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Editoriál   Editorial

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. Je to vedecký recenzovaný časopis.

Prvá sekcia - **lingvistika** - bude tak ako aj doposiaľ venovaná potrebám a výsledkom výskumu v oblasti jazykovedy, didaktiky, svetovej literatúry a jazykového vzdelávania. Našim prvoradým 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

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, scholary 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, dischussions, 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

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I. LINGUISTIC SECTION

PROFESSIONELLE LERNGEMEINSCHAFTEN

Tomáš GODIŠ

Abstract

In der Pandemiezeit wurden die Lehrer vor eine große Herausforderung gestellt – nämlich ihren Studenten eine qualitätsvolle Bildung durch den virtuellen Raum also den online Unterricht zu vermitteln. Viele Pädagogen könnten sich dieser neuen Lehrsituation ohne größere Probleme anpassen - auch dank der Arbeit der sog. professionellen Lerngemeinschaft. Sie suchten in Kooperation mit ihren Kollegen – also gemeinsam – nach neuen Lösungen, Methoden und Vorgehensweisen, die es möglich machten den Unterricht so gut wie möglich zu realisieren. So konnten etliche Probleme behoben werden. Weil professionelle Lerngemeinschaften auch in der Slowakei immer mehr an Bedeutung gewinnen werden wir uns in folgendem Beitrag mit ihren Funktionen, Aufbau, Arbeitsvorgehensweisen sowie Vorteilen, näher befassen.

Schlüsselwörter

professionelle Lerngemeinschaft, E-Learning, pädagogische Weiterbildung, Innovation

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Die Pandemiezeit, veränderte die gewöhnte Lebensweise der Menschen vollständig. Es gibt heute kaum einen Bereich der menschlichen Tätigkeit, der von den Maßnahmen gegen Verbreitung des Corona-Virus nicht betroffen wären. Nicht nur Gesundheitswesen, Wirtschaft oder Kultur, sondern auch das Bildungswesen wurde in besonderer Weise betroffen. Die Institutionen der Bildung (Schulen, Universitäten und verschiedene Bildungsorganisationen) mussten infolge der eingeführten Maßnahmen für eine längere Zeit geschlossen bleiben und auf den sog. „Distanzunterricht", der komplett im virtuellem Bereich stattfand, oder „Hybridunterricht", der die Elemente des Präsenz- und Distanzunterrichts kombiniert, umsteigen. Diese Umstellung stellte für die Bildungsinstitutionen eine enorme Herausforderung dar. Sie wollten den Studenten nämlich auch weiterhin eine qualitätsvolle Ausbildung anbieten. Für einige Schulen bedeutete der Umstieg ins Virtuelle nur kleinere Schwierigkeiten (z.B. im Bereich der Organisation des Unterrichts), für andere war es mit größeren Problemen verbunden. Das erste Problem war die schlechte technische Ausrüstung von Schulen und leider auch von vielen Studenten. Alte Computer, inaktuelles Software und zu langsame Internetverbindung – das waren die größten technischen Probleme. Dabei ist gerade schnelle Internetverbindung und moderne Technik die wichtigste Voraussetzung für einen qualitätsvollen online Unterricht. Problematisch war jedoch auch die mangelnde oder ungenügende mediale Kompetenz der Lehrer. Das versuchte das slowakische Methodisch-pädagogische Zentrum (MPC) zu beheben, indem es den Pädagogen verschiedene Kurse, Schulungen und Workshops zur Steigerung des medialen Wissens angeboten hat. Hier konnten die Lehrer ihre mediale Kompetenz verbessern oder erweitern. Es hat sich jedoch gezeigt, dass Lehrer, die in sog. professionellen Lehrgemeinschaften gruppiert waren keine größeren Probleme mit dem Übergang zum online Unterricht hatten. Sie waren auf diese Situation gut vorbereitet. Mit professionellen Lerngemeinschaften an Schulen und deren Vorteile für den Unterrichtsprozess werden wir uns in den folgenden Zeilen näher befassen.

Professionelle Lerngemeinschaften (PLG)

Bei einer professionellen Lehrgemeinschaft handelt es sich um eine Gruppe gleichgesinnter Lehrer (z.B. Mathematiker, Physiker, Fremdsprachlehrer, Chemielehrer und anderen), die gemeinsam didaktische und pädagogische Probleme im Bildungsbereich angehen und die sich in ihrem Beruf weiter professionalisieren - also fachlich weiterbilden. Eine professionelle Lerngemeinschaft (auch professionelles Lernnetzwerk genannt) stellt also einen Weg für die Lösung verschiedener didaktischer Probleme dar und auch einen Ort fachlicher Weiterbildung der Lehrer. Die renommierten deutschen Didaktiker Bonsen und Rolff definieren eine professionelle Lerngemeinschaft wie folgt: *„Es handelt sich um eine Lehrer-Gruppe, die gemeinsam ihren Unterricht reflektiert und dabei das Ziel verfolgt, ihre eigene Unterrichtspraxis zu verbessern"* (Bonsen, Rolff 2006. S. 167). Huber und Hader-Popp verstehen unter professionellen Lerngemeinschaften: „Gruppen von Spezialisten mit Expertise in ihrer Profession und der Notwendigkeit, diese ständig zu aktualisieren und zu erweitern. Ihre systematische Kooperation führt zur Entwicklung von neuem Wissen, das geteilt und in die Ausübung der Profession eingebracht wird" (Huber, Hader-Popp 2008, S. 33).

Die Verbesserung der Lehrerpraxis bedeutet nicht nur bessere pädagogisch-didaktische Erfahrungen und Kompetenzen des Lehrers, sondern auch höhere Unterrichtsqualität. Wird der Unterricht besser, so verbessern sich auch die schulischen Leistungen der Studenten (Schüler). Und das ist das eigentliche Ziel einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft. Die Lehrer gruppieren sich in den Lehrgemeinschaften aber nicht nur um neue

Kenntnisse und Kompetenzen zu gewinnen oder gemeinsame Lösungen für entstandene Probleme des Bildungsalltags zu suchen, sondern auch um ihre eigenen Erfahrungen mit ihren Kollegen und Kolleginnen zu teilen. Eine professionelle Lerngemeinschaft kann man also auch als einen Ort der Professionalisierung verstehen, wo die neuesten Methoden und Vorgehensweisen im Unterricht anhand kooperativer Zusammenarbeit mit Kollegen vermittelt werden.

Das Konzept einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft ist jedoch nicht neu und wurde schon in den 90er Jahren von der amerikanischen Didaktikerin Rosenholtz beschrieben (vgl. Rosenholtz 1991. S. 86). Unter den Namen *„learning-enriched schools"* (ebd. S.87.) verstand Rosenholtz dabei Schulen, dessen Lehrer sich mit dem Ziel gruppierten ihre Lehrerfahrung zu vergrößern und ihre Lehrkompetenzen zu professionalisieren. Schon bei den ersten Versuchen die Lehrer in Gemeinschaften zu gruppieren und so ihre Kompetenzen zu verbessern wurde festgestellt, dass gegenseitige Kooperation und Hilfsbereitschaft aller Mitglieder zu wichtigen Errungenschaften der PLG gehören würden. Bonsen und Rolff fassen die Prinzipien einer PLG wie folgt zusammen (vgl. Bonsen, Rolff 2006. S. 167):

- Mitglieder der PLG arbeiten nach der Regel von-, für- und gemeinsam zu lernen;
- die Lehrer einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft einigen sich auf gemeinsame Ziele, die voraussetzen, dass sich die Unterrichtsqualität verbessert und der Unterricht für die Studenten effektiver und motivierender wird;
- der Lernprogress und Lernergebnisse der Studenten werden merklich besser;
- in einer PLG werden die gemeinsamen Praxen und die Anliegen ihrer Mitglieder reflektiert – alle Mitglieder sind gleichwertig;
- Praxiserfahrung, Fachinformationen und neueste Fachkenntnisse werden untereinander ausgetauscht;
- alle Mitglieder bekommen gleiche Möglichkeiten ihre didaktisch-pädagogische Kenntnisse oder Erfahrungen zu erweitern;
- es werden neue Strategien oder Pläne des Unterrichtens vorgeschlagen und diskutiert;
- praktische Auswirkungen eingesetzter Strategien, Vorgehensweisen oder Methoden werden analysiert und ausgewertet, Lösungen vorgeschlagen;
- die Lehrer schaffen sich Daten über Wirksamkeit ihrer Aktivitäten im Unterricht;
- negative wie positive Seiten des Unterrichtsprozesses werden erkannt und Vorschläge für Verbesserung vorgeschlagen;
- PLG ermöglichen jedes didaktisch-pädagogische Problem anzugehen und es kooperativ mit Fachkollegen zu lösen;
- vertrauensvolle Zusammenarbeit aller Mitglieder der PLG vermindert Stress am Arbeitsplatz und schafft auch Arbeitsbelastung ab;

- die Schulleitung muss die PLG voll unterstützen und Bedingungen zum Generieren von neuem Wissen sowie Erwerb neuer Kompetenzen, Fertigkeiten und Strategien schaffen.

Eine professionelle Lerngemeinschaft ist ein freiwilliger Verbund der Lehrer, welcher aufgrund der Initiative einer Lehrergruppe oder der Schulleitung konstituiert wird. Damit die neu gegründete PLG gut arbeiten kann, muss sie von allen schulischen Strukturen (Schulleitung, Lehrerkollegen aber auch Eltern der Schüler) anerkannt und unterstützt werden. Vor allem die Schulleitung muss der Lerngemeinschaft die professionelle Entwicklung ihrer Mitglieder ermöglichen und Bedingungen auf der persönlichen sowie organisatorisch-strukturellen Ebene schaffen (vgl. Frank 2011. S.13).

1. **Bedingungen auf der persönlicher Ebene**: die Mitglieder einer PLG sehen sich als Lernende, die in einer permanenten kooperativen Zusammenarbeit mit Kollegen und Kolleginnen einen Mehrwert nicht nur für sich, sondern auch für ihre Studenten und gesamte Bildungsinstitution sehen. Sie sind auch dazu bereit Erfahrungen und Wissen mit anderen zu teilen und von Erfahrungen anderer zu lernen.

2. **Bedingungen auf der organisatorisch-strukturellen Ebene:** die Schulleitung muss die PLG in die Zeitstruktur des Schulbetriebs eingliedern und Zeitfenster für regelmäßige Treffen aller teilnehmenden Lehrern ermöglichen. Die Weiterbildung erfordert auch Schulungen zu absolvieren - diese sollten den Mitgliedern ebenso ermöglicht werden. Zu einer wichtigen Voraussetzung gehört auch die materielle Unterstützung. Daher sollte der PLG auch ein selbständiger Raum und klassische Büroausstattung (Computer, Drucker, Flipchart, Beamer, Papier und weiteres nötiges Material) zur Verfügung stehen.

Der Erfolg einer PLG hängt nicht nur in der allgemeinen Akzeptanz des Schulumfeldes oder Unterstützung seitens der Schulleitung, sondern vielmehr im gewählten didaktisch-pädagogischen Wirkungsbereich. Nach dem Wirkungsbereich und Zielen werden laut Frank folgende Typen der Lerngemeinschaften unterscheiden (vgl. Frank 2011 s. 10):

Fachlich gebundene PLG: ist auf ein konkretes Fachbereich (z.B. Fremdsprache, Naturwissenschaften, Sportfächer usw.) gerichtet. Zu ihren Aufgaben gehört es sich mit neuen Methoden und Vorgehensweisen im Unterricht sowie mit Lösung der fachspezifischen Probleme zu beschäftigen.

Fachübergreifende PLG: orientiert sich auf das fachübergreifende Unterrichten. Sie fokussiert auf die Inklusion, Binnendifferenzierung, allgemeine didaktischen Methoden und Vorgehensweisen (z.B. Methoden des Problem- oder Projektunterrichts) oder Verknüpfung didaktischer Spezifika verschiedener Fachrichtungen.

PLG zur schulinterner Koordination und Schulentwicklung: im Vordergrund steht interne Organisation des Schulalltags, Partizipation an dem Unterricht, das Schulprogramm und Planung verschiedener Schulaktivitäten (z.B. Exkursion, Theatervorstellung …) aber auch gemeinsame Zusammenarbeit bei Verbesserung des Unterrichtsablaufs.

Schulübergreifende PLG: fokussiert auf die Kooperation zwischen einzelnen Bildungsgraden (Primär- und Sekundarstufe), Partnerschulen (z.B. Hospitation zwischen Kollegen) oder Projektvorhaben (z.B. Projekt „Ökologische Schule").

PLG zur außerschulischen Koordination: ist auf die Zusammenarbeit zwischen der Bildungsinstitution und ihren außerschulischen Partnern fokussiert. Es kann dabei z.B. um Entwicklung neuer Studienpläne unter Zusammenarbeit von Fachleuten oder Experten aus der Praxis gehen (z.B.: Entwurf des Studienplans für die Entwicklung spezifischer medialen Kenntnisse), Nutzung spezieller Lernorte oder Studienmittel des Partners (im Fachbetrieb – Maschinen, Technik und andere), Entwicklung der Projekte mit einem außerschulischen Partner.

Arbeitsorganisation in einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft

Bei der Konstituierung einer PLG muss auch ihre personelle Aufstellung und Arbeitsverlauf bestimmt werden. Die Mitgliederzahl ist nicht limitiert und kann theoretisch alle Pädagogen einer Schule involvieren. Die Gruppe sollte von einem oder mehreren Vorsitzenden, die von allen Mitgliedern auf eine bestimmte Dauer gewählt werden, geführt werden. Die Leitung kann jedoch auch auf dem rotierenden Vorsitz beruhen, wo sich alle Mitglieder automatisch nach gewisser Zeit abwechseln.

Der Vorsitzende hat gegenüber von anderen „einfachen" Mitgliedern spezifische Aufgaben. Er organisiert die Treffen der Gruppe, bereitet alle Unterlagen vor, stellt den Arbeitsplan der Treffen auf, stellt auch eigene Ideen und Initiativen den anderen Mitgliedern vor und kommuniziert intensiv mit der Schulleitung (Er ist also ein Vermittler zwischen der Gruppe und der Schulleitung). Weil eine PLG in slowakischem Schulsystem noch nicht offiziell eingegliedert ist, kann sie keine Entscheidungen durchsetzen, die eine wesentliche Veränderung des Schulbetriebs bedeuten würde. Daher müssen alle Vorschläge zur Änderung des Unterrichtsverfahrens, Schulungen oder Lösungen diverser Probleme mit der Schulleitung abgesprochen und erst nach dieser Absprache auch real im Unterricht eingeführt (appliziert) werden. Wichtige Voraussetzung für gute Arbeit der PLG ist, dass sich die Lerngruppe regelmäßig trifft, Aufgaben klar verteilt sind, und alle Mitglieder bereit sind zusammen zu kommunizieren sowie zu kooperieren. Laut des Didaktikers Newmann muss die Kooperation in einer PLG auf folgenden Kriterien basieren (Newmann 1994. S. 3):

- reflektierender Dialog
- De-privatisierung der Praxis(erfahrung)
- Fokus auf das Lernen des Studenten
- gemeinsame Werte und Normen
- beidseitige Bereitschaft zur Zusammenarbeit

Arbeitsphasen einer PLG

Eine PLG arbeitet von ihrer Gründung praktisch ununterbrochen und kreisförmig – ihre Arbeit endet mit dem Erreichen des definierten Zieles nicht. Die PLG stellt also ein Instrument dar, welches zum Erreichen definierter Vorhaben führt. Wenn diese erreicht werden, können weitere Vorhaben gestellt werden. Die wichtigste Aufgabe ist die Verbesserung der Qualität des Unterrichtsprozesses. Die Didaktiker Hintzler, Mehlin und Weckowski haben die Arbeitsphasen einer PLG wie folgt beschrieben (siehe Abb. 1) (vgl. Hintzler, Mehlin, Weckowski 2014. S.6):
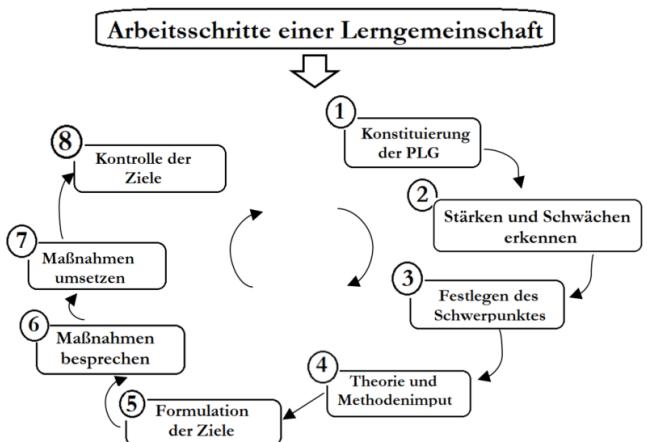
***Abb1:** Arbeitsschritte in einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft*

1. **Konstituierung der PLG** – bei der Konstituierung einer PLG muss ihr künftiger Wirkungsbereich (Anwendungsbereich) definiert werden und auch die teilnehmenden Lehrerteams. Es können Jahrgangsteams (Lehrer verschiedener Fachrichtungen, die jedoch auf einen konkreten Jahrgang zielen), Fachteams (Lehrer gleicher Fachrichtung –Fremdsprachlehrer, Mathematiker und Physiker) oder fachübergreifende Teams (Lehrer aller Fachrichtungen, die auf alle Jahrgänge gezielt sind) kreiert werden. Es muss auch geklärt werden ob in den Teams Pädagogen einer oder mehreren Schulen teilnehmen. Bei der Konstituierung muss auch die personelle und strukturelle Organisation der PLG (also Funktionen, Aufgaben, Projekten) geklärt werden.

2. **Stärken und Schwächen benennen** – Analyse der Stärken und Schwächen zeigt, wo es Problembereiche im Sinne des Unterrichts- oder Organisationsprozesses einer oder mehreren teilnehmenden Bildungsinstitutionen gibt. Diese Analyse ist auch eine Basis, die zur Bestimmung des zukünftigen Wirkungsbereiches und Ziels dient und auch einen Überblick über Qualitäten sowie Erfahrungen die, die einzelnen Mitglieder der Lerngemeinschaft anbieten verschafft.

3. **Die Bestimmung des Entwicklungsschwerpunktes** – dieser sollte nach einer ausführlichen Diskussion und Einigung aller Teilnehmer der PLG bestimmt werden. Die Entwicklung beruht langfristig nicht nur auf der Weiterbildung und Erweiterung der Lehrerfahrung, sondern auch auf der Entwicklung der Bildungsinstitution selbst. Wie Frank betont: *„eine PLG soll den Transfer ihrer Erfahrungen in das Kollegium organisieren und damit zur Basis einer ständigen Entwicklung schaffen"* (Frank 2011, S. 9)

4. **Theorie und Methodeninput:** Nachdem sich die Gruppe auf einen Entwicklungsschwerpunkt geeinigt hat, ist es nötig theoretische Fragen oder methodische Vorgehensweisen zu klären. Dazu gehört auch, dass die Kenntnisse über die neuesten Methoden oder modernste Vorgehensweisen erweitert werden. Es können Schulungen oder Workshops für Teilnehmer der Gruppe organisiert werden.

5. **Ziele formulieren:** Es werden konkrete Ziele formuliert. Hierfür wird die sog. SMART – Methode benutzt. Ziele müssen also SMART werden: S–spezifisch, M–messbar, A–ausführbar, R–realistisch und T–terminiert (vgl. Frank 2011. S.16). :

Spezifisch: es werden spezifische Ziele gewählt, die das Unterrichtsvorhaben reflektieren. Die Ziele müssen konkret und klar formuliert werden.
(Falsche Formulierung: Wir wollen verstärkt anschauliches Material im Grammatikunterricht des Deutschen einsetzen.
Richtige Formulierung: Wir wollen anschauliche Grafiken, Tabellen und visuelles Material, das auf grammatische Strukturen des Deutschen fokussiert ausarbeiten und im Grammatikunterricht einsetzen.

Messbar: Ziele müssen so formuliert werden, dass sie z.B. anhand der Lernprodukte der Studenten (z.B. Projekte, Referate, Essays, Tests oder Prüfungen) gemessen werden können.

Akzeptiert: Alle formulierten Ziele werden nicht nur von allen Mitgliedern der Lerngemeinschaft, sondern auch der Schulleitung anerkannt und bewilligt. Eine wichtige Voraussetzung ist, dass alle Ziele mit den verfügbaren Ressourcen auch real erreicht werden können.

Realistisch: alle vorgeschlagenen Methoden sowie Vorgehensweisen sind erprobt worden und können ohne Einschränkungen in den Unterricht an konkreter Schule und durch konkrete Lehrkräfte integriert werden.

