial element in RIS3 SK creation and implementation.

The partnership principle was the key element when creating the Government Council, chaired by the prime minister of the SR; its vice-chairmen are the ministry of education, science, research and sport, the ministry of economy and the president of the Slovak Academy of Sciences. Members include the representatives of universities, civil society associations and industry. The Government Council created the Coordination group for RIS3 elaboration from the representatives of ministries, Slovak Academy of Sciences, universities, civil society associations and industry. The Government council also approved a detailed schedule for elaboration with allocated responsibility for individual actions in RIS3 SK elaboration.

To be able to change the critical element of the Slovak R&D&I environment - autonomous functioning of sectors of education, R&I and business practice – the RIS3 SK had to introduce the new government system for the competencies in the management of research and innovation in the SR. The key objective was to ensure the synergic effect and more effective financing for R&I with resources from the business sector, public budgets of the SR, EU structural and investment funds, Horizon 2020 program, banks, institutional investors, venture capital. In line with this objective, all the bodies and agencies that are responsible for distribution of financial resources for R&I must be involved into new governance system. To be able to introduce the new strategic approach to the R&I environment, the new organizational structure of the science and innovation management had to be approved in the SR. As a result of this new governance, the Government council as the key authority for the management of RIS3 SK implementation established the Standing Committee for RIS3 implementation as its working body. With the strategic objective in mind, the two ministries (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of the SR and the Ministry of Economy of the SR) responsible for R&I resources distribution were included in the governance system by involving their implementation agencies, the Research agency and the Technological agency.

Pic. 1: Organizational scheme of institutional management of RIS3 SK



Source: (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of the SR, 2013)

This new organizational structure of RIS3 SK governance aimed to solve the biggest problems in Slovak system of R&I such as ineffective use of financial sources in science or fragmented and too atomized system for public projects and its use in private business sector, which caused negative effects like splitting of priorities, their chronological, material, personal disharmonisation creates atomization of financial sources without direct synergic effect in practice (Ministry of Education, Science and Research of the SR, 2013).

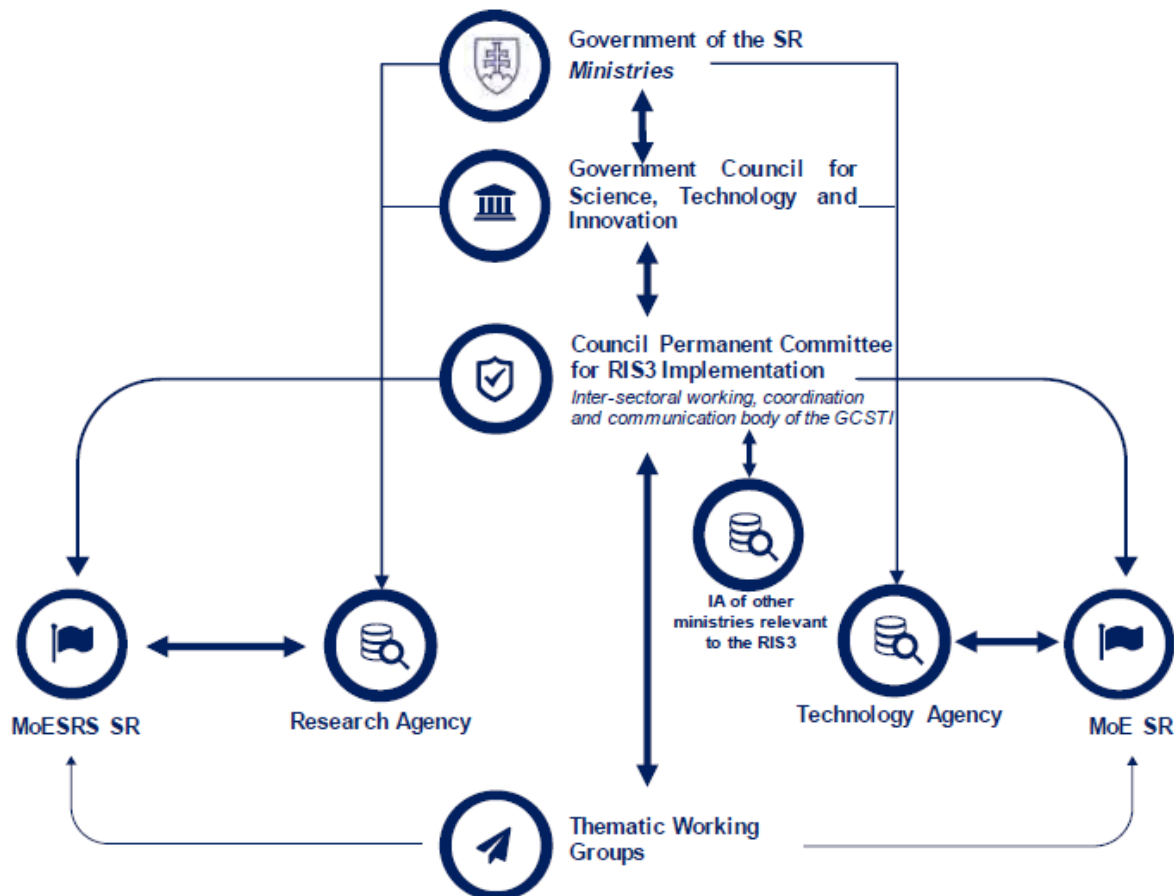
However, practice has shown that the adopted RIS3 SK strategy fails to ensure the defined objectives, since it has not defined the detailed competences and mutual responsibility of involved institutions, nor the timeline and factual context of the individual processes ensuring the implementation of RIS3 SK. This has led the responsible institutions to negotiate on the form of an implementation document, which would be able to define individual competences and processes at a detailed level and which would subsequently be regularly evaluated in terms of achieving the set goals and milestones. As a result of this initiative, the action plan for RIS3 SK was adopted in 2017 (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister of the Slovak Republic for

Investments and Informatisation, 2017), which was named The Implementation Plan of the Research and Innovation Strategy for Smart Specialization of the SR (“RIS3 IP”).

One of the most important sections of the action plan was the governance section, which redefined the individual competences of the institutions as well as mutual responsibility. In order to overcome the common practice of exclusive competences of several sectoral ministries and the persisting institutional isolationism, the Government has adjusted the framework for the operation of the existing institutions and approved the creation of new inter-sectoral institutions targeting specifically the R&I field (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister of the Slovak Republic for Investments and Informatisation, 2017).

For the purposes of inter-sectoral coordination of R&I activities, the SK Government Office - Office of the Government Plenipotentiary for Research and Innovation was set up in 2015 with primary focus on the RIS3 SK implementation. The Research Agency and Technology Agency has been set up and their activities related to the implementation of RIS3 SK have been defined, both agencies being managed and guided by the Standing Committee for RIS3 implementation as a working and advisory body to the Government Council. The Deputy-Prime Minister’s Office for Investments and Informatisation was set up; whose competences include supervision over the RIS3 SK implementation. Overall, the Government Council, The Deputy-Prime Minister’s Office and The Standing Committee increased its importance, as in addition to monitoring the RIS3 SK implementation, they were given new competencies regarding the approval of calls and their schedules, and other competencies regarding binding plans of operational programs and ensuring the enforcement of the main strategic and conceptual objectives of the SR in the area of providing EU funds among all stakeholders involved.