Terminiert: es wird eine Zeitspanne bestimmt innerhalb welcher das Unterrichtsvorhaben also das Oberziel und alle Un-

terziele realisiert werden müssen. Einzelne Ziele sollten immer durch ein konkretes Enddatum limitiert werden. Die Zeitspanne muss jedoch realistisch sein, damit die Ziele auch real erreicht werden können.
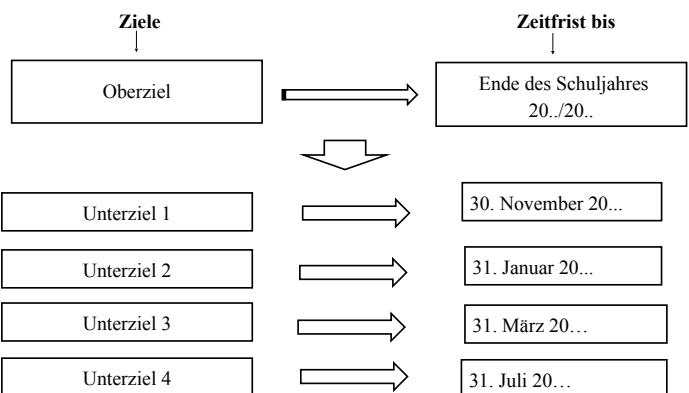
Abb2: Terminierung der Ziele

6. **Maßnahmen absprechen:** es werden einzelne Schritte besprochen, die bei praktischer Umsetzung zur erfolgreichen Erfüllung des Unterrichtsvorhabens führen. Bei Bestimmung einzelner Schritte (Maßnahmen) ist es nötig folgende Fragen zu beantworten: (vgl. Hintzler, Mehlin, Weckowski 2014. S. 9)

- Knüpft die vorgeschlagene Maßnahme an tatsächliche Gegebenheit an?
- Welche Lehrkraft geht in welchem Fach und in welcher Gruppe wie vor?
- Wie ist die Maßnahme terminiert?
- Welche Kriterien müssen zur erfolgreichen Realisierung der Maßnahme erfüllt werden?
- Auf welche Weise können andere Fachrichtungen (Fächer) oder Kollegen einbezogen werden?

7. **Umsetzung der Maßnahmen:** Alle geplanten Schritte (Maßnahmen) und Ziele werden laut Besprechungen und Planung praktisch umgesetzt. In dieser Phase – Phase der Realisierung – werden auch gegenseitige Hospitationen durchgeführt mit dem Ziel eventuelle Ungereimtheiten, Probleme oder Schwierigkeiten festzustellen und zu beheben. Dazu müssen auch Lernprodukte der Studenten gesammelt werden (z.B.: Referate, Projekte, Essays und andere), die im nächsten Schritt (Nr. 8 - Zielkontrolle) genau untersucht und ausgewertet werden.

8. **Ziele überprüfen:** Nach der Phase der Realisierung werden die gegenseitigen Hospitationen sowie studentische Lernprodukte oder Prüfungen ausgewertet. Nach den Ergebnissen werden dann Erfolge oder Misserfolge beim Erfüllen der Zeile konstatiert. Falls die Ziele nicht erreicht worden sind, werden Ursachen hierfür gesucht

und beschrieben. Unter Berücksichtigung dieser Ursachen wird dann überprüft, ob ein neuer Entwicklungsschwerpunkt definiert oder die bisherige Zielformulierung verändert werden muss (und damit auch neue Maßnahmen formuliert werden) um das Ziel doch noch zu erreichen.

Falls in aktueller Zeitperiode alle gestellten Ziele und Unterrichtsvorhaben erfolgreich erreicht werden, können für die neue Zeitperiode neue Ziele und Unterrichtsvorhaben aufgestellt werden. Die Teilnehmer einer PLG versuchen so viele Schwächen und Probleme im Bildungsprozess zu beheben wie nur möglich ist.

Die Gründung einer PLG bringt viele Vorteile nicht nur für den Lehrer und den Studenten, sondern auch für die Bildungsinstitution selbst. Die wichtigsten Vorteile fast der amerikanische Didaktiker Hord wie folgt zusammen (Hord 1997. S. 29):

Vorteile der PLG:
- Erweiterung der didaktischen Fachkompetenz der Pädagogen (sie erlernen neue Methodik, modernes Unterrichtsverfahren und entwickeln ihr Fachwissen);
- Lehrkräfte bieten ihren Studenten einen qualitätsvollen Unterricht, welcher auf neuesten und modernsten Methoden basiert;
- Pädagogen können die individuellen Lernbedürfnisse der Studenten besser reflektieren;
- kooperative Zusammenarbeit der Kollegen schafft eine angenehme Arbeitsatmosphäre und schwächt den Stresspotential (z.B. werden Probleme gemeinsam im Kollegium gelöst – der Lehrer bekommt bei seiner Arbeit größere Unterstützung);
- bessere Arbeitsatmosphäre und gemeinsame Kooperation unter Kollegen vermeidet den Burnout-Effekt;
- die Pädagogen werden sich der Wichtigkeit der eigenen Lehrer-Rolle bei Unterstützung der Studenten bewusst;
- die Lehrer sind offen für systematische Veränderungen und sind bereit diese mitzugestalten und auch mitzutragen;

Schlusswort

Die Pandemie hat viele langfristig ungelöste Probleme im Bildungsbereich aufgedeckt. Einerseits handelt es sich um technische und organisatorische Schwierigkeiten mit denen viele Bildungsinstitutionen (Schulen, Universitäten, Bildungskreise …) zu kämpfen haben, anderseits um gravierende Schwierigkeiten in didaktischer und medialer Kompetenz der Pädagogen. Das Kompetenzproblem kann unter anderem auch durch Konstituierung einer professionellen Lerngemeinschaft gelöst werden. In der Lerngemeinschaft kann der Lehrer in angenehmer Atmosphäre durch kooperative Zusammenarbeit mit seinen Kollegen nicht nur seine eigene Lehrerfahrung professionalisieren, sondern auch eigenes Lehrwissen an seine Kollegen vermitteln. In der PLG werden aber auch die neuesten und modernsten Lehrtechniken, Methoden und Vorgehensweisen im Unterricht gelernt und verschiedene didaktisch-pädagogische Probleme des Unterrichtsalltags gemeinsam angegangen und gelöst. So kann nicht nur Lehrkompetenz der Lehrer professionalisiert, sondern auch der Unterrichtsprozess qualitativ verbessert werden, was Hand in Hand mit Verbesserung den schulischen Leistungen geht. Obwohl eine PLG viele Vorteile mit sich bringt, ist sie bis heute kein fester Bestandteil der Schulstruktur. Das sollte sich unbedingt ändern. Die Kompetenten werden also dazu aufgerufen solche Bedingungen zu schaffen, dass in der Zukunft auf jeder Bildungsinstitution eine PLG standartmäßig tätig sein kann.

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MOTIVATON - BEDINGUNGSFAKTOR DES LERNERFOLGS

Zuzana KOČIŠOVÁ

Abstrakt

Motivierte Studierende leisten mehr. Aber was kann sie dazu bewegen, mehr zu leisten? Welche sind die inneren Beweggründe der Studierenden, die sie zum Lernen motivieren, und welche äußeren motivationsfördernden Faktoren können ihre Leistung beeinflussen? Mit diesen Fragen befassen wir uns in dem vorgelegten Beitrag.

Schlüsselwörter

Motivation, intrinsische Lernmotivation, extrinsische Lernmotivation, Eigenmotivation, Fremdmotivation, Autonomie, Interesse, Aufmerksamkeit

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Einleitung

Unsere Studierende erbringen unterschiedliche Leistungen. Manche sind engagierte junge Menschen, die wirklich „wissen wollen", die gute Ergebnisse erzielen. Sie wollen wachsen, sich entwickeln. Anderseits gibt es auch solche Studierende, die lustlos wirken und deren Arbeitsleistung besser sein könnte. Die Faktoren, die diese unterschiedlichen Arbeitsleistungen der Studierenden beeinflussen, sind einerseits ihre zu Beginn des Kurses vorhandenen Fähigkeiten, Kenntnisse, Lernstrategien, andererseits sind es ihre in die Aufgaben investierte Anstrengung, ihre Lernbereitschaft. Entscheidend für den Lernerfolg ist Motivation, die sowohl von den Lernenden selbst, von ihrer Persönlichkeit, ihren Vorkenntnissen, als auch von ihrem sozialen und kulturellen Kontext, von ihrer schulischen Umgebung ausgeht. Motivation geht auch von den externen Faktoren aus, die für eine effektive Wissensvermittlung von großer Bedeutung sind. Zu diesen Faktoren gehören z. B. die Persönlichkeit des Lehrenden und seine Entscheidungen, sowie die Lernsituation, die die Lernmotivation der Lernenden sowohl positiv, als auch negativ beeinflussen können, was sich unmittelbar auf die Leistungsfähigkeit der Studierenden auswirkt.

Motivation

Dieter Euler (2008) ist der Meinung, dass Menschen lernen wollen, wenn ihre individuellen Motive mit den Anreizen der Lernsituation zusammenpassen. Motive sind nach ihm Dispositionen, die durch Anreize in einer Situation aktiviert werden und die sich in äußerlich sichtbarem, das heißt motiviertem Verhalten zeigen. Zum Beispiel: Ein Studierender, der bis jetzt kein großes Engagement im Deutschunterricht gezeigt hatte, hat im Urlaub ein nettes Mädchen aus der Schweiz kennengelernt. Um sich mit ihr per E-Mail besser verständigen zu können, fing er an, sich für die deutsche Sprache mehr zu interessieren. Das Motiv ist klar. Und die Motivation entspricht folgender Definition: „Motivation ist also ein Prozess, in dem Menschen ihre von individuell geprägten Bedürfnissen und Werten produzierte Energie auf ein Ziel hinlenken." (Stroebe, Stroebe, 1999).

Auf der Suche nach dem Ursprung des Wortes Motivation, findet man bei Reinhard K. Sprenger das lateinische in movitum ire, das so viel bedeutet, wie: in das einsteigen, was (den Menschen) bewegt. (Sprenger, 2002: 21-22). Motivation ist das Ergebnis eines Zusammenspiels von verschiedenen Faktoren. Bisher gibt es keine einheitliche Definition des Begriffs Motivation. Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon definiert die Motivation als Zustand einer Person, der sie dazu veranlasst, eine bestimmte Handlungsalternative auszuwählen, um ein bestimmtes Ergebnis zu erreichen und der dafür sorgt, dass diese Person ihr Verhalten hinsichtlich Richtung und Intensität beibehält. Die Richtung gibt dabei an, warum die Lernenden das eine und nicht das andere tun, wobei hier (wie wir schon wissen) Motive und Bedürfnisse eine Rolle spielen. Ein Ziel wird mit einer gewissen Intensität angestrebt. Die auf ein Ziel gerichtete Handlung wird durch eine gewisse Willenskraft und Ehrgeiz unterstützt. Bei vor allem langfristigen Zielen ist auch die Ausdauer von Bedeutung.

Nach dem kognitiv- rationalen Motivationsmodel von Weinberger und Fischer (2004) besteht Motivation aus vier Faktoren: Situation, Handlung, Ergebnis und Folgen.

Intrinsische und extrinsische Lernmotivation

Gute Leistungen der Studierenden hängen signifikant von einer hohen intrinsischen Motivation, von einer hohen Arbeitszufriedenheit und einer hohen Identifikation mit dem gewählten Studienfach ab. Intrinsisch motivierte Studierende lernen wegen eines inneren Bedürfnisses, weil sie der Lernstoff interessiert, weil er ihnen Spaß macht, weil sie befriedigt. Sie wollen sich selbst verwirklichen, dazulernen. Zu den wichtigsten intrinsischen Motiven gehören Neugier, Wissensdrang.

Bei intrinsischer Motivation ist der Anreiz bereits gegeben. Beim Interesse erfährt der Lerngegenstand eine hohe subjektive Wertschätzung. (Krapp, 1993).

Hannelore Josuks (2002) unterscheidet zwischen der primären Motivation, die ausschließlich auf die Sache selbst gerichtet ist, und der sekundären Motivation, die sich auf mehrere Bereiche

erstreckt, um das eigentliche Ziel erreichen zu können. Weiterhin spricht sie von der Eigenmotivation (durch die Person selbst) und von der Fremdmotivation (durch andere Personen). Nach Spitzer (1996) wird die individuelle Motivation von verschiedenen Faktoren beeinflusst

Er nennt folgende:

- aktive Teilnahme und Interaktionsmöglichkeiten,
- Spaß am Umgang mit dem Lernmaterial,
- Wahlmöglichkeiten im Lernsystem,
- Möglichkeit zur sozialen Interaktion,
- Fehlertoleranz und Verzicht auf demotivierende Befragung,
- Positiv formuliertes Richtmaß für Lernerfolg,
- Begleitende Rückmeldung,
- Herausforderungsgrad des Stoffs,
- Anerkennung des Lernfortschritts.

Es ist wichtig, dass die Studierenden an ihre eigenen Fähigkeiten und Stärken glauben.

Extrinsische Lernmotivation der Studierenden kommt von außen heraus. Sie folgt einem Zwang (z.B. dem Zeitdruck oder der Angst vor der Prüfung), oder einem äußeren positiven Anreiz. Es können z.B. Anerkennung, gute Noten, Lob, Abschlüsse, oder eine andere Form der Belohnung sein.

Stimulierung der Lernmotivation durch die Lehrenden

Hier stellt sich die Frage, wie können wir, Lehrende, die Studierenden unterstützen, sich selbst zu motivieren? Motivieren können wir nur, wenn wir selbst motiviert sind. Wollen wir bei den Studierenden ein spezifisches Verhalten stärken, müssen wir im Kontakt mit ihnen dieses Verhalten selbst zeigen. Ohne Motivation wird dem Lerngegenstand keine Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt. Die kann man durch verschieden didaktisch-methodische Maßnahmen erzielen. Als Beispiel kann man eine wirkungsvolle und ansprechende Gestaltung des Kurses nennen. Aufmerksamkeit kann durch einen guten Einstieg in das zu besprechende Thema geweckt werden, der sie neugierig macht. Es können anregende Fragen sein, oder eine mit dem Thema der Lehrveranstaltung zusammenhängende Geschichte, usw. Durch einen kurzen Austausch kann man gleich beim Einstieg das Vorwissen der Studierenden aktivieren, was ihre Aufmerksamkeit stärken kann. Lerngegenstand, also das, was in der Veranstaltung zu lernen ist, sollte in die Sprache der Studierenden gebracht werden. Interesse der Studierenden kann auch durch Praxisbeispielen, durch eigene Erfahrungen der Lehrperson, sowie durch eine gewisse Begeisterung bei Vermittlung der Inhalte gestärkt werden. Angebracht ist es auch, den Studierenden zu verdeutlichen, welche Relevanz das Gelernte für sie hat. Wenn die Studierenden wissen, warum sie etwas lernen sollen, wenn sie einen Wert in der von ihnen übernommenen Aufgabe erkennen, ihren Sinn begreifen und sich in der Lage fühlen, die Aufgabe zu bewältigen, sind sie konzentrierter, engagierter.

Sie stören auch weniger. Wir wissen, dass man weniger Wissen erwirbt, wenn man sich mit einem Lerngegenstand nur oberflächlich befasst, als wenn man sich mit voller Konzentration und störungsfrei der Sache widmet.

Damit sich bei den Studierenden eine intrinsische Motivation entwickeln kann, müssen nach E. L. Deci und R. M. Ryan (1985) folgende psychologische Grundbedürfnisse befriedigt werden:

- das Bedürfnis nach Autonomie
  (Studierende bestimmen den Weg zum Lernergebnis selbst)
- das Bedürfnis nach Kompetenzerleben
  (Studierende können die Aufgaben selbständig lösen)
- das Bedürfnis nach sozialer Eingebundenheit
  (Studierende haben ein stabiles, vertrauensvolles soziales Umfeld)

Wenn es die Rahmenbedingungen zulassen, sollten die Lehrenden den Studierenden die Wahlmöglichkeiten bieten, ob sie z. B. bei der Aufgabelösung allein oder zu zweit, bzw. in Gruppen arbeiten möchten. Das Gefühl, dazu zu gehören und gebraucht zu werden, hat eine große Bedeutung für die Motivation der Studierenden und damit für das Selbstverständnis, mit dem sie in einem sozialen Gefüge interagieren. In der Problembearbeitung sollten ihnen Spielräume verbleiben, selbständig und schöpferisch tätig zu sein und sich auf die Nutzung unterschiedlicher Lösungswege zu beziehen. Manchmal ist es gut (wenn es die Lehrveranstaltung ermöglicht), sie zu lassen, ihr Lerntempo selbst zu bestimmen. Sehr motivierend sind Erfolgserlebnisse. Immer wieder zu scheitern ist frustrierend und kaum motivierend. Nichts frustriert mehr, als zu spüren, dass man etwas nicht kann. Man soll die Studierenden spüren lassen, dass sie etwas gelernt haben. Fortschritte sind kleine motivierende Erfolge, die anspornen, weiterzumachen, mehr zu üben, über sich zu wachsen. Die Aufgaben sollten die Studierenden fordern, deshalb sollten sie angemessen sein und von den Studierenden als herausfordernd wahrgenommen werden. Das problemlösende Lernen, bei dem man selber nachdenken muss und neue Wege finden muss, führt zu mehr Motivation.

Mit Blick auf die Attributionstheorie, die erklärt, wie Menschen ihr eigenes Verhalten und das Verhalten anderer wahrnehmen und interpretieren, ist davon auszugehen, dass erfolgsmotivierte Studierende in höherem Maße ein aktivitätsförderndes und ihr Selbstwertgefühl stabilisierendes Attribuierungskonzept haben als die misserfolgsmotivierten. (Euler, 2008).

Manfred Prenzel (1997) hat sich mit der Demotivation der Lernenden beschäftigt. Nach ihm liegt die Demotivation dann vor, wenn die vorhandene Lernmotivation durch fremde Eingriffe oder Maßnahmen reduziert wird.

Verantwortlich dafür ist in den meisten Fällen das Verhalten von uns, den Lehrenden. Wir kontrollieren manchmal viel mehr, als wir müssten. Die Ursache liegt oft in dem fehlenden Vertrauen in die Lösungskompetenz der Studierenden. Der Lehrende sollte nicht jeden Arbeitsschritt kontrollieren und bewerten.

Demotivierend wirkt auch, wenn der Lehrende kein Interesse zeigt und das Gefühl vermittelt, die eigene Zeit zu vergeuden oder wenn der Lehrende selbst das Thema uninteressant findet und es auch als solches präsentiert. Manchmal reicht ein vielsagendes Lächeln, unwirsches Unterbrechen, eine kleine nonverbale Geste des Nichtbeachtens, die Haltungen des Besserwissers, um die Studierenden zu demotivieren.

Prenzel (2000) verweist auch auf motivationsfördernde Bedingungen. Es sind folgende:

- die inhaltliche Relevanz des Lernstoffes (z.B. praktische Anwendungsbezüge);
- die Instruktionsqualität (z. B. klare Struktur und Verständlichkeit);
- das erkennbare Interesse beim Lehrenden (z.B. Repräsentiert der Lehrende als Person, was er von den Lernenden fordert?).

Als motivationsfördernd hat sich auch Respekt vor den Studierenden bewiesen, oder ermutigendes Feedback zu geben oder zu vermeiden, dass sich die Studierenden mit anderen vergleichen (z.B.: Wie schneide ich wohl im Vergleich zu meinen Kommilitonen ab?).

Schlusswort

Zum Schluss möchte ich die Worte von Prof. Dr. Dieter Euler zitieren: „Motivierende Lernumgebungen erfordern Aufgaben, an denen die Lernenden wachsen können, Vorbilder, an denen sie sich orientieren können, und Gemeinschaften, in denen sie sich wohlfühlen." (Euler, 2008: 7) Das Geheimnis der Selbstmotivation kann in dem bestehen, dass wir uns die Frage beantworten, was für uns wirklich wichtig ist. Wenn wir in dem, was wir tun, den Sinn erkennen, kommen auch Freude, Engagement und Erfolg. Zu wissen, wofür wir etwas tun ist ein großer Schritt zur eigenen Motivation.

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SCHWACHE DEKLINATION UND SCHWÄCHUNG MIT HINBLICK AUF FACHSPRACHENUTERRICHT

Tomas MAIER

Abstract

Im korrekten Erlernen der deutschen Sprache stellen die Nomina mit Flexion auf -{e}n einen bedeutenden Platz. Dies gilt vor allem für die Sprachübungen an den Hochschulen und Universitäten mit Hauptfach Betriebswirtschaft. Etymologie dieser Wörter kann manchen Studenten behilflich sein, sich die Sprache besser und bewusster anzueignen. Die schwachen Wörter machen zwar den Studenten kein besonderes Problem. Können aber einen Moment der Unsicherheit bei einer internationalen Präsentation mit sich bringen.

Schlüsselwörter

schwach, Deklination, Substantiv, Fachdeutsch, Universität, Betriebs- wirtschaft

Abstract

In correct study the German language creates the nominee with Flexion on - {e}n a meaningful place. This applies to all language courses at colleges and universities with a major discipline business. The etymology of these words can help some students become better and more aware of the language. The weak words do not pose a particular problem for the students. But can bring a moment of uncertainty with an international presentation.

Keywords

weak, declension, noun, technical German, university, business administration

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Für das Thema der *n-Deklination* entschied sich der Autor vor allem wegen der Frequenz, mit der sich ähnliche Worte beim Unterrichten der Hochschulstudenten der ökonomischen Richtungen häufen und ihre Erklärung erfordern.

Die schwache Deklination macht zwar den Studenten keine größeren Probleme, es hängt damit zusammen, dass diese Substantive weniger in der täglichen Sprache auftauchen und noch weniger in einem anderen Kasus als Nominativ. Trotzdem sollten die Lernenden darauf gefasst werden, dass sie auf diese stoßen werden können. Dazu entdeckten wir mehrmals in der sprachlichen Praxis, dass es vor allem bei den südlichen Dialekten zu einer Tendenz einer Schwächung des Singulars der Feminina kommen kann, was überraschend war und den Anreiz für näheres Studium dieser Merkmale schaffte.

Die Kategorisierung der schwachen Deklination der Substantive

Nominativ Singular auf *-e* bildet die Grundform bei den schwachen Substantiven wie *Verdächtige, Lotze, Dicke, Fremde* und Volks- und Staatsangehörige (Engel 1996: 505):

Muster: 1.1 *der* **Knabe**

N	der Junge	die Jungen
G	des Jungen	der Jungen
D	dem Jungen	den Jungen
A	den Jungen	die Jungen

Muster: 1.2 *der* **Mensch**

der Slawist
des Slawisten
dem Slawisten
den Slawisten

Ähnlich geht es den entnommenen Wörter wie *Slawist* oder *Student* (fremden Ursprungs wie Exponent, Prominent u. ä.).

Eine Ausnahme bildet der Ungar (Mensch) mit **-n:**

Neutrum **Herz**

N	der Ungar die Ungarn	das Herz die Herzen / Herze
G	des Ungarn der Ungarn	des Herzens / Herzes der Herzen / Herze
D	dem Ungarn den Ungarn	dem Herzen / Herz den Herzen
A	den Ungarn die Ungarn	das Herz die Herzen / Herze

Als das Muster 1.3 **Bote (**aber mit Genitiv **-ns)** werden Maskulina *Buchstabe, **Friede, Glaube, Name, Same,*** die (fett) außer Buchstabe auch mit *-en* im Nominativ Plural vorkommen.

Das Neutrum Herz kann im medizinischen Sinne geschwächt werden. Der Portal *Verbformen.com* führt den Genitiv Singular *des Herzes* als exaltiert und den Dativ Singular *dem Herze* im technischen Kontext an.

Zur Subklasse 1.4 gehören laut Prof. Ulrich Engel *Doktor, Lektor, Mann* (gelegentlich Mannen), *Professor, See, **Bett, Ende, Ohr*** (fette können im Dativ Singular *-e* haben). Muskeln und Pantoffeln haben nur -n.

Gemischte Deklination, Subklasse 1.5 stellen Feminina wie *Dame, Liege, Waage, Rübe, Möhre, Dose, Mutter, Mechatronikerin* dar. Der letzte Typ auf *-in* verdoppelt das *-n* im Plural

(-*nen*). Weiter handelt es um Feminina -*heit, -igkeit, -ung, -schaft* sowie -*el* (Engel 1996: 506).

Zu den Letzten (1.6) aus der Familie der schwachen und gemischten Substantive zählen wir Internationalismen griechischen und lateinischen Ursprungs. *Kolonialismus* im Plural -*en*. *Narzissmus* in Mehrzahl -*en*. Dabei sind Pluralformen solcher Substantive eher theoretisch, in dem sie sehr selten, in ganz besonderen Kontexten, Stylen und Fächern vorkommen. Ansonsten gibt es sie eher als ø, also ohne Form im Plural.

Weiter zählen wir zu diesen Unterklassen die Neutra *Dilemma, Trauma, Schisma* und *Konservatorium, Arboretum* mit -*s* im Genitiv Singular. Ihnen verwandte Substantive in allen Geschlechtern bilden keinen Suffix im Genitiv Singular, wie der Fall bei *der Aroma, des Wahhabismus, des Rebus* ist. Möglich ist auch die Endung -*ata* des ursprünglichen Altgriechischen (Engel 1996: 506).

Bei der Präsentation des Themas könnten den Studenten die Endungen der typischen Namen vor allem bei männlichen und neutralen Substantiven zur Hilfe sein. Sie sollen vor allem auf die Nominativendung -*e* aufpassen. Hier sind es vor allem die Angehörige der verschieden Völker wie Afghane, Brite, Schotte, Däne und Finne. In diesem Zusammenhang können wir beim Lehren gleich Namen der männlichen Personen aus dem professionellen und persönlichen Bedeutungsfeld wie Kommilitone, Experte, Gatte, Kollege, Laie und ähnlich ausnutzen. Die populärsten "Schwachen" sind bestimmt die Tiere: *Affe, Schimpanse, Fink, Elefant* und so ähnlich.

Zur Ausnahmen bei den letzten Fällen zählen wir Endungen -*e* männliche Buchstabe, Gedanke, Name, bei denen das genitive -**ns** hervorragt.

Endungen lateinischen Ursprungs auf -*and*, -*ant*, -*ent* können die Deutsch-Studenten schon allein mit ihrer Art mit Bezug zu der muttersprachlichen Ähnlichkeit zur Automatisierung einer solchen Kompetenz bewegen (Präsident, Diamant, Doktorand). Es handelt sich überwiegender Weise um professionelle Nomina. Weiters -*oge*, -*ad* und -*at*, was auch internationale Suffixe sind.

Als Ausnahmen nennt Mein-Deutschbuch.de "*der Architekt, der Bauer (+ n), der Chaot, der Depp,* **das Herz** *(des Herzens), der Held, der Favorit, der Fotograf, der Graf, der Herr (+ n), der Idiot, der Mensch, der Nachbar (+ n), der Narr, der Pilot, der Prinz*".

Die Endungen -*ist* beinhaltet ein Bereichsfeld der Professionen, politischen, künstlerischen Orientierungen, Überzeugungen und Charakterzüge wie fachliche Bezeichnungen von Typen der Personen (*Autist, Narzisst, Sozialist, Dadaist, Traktorist* oder *Violoncellist*).

Man kann feststellen, dass die Endung -*(e)n* eine Personalisierung und vor allem die Belebtheit der oben genannten Hauptnamen darstellt, und das samt der Tiernamen, obwohl es bei dieser morphologischen Kategorie meistens hauptsächlich um Angelegenheit der slawischen Sprachen geht.

Die wichtigsten Merkmale der Schwachen sind Mehrsilbigkeit, menschlicher Charakter und Belebtheit. Es gelten zwei verschiedenen Paradigmentypen –[e]n im Plural und im Genitiv (Mensch, die Menschen, des Menschen) und Gen. Sg. –{e}ns (der Gedanke, des Gedankens) (Köpcke : 159, 160). Morphologisch teilen wir diese Substantiva weiter ein, auf: (1.) Belebte native Maskulina auf Schwa (Bote, 100 Nomina). Laut Bittner sind sie Kern der Gruppe. (2.) Auf fremde belebte Maskulina (Poet, Astronaut, Kosmonaut) mit Akzent am Ende. (3.) In belebte einsilbige Maskulina wie Narr und Mensch und weitere, zusammen rund um 20 Substantive. Zuletzt (4.) unbelebte auf *Schwa*: Funke, Glaube (um 10).

Nominalisierung der Partizipien und Adjektive, Beitrag zu n-Deklinationen

Man geht davon aus, dass alle Partizipien und Adjektive neue Nomen bilden können. Das erleichtert den Studenten das Erlernen. Auf der anderen Seite hilft den Studenten mühselige Erklärung der Etymologie manche Wörter und daraus hervorgehende Deklination. Meistens treffen wir uns dabei bei den Wörtern im Bereich des Personalwesens.

Der *Angestellte* und der *Beamte*, diese beiden Wörter stellen ein ähnliches Beruf oder Funktion dar. Einen Sachbearbeiter oder im slowakischen Bereich der früheren staatlichen Wirtschaft einen *Referenten*, was ebenfalls schwach ist. Der Beamte ist vor allem mit staatlicher Definitive mit abgesonderter Regelung mit Bereich der Einkommen, Steuer und Rente, während der *Angestellte* ein *Beamte*, *Referent* in einem ökonomischen Bereich bestimmter Organisation, genauer in einem Rechen- und Verwaltungszentrum eines Produktionsunternehmens oder einer Korporation. Dabei ist das Wort *Beamte* laut Prof. Wolfgang Pfeifer noch keltischer Abstammung, als Bote oder Diener.

Schon bald erkennen die Studenten des Fach-Deutschen, dass sich in diesem Bedeutungsfeld mehr bietet. *Die Beschäftigten* sind einfach die, die eine Arbeit haben und diese Arbeit regelmäßig eingehen. Dagegen der ostdeutsche *Arbeitende*, von *arbeitender Klasse* (Working Class) bezieht sich schon zum Partizip (I) Präsens. Beschäftigt ist man aber auch, wenn man überhaupt nichts dienstlich tut, zum Beispiel "*er beschäftigt sich mit seinen alten deutschen Briefmarken*". Ähnlich in der Frage eines Offiziers an einfachen Soldaten: "*Haben Sie keine Beschäftigung?*". Es gibt auch eine Tendenz einer Stärkung der Maskulina im Dativ und Akkusativ, was die gesamte Äußerung in die Richtung der gemeinen Sprache führt, als umgangssprachlicher ertönt: *Was tust du dem Mensch?!* Jedoch solche darf in der Schriftsprache nicht vorkommen (Adolphs 2009: 316).

Der *Studierende* ist sehr verbreitet auch in der slowakischen und tschechische Sprache als *študujúci/studující* vor allem in den Bürgerausweisen der vorigen sozialistischen Republik oder als geforderte Antwort in Personalfragebogen. Dagegen der Lernende der Deutschen Sprache ist Netzfähig auch bis zur heutigen Zeiten. Zum Beispiel im Anmeldefenster der deutschen Version des bekannten und berühmten, edukativen Sozialnetzes Edmodo.

Auch der partizipiale Rahmen mit *zu* sorgte für Nomina der en-Deklination. Das wohl bekanntester Wort *Azubi - der Auszubildende* äußert sowohl Bezeichnung einer breiten Schicht der Menschen als auch einen Vorgang einer Bildung oder eines Lernens.

Leicht für die Studenten könnten schwache Nomina sein, die direkt von dem Adjektiven substantiviert wurden. Farben im Zusammenhang mit einer Zugehörigkeit zur politischen oder sportlichen Organisationen: Deutschland der zwanziger Jahre: *Die Roten und Braunen kämpften auf Berlins Straßen*. In der Slowakei war die politische Bewegung SKDÚ auch bekannt als *die Blauen*. Die Benennungen der Sprachen in Form eines schwachen Neutrums erleichtert entscheidender Weise die Beherrschung der Deutschen Sprache. Außer Deutschem ist es auch die Endung *-isch: Müssen wir es aus dem Schwedischen übersetzen? Kann ich es Ihnen lieber im Englischen sagen? Das Tschechische versteht hier jeder.* Dagegen etwas *auf Deutsch* zu sagen, tendiert eindeutig zur Verstärkung. Nicht einmal eine Anschrift auf der Titelseite eines Heftes *des Gymnasiasten* lautet nicht *DAS DEUTSCHE* sondern *DEUTSCH,*.

Auch Bezeichnungen der Farben ergeben sich in Möglichkeiten der genauen Äußerungen der Eindrückde: *Irlands saftiges Grüne; das Bourbonen-Blaue oder nur Irlands saftiges Grün; das Bourbonen-Blau.*

Der adjektivische Suffix *-bar* befindet si zum Beispiel in der Abenteuerliteratur, resp. Fantasy *die Unbesiegbaren* oder in den indischen Kasten: *die Unberührbaren.* Beim *-iv* finden wir bei Bezeichnungen mancher literarischen, politischen oder künstlerischen Richtungen oder Kunstkreisen als Beispiel könnten die flämischen Primitiven dienen. Negativer Suffix *-los* bietet auch einige substantivierte: *die Arbeitslosen*, aber auch mal wieder als Beiname legendärer Gefolgschaften, dazu Beispiel *die Furchtlosen.* Im Gegenteil kann man nach Schwächung wieder zu marxistischen und marx-leninistischen Terminologie greifen?: *die Werktätigen* als ein Beispiel für die Endung *-ig.* Auch Phraseologismus *"Wir sind nicht die Heutigen.", "Oh, die Glücklichen!"* benutzt schwache belebte Nomina.

Tendenz zur Schwächung der Sustantiva

Es gibt eine Neigung, den Akkusativ und den Dativ Singular nicht mehr zu markieren, d.h. ohne Kasussuffix zu bilden. (Thieroff 2003: 105). Schwache Maskulina weisen auf Entitäten mit hohem Belebtheitsgrad wie: der *Hirte* und der *Bote*, sie zählen zu den schwachen Maskulina, der *Käse* hingegen nicht (Schmitt 2000).

Manche Nomen entsprechen dem Schema semantisch aber nicht formal. So finden wir *"ich sehe den Prinzen von Wales"*, aber auch *den Prinz*. Anders behaupten die Sprachwissenschaftler, dass die starke Flexion eigentlich eine normale oder die normale Beugung ist und das sich die Sprache durch ihre Träger dem normalen Zustand nähern wolle. Das betrifft selbstverständlich den Singular im Gegensatz zum Plural wo die Endung *-(e)n* bleibt. Nicht alle neuen Varianten der ursprünglich schwachen Substantive sind aber als Norm angenommen, deshalb ist es besser wenn die Studenten und Pädagogen im Falle einer Ungewissheit die schwache Form benutzen. Sehr selten ist eine umgekehrte Neigung, was sich laut dem Server *Grammatikfragen* im Beispiel des Wortes *Autor* zeigt. In dem Fall ist es nicht die richtige Variante. Auch bei den Feminina gibt es Reste der n-Deklination wie zum Beispiel die Wortverbindung: *auf Erden* (grammatikfragen.de).

Zur Tendenz der Schwächung kommt es definitiv in den süddeutschen Mundarten. Wir waren den ganzen Tag *auf der Wiesn*, meinen wir Oktoberfest und die bekannte Theresienwiese. Oder ein Bratislavaer, aus dem Stadtteil Petrtžalka, früher Engerau benutzte bei einer Bitte statt "eine Tasche - *Toschen, bitte*. Eine Neigung zur schwachen Flexion weisen auch manche Komposita hin, in dem sie statt Fugen-s, Fuge-e und -er -en enthalten. Ähnlich wie Wiesn in München, treffen wir Wiesenfeste im übrigen Bayern. Als weitere Beispiele nennen wir noch: *Küchenmaschine. Herdenimmunität, wolkenlos* und ähnlich.

Resümee

Wegen ihrer Frequenz vor allem in der Fachsprache stellt das Erlernen und Üben der schwach deklinierten Substantive einen bedeutenden Teil des Lehrstoffes vom Fachdeutsch - Ökonomie. Daraus geht auch die Notwendigkeit der ständigen Präsentation der morphologischen Kategorien in Abkürzungen gegenüber den Lernenden heraus. Der Genitiv des Singulars mit Nominativ Plural sollte auf irgendeine Weise bei Präsentation der neuen Wörter nicht fehlen, in anderem Fall sollten die Lernenden zur eigener Ergänzung der Kategorien herausgefordert werden. Bewußtes studieren der schwachen Substantive stärkt paradoxer Weise das Selbstbewußtsein der Studenten. Mit der Schwächung kann sich der Deutschlernende aber in der sprachlichen Praxis oft treffen. Gerade süddeutscher Bereich mit Österreich bereitet uns manche Überraschungen solcher Art. Auf der anderen Seite ist eine mögliche Stärkung der Schwachen Nomen deutschlandweit eine Erscheinung, die aus der Norm hinweg ragt und die ein Ergebnis des Einflusses der Rationalisierung der Sprachmittel und der mächtigen Rolle der herrschenden englischen Sprache.

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THE IMPACT OF BREXIT ON THE LANGUAGE POLICY OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

Terézia ONDRUŠOVÁ

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to analyze the situation in Great Britain and the European Union after Brexit from a linguistic point of view. The analysis includes an examination of the various options for dealing with a new situation that is affecting the position of English in the European Union. The aim is also to compare the position of English as both an official and a practical language in the institutions of the European Union. I will use the comparison method. The partial goal is to verify the hypothesis that Brexit will weaken the position of English in the European Union.

Key words

language policy, European Union, brexit

Introduction

In the European Union, after Brexit, a linguistic situation has arisen which has no precedent in modern history. The country in which the English language originates has left the European Union. At the same time, the European Union is a multinational, multiethnic and multilingual grouping of states that is linguistically guided by the principle of multilingualism. The principle of multilingualism is more or less maintained at a theoretical level. It is interesting to observe how the Member States react to the role played by English after the United Kingdom left.

Language policy and the European Union

Although there are language rules and regulations, there is no legally binding language policy for the EU at institutional level or in the Member States. The EU Constitutional Treaty does not contain any article dealing with language policy, nor does it contain any article from the Treaties of Rome dealing with the official and working languages. Within the EU, a distinction needs to be made between the three different types of language use proposed by the "Europa Diversa" in Barcelona (Phillipson, 2006):- internal working languages - staff permanently employed by the European institutions working in European, non-national interests may be required to use a limited number of languages, one of which may or may not be their mother tongue- binding documents and political representation - in both cases all official languages must be used- Languages serving EU citizens - All national and minority languages that are official languages should serve journalists and the public, either directly or on the website. The EU population lives mostly in big cities, works in the services and communications sector, many people travel a lot, live for a long time in a foreign country and need a foreign language at work and in everyday life. The countries of today's EU have thus moved from monolingualism to multilingualism over centuries. A higher level of education, which included mastering a foreign language, also contributed to this. The only exceptions are countries whose mother tongue is sufficient for communication in this country or region - Janson cites English in the United Kingdom as an example (Janson 2003). At present, we can see the decline of French in the EU institutions and the increasing use of English. Until 1991, on the contrary, about two thirds of the communication took place in French and only one third in English (Spolsky, 2004). Ammon believes this is related to the arrival of young European officials, most of whom speak English (Ammon, 1991). The EU allows its citizens to work together across borders, which would be more effective if they used one language. The simplest solution would be to use English, as English is the first foreign language in most EU Member States, but it is not a neutral language, as it is the mother tongue and official language of two EU members and the language of the EU's main competitor, the US. The EU is taking a number of steps to combat the dominance of English, in particular to promote the teaching of foreign languages. Every student should learn at least two foreign languages in order to at least partially eliminate learning English from an early age. Emphasis is placed on developing communication skills and supporting travel and study abroad programs. Another area of EU language policy is the rights of minorities to their mother tongue. Although Member States officially support multilingualism, they have difficulty assigning language rights to their own minorities. Due to globalization, the existence of the so-called small, resp. smaller languages, but not only them. Globally, it is even 40% of all languages (Haarmann 2002). Given this situation, the European Union's steps to promote multilingualism and the recognition as an official language of the European institutions, as well as a language such as Irish, are understandable. Pool emphasizes that the EU is a multinational organization with parliaments,

courts, executive bodies and commissions that employs staff from Member States who speak different languages. The language issue is therefore important in both internal and external communication (Pool, 1996). The question of how many languages the EU should have is, in our view, difficult to resolve from the point of view that what is the best political solution is the least economically acceptable. From a political point of view, all languages should be official, but this solution is only possible at high cost. It is not just the state languages, small languages, minority languages, etc. are also gaining recognition, which is even more costly for the EU. The proposed new solutions, such as machine translations or artificial languages, present additional costs or new complications.

The language situation after brexit

After the Brexit, a linguistic situation has arisen in the European Union which has no precedent in modern history. The country in which the English language originates has left the European Union. At the same time, the European Union is a multinational, multiethnic and multilingual grouping of states that is linguistically guided by the principle of multilingualism. This means that all 24 languages have the same status and every EU citizen has the right to address the EU institutions in their native language. However, for practical reasons, English, German and French are used as working languages, and English dominance has not been questioned in recent decades for a number of reasons. The principle of multilingualism is thus more or less maintained at a theoretical level. The question is how the Member States will react to the role played by English after the UK leaves.