Pic. 2: Institutional structure of RIS3 management approved in 2017



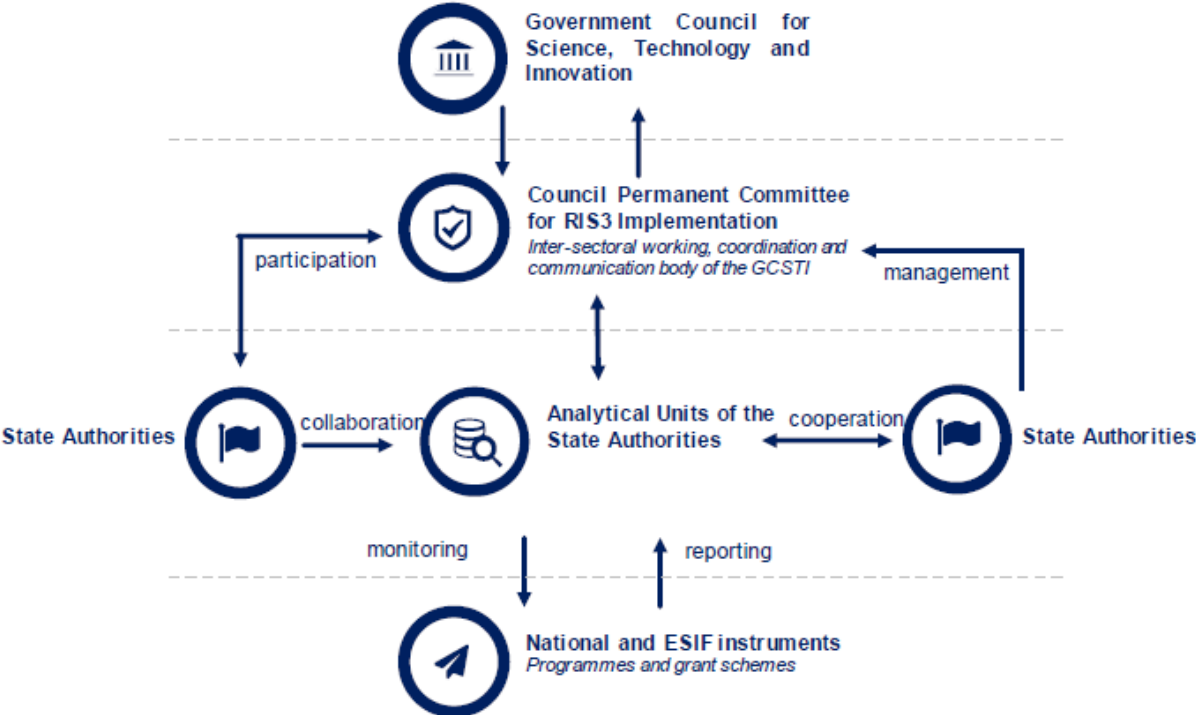
Source: (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister of the SR for Investments and Informatisation, 2017)

The management of the RIS3 SK implementation includes as its inseparable part an analytical approach and the implementation of R&D&I policies based on actual data and facts (evidence based policy). The setting of effective and targeted RD&I support is based on a functioning and transparent system of monitoring and evaluation of RD&I support from all available sources. The RIS3 SK monitoring and evaluation system is key to the monitoring and evaluation of the fulfilment of the RIS3 objectives, the Europe 2020 strategy and the targets of the National Reform Program of the SR, and to the setting of concrete R&D&I instruments, programs and initiatives and in connection with the achievement or insufficient achievement of the set objectives, thus ensuring early adjustment of these R&D&I support instruments (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister of the Slovak Republic for Investments and Informatisation, 2017).

To be able to establish a functional system of R&D&I, the continuous mechanism of objectives fulfilment had to be introduced on the basis of RIS3 IP settings. The key element of the system of monitoring was the establishment of the links between organization, sources and

time, with the aim to promote the monitoring mechanism from sectoral to cross-sectoral and multi-level structure. The Deputy-Prime Minister’s Office, The Government Council and The Standing Committee play a crucial role in monitoring system, as these institutions are responsible for RIS3 SK monitoring, evaluation and for the setting of the policy measures to ensure the implementation of the RIS3 activities with links to the objectives and priorities at the level of the domains to be carried out under the programs and projects.

Pic. 2: Institutional management of RIS3 SK monitoring processes



Source: (Office of the Deputy Prime Minister of the SR for Investments and Informatisation, 2017)

Despite the above mentioned RIS3 implementation and monitoring system set in referred documents, there are still some critical points that need to be addressed to be able to fulfill the objectives. As the most problematic points we see the selection process of projects, which are carried out by the implementation agencies - The Research Agency and Technology Agency. In Slovakia, expert evaluation of the project is a critical point of the whole process in terms of selecting the best projects. Despite the fact that the RIS3 implementation criteria have been incorporated into the selection process management documentation and evaluation criteria, these criteria are still too loosely set in our opinion. As a result, these criteria give the evaluators

a large degree of subjectivity in assessing individual criteria and thus do not sufficiently reflect on the need to approve the best, most needed projects in each call in terms of RIS3 SK priorities, which leads to future problem in the evaluation of programs.

Another serious problem is the lack of quality of the project evaluators themselves and their selection by the implementation agencies. It is often the case that reputable scientists refuse to participate in the evaluation process due to insufficient financial appreciation and, what is worse, the pressures exerted on them because of the evaluation of projects by different interest groups or lobbyists that are behind the project applications. This often results in the fact that the quality of expert evaluators is on average or below average level, which is reflected in the quality of expert opinions and causes the fact, that sometimes the best projects are not approved and subsequently implemented. The level and quality of the approved and implemented projects then have a directly proportional impact on the quality of science and research in Slovakia, as EU resources are the primary and most important resource for this area and are therefore unique in terms of fulfilling the objectives in the R&D&I environment.

To improve the area of fulfilment of objectives set in RIS3 SK, the key is the ability of selecting the best projects in the expert evaluation process. We suggest that focus should be on adjustment of the system to the selection of truly quality evaluators and their appraisal, as well as making maximum use of criteria that assess the quantitative parameters of projects according to the focus of each call for projects. We would also recommend increased use of foreign evaluators especially in case of larger projects (e.g. national projects) and projects of specific specialization, in particular the smart specializations of RIS3 SK areas.

Conclusion

The system of implementation and monitoring of RIS3 SK was set in the strategic documents approved by the Slovak government. The system of governance has been introduced, with the increased role of the Deputy-Prime Minister's Office, The Government Council and The Standing Committee. However, there are still some issues that need to be addressed in order to be able to fulfill the set RIS3 SK objectives. The most important areas are related to the processes carried out by the implementation agencies, mainly the selection of the best quality projects as well as the quality of the expert project evaluation.

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CHARACTERISTICS OF A LEADER FOR AN EFFECTIVE PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTING CHANGES IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Alexandra OŽVALDOVÁ

Abstract

The importance of the personality of a leader in the implementation and realization of such important processes as organizational changes for public organizations are undeniable. Many important scientific studies emphasize the need for the ability to use adequate leadership styles. Although the contribution of the change leader to organizational change is likely to depend on the specific characteristics of public organizations, the need for acquisition and building external support is also unquestionable. This study points out the importance of the relationship between manager and employee in public administration and tries to summarize the attributes of the so-called ideal leader for the situation of implementation of changes. It indicates the need to reduce the bureaucratic burden in favor of the transformational style of management and thus lead to employee participation in the implementation of change.