The United Kingdom and Ireland joined the European Economic Community, later the European Union, in 1973. After their departure, the number of EU citizens for whom English is their mother tongue fell to 1%. These are mainly people in Ireland and Malta, where English, however, holds the position of official language along with Irish and Maltese. For larger EU countries, such as France and Germany, Brexit provided an opportunity to strengthen the position of their languages in the competition with English. France saw in Brexite a chance to return to French its strong position in history, which lay in its use as a language of diplomacy throughout Europe. According to French Minister Clement Beaune, EU citizens should stop using broken English as a means of communication. In October 2016, Michael Barnier, the EU's chief negotiator with the UK for Brexit, proposed that negotiations between the European Union and the UK take place in his native language, French. However, his proposal met with embarrassing reactions. The fact is that the first language in which 90% of EU legislation is published is English (Gonzales, Wax, 2021). According to some politicians and EU commissioners, English should become the main official language of the European Union before Brexit. They see the use of English as an opportunity to increase the European Union's global competitiveness by minimizing the number of languages used (Bonotti, Chriost, 2017). Even for many linguists, the use of English is a practical way to solve the problem of communication within Europe. The question remains what impact Brexit will have on the UK languages themselves. As the United Kingdom does not have a written constitution, the English language could become the official language of England, if not the whole of Great Britain. The official language of Wales could be the Welsh language and the Scottish Scottish language. It is these languages that may be at stake because complaints about language and human rights violations can no longer be directed by UK citizens to the European Court of Justice or the European Court of Human Rights. Of course, Brexit will also have a major impact on immigrants living in the UK, who speak many other languages that do not originate in the UK.

There are also voices against the use of English in the European Union. Critics include Marko Modiano, a professor of English at a Swedish university, who, since English is a second language for most Europeans, has the right to decide on its future. The professor uses the term Euro-English, which represents a certain variant of English with its own pronunciation, a certain part of grammar and vocabulary, different from the British. This creates a situation that is comparable to developments in other parts of the world, such as India, Singapore or Nigeria, where a certain new variant of English is used as a means of communication at the local level (Jenkins, 2001). According to him, this new variant is already being formed and although it may not sound right for the people of Great Britain, we should welcome its existence. It depends on us what attitude we take The professor talks about the domination and even tyranny of British and American English, which must be resisted (Modiano, 2017). The consequences of introducing a new model of English, which differs greatly from the English used in the United Kingdom and Ireland, can be devastating, as British English was accepted voluntarily by the people of the European Union and was a natural process. In general, the languages used in the European institutions are less pure than the languages used in the individual countries of the European Union. However, this does not mean that the EU should adhere to a model that differs significantly from British English. Children in schools, as well as others learning English, are interested in British English (Gonzales, Wax, 2021). Languages are rooted in culture and experience shows that artificial languages, whether Esperanto or another common language, are not well received by the general public. The introduction of Euro-English would be an interesting attempt to solve the problem of linguistic diversity in the European Union, but this step would not be a viable solution. In addition, he could meet with resistance from the people of Ireland and Malta, as it would be English that the people of those countries do not understand.

Conclusion

The European Union is a multinational grouping whose language policy is guided by the principle of multilingualism. However, this principle encounters many problems in practice, as translation and interpretation into all Member States' languages are financially and organisationally demanding. The simplest solution is to use a limited number of working languages, among which English stands out. After Brexit, a new situation arises in which English is a second language for all EU citizens except Ireland and Malta, thus gaining neutrality and it can be assumed that it is this neutrality that will ultimately strengthen its position. The established hypothesis that Brexit will weaken the position of English in the European Union has therefore not been confirmed. Unlike Esperanto, English is a natural language, so it is received positively, even among young people throughout the European Union.

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MODELS AND FUNCTIONS OF HYPERBOLE IN COVID-19 RELATED NEWSPAPER HEADLINES

Alena ŠTULAJTEROVÁ

Abstract

The role of media and their impact on English language during COVID-19 pandemic has increased significantly since the disease started spreading. Not only from the point of view of introducing new terms (neologisms, collocations, etc.) but also from the point of view of the use of figurative language while describing and expressing seriousness of the situation and its consequences. The article presents some essential language changes caused by the pandemic, however, the main objective of the article is to analyse and interpret models and functions of hyperbole as a figure of speech in contemporary newspaper headlines in the UK. Our research revealed that the most frequently used type of COVID-19 related hyperbole in newspaper headlines is the quantitative hyperbole. The results also provide some interesting insights into language choices made by press while offering people information during global pandemic.

Keywords

hyperbole, COVID-19, neologismis, language change, newspaper headline, publicistic style

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Introduction

Contemporary life is characterised by continuous changes related to advances in IT technologies, greater diversity, greater mobility in general, and social, economic and language change related to the new global coronavirus pandemic in particular. (Štulajter, 2021) From the linguistic point of view, the COVID-19 pandemic is connected with language expansion, as the language was exposed to the adaptation to the newly emerged situation. At the beginning of the pandemic we could observe an interesting paradox: while everyday life slowed down significantly due to necessary measures (WFH, lockdown), dynamism in language accelerated due to many new coronavirus-related words and phrases, occurrence of which dominated in everyday discourse and media. (Ďuricová, 2021) In our research we focused on one of the above mentioned stylistic devices – hyperbole – which has occupied a significan position in the language of the media. Therefore the aim of the article is to study functions of hyperbole in newspaper headlines related to Covid-19 pandemic. Before presenting different models and functions of hyperbole in newspaper headlines we will present how the pandemic affected the English language.

The impact of the coronavirus pandemic on the English language

New genuine metaphors, lexical hyperbole, neologisms, blends and other lexical innovations could be seen in the past two years. They point to the fact that linguistic creativity is a key part of language, reshaping our ways of engaging with the world. A number of new lexical items were created (COVID-19, coronavirus, SARS-CoV-2, coronials[1]) and a number of words existing in the language-as-system acquired new meanings (key workers, social distancing[2], the Before Times[3]). Some words and phrases were specific in the first wave of the pandemic (face mask, stay-at-home, self-isolation, front-liners, lock down, quarantine), the others dominated in the second and the third waves (vaccination, anti-vax, respirator).

While established terms such as lockdown or pandemic have increased in use, COVID-19 neologisms created via various word formation processes, namely blending, compounding, derivation or clipping, have been coined quicker than ever. These include *covidiot* – someone ignoring public health advice; *covideo party* – online parties via Zoom or Skype, and *covexit* – the strategy for exiting lockdown.[4] Other terms deal with the material changes in our everyday lives, from *Blursday* – an unspecified day because of lockdown's disorientating effect on time, *doomscrolling* – obsessing over bad news online, covidpreneurs – individuals or businesses profiting from the pandemic, or *zoombombing* – hijacking a Zoom video call.[5] These new expressions help us make sense of the changes that have

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1   *amalgamation of coronavirus and millennial = babies conceived during lock down; (Oxford Languages, 2020)*
2   *In the middle of 20th century the meaning of the phrase ´social distancing´ was not limited to a specific situation, during the pandemic its meaning was connected with the reduction of the coronavirus transmission;*
3   *a term for the pre-pandemic era;*
4   *https://theconversation.com/coronavirus-has-led-to-an-explosion-of-new-words-and-phrases-and-that-helps-us-cope-136909*
5   *https:www.wsj.com/articles/covid-the-new-coinage-that-defined-2020-11608830903*

suddenly become part of our lives in those days.

New abbreviations and acronyms used during COVID-19 include *WFH* – working from home, *PPE* – personal protective equipment, *ARDS* – acute respiratory distress syndrome, *ARI* - acute respiratory infection, or *PCR* - polymerase chain reaction. (ibid.) "There are already some initial collections of English COVID neologisms online, and the numbers are rising." (Al-Salman – Haider, 2021)

Some COVID-19 related expressions are not genuinely new as they had been used for many years, for example *self-quarantine, social distancing, social isolation*. However, their being re-introduced shows that not only does social change bring about new words and terms in the form of neologisms or coinages, but it also reintroduces some pre-existing words that have gained new meaning in the time of the COVID-19 pandemic. (ibid.) We had to face new circumstances, and with new circumstances, we learned new words. For instance, the meaning of the expression self-isolation used to describe countries that kept themselves separate, but during the COVID-19 pandemic its meaning was narrowe down to the situation when someone had or thought s/he might have the coronavirus, s/he self-isolated and kept him/herself apart from the family. (ibid.) The terms such as maintaining a *safe distance, avoiding close contact, wearing a mask, using sanitizers,staying home* if you were unwell, *self-quarantine, or avoiding handshake* became abundantly used expressions, which have acquired social currency during the pandemic to shape and regulate social interaction in everyday life.

Such linguistic change and creativity is a universal property of language, which reflects global societal changes. The emergence of the COVID-19 neologisms, many of which have not yet become English dictionary entries, is attributed to the fast spread of the pandemic globally and the extremely powerful influence of the Internet and the media.

Hyperbole in COVID-19 related newspaper headlines

As has been stated above, we are concerned with hyperbole and its use in COVID-19 related newpaper headlines. Headlines are being created specifically for every single article for the purposes of informing about article´s contents. Therefore its main function is to attract a reader´s attention and briefly inform about the content of following article at the same time. In order to fulfill its main purpose it needs to posses a skill of creating this absorbing effect, through different linguistic and graphetic means. A customary reality the headline is that otherwise basic and simple words can gain an unusual meaning or function. Very well-thought-of are combinations of words that create a pun or other witty meanings or figures of speech among which hyperbole occupies a prominent positon.

Hyperbole is a figure of speech that uses exaggeration to show emphasis or to underline a point. It usually intensifies one certain property of the given object as a deliberate overstatement of a feature essential to the object or phenomenon. Hyperbole abounds in press advertisements, as the creators want to attract the reader's attention towards the most exceptional qualities of the product. (Štulajterová – Jesenská, 2013) In journalistic texts, particularly in the popular press, there is a danger of deception in the hyperbole of sensational reporting. For example, headlines often reveal discrepancies of number in the reporting of accidents:

- *"Millions of AstraZeneca vaccines sitting unused in EU warehouses as meddling bloc chiefs try to block exports to UK"* |bbc.com/news|

From the point of view of sociolinguistics, hyperbole is often popularly thought to distinguish female from male speech, but there is no clear evidence that women exaggerate more than men do. (Wales, 1995) It is also typical for the language of conversation, as in order to keep attention, we tend to use much more exaggerated language, especially when expressing our own feelings. Utterances such as *"I have told you a million times..."* occur fairly often in everyday conversation.

Models and functions of hyperbole in coronavirus pandemic

As has been mentioned above, we focused our research on the various uses of hyperbole an its occurence in British and American journalistic texts in general and in newspaper headlines in particular, specifically in relation to Covid-19 pandemic. We collected a representative corpus of linguistic material in which we identified various types of hyperbole and analyse its functions.

Model 1: Qualitative hyperbole

Qualitative hyperbole is used to exaggerate information about size, colour, quality, shape, property etc. However, in a connection with the pandemich we identified the following models of hyperbole:

Qualititative hyperbole expressed with the use of the adjectives such as *enormous, huge, massive,* etc. describing a crowd or queue size:

- *"Enormous queues as Britain 'runs out of coronavirus tests' with families left isolating"* |bbc.com/news|
- *"South Africa Covid variant found in another part of London with huge queues for tests"* |The Sun|
- *„Huge queues outside shops at 6am as they finally reopen after months of lockdown"* |bbc.com/news|
- *„Coronavirus: Drone captures massive queue for masks in South Korea"* |The Sun|

Another example of qualitative hyperboly occured in a connection with adjectives describing pandemic development:

- *"Thirteen places with soaring Covid rates not yet on Tier 3 lockdown"* |The Sun|
- *"As Covid-19 Devastates India, Deaths Go Undercounted"* |The Sun|

Model 2: Quantitative hyperbole
Another way of expressing seriousnes of the coronavirus situation was to use hyperbole expressed by numerals and thus presenting overstated or exaggerated amounts:

- *"Millions Are Skipping Their Second Doses of Covid Vaccines"* |The Sun|
- *"Shambolic EU exports 25MILLION Covid jabs worldwide despite millions of vulnerable people still not vaccinated back home"* |The Sun|
- *"Millions of AstraZeneca vaccines sitting unused in EU warehouses as meddling bloc chiefs try to block exports to UK"* |The Sun|

Headline writers often used numbers of cases written in a way to make the situation appear far more serious than the reality:

- *"As many as 650 fresh COVID cases reported in Kozhikode"* |The Sun|

At first glance, this headline makes it seem like the number of people tested positive is staggering. However, upon a closer look, Kozhikode, a city with over 610 000 permanent residents, makes it that 650 people testing positive accounts for less than one per cent of the total population. Quantitative hyperbole is often accompanied by expressivnes and emotivenes supported by words such as horror, fear, death, victim, etc.

- *"Horror as 'zero testing' at UK airports means potential Covid cases can walk straight in"* |The Sun|

In this example, the headline denotes that UK airports do not test arriving passengers. However, the article only mentions two couples claiming that nobody had taken their temperature.
In our research we encountered distinctive difference in the use of hyperbole between the quality press and the popular press. The main difference between them lies in the emphasis and priority they both assign to their particular news items. According to Crystal and Davy (1990) the quality press is prone to reportage, to the actual transmission of information, and its content is more factual, designed to appeal to a more educated audience therefore we identifie few cases of hyperbole as it is often deceiving and therefore has no place here. The popular press, on the other had, besides giving information other intentions such as to entertain, surprise, scandalize, etc. Its lexis tends towards the informal, colloquial words, idioms, and clichés which are all used to evoke the illusion of oral mode. So, naturally, tabloids employed a lot of examples of hyperbole in order to shock or just to create catchy and memorable headlines.

Conclusion

The focus of the article was to demonstrate the role and most frequently used types of hyperbole in COVID-19 pandemic newspaper headlines. Initially we presented some essential language changes which emerged during the pandemic as we are of an opinion that language users should know be aware of COVID-19 related neologisms as they derive from global dimension of the pandemic, which makes it crucial for the entire international community to follow the latest developments concerning updates on coronavirus cases worldwide.
As far as the main objective of our research is concerned, we have identified two major types of hyperbole, namely quantitative hyperbole denoting numbers of victims, numbers of people in queues, hospitals or the numbers of vaccinated people. Qualitative hyperbole denoted mainly seriousness of the pandemic and its consequences. The occurence of hyperbole in newspaper headlines indicates that the usage of figurative language captivates interests of audience. However, in some cases hyperbole might seem extraordinary and carefully premediated to engage the attention of readers to its full extent and persuade them to read the whole article. Journalists and newspapers take advantage of the use of figurative language in general and hyperbole in partucular in order to highlight the most relevant facts and figures.

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ONLINE READING WITHIN A LEARNER-CENTERED APPROACH IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSES

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Abstract

Contemporary English as Foreign Language (EFL) classes require new perspectives when it comes to teaching reading. Traditional print-based materials are being replaced with online ones, and therefore students need to learn new strategies applicable for online environments. Teachers also need to adjust to the new challenges and offer new techniques for teaching reading within learner-centered EFL classes. The article looks at reading comprehension online and offline, effective instructional strategies for teaching online reading, and provides pedagogical implications for EFL teachers when working with online texts.

Keywords

online and offline reading, EFL, learner-centered approach, strategies, pedagogical implications

Introduction

Nowadays, the world our students live in is full of learning materials available online. Students can look up, share, and work with materials instantly. Furthermore, these types of texts are authentic, which gives them language credibility. Furthermore, the online texts are accompanied by videos and pictures that can bring text closer to the reader and make it more memorable. Additionally, the Internet expands traditional comprehension strategies into more advanced for which students need to be trained to get the most of out the reading (not to read superficially) because online reading requires more complex higher-level thinking than offline reading. Therefore, effective strategies discussed in the article can help educators teach their students effectively, especially when they keep the learner-centered (LC) approach in mind. The LC approach is based on the constructivist way of engaging learners to take responsibility for their learning. The main principles of the LC approach are personalization, motivation, taking into consideration students´ interests, learning styles, and adjusting them to the given educational context (Nunan, 2012; Weimer, 2013).

Reading comprehension online and offline

According to Coiro (2003, p. 459), comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. She continues that it consists of three elements: a reader who is doing the comprehension, the text that is to be comprehended, and the activity in which comprehension is implemented. These three elements are a part of the socio-cultural context of the reader's classroom, home, and neighborhood by helping him to work with information and discover personal meaning. However, Coiro (2003) argues the Internet requires expanding traditional comprehension areas such as identifying main ideas, summarizing, evaluating, and widening new thought pro-

cesses. Students are exposed to new text formats (e.g. hypertext, moodle), new reader elements (high-level metacognitive skills, background knowledge, new purposes, and motivation), and new activities (verifying the credibility of sources and images, using blogs and wikis). Other important issue to be emphasized are that it gives students a chance to collaborate and share information globally across continents through different types of media.

Leu et al. (2013a) argue that reading literacies for digital research and comprehension require a large amount of and more complex types of higher-level thinking than offline reading and writing. Therefore, students need to be trained in higher-level thinking and digital literacy skills: identifying important problems, locating useful information, critically evaluating information, synthesizing multiple sources of online information to determine a solution, communicating effectively to others with digital technologies, monitoring and evaluating the results of the decision, modifying as needed.

To develop new ideas and solve complex problems, these higher-level thinking skills must be developed. Among these are evaluation, synthesis, analysis, interpretation, and application. Therefore, it is vital to teach students how to use the information to create new knowledge and communicate new ideas far beyond the simple literal understanding of a passage (Leu et al. 2015a).

Online reading comprehension is based on researching and finding a solution to a problem-solving task. Through inquiry, it concentrates on solving a particular problem and answering a particular question (Leu et al. 2015a).

Based on Common Core Standards in the USA (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010 in Leu et al. 2013, p. 223), the higher-level thinking skills in reading are:

A) Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific tex-

tual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text;

B) Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.

C) Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone.

D) Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.

E) Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text.

F) Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words.

G) Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.

H) Analyze how two or more texts address similar themes or topics to build knowledge or to compare the approaches the authors take.

I) Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently.

Not only should readers work toward acquiring more effective comprehension skills teachers should be more involved in applying technology that puts comprehension upfront using having ongoing technical support (Coiro, 2003). They should have opportunities to research internet sites, undergo online exchanges, and consider a computer as a tool for learning.

Offline and online reading do not differ from each other when we read an email or online newspaper. The difference is that online reading does not occur within isolated contexts; instead, it takes place within a rich and complex process of inquiry as we seek answers to questions, large and small, and use the Internet to learn (Leu et al. 2016, p. 4). Online research and comprehension are based on a process of problem-based inquiry using information from the Internet. It takes into consideration the skills, strategies, and social practices applied in online environments (Leu et al. 2013a, 2016). The role of the reader is constructing texts, meaning, and knowledge while identifying important problems, locating and critically evaluating information, synthesizing and communicating information (Leu et al. 2016). It applies not only to lengthy projects taking weeks but also searching for specific information to get the knowledge instantly.

Features of online reading comprehension

Online reading research and comprehension has the following features (Leu et al., 2016):

A) Meaning construction – through online reading, a reader becomes a problem-solver and is activated through sampling information from multiple sources to construct meaning. Most likely it happens in a complex and unrestricted information space that is poorly structured and ill-defined – the Internet. It is also connected to writing and communicating as a reader either through comments on the discussion or tweets about the issue and seeking a response. The online environment is therefore easily accessible, collaborative, and socially constructed. Finally, a reader has to apply critical thinking skills as the Internet offers a huge range of texts from different sources where credibility is important.

B) Unique Nature of Readers´ Text Construction – Since each reader follows different links and paths on search web engines, they construct their text based on their research. Even when two readers work on the same topic, they might choose different keywords to get to the point of the specific text.

C) Individual differences – There has been a tendency to use cognitive practices with little attention to individual differences. However, small-case studies show a difference. One of them is based on an analysis of 25 upper secondary students who had trouble locating information on the Web and spent less time on quality reading, while those more skilled with no problem of locating information, had more time to read the text itself. The other studies revealed a lack of critical thinking when finding information. Also synthetizing seemed to be a problem and the least understood reading practice. Students who compared and worked with various websites to form an argument saw knowledge as complex and developing in comparison to those who took it as an absolute.

D) Metacognition – When reading on the Internet, several often intertwined cognitive processes. Inadequate planning of search tasks, poor time allocation between searching, and inability to change one's ineffective behavior led students to digress in reading online. The success of developing metacognitive skills is connected with locating relevant information, evaluating the information's relevance, and elaborating on the processing of content.

Effective Online Instructional Strategies for EFL classes

The following are suggestions for developing online reading skills and strategies in a learner-centered (LC) ESF environment:

Students´ Needs and Interests – In an LC classroom, students have a choice of working with topics of their interest that are relevant to their age and life (Nunan, 2012; Weimer, 2013) to develop their online reading skills. The more interested they are in the topics, the more likely they are to learn more.