Key words: Manager, Leader, Leadership, Managerial ethics, Change management, Public organizations

Introduction

Leading does not make a person a true leader at all. Only on the basis of knowledge of the most important differences between the leader and the manager and also their definition, we can define the important attributes of the leader as a person able to achieve the goals of the organization by adequate people management by maximizing their work performance. In real life, we will be able to recognize a leader from a manager, because in life each of us will meet many managers, but only with a limited number of leaders.

In the introduction, we will therefore focus on definitions and pointing out the differences between a leader and a manager. We will also focus on managerial ethics, which closely correlates with the ideal leader or manager, and we will talk about what ethical principles the manager applies in managerial roles.

The aim of this article is to define the attributes of an ideal leader, especially in the process of introducing changes in public administration. We characterize what change is and how we can manage

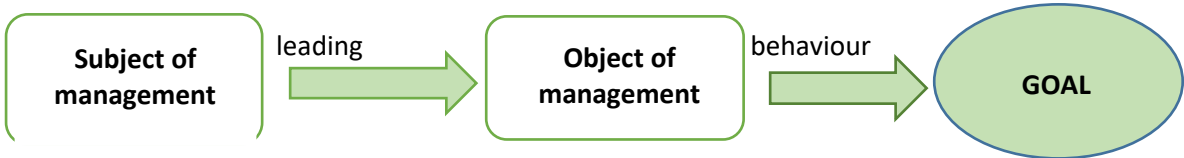
change. Next, we will talk about what is most important in managing change and when change is effective. In the second subchapter, we will focus on change again, but in public administration. In the case study, we will point out the role of the leader in the change that has been implemented in public administration

1 Leadership

The organization seeks to create the future through a vision and look for ways to achieve it. The success or failure of a company depends on all employees, regardless of their position in the hierarchy of the organization, which can be reduced from line (functional) and centralized management to flat structures to extensive delegation. These changes correspond to the corporate governance system, which contains signs of changes in the way people work, referred to as the direction from management to leadership. (Tureckiová, 2004).

People are the most precious resource of any business. For a company, it is not enough to be equipped with high-quality technical means and technology, but an important value is the organization of people as bearers of human capital, without which technical conveniences would not be used at all. Human capital plays an important role in the operation of a company. Leading is one of the basic functions of management. We understand leading as influencing and influencing employees to work voluntarily and thus fulfil the goals of the organization. It is a basic activity and function. The essence is the internal force of guiding and stimulating subordinate employees so that they perform their work in a quality and correct manner. Leading cannot be seen only as an opportunity to exercise authority. There is a need for the ability to feel social in particular, with the right combination of uncompromisingness. We meet leading at all levels of management. (Kotek, 2003)

Figure 1 Diagram of the leading process



Personality of the manager

There are several definitions of managers. Here are a few to compare. As the first definition of the term manager, we start from the point of view of Majerčák (2006, p. 29), according to which we can understand a person who produces managerial functions on the basis of his primary activities and through them continues to work on employees.

One of the important prerequisites for quality management of a company is the personality of the manager himself. A good manager should have, in addition to professional knowledge, certain personality traits that are necessary to perform a given function. The role of the manager is therefore to perform certain activities in cooperation with employees that are part of the management process. The personality of the manager is a complex of skills, knowledge and insights, which also includes his communication potential, one of the components of the whole complex. The communication competence of a manager, his ability to communicate effectively forms the basis of managerial and organizational activities of every successful manager who wants to motivate his employees to full performance (Benková, et al, 2016).

Manager has a wide range of activities: he plans, leads, manages, decides, coordinates and controls. To perform these activities, a good manager should have, in addition to professional skills, certain qualities necessary to perform the function of a manager. The professional skills and expertise of a manager are a prerequisite for performing his function and managing the demands of work. The position of the manager is a basic element of the management system not only as the implementer, but also as part of the social environment of the working group. (Majerčák, Farkašová, 2005 p. 45)

Leadership behavior of a manager is mainly influenced by 3 aspects. It is about the internal strength at its disposal, the attitudes of subordinate employees and, last but not least, the situation in the company or in the organization. The personality of a manager is represented by his personality characteristics and characteristics. (Kotek, 2003) We often talk about managerial competencies as personality characteristics of executive managers. It is not unusual to talk about the charisma of leaders (Čajková, Čajka, Elfimova, 2018). However, it cannot be overlooked that these personality characteristics are relevant only if their bearer is endowed with a fixed scope of powers. The competencies of a manager can therefore be defined as a set of knowledge, abilities, skills and experience as well as physical and mental readiness to use

these qualities to effectively perform certain tasks (functions and roles) in accordance with assigned authority and general expectations. (Majerčák, 2005)

All modern managers must perform fixed tasks: to manage work and companies, to manage employees, to manage production and related operations. Becoming a manager requires a large amount of knowledge and skills needed to manage the requirements of the company. His formal authority is required to correspond with his natural or informal authority. Formal authority is given by the occupied function and position in the management hierarchy.

Expertise is one of the basic preconditions for competent action. Without professionalism, the manager would not be recognized by his subordinates. However, just because someone is an expert in the field does not mean that they will be a good manager. Research has confirmed that management success is only 20% the work of expertise, the remaining 80% is what is called the art of management. However, if expertise were lacking, success would be minimal. Expertise is certainly an important prerequisite for the performance of a management function, but it is not a guarantee of successful management. (Majerčák, 2005)

Each manager needs various specific skills to perform the function. The following are usually considered to be key competencies of managers:

1. professional,
2. interpersonal,
3. conceptual.

In addition to professional knowledge, a good manager should certainly have certain personal prerequisites that are necessary to perform the function. Especially in the current conditions of globalization, personal prerequisites are associated with significant features and qualities of the manager's personality. These include in particular:

- **autonomy**, the ability to decide on the basis of one's own considerations about the choice of the optimal procedure,

- **initiative**, ability to inventively and creatively set goals as well as finding appropriate means to achieve them,

- **prudence**, ability to take management decisions only after a thorough assessment of the relevant circumstances and the consequence of the procedure,

- **determination**, the ability to choose between different motives for action, even in conflict situations, and to move to its implementation after a considered decision,

- **purposefulness**, we consider the ability to organize the internal conditions of activity,

- **ability** to coordinate the sequence of sub-operations and to control the results obtained,

- **responsibility**, points to the true qualities of a manager, because he is not a good manager who cannot take the risk,

- **principledness**, ability to overcome difficulties, to control the course of action, to specify plans until the given goal has been achieved,

- **optimism** is the focus on positive things and goals with a belief in success,

- **creativity**, i.e. ability to create new thoughts, ideas,

- **emotional balance**, i.e. the ability not to be subject to lower feelings, negative emotions such as anger, envy, anger, jealousy, etc..

It is not possible to create an exact scheme of the features that a manager should have. Those in need certainly include:

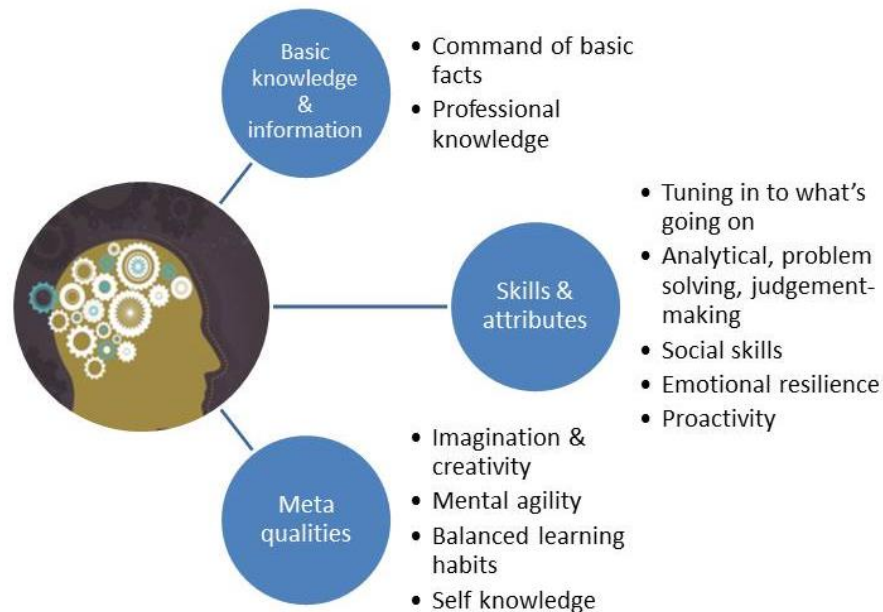
- **intelligence**, is a complex of mental abilities, talent, intellectual acuity, understanding,

- **social intelligence**, i.e. intellectual ability to understand and solve social problem situations, the ability to know people and regulate their social behavior,

- **creativity**, i.e. the ability to create a new solution, to be imaginative and inventive, to be able to intervene in crisis and hitherto unknown situations, the ability to bring new procedures and ideas, to solve things differently than they have been solved so far,

- **self-confidence**, i.e. to believe and respect yourself. (Majerčák, 2005)

Figure 2 Profile of a successful manager



Source: Burgoyne, Stuart, 1976

These knowledge, skills, qualities and abilities must be constantly developed, improved and improved, which is important, especially in terms of quality of the manager himself. It requires effective leadership, such as influencing the coworkers, their encouragement and guiding towards desired goals, which some consider to be a social system (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, 1994, Kotter, 1998, Robbins, 2005).

We recognize several types of manager training. It is education implemented in school facilities or carried out through courses. (Teplická, 2005)

Manager vs. Leader

According to Majtan (2007), a manager is primarily a profession - its manager, with the help of managerial functions, directs the activities of an organizational unit to achieve the set goals. Managers are responsible for achieving results through the specialized efforts of other people, individually, in groups or in organizations. (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, 1994) In order to achieve quality management of an organization or organizational unit, a holistic

personality of the manager is therefore necessary. (Porvazník, Ljudvigova, Čajková, 2018) It is important that his personal and moral values are sufficiently developed. It is such a manager that can make a significant contribution to the prosperity of the organization. How the organization works affects the work of individual employees. The role of the manager is to provide them with the necessary motivation to perform their work effectively, on time and to achieve predetermined goals (Majerčák, Farkašová, 2005, p. 14).

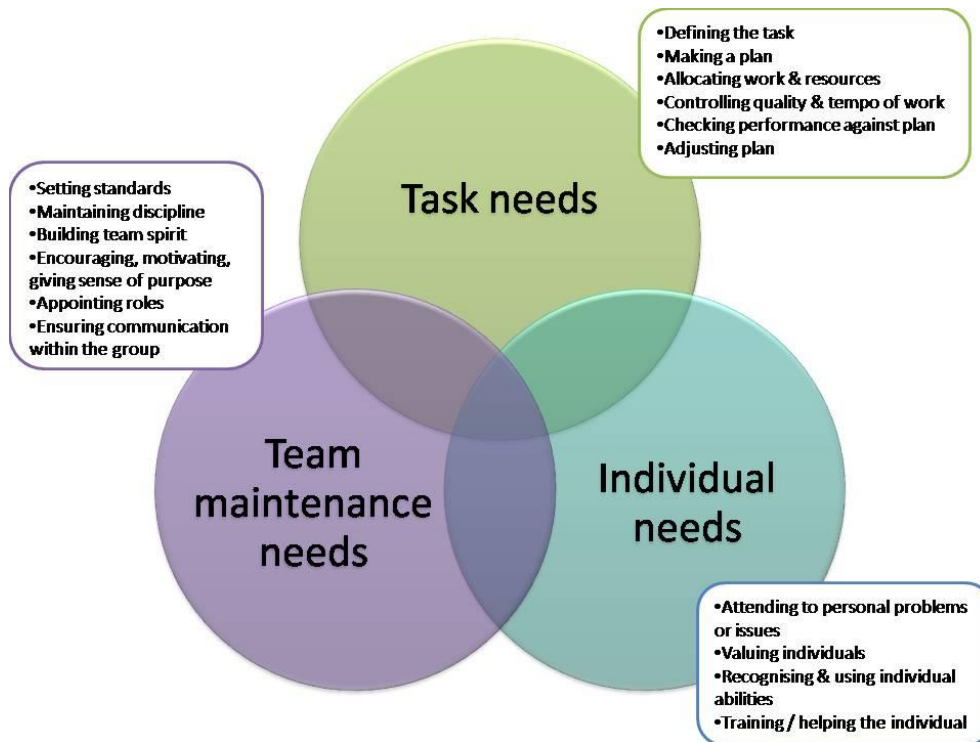
As far as leaders are concerned, in most cases, leaders are created rather than being born straight away (Adair, 2008 In Armstrong 2009). This means that someone else's leadership skills must be acquired and developed gradually over the course of one's life. Such a process is not typical exclusively for human leadership issues, but it works similarly in other spheres of human life (Steigauf, 2011). The most important differences between a manager and a leader are in their thinking, which affects their actions. The manager acts as the boss, using power to execute orders and control others. The leader, in turn, guides, motivates, inspires and helps people around them to improve themselves. The leader can completely change the atmosphere in the group, and therefore it is easy to recognize the group that has a manager and which, on the contrary, is led by the leader. (Sorkovsky, 2015)

The leadership process, according to Armstrong (2009), involves three basic tasks. The first is **defining the task**, which means that the leader must have a clear, accurate idea of what is expected of the group. The second task is the **fulfillment of the task** itself. In this step, the meaning and essence of the group's existence are introduced. The third task talks about **maintaining effective relationships** between the leader and the members of the group, as well as between the members of the group themselves. Such relationships are considered effective if they help to achieve the set goals.

John Adair (1973, In Armstrong, 2009) summarized these demands for a good leader into three areas of need to be met. These are, firstly, the **needs of the task**, ie that the work is done. In the second area, attention is focused on **individual needs**, which means matching the needs of the individual with the needs of the group and the needs arising from the characteristics of the task. The content of the last area is connected with the **needs of maintaining the group**, in other words, with building and maintaining team spirit. With respect to the three groups of needs, Adair (1973, In Armstrong, 2009) compiled a model that illustrates the mentioned types of needs using three circles that intersect with each other. Figure 3 shows this three-circle model of leadership. It is clear from the model that the three groups of needs are interdependent. If the leader is able to keep the needs of these three groups satisfied and at the same time balanced

depending on the conditions of the situation, they are talking about the best leadership. Otherwise, for example, it can easily happen that the attention is paid to the task to such an extent that individual and group needs are ignored, or conversely that the needs of the task are ignored and the focus is focused on satisfying individual and group needs.