Critical Thinking about the Reliability of Online Information – Teachers need to work with both reliable and unreliable websites to help students use their critical thinking in assessing the reliability of the websites. Teachers should ask them for evidence of their answer and encourage them to question the author/creator of this information (Leu et al. 2015b).

Collaborative Online Research and Comprehension – When students work and learn together, they generally do better. According to research on offline reading (Johnson, Jonhson – Smith 1998 in Leu, et al. 2015b), students showed significant gains when working collaboratively. The same applies to online learning and comprehension (Leu et al., 2015b). One of the ways for that might be working with Google Docs in which students can edit documents online – they can either highlight important aspects in the document or simply work on their writing skills.

Learn from others from all over the world – There are so many options for how to engage students more, and one of them is to connect with a class from a different country. Leu et al. (2015b) suggest platforms such as ePals, which is a child-safe email network with more than 100,000 connected classrooms through the "Match a Classroom" tool, which can be quite an inspiration for a teacher as well as for a student.

Model the Online Research and Comprehension Process for Students – Here a teacher shows strategies such as Think Aloud in which a teacher demonstrates his way of thinking while reading (Le, et al. 2015b). It is very helpful for students to find their ways for how to work with reading materials to work on their comprehension and understanding of the text itself.

Using Blogs and Wikis – Through these media, students use a higher level of thinking (Leu et al. 2015a) and apply their knowledge to real-world writing and creating their projects. It is essential to keep pace with the student's interests, and this is the way how to provide them with meaningful tasks where they can see a real impact of their learning process.

Struggling Readers – Teachers should look at struggling students as a new opportunity to develop skills of who is ahead and the ones who are behind. Basically, according to Leu et al. (2015a), both parties learn from each other. First, a teacher teaches new literacy to struggling readers, and then these students teach it to other students. Struggling readers then feel appreciated and are put in the center of the attention.

Using Multiple Sources – While working on certain topics, ask students to find resources from multiple sources to provide background knowledge about the topic (Leu et al. 2015b). This will allow students to be more objective and resourceful in the given topic. They become researchers and the aim is to develop their critical thinking skills. They may either go to libraries and get books, make interviews with people, so on.

Working With Information – Students read a great number of websites; however, a teacher should help the students learn how to work with materials in a meaningful and systematic way. According to Leu et al. (2015b), taking notes in note-taking tools such as Evernote, Microsoft OneNote, or Google Docs is an option.

Opportunities for Appropriate But Controversial Issues – According to Leu et al. (2015b), students should be offered opportunities to research the topics that are can examine controversies and look at them from different angles. In this way, they will form their own opinions and realize they should not judge the book by its cover. This process should arouse discussion and their critical thinking skills are exercised.

Pedagogical implications of online reading within the learner-centered approach

When working on online reading skills in an EFL classroom, the following activities might be useful:

A) Jigsaw Reading With A Focus – students work in groups of four. They are asked to find a certain text on the internet. One student works on the summary of the text, another prepares questions, the third writes how the text made him feel, and the fourth select five words he wants the others to remember.

B) Reading It Aloud In Different Voices – students work in groups of three. Each person will read a short paragraph from a particular persona; person A will read it as a newsreader, person B as a bored teenager, person C will read it as a small child.

C) Upscaling and downscaling a text –the students are asked to add adjectives, adverbs, etc. to add to enrich the text while with downscaling the students do the opposite – they shed the text to its basic.

D) Reverse Translations – students are asked to find different texts on the Internet, which they translate into their native language. Then they give it to their peers, who translate it back to English and compare it with the original text.

E) Rewrite the text – rewriting text in different styles can be a fun and interesting activity. Students are asked to work with a text of their choice and rewrite it as a blog, newspaper report, instruction manual, press release, etc.

F) Create questions – based on their text, students create comprehension questions or additional questions they have. Later they do more research on the questions.

G) Role-play a meeting – based on their search, students demonstrate an imaginary meeting based on the knowledge they learned about a given topic.

H) Researching and Sharing – students are asked to research a given topic from different angles and come together to share their findings with their peers (Adapted from Mario Rinvolucri, 1999).

All of the above-mentioned activities put a learner in the center. It becomes their choice of what to research and how to research on the Internet. However, the pre-and post-reading tasks, which are very important, are guided by a teacher who organizes the learning process. In this way, the students not only work on their reading skills but their listening, speaking, and writing skills as well. It supports their inquiry and higher thinking skills as they have to research and apply the given knowledge by sharing it with their peers. Therefore, it underlines cooperation as well as group and pair work. Students learn to be open, flexible, and responsive through this online reading process.

Conclusion

Teachers should view the technological boom positively and adjust their teaching to help students function in that realm, especially by taking learner-centered aspects in EFL classes into consideration. As Boone and Higgins (2001 in Coiro 2003, p. 464) says, *"Revolution is not restrained by the capabilities of the technology, but by our imaginations and dedication to helping guide the evolution of these new communication tools."* As recent studies (Coiro 2003; Leu et al. 2016) suggest, there is no question regarding the difference between online and offline learning that even though students read online texts more than traditional printed media, students lack comprehension skills and there is a call for the development of strategies, dispositions, and social practices for online reading research. We need to use instructional strategies bearing in mind learner-centered approaches for exploring digital information in more thoughtful ways and use that promote higher-level thinking.

To conclude, some teachers need to go beyond their comfort zone and be open to discussing with students what works best for their learning in today's world. College students are exposed to technological advancement as most are digital natives, so why not use their skills and interest as an advantage. According to Leu et al. (2013b), it mostly depends on how we, as educators, adapt new literacies with newly developed technologies coming to the market every. Today's job market calls for employees with creativity and innovation rather than just intellectual capital. Therefore, we have to bring out these characteristics in students to prepare them for life in global economic competition. Therefore, learner-centered teaching within the realm of online reading gives learners a choice about how to approach new knowledge and learn in an online reading environment.

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II. POLITOLOGY SECTION

OSSIBILITIES OF PARTICIPATION AS THE BASIS
OF CIVIL SATISFACTION IN SWITZERLAND

Jozef LUKNÁR

Abstract

Jedným z hlavných problémov moderných demokracií je odcudzenie občanov od politických procesov. V tejto súvislosti predstavuje občianska spoločnosť dôležitú súčasť demokratického procesu. Poskytuje občanom alternatívnu možnosť, aby popri možnostiach, ktoré predstavujú politické strany a lobistické skupiny, mohli vyjadrovať rôzne názory a presadzovať rôzne záujmy pri rozhodovacích procesoch. Švajčiarsko v celosvetovom meradle vykazuje dlhodobo najvyššie hodnoty spokojnosti so svojou demokraciou a je klasickým príkladom politického systému s využívaním silných prvkov priamej demokracie v praxi. V kontexte možností participácie občanov sú vo Švajčiarsku okrem klasických volieb najviac zaužívanými alternatívami dva inštitúty priamej demokracie, a to referendum a ľudová iniciatíva. Cieľom predloženého príspevku tak bude bližšie predstaviť kľúčové aspekty výkonu priamej demokracie vo švajčiarskych ústavných podmienkach.

Kľúčové slová

participácia, Švajčiarsko, priama demokracia, referendum, ľudová iniciatíva

Abstract

One of the main problems of modern democracies is the alienation of citizens from political processes. In this context, civil society is an important part of the democratic process. It provides citizens with an alternative opportunity to express different views and promote different interests in decision-making processes, in addition to the opportunities offered by political parties and lobby groups. Switzerland has long shown the highest values of satisfaction with its democracy worldwide and is a classic example of a political system with the use of strong elements of direct democracy in practice. In the context of the possibilities of citizen participation, in addition to the classic elections, the two most common alternatives in Switzerland are the two institutes of direct democracy, namely the referendum and the popular initiative. The aim of this paper will be to present in more detail the key aspects of the exercise of direct democracy in the Swiss constitutional conditions.

Key words

Participation, Switzerland, Direct Democracy, Referendum, Popular Initiative

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Introduction

Why the Swiss are so very happy with their democracy is perhaps a classic question in the context of democracy research as such. Switzerland has long shown the highest levels of satisfaction with its democracy worldwide. The linguistic, cultural, religious or political diversity of Swiss society paradoxically guarantees the power stability of the political system and promotes economic development, which again promotes satisfaction with democracy. The stability of the political system can generally be achieved through four different principles, namely parliamentarism, division of power, participation and federalism. Switzerland is at the forefront of implementing these principles, which promote the people's satisfaction with their democracy. The most important principle in the case of Switzerland is the issue of participation arising from the institute of direct democracy, the implementation of which is most typical for Switzerland.

Switzerland is a classic example of a political system with the use of strong elements of direct democracy in practice. It is thus a dual system, where a typical parliamentary democracy with political parties and a common division of power is complemented by a system of regular referendums, in which citizens can directly participate in power and challenge the solutions adopted, or propose their own. In the context of opportunities for citizen participation, in Switzerland, in addition to the classic elections, the two most common alternatives are two institutes of direct democracy, namely the referendum and the People's Initiative.

1 Participation as the Basis of a Democratic Political System

Civic participation represents an extensive socio-political science concept that has a multidisciplinary character and a societal impact. Its conceptual definition often corresponds to the content of the research. Civic participation is understood as a means of solving the deficit of representative democracy and the problems of the development of democratic institutions in postmodern societies. In a narrower sense, it is defined as political participation expressing the direct participation of

citizens in the processes of governance, which is expressed by the act of elections or popular voting at the local, regional or national level. (Strussová, Petríková, 2009)

In general, the issue of civic participation in sociology can be understood as a component of the process of socialization, acculturation in public life (Pašiak, 1993), in political terminology expresses a form of participatory, direct democracy, in legal literature civic participation is defined as one of the most important civil rights the right of citizens to participate in the administration of public affairs. (Řehůřek, 1997) Civic participation is similarly defined in public policy terminology. Citizens' participation in the administration of public affairs is associated with bringing public power closer to the general public within decentralized public administration and the importance of participation lies mainly in increasing the legitimacy of public sector decisions, influence on decision-making and results, in this sense civic participation. (Sičáková-Beblavá, 2005)

Citizens' active interest in what is happening in society is an essential part of a functioning democracy. By enabling the public to participate in decision-making and by involving citizens in the activities of civil society, it is possible to increase confidence in democratic institutions and prevent the radicalization of public life. Civic participation must therefore be guided by several principles. The first is the very presumption of its application. Open and accessible participation processes must be based on agreed participation parameters. In this context, the condition for civic participation is, in particular, the right to assemble and associate citizens or freedom of expression. Another principle is trust. An open and democratic society is based on an honest relationship between the various actors and sectors. Although NGOs and public authorities have different roles, their common goal of improving people's lives can only be satisfactorily achieved on the basis of trust, which presupposes transparency, mutual respect and credibility. Accountability and transparency is thus another principle of civic participation. (Kódex dobrej praxe..., 2009)

We can state that citizen participation is an important function of democratic civil society, which contributes to the integration of society. For the theoretical-empirical connection of both concepts of civil society and civic participation, the key fact is that a democratic political system is built on the possibility of the citizen by direct participation to influence public affairs. Every politically advanced democratic system has a mechanism that serves to integrate civic views into government policy. It is represented by formal and informal systems. Formal means can be understood as effective constitutional mechanisms by which civic attitudes can be successfully integrated into government policy. In this case, the emphasis is primarily on direct democracy at the expense of representative democracy. Direct democracy, also called participatory democracy, is based on the direct, non-mediated and lasting participation of citizens in governance. Its main form includes, in particular, a popular initiative and a referendum, which can be perceived as traditional-modern possibilities for citizens' participation in public

affairs. In addition to traditional-modern possibilities, we can divide the participation of citizens (especially the political one) into traditional and modern. These can be further categorized more specifically (Harles, Lange, 2015):

• Traditional options:
  – Participation in elections
  – Membership in political parties or associations
• Traditional-modern options:
  – People's Citizens' Initiatives
  – The referendum
  – Participation in public protests and demonstrations
  – Petitions and campaigns in the traditional sense
• Modern (electronic) options:
  – E-petitions and social media campaigns
  – Participation in e-elections
  – Using the possibilities of e-Government
  – Participation in online protests and online discussion forums
  – Virtual membership in a political party

Unlike other European countries, Switzerland is a country that practices direct democracy to a large extent in practice. In principle, all major legislative decisions are or may be subject to direct democracy in Switzerland, both at national (federal) level and at cantonal and local level. As this is a very broad issue, in our article we will focus on a popular initiative and a referendum at the national level, which can be seen as the two most important traditional-modern opportunities for citizen participation in public affairs in Switzerland.

2 Forms of Direct Democracy in Switzerland

Elements of direct democracy such as referendums and civic initiatives are the basis of civic participation. The cradle of direct democracy is clearly Switzerland, of which dozens of other countries have, to a greater or lesser extent, taken their lead. The initiative also works in the EU, but not very effectively. Since the classical Swiss model is given historically, it as a whole cannot be easily applied to the political system of another state. It is typical for Swiss people to think responsibly and for the benefit of their community. Of course, direct democracy is not a new political phenomenon, but it is very popular nowadays. It already functioned in ancient Greece and was thoroughly and clairvoyantly described and explained in particular by Aristotle. At present, however, we are already meeting practically only with the so-called semi-direct democracy.

The instrument of truly direct democracy in the manner of ancient Greece is now held in Switzerland (once a year) in only two small cantons (Appenzell Innerrhoden and Glarus). In practice, contemporary Switzerland is characterized by a semi-direct democracy, the tools of which are a popular initiative, a mandatory referendum and an optional referendum. Although Switzerland is not the only country in which the principles of semi-direct democracy are commonly and systemati-

cally applied, it is the only country in which this is also the case at the highest Swiss (federal) level. As this is a very broad issue, in this article we will take a closer look at the application of semi-direct democracy in Switzerland at this highest Swiss level.

2.1 Folk initiative

A frequently used form of direct democracy in the context of opportunities for citizen participation in Switzerland is the so-called "People's Initiative". The People's Initiative (Volksinitiative) gives, simply put, every Swiss citizen the opportunity to change the constitution. The condition for this is the collection of 100,000 signatures of eligible voters expressing their consent to the proposed amendment to the constitution. This proposal is then put to a national vote. A certain peculiarity is that only a vote on the change or adoption of a new constitution, but no longer a law, can be triggered by a popular initiative. A Swiss citizen can thus "win" a change in the constitution, but he cannot vote to change the ordinary law, which in turn sometimes leads to a bit of bizarre provisions governing matters that should rather be regulated by ordinary law. An example is Article 72 (1) of the Federal Constitution, which prohibits the construction of minarets, which is something that in the legislation governing the foundations of the functioning of the state simply has nothing to look for. On the other hand, if a Swiss citizen wants to get active legislative changes, he has no choice but to intervene in the constitution with his proposal. We can perceive the people's initiative in a broader sense as any manifestation of the people. Thanks to it, the citizen is involved in solving public affairs. (Novak, 2017)

In the narrower sense, we refer to the people's initiative only as the participation of the people in the process of adopting legislation subject to a certain population, which is able to initiate the legislative process at various levels of administration. The proposal submitted by a specified population is thus granted the right of so-called legislative initiative, resp. Among the bodies authorized to submit proposals for legal acts at certain levels of government, states also include the people, mostly citizens, in the form of petitions. The people's initiative is applied at both national and local levels. At the local level, Switzerland makes the most of the popular initiative (Krunková, 2016)

If a popular initiative is approved by a majority of citizens and a majority of the cantons (the so-called "double majority"), it will enter into force unchanged. Neither the Swiss Government nor the Swiss Parliament can change it. In the case of the Federal People's Initiative, this text refers to a partial (or theoretically also a complete) revision of the Swiss Constitution, which means that the text of the People's Initiative will become part of the Swiss Constitution. This explains why topics that do not usually figure in institutions also appear in it. Thanks to the very first successful people's initiative, for example, an article was sent to the Swiss constitution on how animals may and may not be slaughtered. This first federal

people's initiative was proclaimed by its authors in 1892, and in 1893 it was approved by a majority of citizens and cantons. (Novak, 2017)

The condition of the popular initiative is therefore the collection of 100,000 signatures of eligible voters expressing their consent to the proposed amendment to the constitution. This proposal is then put to a national vote. According to today's rules, the authors of the People's Initiative have 18 months to collect the stated number of signatures in support of it. The signatures must first be sent for inspection in the municipalities where they were collected, and then they must be submitted in bulk at the Federal Office. The Federal Assembly (Parliament) then determines whether the text of the People's Initiative is not in conflict with the principle of unity of form, the principle of unity of content and the binding laws of international law. If he concludes that he can, he can cancel the initiative, but this usually does not happen and the assessment of the text of the initiative is mostly only formal (so far only 4 popular initiatives have been annulled by the parliament since 1892). However, Parliament can oppose the popular initiative of the so-called "counter-proposal". Since 1987, citizens have been able to vote for a popular initiative and at the same time for a counter-proposal. If both texts are approved by a majority of citizens and cantons, the citizens' answer to the additional question, which version (ie the text of the initiative or its counter-proposal) they prefer, decides. This new possibility to vote for both a people's initiative and a counter-proposal has two consequences. Firstly, the parliament less often comes up with counter-proposals, and secondly, the authors less often withdraw their popular initiatives. (Kley, 2015)

If the authors of a popular initiative consider that the counter-proposal has sufficiently taken into account their objectives, they may withdraw their popular initiative in favor of the counter-proposal. Since 1892, more than 90 folk initiatives have been withdrawn by their authors. More than 200 federal people's initiatives were subject to a referendum during the same period, of which approximately 180 did not obtain the required double majority and were therefore rejected. The rest gained a double majority and became part of the Swiss constitution. (Novak, 2017)

The people's initiative can be classified according to various criteria. The Swiss constitution itself distinguishes between a constitutional people's initiative according to the subject matter, when the proposal concerns a complete or partial change of the constitution and a legal people's initiative, when it may involve submitting a proposal for a completely new legislation or amendment to an existing law. In terms of form, a popular initiative can be carried out by submitting an already drafted legal act (constitution) or the manifestation of a popular initiative will be only a proposal (draft) for the adoption of a law (constitution), the wording of which will be prepared by the relevant state authority. If the conditions stipulated by the legal order have been met (form of the proposal, number of

signatures, etc.), the legislative body is obliged to discuss and vote on the proposal submitted by the popular initiative according to the usual majority principles. The People's Initiative of 1999, enshrined in Art. 138, 139, 141 par. 1). (Bundesverfassung der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft, 1999)

2.2 Referendum

The second instrument of direct democracy is the referendum. The Swiss constitution distinguishes between optional (voluntary) and mandatory (compulsory) referendums. The referendum has a completely unique position in the Swiss political system and is linked to the specific historical development of the Swiss political system. The referendum has a deep tradition in Switzerland, more than seven hundred years old, but its constitutional grounding can be found in the constitution of 1848, when a new Swiss constitution was adopted after a short civil war (1847-1848). This constitution established the modern political institutions that still exist in Switzerland today, including the institute of a referendum.

The constitution of 1848 introduced the so-called obligatory constitutional referendum for all proposed constitutional changes, introduced the so-called constitutional initiative for a comprehensive revision of the Constitution. On the basis of the petition, citizens were thus able to hold a referendum on the proposed transcript of the constitution. In the constitution of 1874, the so-called voluntary (optional) legislative referendum, in 1891 the possibility of organizing the so-called a constitutional initiative for a partial revision of the constitution, through which citizens could add amendments to the constitution (which in fact means the introduction of a popular initiative at the federal level). A voluntary (optional) contractual referendum was introduced in 1921. These referendums, of course, take place at various administrative and political levels. From communal, through cantonal to federal. (Kobach, 1994)

The use of a referendum at the federal level is subject to federal law. In this case, it is a referendum that affects all citizens and primarily perceives the state as a whole. The use of a referendum or elements of direct democracy in general at a given level corresponds to the seriousness of a particular referendum. It is clear that a referendum at the federal level affects more people than a referendum at the cantonal level, which in turn affects more people than a referendum at the municipal level. The topics that are voted on in referendums at various levels also correspond to this.

Thus, a number of types of referendums are available in Switzerland, mandatory or optional (based on a people's initiative). At the federal level, we can meet with a constitutional referendum, a mandatory or optional legislative referendum, and a voluntary treaty referendum. At the cantonal level it is possible to meet with an obligatory referendum on amending the constitution, an optional referendum on the adoption of the law, an optional financial referendum (in 19 cantons it is mandatory if the proposed cantonal budget exceeds the set expenditure limit). or consultations on the proposal of a fed-

eral authority), a referendum on conventions (concerns agreements concluded between cantons, in nine cantons it is mandatory, in seven optional) and the like. (Kobach, 1994) As we can see, there are indeed a large number of possible types of referendums and other elements of direct democracy that we may encounter in Switzerland. However, all these elements can be generalized. Thus, in Switzerland in general (resulting from the Constitution) there are currently two types of referendum, namely optional (voluntary) and mandatory (compulsory) referendums.