Figure 3 Three-circle model of leadership



Source: Adair (1973, In Armstrong, 2009)

2 Leadership styles

Setting the right leadership style is a very important aspect. The chosen leadership style directly affects the result of the work and it is therefore possible to both increase and decrease the performance of employees.

Classic leadership styles

We know many ways of leadership applied in managerial positions. Lewin's division is a classic division of leadership styles. According to him, there are three types of people management, which divided the fields of scope of exercise of powers. (Hudáková, 2009) These are:

1. **Authoritarian style** - often referred to as military, where the manager gives orders and only he decides. He insists on the orders he has given, he is not interested in the opinions of his colleagues and he expects to fulfill the ordered tasks. It focuses on the position of manager, preferring management methods that are direct and requires close scrutiny. In this style, the manager does not trust his direct subordinates and the subordinate has minimal information about what is happening in the company or in the organization.
2. **Democratic (participatory) style** - is described as the most appropriate leadership style. Communication between the leader and subordinates prevails here. To achieve the goals of the organization, finer tools are used to achieve the goals, such as motivation, decisions made collectively. Predominantly positive relations prevail between subordinates and regulated. Comments and various opinions from those present are accepted by the management.
3. **Liberal (free) style - laissez faire** - here the superior leaves his subordinate co-workers more freedom and hardly uses much of his position at all. He expects employees to set their own goals, make a work plan and choose appropriate methods and procedures.

In practice, the most used authoritarian and democratic leadership style, or even a combination of them, and the liberal is, on the contrary, condemned and often criticized. (Hudáková, 2009)

Contingency theories - Fiedler's control theory

The essence of this theory is that a manager cannot change his behavior, but the situation must change. It assumes that people are managers not only because they have the required personality traits, but also because of the influence of various factors, the relationship between the leader and the members of the group.

Research has identified the critical dimensions of situational leadership that help find his most effective style:

- position strength, resp. authority in the organization,
- nature of the task,
- the relationship between the manager and the members of the group.

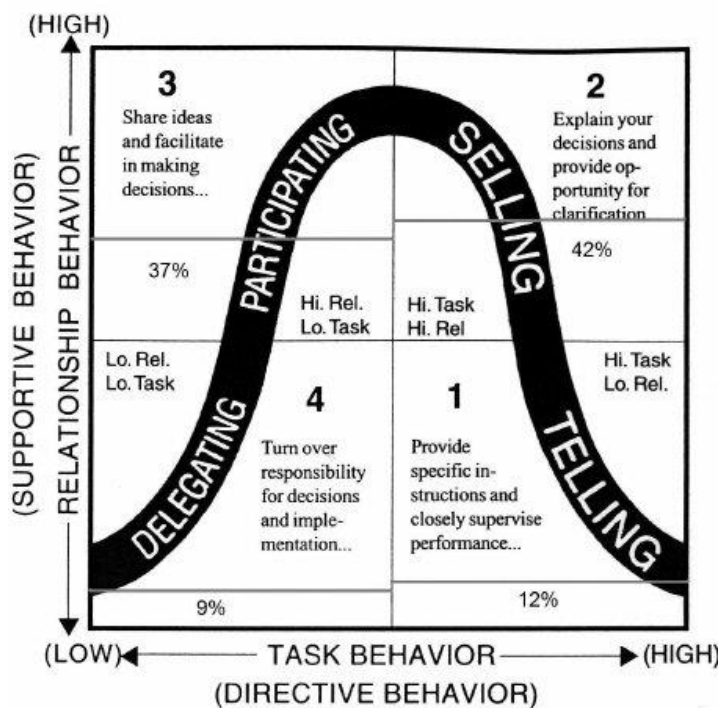
The basis of the theory is therefore decision-making. In this style, we encounter a scale that reflects the relationship between a manager and a person with whom he does not want to work very much. Based on the points that are achieved on the scale, the manager decides

whether his priority in the workplace will be to create positive relationships or will be more work-oriented and goal-oriented. (Gramanová, 2016)

Situational management - Hersey-Blanchard model

P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard (In Jurak, Bednarik, 2010), in their style of management, introduced a hitherto unused term in connection with management, namely maturity. By this term we mean the ability of members to effectively achieve the goal. This model is otherwise named as a situational model of management according to maturity. It tells us how the way of management changes depending on the maturity of employees or manager. Based on this, the leader evaluates what motivation or management style he chooses. This model is often used in practice.

Figure 4 Hersey-Blanchard model



FOLLOWER READINESS

HIGH	MODERATE		LOW
R4	R3	R2	R1
Able & Willing & Confident	Able but Unwilling or Insecure	Unable but Willing or Confident	Unable & Unwilling or Insecure

Source: Jurak, Bednarik, 2010.

Functional leadership theory - John Adair's "Action-Centred Leadership"

John Adair's action-centred leadership task-team-individual model adapts extremely well for the demands of modern business management. When using it in your own environment is necessary to think about the aspects of performance necessary for success in concrete situation, and incorporate local relevant factors into the model to create own interpretation. Thus, efficiency of this type comes from the balance formed by three aspects - the needs of tasks + the needs of the individual + the needs of the group. (Turkish, 2004)

Figure 5 John Adair's "Action-Centred Leadership"



Source: Mullins, 2016

Transactional leadership is based on the assumption that people can be motivated through reward and punishment (Armstrong, 2009). However, the assignment of work to workers takes place regardless of whether or not they have the necessary means and skills to perform it (Steigauf, 2011). It consists in a mutual transaction between the manager and the subordinate. The basis of transaction management is a transaction, ie mutual exchange between the superior

and the subordinate - the superior provides a reward, the subordinate provides his talent, experience and effort.

Two means of transaction management

- *conditional remuneration* - management and motivation of employees is carried out by the promise of benefits, as long as they achieve good results, conditional remuneration has a stronger effect, the clearer the employee's relationship between work results and advantage. The manager can implement the conditional remuneration either in the form of a compliment or a recommendation to increase the salary, resp. promotion. Nowadays, it is also possible to use a combination of monetary and non-monetary rewards for above-standard work.

- *exception management* - response to an undesirable condition; in the event that employees deviate from the required standard, do not comply with the set requirements or commit offenses, the manager imposes exceptional measures, or direct sanctions, for example in the form of reprimands or written reprimands).

Transformational leadership - explained by Bass and Riggio (2006) through 4 basic components:

1. *idealized influence* - emphasizes the vision and meaning of the whole work, uses its charisma, has high ethical and moral standards;
2. *inspiring motivation* - sets attractive goals and challenges, elevates team spirit, is optimistic and enthusiastic;
3. *intellectual stimulation* - stimulates subordinates to innovation, to framing problems, involves subordinates in the process of finding a solution;
4. *individual approach* - distinguishes individual needs and desires, provides opportunities for development, is a coach / mentor.

Thanks to all these characteristics, transformational leaders are able to motivate their subordinates to exceed their own expectations and exceed their own interests for the good of the organization. Transformational leadership thus "transforms" subordinates by changing their values. For example, Procházka and Vaculík (2015) give examples of research that declare higher satisfaction, commitment to the organization, motivation and quality of work, as well as the fulfilment of planned goals or less resistance to change. Thus, according to them, the transformational style of leadership brings with it a number of advantages.

3 Managerial ethics

When defining the concept of managerial ethics, we can start from various concepts. It represents the ethics of management, which is focused on the relationship between superiors and subordinates. The level of managerial ethics significantly influences the development of interpersonal relationships in the workplace. In short, we can define it as the ethical activity and behavior of managers. The definition of managerial ethics should not only be a kind of strict law, but above all an inspiration. It should evoke in every manager a feeling of imperfection and a strong need to improve and constantly change his work based on the development of the company. We can understand managerial ethics in a broader sense and also in a narrower sense. In a broader sense, we talk about the principles of action of the company's management towards another external environment, and in a narrower sense, we talk about the relationship between superior and subordinate, in which the manager exercises the following types of power:

- Professional power
- Power to remunerate
- Legitimate power
- Reference power
- Coercive power

Managerial ethics is nowadays an integral part of the organization's culture. (Cutter, 2009, p. 331) According to Bednár (2019), managerial ethics as a manager's ethics is a professionally applied normative ethics. A manager is a specific being, a person who is the subject of individual moral action. At the same time he represents his profession - managers, management. His personality and character, in other words his intellectual (IQ), social (SQ), emotional (EQ) and moral intelligence (MQ), play the most important role in moral action. The manager is also strongly influenced by the standards and social status (prestige) of his profession.

Ethics for managers fulfills two functions:

- is self-reflection, self-control and self-regulation,
- is a normative orientation towards other people in the company (Bednár, 2019).

4 Process of changes implementation in public administration

Citizens and the state are constantly changing, and so are their needs. That is why it is important for public administration to be modernized. We understand modernization as a process that seeks to ensure higher efficiency and effectiveness through innovation. Innovation, or the introduction of a new idea, product, service or process, can undoubtedly have a beneficial effect on the organization, so one of the main missions of the leader is, according to Goethals, Sorenson and Burns (2004), to strive to keep the company moving.

The change management disposition is one of the highly valued abilities and skills of managers. For experienced managers, change management is an everyday problem. Some managers manage this management well, others worse and not every company, firm or office can afford to employ an expert, ie a change manager. Managers in both private and public organizations encounter change management. Each manager has only one goal in managing change, and that is to successfully complete the change. (Jankelová, Čajková, Larionová, 2018). Change leadership approaches typically stress communicating the sense of urgency, vision of change and implementation plans (e.g. Fernandez, Rainey, 2006). As stated by Řezáč (2009), change is a manifestation of the development process. According to him, we can define the change as a certain deviation from the assumed state. This deviation can be positive (leads to an improvement in the expected results) or negative (leads to a deterioration of the expected results).

When changing, and managing it, it is most important to know especially the goal of change. In order not to act hastily and only to see a certain process, the goal should always be defined before the change takes place. Changes without a defined goal are characteristic of such organizations, whose managers do not have a clear definition of what they want to achieve and thus only unnecessarily deal with employees. (Jankelová, Čajková, Larionová, 2018)

The change is effective if the situation does not return to its original state, but the state of change can be maintained. The disadvantageous way to manage change and make it is to try a mistake. Unsuccessful attempts discourage further processes leading to the necessary changes. Many professional sources state that the basic feature of a strong organizational culture is just a quick and positive response to change.

According to the authors Mital'ová and Ručínská, the perception and initiation of change is in the sense of new public management, which says that in order to increase the efficiency of

public administration it is advantageous to bring proven and proven techniques from the corporate sphere, the use of change management methods becomes for a challenge. Businesses that do not take advantage of the opportunities offered are doomed to failure in the long run. A public administration that does not learn to manage change does not invest properly in its human potential and technology, may have modern packaging on the outside, but the inside will remain preserved in the old ways and ties. (Mital'ová, Ručinská, 2007) Since public administration is performed in order to satisfy the interests of citizens, it is precisely defined by legislation. This means that management in public administration is not as relaxed and simple as in a particular private company, and therefore managing change in public administration is much more difficult. (Jankelová, Čajková, Larionová, 2018)

The approach to change should therefore be a rational and purposeful activity in public administration. When applying changes in public administration, we rely on proven theories and examples that should ensure the best result. However, if the tools are not used correctly, they will have no effect and may have a destructive effect. (Mital'ová, Ručinská, 2007)

Building External Support

As pointed out by S. Fernandez and H. G. Rainey (2006) managerial leaders must develop support from political overseers and key external stakeholders. Organizational change in the public sector also depends on the degree of support from political overseers and other key external stakeholders. The impact of these actors on the outcome of change efforts stems in part from their ability to impose statutory changes and control the flow of vital resources to public organizations. Political overseers can influence the outcome of planned change by creating and conveying a vision that explains the need for change, as well as by selecting political appointees who are sympathetic to the change and have the knowledge and skills required for managing the transformation. Attaining support from governmental authorities and political actors involves serious challenges, given the constraints imposed by the political context in which public organizations operate. Public agencies often have multiple political masters pursuing different objectives, and politically appointed executives often have very weak relationships with career civil servants. Despite these challenges, public managers implementing change in their organizations must display skill in obtaining support from powerful external actors.

Public administration has undergone major changes in recent years. One of the big changes is when the National Council of the Slovak Republic approved the Act on e-Government in September 2013. It thus imposed on all public authorities the obligation to exercise public power electronically and to the extent specified in this Act. After a transitional period, when all errors and shortcomings were to be eliminated, all public authorities are obliged to exercise public power electronically and without restriction from 1 November 2016. (Mitrík, 2017)

As public administration was conducted in a very bureaucratic way, there is a need to implement a comprehensive information system of central administration of public administration reference data (IS CSRÚ), which was designed to reduce bureaucratic burden on the public, increase transparency of officials, shorten time to complete necessary formalities and also contributed to increasing computer literacy. In practice, this meant a big change, especially for the employees themselves. This system also has its disadvantages, such as uneven public access to the Internet, low digital literacy of the population, the risk of leakage of personal data or increased costs for staff training. As the employees of public administration offices are mostly employees over the age of 55, orientation in a specialized information system was more difficult for them. (Biznar, 2018)

Ideal leader in the process of changes implementation in public administration

The public sector is also quite complex in terms of defining the ideal leader in implementing change. As we mentioned in the previous section, public administration is constantly innovating, as this sector is not about profit, but about providing services to its clients and ensuring the public good. Based on this, the public administration must be able to copy the innovations that are taking place in the surrounding world. At the same time, however, it is limited by the possibilities offered by the legislation. Every organization, whether its goal is to make a profit or not, is different and there are different kinds of change in each. Therefore, no more perfect definition of the term change can be found, because for every leader, employee or organization, the term change means something different.

As the very influence of managers on employees in managing change is generally accepted, more emphasis is placed on the selection of these employees. An ideal leader, especially in the public sector, must always be prepared to influence its employees to accept and accept a particular change. (Jankelová, Čajková, Larionová, 2018)

Taking the introduction of e-Government as an example, when addressing the question of how employee training will take place and whether older employees will be willing to complete training at all, the leader must have a precise plan for how the whole process will take place and what tactics to choose for influencing their employees. They have to choose a different tactic for younger employees and a different one for older ones, and defining the form and intensity of training is of course just one of many tasks that await leaders in implementing change in public administration, except for a positive example, creating a positive atmosphere or clearly defined goal that this change seeks to achieve. Peráček et al. (2017) points out that an important factor in the processes of change in the context of creating a knowledge environment and the ability to use ICT as a carrier of information and knowledge in the form of e-government is also the quality and professionalism of local authority staff measurable by, for example, educational attainment.