A mandatory referendum is one that must take place on a serious issue. In Switzerland, the cases in which a mandatory referendum is (must be used) are specified. Specific cases are defined by the Constitution in Art. 140. If the people do not approve the issue in a referendum, there can never be a change in the constitution or e.g. Switzerland's accession to the EU, etc. This type of referendum therefore clearly defines what the legislators will decide and what the voters will say, in other words, what specific issues the voters will vote on if the referendum takes place. According to the constitution, the obligatory referendum thus applies (Bundesverfassung der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft, 1999):

*   Amendments to the Federal Constitution
*   Joining collective security organizations or transnational communities
*   Federal emergency laws that are not based on the provisions of the Constitution and have a validity period of more than one year - these federal laws must be put to the vote within one year of their approval by the Federal Assembly
*   A popular initiative for a complete revision of the federal constitution
*   A popular initiative for a partial revision of the federal constitution in the form of a general proposal, which was rejected by the Federal Assembly
*   The question of whether a complete revision of the federal constitution should be carried out in the event of disagreement between the two councils (the National Council and the Council of States forming the Federal Assembly)

According to the constitution, the adoption of any law or certain international treaties may then be subject to an optional referendum. However, in order to call an optional referendum, it is necessary to collect 50,000 signatures of eligible voters within 100 days of the publication of the proposal. An optional referendum can further call for at least 8 cantons. If at least 50,000 voters or 8 cantons demand that a referendum or international treaty be passed in a referendum, a referendum must be held, and if the law is rejected in a referendum, the law is considered unapproved, even though it was previously approved by parliament. (Bundesverfassung der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft, 1999)

The people therefore have a very strong position in the Swiss

system of direct democracy. Without a positive result of the referendum, it is not possible to change the constitution and, with sufficient interest of the citizens, neither the law nor an international treaty. However, only an exceptionally responsible approach by Swiss citizens to direct democracy can guarantee the functioning of the meaningful functioning of the whole system. The Swiss hold national referendums two to four times a year. The average turnout is paradoxically low for voters living in Switzerland, namely 46.2%. (Raždík, 2021) This fact leads to reflections on improving one's democracy. If we look at the results of European citizens' satisfaction surveys of their democracy in general, the citizens of European democracies are more dissatisfied with their political system than ever before. Switzerland is an exception. In a large survey, almost 60% of people were dissatisfied with democracy. Their satisfaction has fallen rapidly since 2005. On the contrary, the Swiss are happier than ever. (Stadelmann-Steffen, 2018)

The reason for the Swiss's satisfaction with their democracy is clearly the strong emphasis of the Swiss on the actual performance of the elements of direct democracy and, at the same time, the idea of permanently improving their democracy. While European democracies are confronted with growing skepticism about their institutions, the idea of "improving" the parliamentary system through new "participatory" instruments is constantly expanding in Switzerland. In addition to new modern opportunities for participation, Switzerland is gradually gaining more and more experience with participatory democracy through the introduction of new methods of participation opportunities for its citizens such as organizing various citizens' conferences, promoting closer cooperation between public administration and the population, etc. (Stadelmann-Steffen, 2018)

Conclusion

In addition to free political competition, political participation is considered one of the constitutive principles of modern democracy. Democratic participation, as citizen participation in the process of political will-making and decision-making, covers a wide range, from elections, party membership and stakeholder engagement, through civic initiatives and voting, to the new participatory processes of modern times. Despite all the diversity of forms, the socio-political content of participation must not be lost, with an emphasis on the exercise of direct democracy, which largely guarantees the satisfaction of citizens with their democracy. In this context, Switzerland is known for its direct democracy.

We can state that in no other country is the population able to vote directly at the ballot box on so many important and less important issues at the national level. Direct democracy is part of Swiss political culture and is therefore essential. Direct democracy in Switzerland offers its people the opportunity to participate directly in the political process and increases citizens' control over the political process. Therefore, the political results are approaching the preferences of the population. The associated satisfaction of the Swiss with democratic results also increases their personal happiness. Switzerland's direct democracy is therefore not a form of opposition, but a very useful complement to its representative system. Citizens' decisions do not apply directly, they are always linked to parliamentary decisions, but are part of the overall consensus system. Finally, we can say that the possibility of Swiss participation through direct democratic participation in public affairs leads to greater satisfaction of Swiss with their democracy and political system.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF OPERATIONAL PROGRAM RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN CONTEXT OF FULFILLMENT OF MEASURABLE INDICATORS

Vladimír KOVÁČIK

Abstract

The area of research and development is emphasized as a priority in international and domestic documents strategic for the development of the Slovak Republic. Due to the long-term underfunding of this area, the support from the EU structural funds in the programming period 2007-2013 became a breakthrough, as it was the dominant source of funding for research, development and innovation, in particular by supporting the development of research infrastructure. The most common way to measure the success of the implementation of the operational program is through the measurable indicators. The main objective of this paper is to analyze the success of the implementation of the Operational Program Research and Development through the analysis of the fulfillment of the set values of selected measurable indicators.

Key words

research and development - operational program - measurable indicators - EU structural funds - programming period

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Introduction

Research, development and technological innovation are an irreplaceable and largest source of high-quality knowledge. They are the pillar of every knowledge economy. Research and development (hereinafter referred to as "R&D") is a basic prerequisite for maintaining the development of the economy and competitiveness of the Slovak Republic (hereinafter referred to as "SR") in the long term. The basic precondition for the competitive implementation of research, development and innovation (hereinafter referred to as "R & D & I") is to ensure a sufficient amount of funding). Economic growth is based on the development, adoption of new technologies and their creative application (Kačírková, 2016).

Empirical analyzes show that investing in education, science, research, development, innovation and new technologies are investments in economic growth and are key to the country's long-term competitiveness in a globalized world (Gonda, 2007). Efficient domestic R&D, the innovative capacity of the economy and the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) are a prerequisite for a higher level of assessment of well-being, economic growth and employment (Morvay et al., 2017).

Support for R & D & I from the EU structural funds is one of the long-term priorities of both the European Commission and the Slovak government. R&D in the context of the Europe 2020 strategy is based on assumptions about the key role of knowledge in delivering smart growth (Gros & Roth, 2012). According to the European Commission's projections, technological and non-technological innovations should account for up to two thirds of overall economic growth in 2010-2060 (European Commission, 2012). Economic growth generated by research and innovation is a prerequisite for the long-term sustainability of the public services system in the areas of health care, pensions and social services (European Commission, 2010).

The Operational Program Research and Development (hereinafter referred to as "OP R&D") introduced an absolutely new element in support of research and development in Slovakia during the 2007-2013 programming period. It was the largest comprehensive program in the history of Slovakia. Its main goal was to renew the modernization of outdated research infrastructure, which put Slovak researchers and research organizations at a disadvantage in European competition. The total allocation for the operational program amounted to more than 1.2 billion EUR.

The Slovak R&D 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. The competitiveness of a region and growth based on technologies and innovations depends to a large extent on the ability to create an attractive infrastructure environment that enables and facilitates interactions and cooperation between industry and universities (Battelle Report, 2007). Technological development of the Slovak economy, which is currently largely based on the import of foreign technologies, should be balanced by more intensive development of domestic innovation capacity, which would be based on effective domestic research and development, educated sophisticated workforce (Vokoun, 2013). In 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 period 2007-2013.

The OP R&D mainly contributes to the fulfillment of the Europe 2020 strategy priority "smart growth" and to the integrated guideline no. 4: Optimizing support for research, development and innovation, strengthening the knowledge triangle and unlocking the potential of the digital economy. This guideline also implies the above-mentioned objective of the European Union to improve the conditions for research and development, in particular with a view to increasing combined public and private investment in this sector to 3% of GDP by 2020. Funding for R&D in the SR has recorded a relatively rapid increase in recent years compared to the average of V4 countries, but still reaches less than half the level of the EU average as a share of GDP.

Methods and objectives

The main objective of this paper is to analyze the success of the implementation of the Operational Program Research and Development through the analysis of the fulfillment of the set values of selected measurable indicators. In this article, we worked with secondary data. The data we used in this article were quantitative. Methods of analysis, synthesis, deduction and induction were used to achieve the main objective. The data regarding the values of the measurable indicators were obtained from the Annual reports of the OP R&D during the programming period 2007-2013.

**Operational Program Research and Development
in the programming period 2007-2013**

In 2007 - 2013, the OP R&D financed by the EU Structural Funds was the dominant source of R & D & I funding in Slovakia under National strategic reference frame (Central Coordination Body, 2007). In particular, the OP R&D supported the construction of research infrastructure in all regions and in all sectors. The OP R&D is a programming document on the basis of which support for R&D activities and infrastructure was provided in 2007-2013.

In 2007 - 2013, the OP R&D financed by the EU Structural Funds was the dominant source of R & D & I funding in Slovakia under National strategic reference frame (Central Coordination Body, 2007). In particular, the OP R&D supported the construction of research infrastructure in all regions and in all sectors. The OP R&D is a programming document on the basis of which support for R&D activities and infrastructure was provided in the programming period 2007-2013.

Being the basic condition for further progress of R&D, the quality and standards of education provided at universities is related to the conditions of buildings and facilities, in which the educational process is delivered. The value and accessibility of education has long been affected by the lack of investment in the technical and internal facilities of schools. The consequence is an unsatisfactory technical state of a high number of buildings, moral and physical obsolescence of technical equipment, high operational costs and a lack of modern technology used in the educational process at universities (The Research Agency, 2018).

OP R&D measures in the area of building and renewing R&D infrastructure were aimed at monitoring the provision of employment (not only through direct projects financed from EU funds, but mainly by building up the innovation capacity of the SR) in order to strengthen the competitiveness of enterprises operating in Slovakia and developing new businesses with good competitive potential.

In Slovakia, the OP R&D was the primary source of R&D funding in 2007-2013. Before 2007, there were practically no major research centers in Slovakia and no real system of financing, respectively at least a system leading to the creation of such centers comparable to some other EU countries.

The Managing Authority for OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013 is the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the SR. The Intermediate Body for the OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013 is the Agency for Structural Funds of the EU - ASFEU, which was renamed The Research Agency in 2015.

In terms of R&D expenditure (one of the key indicators of national innovation development), the SR is characterized by a long-term under-funded R&D sector. Before the start of the 2007-2013 programming period, total R&D expenditure was around 0.5% of GDP, rising over the years. This increase was due to an increase in capital expenditure on equipment, which is mainly the result of drawing on Structural Funds for R&D. If we compare total R&D expenditures in other European economies, Slovakia is one of the lowest spending countries.

The OP R&D was implemented by 5 priority axes in the 2007-2013 programming period. The financial contribution for this operational program is EUR 1 209 415 373.

By the end of the programming period, overall 1412 grant applications in the total amount of EUR 3 662 137 885 were submitted in 47 calls, which were launched by Managing Authority and Intermediate Body.

Overall, 560 projects have been contracted in the total amount of EUR 1 617 895 284 in the programming period. Drawing of EU funds within OP R&D as at 31 December 2016 totaled EUR 1 211 855 749, while the share of EU funds in the total allocation reached the level of 100.20%.

In the 2007-2013 programming period, overall 491 projects (except the Technical Assistance projects) were supported by the OP R&D:

- 107 projects to support centers of excellence,
- 134 applied research projects for the public sector,
- 99 applied research projects for the private sector (of which 8 competence centers and 56 research and development centers),

- 72 universities infrastructure projects,
- 46 R&D infrastructure projects,
- 2 JEREMIE projects,
- 17 national projects,
- 14 university science park projects and research centers.

Measurable indicators of the Operational Program R&D

The success of the implementation of the OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013 can be measured in many ways. The most common way is through the measurable indicators. Within the evaluation of the OP R&D, measurable output and result indicators were used for monitoring the OP, which were a mandatory part of the OP and served to quantify the specific objectives of the OP priority axes. In addition to output and result indicators, also the impact indicators were used. The program indicators related directly to the strategy and objectives of the OP and represented quantified information on the material, or financial progress in the implementation of the objectives of the respective levels of the OP program structure. Selected program indicators (especially OP output and result indicators) were of key importance for the European Commission and were defined as the main "CORE" indicators. Through these indicators, the European Commission expresses its priori-

ties as defined in the Community Strategic Guidelines on Cohesion (European Commission, 2018), especially in terms of control and the possibility of comparing data between operational programs (or priority axes, measures). The OP also included contextual indicators, which represent quantified information on the social, economic and ecological situation of the environment in which the objectives of the OP are implemented. Context indicators were used mainly in the OP evaluation process (ex-ante, ongoing, ex-post) and represented quantified starting points for assessing the impact of the expected impacts of OP implementation on the social, economic and environmental situation of the environment in which the OP is implemented. OP R&D set key indicators (so-called Core indicators) and context indicators for monitoring the progress of OP implementation. In addition, projects (output, result and impact) indicators were set within each priority axis. Progress in meeting the values of the projects indicators in relation to the planned target values with emphasis on the indicators that most accurately characterize the main objectives of OP R&D and priority axes can be seen in Table 1, which compares the fulfillment of selected measurable indicators with objectives set by beneficiaries on the basis of concluded contracts and the goal set in operational program in the programming period 2007-2013.

Table 1 Overview of selected measurable projects indicators of OP R&D in the programming period 2007 – 2013

Name of the indicator	Target value at the level of OP 2013	Objective set by the beneficiaries under the contracts								
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
		Achieved value								
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Number of researchers who benefit professionally from the support provided	16 610	0	N/A	N/A	120 669	122 399	108 855	90 074	89 821	89 588
		0	0	671	3624	10994	12 463	16 307	18 774	98 524
Number of publications in professional journals	584	0	N/A	N/A	16 142	17 337	17 857	19 108	19 192	18 967
		0	0	39,75	779,29	2598,81	4 735	7 518,16	9 109,81	12 019,58
Number of jobs created for researchers	484	0	N/A	N/A	1093	1080	599	683	709	717
		0	0	0	0	0	3	25	39,5	166,2
Number of EPO patent applications	98	0	N/A	N/A	40	58	53	56	62	58
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
Number of newly established spin-offs of small enterprises founded by researchers	66	0	N/A	N/A	5	16	19	47	47	38
		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3

Name of the indicator	Target value at the level of OP 2013	Objective set by the beneficiaries under the contracts								
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
		Achieved value								
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Number of newly built buildings and facilities	6	0	N/A	N/A	88	7	10	10	12	12
		0	0	4	15,75	3	5	5	7	12
Number of renovated buildings and equipment	39	0	N/A	N/A	N/A	81	120	120	139	134
		0	0	N/A	N/A	40	56	75	86	134
The number of students who benefit from a better infrastructure	345 526	0	N/A	N/A	454 662	457 662	575 209	563 859	650 712	649 562
		0	0	0	0	41 702	106 110	196 404	221 397	464 698

ource: The Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic (2015). OP R&D annual monitoring reports 2007-2013

As of 31 October 2016, 98.524 researchers were registered at the level of OP R&D in 419 contracted research projects, which benefit professionally from the provided support. The given indicator is realistically fulfilled to 593%. For the indicator "number of publications in professional journals", the achieved value is 12.019,58 and that means that the given indicator was met at 2,058%. Within 72 projects in priority axis 5, 464.698 students benefit from the provided support in 12 newly built educational facilities of universities (indicator fulfilled at 200%) and in 134 reconstructed buildings and facilities (indicator fulfilled at 344%). Overall 9 EPO patent applications were filed, 3 new small business spin-offs were created, founded by researchers. A total of 170 institutions were technically evaluated for OP R&D.

In accordance with the set target values of measurable indicators in the contracts for the provision of NFP, the supported projects will create 717 new jobs. The quality and working conditions of the researchers themselves will be improved. More than 89.588 researchers will benefit from the support provided. The establishment of 38 new spin-off companies in the fields of ICT, electrical engineering, molecular medicine and biomedicine, biophysics, materials research, chemical and civil engineering was also supported.

Based on data from individual annual monitoring reports evaluating the implementation of the OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013, it is possible to evaluate the fulfillment of CORE indicators and context indicators as follows:

CORE indicators

The OP R&D monitors ten so-called CORE indicators that were of key importance for the European Commission in terms of mutual comparison of efficiency, effectiveness and economy with regard to the implementation of OP.

CORE indicator "Number of projects (" Number of research and development projects ") with a value of 419 has a fulfillment of 27% of the target value of the OP, 401 projects were duly completed.

The CORE indicator "Number of educational projects" also represents the value "number of contracted projects in priority axis 5", as in this case these are projects with educational infrastructure - the value of the indicator is calculated by adding the number of contracted projects under priority axis 5, which is 72, t. j. has a fulfillment of 120% of the target value of the OP, 70 projects were duly completed.

The CORE indicator "Number of direct investment aid projects for SMEs" with a value of 106 has a 118% fulfillment of the target value of the OP. Of the total number of contracted projects, 101 projects were duly completed.

The CORE indicator "Number of projects related to the information society" with a value of 213 has a 142% fulfillment of the target value of the OP. Of the total number, 206 projects were completed.

The CORE indicator "Number of cooperation projects of research and development institutions with social and economic practice" - "Number of cooperation projects of enterprises and research institutions") with a value of 423 is fulfilled at 40% of the target value of the OP.

The CORE indicator "Number of jobs created for researchers" ("Number of jobs created" and "Number of jobs created for research and development") with a value of 166.2 has a 34% fulfillment of the target value of the OP.

The CORE indicator "Number of jobs created for researchers - men" ("Number of jobs created for men") with a value of 94.6 has a 39% fulfillment of the target value of the OP.

The CORE indicator "Number of jobs created for researchers - women" ("Number of jobs created for women") with a value of 71.5 has a 30% fulfillment of the target value of the OP.

The CORE indicator "Number of students benefiting from quality infrastructure" ("Number of students benefiting from assistance") is monitored only under priority axis 5 at project level

as an impact indicator. The indicator shows the fulfillment of 464,698 students, which represents 134% of the fulfillment of the target value of the OP.

The CORE indicator "Induced investments" shows a value of 34.5279 t. j. the indicator was met at 576% of the target in the OP.

CONTEXT indicators

Aggregate Innovation Index

The indicator is primarily focused on innovation outputs. It assesses the innovation performance of Member States and the EU from a broader perspective, comparing a wide range of 24 innovation indicators, including assumptions, business activities and outputs. In the 2007-2013 programming period, the SR alternated between 20 and 23 in the European Union. The target value of 19 was not reached, as the SR was in 22nd position by the end of the programming period, which is identical to the starting position from 2005.

Number of EPO patent applications per 1 million residents

The low innovation performance of the Slovak economy is best documented by the low patent performance. In the programming period 2007-2013, the SR did not produce more than 8 patent applications per 1 million residents. The indicator did not meet the target value of 18.

Share of R&D personnel in relation to the total workforce

During the 2007-2013 programming period, the share of R&D personnel in relation to the total number of labor force (number of persons per 1000 labor force) fluctuated at the level of 5.6 to 7% (from 2010). The target value of the OP was 8%, which was not met, as the value from 2014 represented a 6.631% share.

Total expenditure on research and development (% of GDP)

In terms of R&D expenditure (one of the decisive indicators of national innovative development), the SR is characterized by a long-term underfunded R&D sector. Prior to the start of the 2007-2013 programming period, total R&D expenditure was around 0.5% of GDP, gradually increasing in recent years. This increase was due to an increase in capital expenditure on infrastructure and equipment, which is mainly the result of drawing on structural funds focused on R&D. If we compare the total expenditure on R&D in other European economies, then Slovakia is one of the countries with the lowest expenditure. The target of 1.8 % of GDP on R&D expenditure could not be met by the end of the program period, as the value reached in 2015 is 0.89 %.

Number of USPTO patents granted per 1 million residents

Slovakia is a low-patent country. Based on the number of patents granted at the US Patent Office (USPTO), it is one of the countries in the group of moderate innovators. To patent their discoveries, it is necessary to motivate researchers, increase their awareness of the need to protect intellectual property,

create mechanisms and auxiliary tools to simplify patenting. In the programming period 2007 - 2013, the number of granted UPSTO patents in the SR to 1 million populations ranged from 2.42 to 3.5. Since the target value was 2 patents granted, we can state that the target was met.

Proportion of doctoral students in science and technology in the population aged 20-29

Without quality human resources as part of the research and development infrastructure, it is not possible to carry out research and development at the top European level. The promising core of the highest quality human resources in the field of research and development is represented by doctoral and post-doctoral students. During the 2007-2013 programming period, the share of doctoral students in the field of science and technology in the population aged 20-29 increased only very slowly, to the level of 0.4 to 0.6 % (from 2012). The target value of the OP was 0.7 %.

Percentage of the population with university education aged 25-64

The graduate rate indicates the country's capacity to produce workers with progressive, special knowledge and skills, with an awareness of better pay and employment positions. During the 2007-2013 programming period, the percentage of the population with tertiary education aged 25-64 gradually increased from 14.4 % to the 21.15 %

Conclusions

The contribution of projects implemented in the 2007-2013 programming period within the OP R&D can be considered a breakthrough in many aspects for the R&D&I infrastructure. A separate support framework (OP R&D) was established for the area of R&D support, where EUR 1.209 billion was allocated. These funds have been successfully spent by the end of the programming period.

For the first time in the history of the SR, partnerships between individual research institutions have started to form, where top-level research teams have been established for each area - while the lack of crystallization of Slovak science into specific research teams that would be internationally attractive for partnerships equipped with at least basic infrastructure was one of the weakest aspects of the Slovak science and technology system. Better organization of research through the established research teams and more modern infrastructure has made Slovak research institutions, which have become an equal partner for top research institutions abroad, more attractive, and thus has been able to enter international R&D projects.

By creating priorities and top scientific teams, Slovak universities and the Slovak Academy of Sciences were able to begin the process of building science parks and research centers of national importance - projects that began with the implementation of centers of excellence form the basic building blocks of university parks and research centers of national importance. For key industries and the Slovak economy, the creation

of quality partnerships with industry in the form of industrial R&D centers and competence centers was supported through projects. The bottom-up system identified strong thematic directions of Slovak science and technology.

The success of the implementation of the OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013 can be measured in many ways. The most common way is through the measurable indicators. Within the evaluation of the OP R&D, measurable output and result indicators were used for monitoring the OP, which were a mandatory part of the OP and served to quantify the specific objectives of the OP priority axes. In addition to output and result indicators, also the impact indicators were used. Based on the analysis of the measurable indicators of the OP R&D in the programming period 2007-2013 we can conclude, that the implementation of the OP can be considered successful, as most of the targeted values of the projects indicators have been fulfilled. Regarding the Core indicators, out of overall 10 indicators 5 have fulfilled the targeted values. Regarding the Context indicators, out of overall 7 indicators only 2 have fulfilled the targeted values. The analysis shows that the project indicators values set by the beneficiaries were set correctly, but the Core and Context indicators were set too ambitiously by The Managing Authority at the beginning of the programming period 2007-2013.

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ATTITUDES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION WORKERS TOWARDS OLDER PEOPLE
POSTOJE PRACOVNÍČOK A PRACOVNÍKOV VEREJNEJ SPRÁVY VOČI STARŠÍM ĽUĎOM

Alena RUSNÁKOVÁ – Natália FERKOVÁ

Abstrakt

The aim of this study was to examine the attitudes towards older people among workers in public administration using Fraboni scale of ageism. A research sample consisted of 93 participants of 4 institutions of public administration aged 24-59 most often in contact with elderly in Kosice municipality. The results suggest that ageist attitudes towards older people are less common among public administration workers, scoring in range from average to slightly positive (positive attitudes towards older people), possessing more stereotypes than affective attitudes and discriminatory tendency. Analyses by age and educational attainment did not revealed significant results.

Kľúčové slová

ageizmus, diskriminácia, postoje voči starším ľuďom, stereotyp, verejná správa

Abstract

Cieľom tejto štúdie bolo zistiť postoje pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy k starším ľuďom pomocou Fraboniovej škály ageizmu. Výskumnú vzorku tvorilo 93 účastníčok a účastníkov zo štyroch organizácií verejnej správy v Košiciach vo veku 24 - 59 rokov, u ktorých je predpoklad najčastejšieho kontaktu so staršími ľuďmi. Výsledky naznačujú, že u pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy sa v menšej miere vyskytujú ageistické postoje voči starším ľuďom, výsledky sa pohybujú v spektre priemeru až v mierne pozitívnom spektre (pozitívne postoje voči starším ľuďom), viac u nich prevažujú stereotypy ako afektívne postoje a diskriminačné tendencie. Analýzy podľa veku a dosiahnutého vzdelania neodhalili významné výsledky.

Keywords

ageism, discrimination, attitudes towards older people, stereotype, public administration

Úvod

Dôležitou klientskou skupinou verejnej správy sú starší ľudia[1], ktorých počet sa vzhľadom na demografické zmeny v spoločnosti zvyšuje. Vzhľadom na digitalizáciu služieb verejnej správy a nižšiu úroveň digitálnej gramotnosti seniorov (Mayerová a Lenhardtová 2017) s preferenciou osobného vybavenia služieb, môže tento podiel ešte narastať, hoci Ministerstvo investícií, regionálneho rozvoja a informatizácie Slovenskej republiky (2021) už na túto situáciu zareagovalo národným projektom zameraným na zlepšovanie digitálnych zručností seniorov. Avšak, či už v rámci osobnej či telekomunikačnej, internetovej alebo akejkoľvek inej formy komunikácie, etické princípy, napríklad uvedené v Etickom kódexe štátneho zamestnanca (Rada pre štátnu službu 2020), by vždy mali určovať správanie pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy voči akejkoľvek klientskej skupiny, nevynímajúc starších ľudí. Takéto správanie má byť bez predsudkov a zaujatosti, nesmie zvýhodňovať

žiadnu fyzickú osobu, dokonca nesmie ani vyvolať zdanie, že zvýhodňuje niektoré subjekty, pracovníčka alebo pracovník nesmie úmyselne alebo z nedbanlivosti uvádzať klienta alebo klientku do omylu a musí ju informovať zrozumiteľne o jej právach a povinnostiach. Podobne aj Hrehová a Brutovská (2018) spomínajú v súvislosti s komunikačnými kompetenciami pracovníka/manažéra verejnej správy sociálnu zrelosť, ktorá by mala obsahovať etické a morálne správanie, Kravčáková, Kozelová a Župová (2015) zase spomínajú v rámci pravidiel efektívnej komunikácie zamestnancov verejnej správy s ich klientom potrebu korektnosti ako zdržanie sa nesprávneho postoja a hodnotenia.

Špecifiká staršieho veku (z biologického psychologického aj sociálneho hľadiska) však môžu túto klientsku skupinu v komunikácii s pracovníčkou alebo pracovníkom verejnej správy, znevýhodňovať. Je dôležité pristupovať ku každému klientovi alebo klientke individuálne, prihliadať na ich špecifiká, ktoré by ich mohli znevýhodňovať v prístupe k informáciám alebo k vybaveniu svojej potreby, ale zachovávať pritom voči nim

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1 Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia definuje starších ľudí podľa chronologického veku od 60 rokov (WHO 2018).

dôstojnosť, rešpekt a transparentnosť. Značným problémom v dodržiavaní týchto zásad pracovníčkami a pracovníkmi verejnej správy však môže byť ageizmus (Kravčáková 2019).

Svetová zdravotnícka organizácia (WHO 2021a) považuje boj proti ageizmu stále za svetovú výzvu. Podľa najnovšej správy OSN o ageizme sa predpokladá, že každý druhý človek na svete disponuje ageistickými postojmi, vedúcimi k horšiemu fyzickému a mentálnemu zdraviu a zníženej kvalite života starších osôb, čo spoločnosť stojí miliardy dolárov každý rok. A WHO upozornilo na to, že sa tento fenomén ešte viac zviditeľnil počas pandémie COVID-19.

Podľa správy špeciálneho Eurobarometra 493 o diskriminácii v Európskej únii (European Commission 2019) je veková diskriminácia, popri diskriminácii na základe rodu, jedna z najrozšírenejších foriem diskriminácie v EÚ založenej na osobnej skúsenosti. Až 40% osôb v EÚ verí, že veková diskriminácia (že ich vnímajú ostatní za príliš mladých alebo príliš starých) je v ich krajine rozšírená. Na Slovensku je to len 22% populácie. Keď sa však pozrieme na diskrimináciu iba starších ľudí, výsledky prieskumu špeciálneho Eurobarometra 437 (European Commission 2015) zistili, že až 50% Slovákov si myslí, že diskriminácia ľudí nad 55 rokov je rozšírená. Taktiež patríme medzi 3 krajiny s najnegatívnejšími postojmi k práci s ľuďmi nad 60 rokov. Podobne na negatívne postoje k zamestnanosti starších ľudí na Slovensku poukázali aj Búgelová a Lukáčová (2019), konkrétne negatívne postoje k zamestnanosti starších ľudí u zamestnankýň a zamestnancov verejnej správy na Slovensku zistili Kravčáková a Rovenská (2019).

Čo sa však týka ageizmu u pracovníčok a pracovníkov (zamestnankýň a zamestnancov) verejnej správy na Slovensku mimo kontextu práce, zameraného nie na ageizmus na pracovisku ale voči klientom a klientkám v staršom veku alebo všeobecne voči starším ľuďom, táto oblasť nie je veľmi preskúmaná. Väčšina výskumných zistení v zahraničí aj na Slovensku v tejto oblasti sa týka sociálnej práce, lekárstva alebo ošetrovateľstva a tieto výskumy naznačujú, že ageizmus voči klientkám a klientom, či pacientkám a pacientom, je vo výkone týchto povolaní v rôznej miere prítomný (napr. Ayalon a Tesch-Römer 2018; Kabátová, Botíková, Uríčková a Slaný 2015; Mészárosová a kol. 2018). Preto sme si dali za cieľ našej štúdie zistiť postoje vybranej skupiny pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy voči starším ľuďom (mieru ageistických postojov).

1. Definícia ageizmu

Na ageizmus sa dá nazerať z viacerých uhlov pohľadu. Podľa Butlera (1969, 1980), ktorý tento pojem zaviedol, môžeme hovoriť o negatívnom postoji voči starším dospelým, starobe a starnutí, o stereotypizácii starších ľudí, ktoré sa odráža v inštitucionálnych normách a politikách, ale môžeme ho chápať aj ako diskrimináciu voči starším ľuďom. Je možné stretnúť sa aj s vymedzením, že ide všeobecne o vekovú diskrimináciu alebo predsudky voči nejakej vekovej skupine (Palmore 1999). Podľa Vidovičovej (2005, s. 6) je ageizmus ideológiou založenou „na zdieľanom presvedčení o kvalitatívnej nerovnosti jednotlivých

fáz ľudského životného cyklu, manifestovaná cez proces systematickej, symbolickej a reálnej stereotypizácie a diskriminácie osôb a skupín na základe ich chronologického veku a/ alebo na ich príslušnosti k určitej generácii." My sa v príspevku orientujeme na ageizmus vyššieho veku, s ktorým sa u mnohých autorov a autoriek spája predstava nekompetentnosti, slabosti, ekonomickej záťaže či neužitočnosti starších dospelých. V tomto kontexte autorka poukazuje aj na tzv. nový ageizmus Kalisha (1979, in Vidovičová 2005, s. 6), ktorý sa dá charakterizovať ako dobre mienené, ochranárske postoje voči seniorom, ktorým je pripisované submisívne postavenie v rámci „zlého ageizmu", pred ktorým ich ochránime. Za ďalší, novší subtyp ageizmu môžeme považovať tzv. benevolentný ageizmus, ako výsledok ageistického správania voči „starším starým", ktorý je síce charakteristický tým, že staršieho človeka považujeme za láskavého ale zároveň za slabého, neschopného (North a Fiske 2013b). Takýto ageizmus je založený na ľútosti voči danej osobe, vyúsťuje do paternalistického správania kombinujúceho aktívnu pomoc a pasívne poškodzovanie. Fiske (2012) nazýva takýto predsudok aj ambivalentným lebo kombinuje pozitívne nazeranie na staršieho človeka ako srdečného s negatívnym nazeraním na jeho kompetentnosť. U Bugentalovej a Hehmanovej (2007) však môžeme tieto pojmy vidieť v mierne odlišnom význame, kde popri hostilnom ageizme (ktorému prislucha charakter vyššie zmieneného tzv. „zlého ageizmu", či charakter prevažne pôvodných teórií ageizmu), autorky rozlišujú benevolentný ageizmus ako ochraniteľský a ľútostivý a ambivalentný ageizmus ako kombináciu hostilného a benevolentného ageizmu. Ageizmus vzniká, keď sa vek používa na kategorizáciu a delenie ľudí spôsobmi, ktoré vedú k ubližovaniu, znevýhodňovaniu a nespravodlivosti. Môže mať mnoho foriem, vrátane predsudečných postojov, diskriminačného správania a inštitucionálnych politík a postupov[2], ktoré zachovávajú stereotypné presvedčenie (WHO 2021a). Prelína sa a zhoršuje ďalšie formy zaujatosti a znevýhodnenia vrátane tých, ktoré súvisia s pohlavím (rodom), rasou a zdravotným postihnutím, čo má negatívny vplyv na zdravie a pohodu ľudí (WHO 2021b).

2. Ageizmus ako postoj

Eaglyová a Chaikenová (1993, s. 1) definujú postoj ako „psychologickú tendenciu, ktorá je vyjadrovaná hodnotením daného objektu s istou hladinou priazne alebo nepriazne". Hoci sú postoje väčšinou charakterizované na bipolárnej úrovni ako pozitívne alebo negatívne hodnotenia, v skutočnosti môžu byť, tak ako uvádza Lawrence (2007), pozitívne, negatívne, ambivalentné alebo neutrálne a môžu variovať v ich intenzite. Význam postojov spočíva vo viacerých funkciách. Cez kognitívne schémy nám zjednodušujú a zefektívňujú spracovanie informácií a pomáhajú pri rozhodovaní, ku ktorým objektom sa priblížiť a ktorým sa vyhnúť, ochraňujú naše ego a udržujú sebaúctu, fungujú ako prostriedok vyjadrovania našich hodnôt a self-konceptu a pomáhajú nám sa sociálne prispôsobovať cez identifikáciu s podobnými ľuďmi (skupinami, subkultúrami)

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2   *Takzvaný inštitucionálny ageizmus (Ayalon a Tesch-Römer 2018).*

a udržiavať s nimi vzťahy, byť akceptovaní príslušníkmi týchto skupín (DeLamater, Myers a Collett 2018; Fabrigar a Wegener 2010). Podľa Hitlina a Pinkstona (2013) je klasický pohľad na postoj ako na hodnotenie objektov, ktoré môžu byť povahy materiálnej, sociálnej alebo ideovej. Tento konštrukt spolu s hodnotami a ideológiami považujú za komponent sociálnych kognícií končiaci sociálnou akciou, ktorá slúži pre zasadenie individuality v sociálnom priestore. Autori uvádzajú, že ide pravdepodobne o jednu z najviac skúmaných oblastí sociálnej psychológie.

Na základe dodnes zaužívaného trojdimenzionálneho modelu, ktorý sa spopularizoval najmä v 60. rokoch 20. storočia (napr. Katz a Stotland 1959; Rosenberg a Hovland 1960), je postoj tvorený tromi komponentami, ktoré sú vzájomne konzistentné. Ide o zložku kognitívnu (názory či presvedčenia o objekte), afektívnu (prežívané emócie voči objektu) a behaviorálnu (predispozícia ku konaniu voči objektu). Novšie verzie tohto modelu, uvádzané napr. u Fabrigara a Wegenera (2010), či Fabrigara, McDonaldovej a Wegenera (2014), však postulujú, že postoj nepozostáva z týchto troch komponentov. Skôr ide o samostatne uložené globálne hodnotenia zhrnutie derivované z jednej alebo viac týchto troch typov hodnotiacich informácií (kognícií, emócií a správania). Postoj tak môže variovať v rozsahu, v ktorom každá z nich prispieva k jeho výslednej podobe. Tieto variácie môžu byť výsledkami takých faktorov ako osobnostné charakteristiky, charakteristiky objektu postoja alebo modality získanej informácie (napr. senzorická alebo písomná). Tento obrat spôsobil to, že skôr by sme mali hovoriť o postojoch založených na kogníciách, postojoch založených na emóciách alebo postojoch založených na správaní (môže ísť aj o vplyv minulého správania). Tieto postoje voči rovnakému objektu môžu byť dokonca aj protichodné.

Iný pohľad rozlišuje postoje explicitné a implicitné (napr. Aronson, Wilson a Akert 2013). K explicitným postojom sa vedome hlásime a môžu byť ľahko vyjadrené. Zisťujú sa zväčša dotazníkmi alebo verbálnym zdieľaním. Implicitné postoje sú neuvedomované, mimovoľné a nekontrolovateľné, preto je veľmi ťažké sa dostať k ich obsahom. Sú ťažšie merateľné, pričom najznámejšou technikou je implicitný asociačný test.

Nás postoje zaujímajú z toho hľadiska, že predsudky sú považované za druh postoja. Eaglyová a Chaikenová (1998, in Hewstone a Stroebe 2006, s. 284) definujú predsudky ako postoje k spoločenským skupinám, Stangor (2009, s. 2) ich vníma ako „negatívne postoje voči skupinám alebo príslušníkom skupín“. Ako tvrdí Nelson (2009, s. 431) opierajúc sa o viacerých autorov, v sociálnej percepcii sú tri základné dimenzie, cez ktoré kategorizujeme druhých ľudí: rasa, rod a vek. Výskumu rasových a rodových predsudkov sa venovala v histórii psychológie relatívne značná pozornosť, na rozdiel od toho, výskum predsudkov založených na veku je poddimenzovaný. Prvé výskumy v 50. rokoch 20. storočia v Severnej Amerike zistili negatívne postoje voči starším ľuďom a starnutiu. Tento fakt potvrdili aj niektoré neskoršie štúdie zo 70-tych, 80-tych a 90-tych rokov. Avšak niektoré iné štúdie posledných rokov ukázali pozitívne až veľmi pozitívne postoje voči starším dospelým. Tieto diskrepancie vo výsledkoch sa ukázali byť v odlišných štýloch otázok použitých dotazníkov, pričom pri otázke na postoje voči starému rodičovi (staršiemu šéfovi, susedovi) boli výsledky pozitívne ale pri otázke na postoje voči starším ľuďom vo všeobecnosti boli výsledky značne negatívne.

3. Meranie ageizmu

Pre štúdium ageizmu bolo za posledných viac ako 50 rokov skonštruovaných niekoľko meracích nástrojov. Jednými z prvých testov boli sebahodnotiaci dotazník obsahujúci 137 výrokov vytvárajúcich 13 kategórií od Tuckmana and Lorgea (1952), ktorý testuje mýty a stereotypy o starobe a dotazník obsahujúci 20 nedokončených viet od Kogana (1961), založený na kritike predchádzajúceho. Spolu so Sheltonovou bol Kogan (1962) medzi prvými, ktorý upozornil na rozdiely v postojoch voči starším mužom a starším ženám. V súčasnosti sa už tieto dotazníky takmer nepoužívajú. Medzi často využívané sebahodnotiace dotazníky súčasnosti patria Sémantický diferenciál starnutia (Rosencranz a McNevin 1969) merajúci postojovú valenciu, dotazník FAQ (Palmore 1977) zisťujúci vedomosti o starnutí a starších ľuďoch, ktorý sa používa na nepriame meranie postojov, a Fraboniovej škála ageizmu (1990), vyvinutý aby testoval popri kognitívnej dimenzii postojov dovtedy skonštruovaných dotazníkov aj jeho afektívnu dimenziu. Medzi najnovšie sebahodnotiace dotazníky patria Komprehenzívna škála ageizmu (Tipton 2005) zameraná na pozitívne a negatívne stereotypy o starších ako aj mladých ľuďoch, dotazník ROPE (Cherry a Palmore 2008) merajúci pozitívne a negatívne ageistické správanie a Škála ageizmus normatívneho, medzigeneračného napätia (North a Fiske 2013a). Škála ambivalentného ageizmu (Cary a kol. 2016) koreluje s Fraboniovej škálou ageizmu, položky hostilného ageizmu výraznejšie ako celková škála alebo škála benevolentného ageizmu.