Conclusion

The article deals with defining the attributes of an ideal leader in public administration based on defining the importance of leadership and human resource management, which are key to the functioning of the organization in the private or public sector, so human resource management can be understood as a thoughtful, strategic and logical approach to managing the most valuable resources of the organization - people. It is crucial who leads these people to the proper functioning of the organization or group of people. We have therefore characterized the manager as a leader who represents certain personality traits that he has and can lead and influence people. We must emphasize that such a position is often misused by leaders to their advantage and is not followed by the fundamental ethical standards that are crucial and necessary in society. We analyzed the personality of the leader and described his qualities, which the ideal leader should have, and thus the theory of people management is closely related. We have characterized the changes that affect public law, and the basis for the adequate implementation of the changes is, in our opinion, the right leader who works properly with employees.

Therefore, we dedicated a special part to the style of leading people. We concretized and defined the classical styles of human leadership, contingency theories and especially the Fiedler model. Another of the styles is situation management, where we explained the Hersey-Blanchard model in more detail and as the last style we chose J. Adair's functional leadership.

Our effort was to point out the importance of managerial ethics and leadership, especially in a generally tense situation such as the introduction of change is undoubtedly.

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III. SECTION OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

SPORT DIPLOMACY WITHIN US INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL POLITICAL ACTIVITIES

Ivan ŠTULAJTER- Juraj KALICKÝ

Abstract

US international political activities and sport policy account for very closely related topics regarding the efforts of US citizens in this spheres. Presumably, sport as such plays a very important role in the US home as well as foreign policy not only recently, but it was also crucial in the past. This fact can be proved by, e.g. ping-pong or baseball diplomacy or, better to say, by making use of basketball during the long US history in order to enforce American values. The article is aimed at an integral role of sport, mainly in relation to a great number of immigrants to the US, wherein socialising processes are crucial. Furthermore, a level of transparency and significance of four aspects of sport policy incorporated in the US foreign policy will be taken into consideration, i.e. sport emissaries, visitors, grants and the enhancement of girls' as well as women's status achieved via American sport diplomacy.

Key words: *sport diplomacy, the United States of America, foreign policy, national activities, international activities, ping pong diplomacy*

1 US Sport Policy

Since the end of 19th century until now, professional and school sports served as the two most influential institutions for the nation and community building by helping to define national identity in that as it did Hollywood. Within a great nation and multi-ethnic nation, which experience immigration waves, the fight with racism, permanent economic changes, the role of sport cannot be ignored. Incidentally, sport helped the Americans eliminate the hardness of life. One of the key sport dimensions is contribution to the socialising and Americanisation of migrants and their children. For instance, professional box and basketball became an important tool to integrate immigrants into the American society, and people from diverse cultures were given a possibility to turn into icons of that society. Boxers such as John O'Sullivan, Jim Corbett, Benny Leonard, Rocky Marciano, baseball players like Joe DiMaggio and Hank Greenberg, became symbolic representatives, who proved the potential of Irish, Italians and

American Jews to achieve success and to be socially acceptable in the society in which they had been previously ignored and not fully accepted. (Naison, 2016)

Box and baseball produced exclusively American heroes that were Afro-Americans. Particularly these two sports at the Olympic Games in Berlin in 1936 and 1938 proved that those Afro-Americans fought for their national interests, thus celebrated their success as their own triumph. This step helped trainers at schools recruit Afro-American players to baseball and football teams, which helped to a change of political climate within the nation and sport integration. During the period of segregation since 1930 til 1940, the best basketball and baseball players were aware of the qualities of Afro-American players as the sport matches were won thanks to them. In the 30s, the legendary basketball team New York Celtics triumphed over and, at the same time, they were beaten by the Harlem Renaissance Five. Later the Harlem Globetrotter impressively won a majority of matches when confronted with professional teams. (ibid.)

Sport diplomacy confirmed itself to be an inseparable part of the US effort to enhance internal relations as well as the relations with other countries. The US started to make use of a universal passion for sport in order to unify the nations and to overcome language and socio-cultural differences. Generally speaking, sport improves team work, leadership, communications skills, and helps young people be successful in social life. US sport diplomacy serves for the bettering of cultural dialogue and deepening of mutual understanding among people across the world. The US uses sport as a platform to inform participants from abroad about American culture and, at the same time, it offers a possibility to form a link between American sport professionals and their colleagues from other countries.

On the other hand, young Americans are informed about other cultures and challenges young people face in those foreign countries. What is more, US sport is used to improve capabilities and skills of the young generation along with the improvement of their study skills. To achieve this, a US programme was set off in 2002 and since then thousands of participants from 140 countries have joined it. [5] A basis of this programme is incorporation and access to sport and has four pillars:

Sport emissaries – programme which sends Professional sportsperson abroad to set up sport camps and to participate in a dialogue on important life lessons such as education, knowledge, conflict solving, respect of diversity. Since 2005, the US Department of State has already sent 300 sport emissaries to more than 70 countries including Afghanistan, Burma, Japan, and Venezuela. Those emissaries were, e.g. Michelle Kwan, Carl Ripken Jr, and Ken Griffey Jr.

Sport visitors – represented by non-elite athletes and trainers coming to the US in order to participate in sport meetings and to get first-hand information on American culture and society. This programme provides young people with an opportunity to get know success in athletics transferred into the development of life skills and life success. Since 2003 more than 1100 young athletes and trainers from more than 140 countries have participated on this programme.

Sport grants – programme involving a yearly run competition for American non-profit organisations related to sport and non-elite young sportsmen at home and abroad. These grant programmes deal with topics such as Sport for social changes, Sport and health, Sport and physical disability. Between the years 2002 and 2012 this programme awarded around 90 grants for American non-profit organisations, which work in more than 60 countries.

Enhancement of the status of women and girls via sport initiatives – initiative began in February 2011 as a partnership between the U.S. Department of State and espnW. In order to increase the number of women and girls, the U.S. Department of State mobilises all the above-mentioned programmes. A cornerstone of this initiative is the Global Sports Mentoring Program, which unites women and girls from across the world with woman-managers or woman-representatives in the sport sector. In 2012 and 2014, 17 people participated in this programme. Between 2012 and 2014, women from 38 countries participated in it, which resulted in an action plan realised in a home country.

The US Department of State via Sports United division restarted the programming of sports in 2002, focusing on the Muslim community. In 2003 State Department brought to the US a group of Iraqi archery team in order to compete in the World Archery Championship. For the first time the programme of sport emissaries was realised in 2007 via the partnership between NBA and Reebok. In 2006 “World Cup Sports Initiative” pointed to huge efforts of sport diplomacy by at that time coming into existence a new Sports United Division.

This initiative brought to the US 30 young people from 13 countries in order to take part in the World Cup with a main motto: “the time to make friends“. This programme resulted in a visit of Germany where this archery team met with the team of the hosting country. Since then Sports United encompasses people from more than 100 countries met in sport events in order to highlight the ideas of sport diplomacy. [4]

One of the recent activities is Beyond Sports United. This activity is held every year focusing on the topics from professional sport, which are topical and relevant. In relation to the topic from 2014, which represented the involvement of young people via digital and social platforms, the year 2015 focused on a thorough insight: “Power of Sportspersons“. Sportspersons and sport

stars have a huge influence, and particularly this fact is fully realised in the US. There is still a question if sportspersons, leagues and clubs, can make use of it. [3]

In August 2016, another incorporation focused on diversity was realised wherein the biggest teams and leagues were united in order to make conversation on how to incorporate people into sport regardless of their origin, religion, or race. The founding partners MLB, MLS, NBA, NFL, NHL and WNBA once again confirmed their common resolution related to better understanding of how sports can be used to solve key social problems such as racism, homophobia, bullying, violence, nutrition, and the access to safe spaces. This was sponsored by Global Partners, Barclays, Time, UNICEF, National Partners, Equinox, Guardian, as well as official sponsors such as WWE and World Boxing Council. (Naison, 2016)

2 US International Activities

Sport diplomacy reflects the vision of the vice chairman Clinton as “intelligent diplomacy“, which contains the use of the whole series of diplomatic tools including those related to sport aimed at the unification of people and their mutual understanding. [9] It is one of the most important roles of sport emissaries¹ where the US is very effective in its application. For instance, the U.S. Department of State’s Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (ECA) in 2005 together with the US embassy to Nigeria, Senegal, Algeria and the NBA (the National Basketball Association) with their partner Reebok who sponsored basketball for young boys and girls in Africa. Each of the twelve thousands of children got a pair of trainers thanks to this partnership. What is more, sport emissary of NBA and basketball players Jim Jackson (Phoenix Suns) and Cynthia Cooper – a player of Women’s National Basketball Association from Houston Comets, joined a three-day camp where basketball rules and skills were presented. In that way they offered opportunities for African young generation to get involved into the dialogue with American players and coaches. [1] In 2011, the NBA legends Sam Perkins and Dikembe Mutombo travelled to South Sudan as sport emissaries to improve school and sport conditions within this country. [9]

In 2012, US sport emissaries-professional basketball players were sent to Burma in order to enhance cultural links and to highlight the importance of academics, cooperation and respect of diversity. [12] One of the important figures was Barry Larking – basketball star, who worked as a long-term US ambassador. He visited Ecuador in order to work together with young people over there on topics such as the respect of diversity, importance of health and academic results.

¹ The complete list of American sport emissaries: <http://eca.state.gov/programs-initiatives/sports-diplomacy/sports-envoys-and-sports-visitors/sports-and-public-diplomacy>

2.1 Ping Pong Diplomacy

An informal friendly interchange between the players of table tennis from the US and China signalled a *détenté* policy between those two countries and a new chapter of their diplomatic history. In 1971, the Chinese representatives unexpectedly invited the US table tennis team in order to join them with players from other countries when doing together sightseeing across China. When the US side accepted this offer, the US officials also invited Chinese table tennis representatives. Since then the media representatives started to use the term – ping pong diplomacy. [10] In case of Sino-American relations, the role of sport and sport exchanges was important as a crucial tool to support bilateral links. Hardly are there better examples how to make use of sport diplomacy as particularly ping pong diplomacy initiated in the 20th century when the US was involved in the Vietnam War and China had an ongoing cultural revolution. The bipolar political division of the world reflected the relationship between the US and China. Historically, when American table tennis players were invited to China, it can be concluded that it was ping pong diplomacy which helped to bring closer these two countries. In 1972 the Chinese table tennis team visited the US. Both these interchanges thus changed mutual of attitude both countries. (Orlins, 2012) Incidentally, those national sport teams exchanges opened a way and enabled US president Nixon to visit China in 1972, and in 1979 to establish diplomatic links between the US and China. [10] These events established trust in sport that it would play an important role in bilateral US-China relations. In the following decades the National Committee went on making use of sport diplomacy by sending or hosting teams in almost all kinds of sport.

Subsequently, this committee sent tennis players, swimmers, basketball players, and hosted volleyball and football teams as well as acrobats and martial art fighters from China on their tour across the US. It can be argued that nothing has influence more the American perspective on China than the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008, when the Americans got impressed by the opening ceremony as well as by the number of gold medals gained by Chinese sportspersons. According to Stephen Orlins (2012), it has been one of the most important relation in the world, since it is inevitable that both countries make use of the opportunities which the international sport interchange. Today, sportspersons have an ability to establish basis for peace and stability in Asia, as well as in the rest of the world. It is inevitable to highlight a unique role of sport in the relation of China and the US by pointing to the “ping heard round the world”.

2.2 Baseball

Baseball was for the first time marked as “national enjoyment“ in the 50s of 19th century. Since then this game tried to keep this status. In order to succeed in this activity, baseball activists attempted to join this sport game with the values American dream (especially the baseball league). This game was to be presented in connection with American patriotism and machismo especially in national war and interventions, e.g. it was in the US army where baseball was played while US soldiers intervened in the Caribbean and Pacific area, and Asia and, where baseball was a regular part of the American “civilisation mission“ abroad either economically or militarily. It exported American culture, thus playing an important role in the globalisation of the world. In US foreign policy, baseball is frequently termed as a nation’s “moral equivalent of war.” On the US territory, baseball was used in order to strengthen patriotism and nationalism. The United States of America has a long war history with a substantial and frequent involvement of baseball in it.

Baseball forms were already in practice during the American Revolution, played even by George Washington himself. Baseball was played during the war in 1812, when American played it in British military camps. It was also played in American Civil War. In WW2 baseball players represented “a vivid aspect of a military machine“, where those players became symbols of heroism. It was introduced not only because of military morale, but also because of military training during this world war when baseball “batting eye” was connected with “shooting eye,” and when baseball was used as a training method to throw grenades with a motto “That Arm, Your Country Needs It.”

The Ministry of War adopted a slogan “every American Soldier a baseball player.” Baseball was used for the goals of American foreign policy and for a very long time it has been now seen as a tool to maintain peace and diplomacy. To illustrate, during the decades of the Cold War conflicts between the US and Cuba, Peter Angelos and Baltimore Orioles proposed a baseball diplomacy with Cuba and its leader Fidel Castro in the 1980s. Although this proposal was rejected by the US Department of State, baseball series were respected and contributed to *détenté* policy between these two countries. (Elias, 2011)

Even uncovered documents from the year 1975 point to secret negotiations between the US and Cuba, about historical contests of baseball teams of both countries in Havana. National Security Archive revealed a collection of documents that detail the origin of baseball diplomacy, with opinions that baseball diplomacy could have removed and obstacles and political animosity between two nations in the same way as ping pong diplomacy did it between the US and China. American officials believed that the choice of sport activity in which Americans were able to

win, would encourage those Americans who were disappointed with the victories of communists at the Olympic Games. [2]

Conclusion

As presented above in the text of the article, sport definitely plays a major role not only in the US home, but in foreign policy as well. US international activities account for an extensive and almost ever present agenda in US history as well as in the contemporary period of US policy. This can be undoubtedly proved by ping pong or baseball diplomacy, which confirmed the importance of sport within the US society.

Sport diplomacy forms four key aspects of its interest: sport emissaries, sport visitors, sport bodies, sport grants and the enhancement of girls 'and women's status via sport initiatives. All four elements form a substantial element in creation of foreign policy. Sport emissaries create cultural awareness at home as well as abroad. They spread American culture, customs and values. On the other hand, sport visitors allow the presentation of other cultures and thus to encourage the attitude of tolerance among the nations of the world.

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