Pre meranie implicitných postojov môžeme spomenúť implicitný asociačný test AGE IAT (Hummert a kol. 2002). V kontexte ageizmu na pracovisku je známy dotazník Škála vekových stereotypov na pracovisku (Ringenbach a Jacobs 1994, in Goldberg a McKay 2016, s. 385), na Slovensku je to nepublikovaný Dotazník postojov k zamestnanosti seniorov od Búgelovej a Čupkovej alebo Škála postojov k zamestnanosti seniorov od Búgelovej, Čupkovej a Kravčákovej (Búgelová a Lukáčová 2019). My sme si pre výskum vybrali Fraboniovej škálu ageizmu, ktorá sa nezameriava len na postoje založené na kogníciách ale aj na ich afektívnu a behaviorálnu dimenziu a vzhľadom na koreláciu s hostilným ageizmom Škály ambivalentného ageizmu je pre nás vhodným nástrojom pre zisťovanie negatívnych postojov voči starším ľuďom. V súvislosti s rodom viacerí autori a autorky s použitím tejto škály zistili, že muži majú oproti ženám signifikantne negatívnejšie postoje voči starším dospelým (Fraboni, Saltstone a Hughes 1990; Kalavar 2001; Rupp, Vodanovich a Credé 2005). Podobné výsledky so svojim dotazníkom dosiahli aj Cherryová a Palmore (2008). Vo výskume Búgelovej, Čupkovej a Kratochvíľovej (2019) však vykazovali vyššiu mieru

negatívnych postojov ženy. Štúdie zameriavajúce sa na vzťah veku a ageizmu tiež nie sú celkom jednoznačné. Vo výskumnom súbore Ruppovej, Vodanovicha a Credého (2005) s použitím Fraboniovej škály ageizmu vykazovali mladší ľudia vyššie skóre ageizmu ako starší. Podobne aj výsledky Európskej sociálnej sondy (Abrams, Russell, Vauclair a Swift 2011) zistili, že ľudia mali tým pozitívnejší postoj a menej stereotypné zmýšľanie, čím bližšie bola posudzovaná veková kategória ich vlastnému veku, čo v našom kontexte znamená, že čím je človek starší, tým ma pozitívnejší postoj voči starším ľuďom. Avšak napr. Cherryová a Palmore (2008) s použitím vlastného sebahodnotiaceho dotazníka, či Richesonová a Sheltonová (2006) s použitím implicitného asociačného testu nezistili rozdiel podľa veku v postojoch voči starším ľuďom. Ďalšou premennou, ktorá sa javí mať vzťah s ageizmom je dosiahnuté vzdelanie. Abrams, Vauclair a Swift (2011) tvrdia, že ľudia, ktorí sú lepšie vzdelaní vnímajú starších ľudí pozitívnejšie než ostatní.

4. Metódy výskumu

Hlavným cieľom nášho výskumu bolo zistiť mieru ageistických postojov u pracovníkov a pracovníčok verejnej správy. Vychádzajúc z charakteru výskumného cieľa sme si pre jeho naplnenie vybrali kvantitatívnu výskumnú stratégiu. Výskumnou metódou je kvantitatívna sonda dotazníkovou technikou zberu dát.

Na základe výsledkov predchádzajúcich štúdií ohľadom premenných pre rod, vek a dosiahnuté vzdelanie, sme si stanovili nasledovné čiastkové ciele:

- Zistiť vzťah medzi mierou ageizmu a rodom
- Zistiť vzťah medzi mierou ageizmu a vekom
- Zistiť vzťah medzi mierou ageizmu a dosiahnutým vzdelaním

Vychádzajúc z charakteru výskumných cieľov sme si stanovili nasledovné hypotézy:

H1: Predpokladáme rozdiel medzi mužmi a ženami v miere ageizmu. Predpokladáme vyššiu mieru ageizmu u mužov.

H2: Predpokladáme vzťah medzi mierou ageizmu a vekom. Predpokladáme, že mladší pracovníci a pracovníčky dosiahnu vyššiu mieru ageizmu ako starší.

H3: Predpokladáme vzťah medzi dosiahnutým vzdelaním a mierou ageizmu. Predpokladáme, že pracovníci a pracovníčky s nižším vzdelaním budú vykazovať vyššiu mieru ageizmu.

4.1 Výskumný súbor

Výskumný súbor je výsledkom zámerného výberu, tvoreného pracovníčkami a pracovníkmi verejnej správy v Košickej samospráve, u ktorých je v rámci ich pracovnej činnosti predpoklad najčastejšieho stretu s klientmi a klientkami seniorského veku. Oslovené inštitúcie predstavujú oblasť sociálnych vecí a sociálneho bývania, sociálnych vecí a rodiny, sociálneho poistenia, dôchodkového poistenia, poistenia v nezamestnanosti, nemocenského poistenia, garančného poistenia, úrazového poistenia a odboru lekárskej posudkovej činnosti. Oslovenými boli nasledovné inštitúcie: Sociálna poisťovňa v Košiciach,

Magistrát mesta Košice, Úrad práce sociálnych vecí a rodiny na Popradskej ulici v Košiciach a Úrad práce sociálnych vecí a rodiny na Žižkovej ulici v Košiciach, Miestny úrad mestskej časti sídliska KVP v Košiciach, Úrad Košického samosprávneho kraja a Daňový úrad Košice.

Tabuľka 1 Rozloženie výskumného súboru podľa typu inštitúcie

Inštitúcia	Početnosť	Percentá
Magistrát mesta	7	7,5
Sociálna poisťovňa	15	16,1
Úrad práce soc. vecí a rod., Popradská ulica	24	25,8
Úrad práce soc. vecí a rod., Žižkova ulica	47	50,5
Spolu	93	100

Z Miestneho úradu mestskej časti sídliska KVP v Košiciach, Úradu košického samosprávneho kraja a Daňového úradu Košice sme dostali zamietavú odpoveď pre zber našich dát, preto napokon do nášho výskumu neboli zahrnuté. Výsledný výskumný súbor je tvorený 93 osobami, z toho 7 osôb je z Magistrátu mesta, 15 osôb zo Sociálnej poisťovne, 24 osôb z Úradu práce sociálnych vecí a rodiny z oddelenia sprostredkovania a oddelenia poradenstva a 47 osôb z Úradu práce sociálnych vecí a rodiny z oddelení sociálnoprávnej ochrany detí a sociálnej kurately, peňažných príspevkov na kompenzáciu ŤZP a štátnych sociálnych dávok (Tabuľka 1). Z hľadiska rodového zastúpenia sa výskumu zúčastnilo 87 žien (93,5%) a 6 mužov (6,5%), čo spôsobilo nemožnosť testovania čiastkovej hypotézy č. 1 z dôvodu nerovnomerného zastúpenia oboch kategórií rodu. Čo sa týka vekového zloženia, priemerný vek súboru bol 44,90 (SD=9,42, vekové rozpätie od 24 do 59, zošikmenie -0,301). Tri osoby svoj vek neuviedli. V kontexte dosiahnutého vzdelania je najpočetnejšia skupina pracovníčok a pracovníkov s vysokoškolským vzdelaním druhého stupňa (N=60, 64,5%), ako druhá je skupina so stredoškolským vzdelaním s maturitou (N=21, 22,6%), tretia je s vysokoškolským vzdelaním prvého stupňa (N=10, 10,8%). Zastúpenie pracovníkov a pracovníčok so stredoškolským vzdelaním a vysokoškolským tretieho stupňa je rovnako najnižšie v počte 1 (N=1, 1,1%).

4.2 Nástroje, postup zberu dát a ich spracovanie

Výskum sme realizovali prostredníctvom dotazníka Fraboniovej škály ageizmu (skr. FSA, Fraboni, Saltstone a Hughes 1990), ktorý patrí medzi najvyužívanejšie nástroje na zisťovanie percepcie a postojov voči starším ľuďom, vychádzajúc z konštruktu ageizmu definovaného Butlerom. Dotazník bol skonštruovaný so zámerom vyvinúť psychometrický nástroj, ktorý by zahrnul k dovtedy meranému kognitívnemu komponentu mýtov, predstáv a dezinformácií aj afektívnu dimenziu. Dotazník sa nakoniec zameriava na hodnotenie kognitívnych, afektívnych a čiastočne aj behaviorálnych zložiek ageizmu, opierajúc sa o tri z piatich Allportových hladín predsudku: antilokúciu (negatívne verbálne

komentáre), vyhýbanie (vyhýbanie sa príslušníkom skupiny, ku ktorej pociťujem averziu) a diskrimináciu (vyčleňovanie príslušníkov skupiny z niektorých politických práv, privilégií, zamestnaní, vzdelávacích alebo voľnočasových príležitostí...). Podľa viacerých autorov a autoriek má FSA dobrú vnútornú konzistenciu a spoľahlivosť.

Nami preložený dotazník do slovenčiny pozostáva z 29 výrokov o starnutí a starobe, ktoré napĺňajú tri vyššie spomenuté dimenzie: antilokúciu (napr. Väčšina starších ľudí má slabú osobnú hygienu. Starší ľudia žijú iba v minulosti.), vyhýbanie sa (napr. Niekedy sa vyhnem očnému kontaktu so seniormi. Nemám rád/rada, keď sa starší ľudia snažia nadviazať so mnou konverzáciu.) a diskrimináciu (napr. Najlepšie by bolo keby starší ľudia žili len tam, kde nebudú nikoho obťažovať. Väčšine starších ľudí by nemalo byť dovolené obnoviť vodičský preukaz.). Odpovedalo sa prostredníctvom likertovej škály od 1 (silne nesúhlasím) do 4 (silne súhlasím). Odpoveď sa krúžkovala, pričom ku každej otázke mohla byť len jedna správna odpoveď. Odpovede boli skórované od 1 (silne nesúhlasím) po 5 (silne súhlasím), nezodpovedané položky boli skórované stredovým číslom 3, 7 položiek bolo skórovaných reverzne. Výsledné skóre sa môže pohybovať od 29 po 145, pričom vyššie skóre znamená negatívnejší postoj voči starším ľuďom, priemer reprezentuje hodnota 87. Pre overenie vnútornej konzistencie nášho prekladu dotazníka sme vypočítali Cronbachov alfa koeficient pre celkové skóre ako aj pre jednotlivé tri subškály. Všetky vypočítané koeficienty ($\alpha_{\text{celkové skóre}}$ = 0,858, $\alpha_{\text{antilokúcia}}$ = 0,744, $\alpha_{\text{diskriminácia}}$ = 0,576, $\alpha_{\text{vyhýbanie}}$ = 0,754, N=93) boli na akceptovateľnej úrovni, porovnateľné s koeficientami uvádzanými autorkou a autormi dotazníka, slabšiu internú konzistenciu vykazovala subškála diskriminácia.

Dotazník bol administrovaný v písomnej forme a anonymne, od respondentov a respondentiek sa vyžadovali údaje o rode, veku a dosiahnutom vzdelaní. Dotazníky boli distribuované cez kanceláriu prvého kontaktu danej organizácie. Realizácia výskumu prebiehala v termíne od 24.3.2014 do 2.4.2014. V troch prípadoch boli dotazníky vyplnené aj s pripomienkami, v dvoch prípadoch bolo odporúčené bližšie zadefinovať ponímanie staršieho človeka (uviesť vekové rozpätie), v jednom prípade išlo o poznámku, že je dotazník veľmi negatívne zameraný proti seniorom. Zámerom dotazníka nebolo stanoviť predstavu o tom, kto je vekovo považovaný za staršieho človeka, ale zistiť aký postoj má človek voči vlastnej predstave staršieho človeka. Výskum zameraný na zisťovanie vekovej kategorizácie staršieho človeka bol vykonaný napr. ako súčasť Európskej sociálnej sondy (Abrams, Russell, Vauclair a Swift 2011), ktorý zistil, že priemerný predstavovaný vek začiatku staroby v Európe je 62 rokov (na Slovensku 61 rokov). Je však pochopiteľné, že niektorí ľudia potrebujú pre vyjadrenie svojich postojov rámec, čo by mohlo byť charakteristické zvlášť pre ľudí pracujúcich v administratíve, ktorí sa denne musia pridržať presne stanovených čísel. V prípade respondentky, ktorá sa vyjadrila k negatívne ladeným otázkam dotazníka, považujeme už aj samotnú túto reakciu ako vyjadrenie jej postoja voči starším ľuďom, kvali-

tatívnu analýzu takýchto odpovedí a pripomienok sme však nerealizovali.

Na štatistické spracovanie zhromaždených údajov bol použitý program SPSS Statistics 17.0 pre Windows. Použité boli metódy deskriptívnej a induktívnej štatistiky.

5. Výsledky

Priemerná hodnota celkového skóre testu je 66,62 (SD=15,82, R=37-112, N=93), zošikmenie (0,737) poukazuje na normálne rozloženie dát. V porovnaní s validizačnými výsledkami pôvodného FSA v angličtine (M=57,89, SD=11,86, R=30-91, N=231) znamená mierne vyššie hodnoty, je to však nižšia hodnota ako priemerná hodnota testu (87). Výsledok celkového skóre testu tak naznačuje mierne pozitívne postoje voči starším ľuďom.

Výsledky subškál sa tiež pohybujú okolo stredovej hodnoty a nižšie, pričom najvyššiu hodnotu v rámci nášho súboru vykazuje antilokúcia, teda negatívne verbálne komentáre reprezentované stereotypným myslením, kognitívnou dimenziou postojov (M=26,77, stredová hodnota dotazníka pre subškálu antilokúcia je 30, rozdiel tvorí 3,23 bodov od priemeru smerom k pozitívnemu pólu-pozitívne postoje k starším ľuďom) a najnižšiu vyhýbanie, teda tendencia vyhýbania sa kontaktu so staršími ľuďmi, subškála vyjadrujúca afektívnu dimenziu postojov (M=21,09, stredová hodnota dotazníka pre subškálu vyhýbanie je 30, rozdiel tvorí 8,91 bodov od priemeru smerom k pozitívnemu pólu-pozitívne postoje k starším ľuďom). Subškála diskriminácia, ktorá je v teste vyjadrovaná cez tendenciu vylučovať starších ľudí zo sociálneho či politického života dosiahla priemer 18,76 (stredová hodnota dotazníka pre subškálu diskriminácia je 26,5, rozdiel tvorí 7,74 bodov od priemeru smerom k pozitívnemu pólu-pozitívne postoje k starším ľuďom).V porovnaní s pôvodnými výsledkami FSA vykazujú výsledky všetkých subškál mierne vyššie hodnoty, pričom najviac sa od pôvodného výsledku smerom k negatívnemu pólu odkláňa subškála antilokúcia, čo môže znamenať, že naši respondenti a respondentky vykazujú viac stereotypov o starších ľuďoch ako výberový súbor FSA. Najviac sa približuje svojim výsledkom k výsledku FSA subškála Diskriminácia (Tabuľka 2).

Tabuľka 2 Porovnanie výsledkov subškál testu s pôvodnými výsledkami

Subškály	M		SD	
	RF	FSA	RF	FSA
Antilokúcia	26,77	21,73	7,11	5,77
Diskriminácia	18,76	17,23	5,02	3,42
Vyhýbanie	21,09	18,94	6,59	3,08

Legenda: M=Priemer, SD=Smerodajná odchýlka, RF=výsledky Rusnákovej, Ferkovej, FSA=výsledky Fraboniovej, Saltstonea a Hughesa (1990)

Tabuľka 2 Porovnanie výsledkov subškál testu s pôvodnými výsledkami subškál FSA

Pre detailnejší pohľad na štruktúru odpovedí sme realizovali položkovú analýzu dotazníka (Tabuľka 3). Z výsledkov percentuálneho zastúpenia odpovedí vyjadrujúcich negatívny postoj na jednotlivé položky (silne súhlasím a súhlasím, v prípade reverzne skórovaných položiek silne nesúhlasím a nesúhlasím) je možné vidieť, že pri štyroch položkách viac ako 50% respondentiek a respondentov skórovalo ageisticky, pri 9tich položkách to bolo viac ako 30% až 50% respondentiek a respondentov, pri 6tich položkách viac ako 20% až 30% a pri 7mych položkách viac ako 10% až 20% respondentiek a respondentov. Priemer všetkých odpovedí vyjadrujúcich negatívny postoj voči starším ľuďom je 28,05%. Ani jedna položka nevykázala nulovú hodnotu, dokonca ani najčastejšie pozitívne hodnotená položka „Starší ľudia si zaslúžia tie isté práva a slobody ako ostatní členovia našej spoločnosti", kedy 6,5% osôb nesúhlasilo s týmto výrokom. Výsledky ukazujú, že naša vzorka má do istej miery skrytý stereotypný pohľad na starších ľudí, čo dokazuje aj vyššie uvedené priemerné skóre antilokúcie. Nezanedbateľné je však aj percento odpovedí vyjadrujúcich diskriminačné tendencie a tendencie vyhýbania sa starším ľuďom.

Tabuľka 3 Položková analýza vyjadrujúca percentuálne zastúpenie odpovedí v negatívnom spektre likertovej škály

Dotazníková položka	Frekvencia odpovedí vyjadrujúcich negatívny postoj (%)
Popri verejných športových zariadeniach by mali byť zriadené špeciálne kluby, aby starší ľudia mohli súťažiť na ich vlastnej úrovni.	71
Starší ľudia sa sťažujú častejšie ako ostatní ľudia.	55,9
Väčšine starších ľudí by nemalo byť dovolené obnoviť si ich vodičský preukaz.	51,7
Veľa starších ľudí nezaujíma vytváranie nových priateľstiev, miesto toho preferujú okruh priateľov, ktorých poznajú roky.	51,6
Väčšina starších ľudí môže byť nepríjemná, lebo rozprávajú tie isté chyby dookola.	40,9
Veľa starších ľudí žije iba v minulosti.	38,8
Starší ľudia nepotrebujú veľa peňazí k naplneniu svojich potrieb.	38,7
Mnoho starších ľudí je šťastnejších, keď sú s ľuďmi ich vlastného veku.	36,6
*Starší ľudia by mali byť povzbudzovaní, aby vyjadrovali svoj politický názor.	35,5
Väčšina starších ľudí má slabú osobnú hygienu.	32,3
Samovražda teenagera je tragickejšia ako samovražda staršieho človeka.	32,3

Dotazníková položka	Frekvencia odpovedí vyjadrujúcich negatívny postoj (%)
Radšej by som nechcel/a bývať so starším človekom.	32,3
Ak by som bol/a pozvaný/á, radšej by som sa nešiel/nešla pozrieť do klubu dôchodcov.	30,1
Veľa starších ľud je lakomých a hromadia si svoj majetok.	25,8
Mnohým starším ľuďom by sa nemalo dôverovať v starostlivosti o malé deti.	23,7
*Väčšina starších ľudí je zaujímavých, individualistických.	22,6
*Starší ľudia môžu byť veľmi kreatívni.	22,5
Ja osobne by som nechcel/a stráviť veľa času so starším človekom.	21,5
*Starší ľudia by sa mali na sociálnych akciách mladých ľudí cítiť vítaní.	20,5
Starší ľudia by si mali hľadať priateľov vo svojom veku.	18,3
*Je smutné počuť o súčasnom zlom ekonomickom stave starších ľudí v našej spoločnosti.	18,3
Cítiť sa smutne v spoločnosti starších ľudí je asi bežné.	15,1
*Spoločnosť väčšiny starších ľudí je celkom príjemná.	15,1
Od väčšiny starších ľudí sa nemôže očakávať zložitá a zaujímavá konverzácia.	14
Niekedy sa vyhnem očnému kontaktu so staršími ľuďmi.	12,9
Nemám rád/rada, keď sa starší ľudia snažia nadviazať so mnou konverzáciu.	11,8
Starší ľudia by nemali používať naše športoviská (mestské športové časti, telocvične, fitnesscentrá atď.)	9,7
Najlepšie by bolo keby starší ľudia bývali tam, kde nebudú nikoho obťažovať.	7,5
*Starší ľudia si zaslúžia tie isté práva a slobody ako ostatní členovia našej spoločnosti.	6,5

*Pozn.: Odpovede označené hviezdičkou boli skórované reverzne*

Pre naplnenie čiastkových cieľov a overenie stanovených hypotéz, sme pred výberom vhodných testových procedúr vykonali test normality Kolmogorov-Smirnov pre celkové skóre ako aj skóre subškál, ktorý zistil, že celkové skóre a skóre subškály antilokúcie sú normálne rozložené (Celkové skóre: K-S test=0,082, df=93, p<0,156; Antilokúcia: K-S test=0.081, df=93, p<0,166) a subškály diskriminácia a vyhýbanie normálnemu rozloženiu nezodpovedajú (Diskriminácia: K-S test=0,148, df=93, p<0,000; Vyhýbanie: K-S test=0,119, df=93, p<0,002).

Od overenia hypotézy č. 1 sme kvôli veľmi malému počtu mužov vo výskumnom súbore upustili. Na deskriptívnej úrovni vykazovali ženy (N=87, M=66,5, SD=16,2) zanedbateľné veľmi mierne nižšie skóre ako muži (N=6, M=67,8, SD=9,8).

Hypotéza č. 2 bola overovaná Pearsonovou koreláciou pre celkové skóre verzus vek a skóre antilokúcie verzus vek. Pre koreláciu subškál diskriminácia verzus vek a vyhýbanie verzus vek sme použili Spearmanov korelačný koeficient. Obojstranný test Pearsonovej a Spearmanovej korelácie nepotvrdil v prípade celkového skóre a subškál antilokúcie a diskriminácie signifikantný vzťah medzi ich skóre a vekom, v prípade subškály vyhýbanie sa na signifikantnej úrovni potvrdil veľmi slabý pozitívny vzťah (rs=0,233, p<0,027, N=90), t.j. čím starší človek, tým vyššie skóre vyhýbania. Na deskriptívnej úrovni sme zistili, že čím starší respondenti a respondentky výskumu tým vyššie celkové skóre (Obrázok 1) ako aj skóre subškál.

V rámci overenia hypotézy č. 3 sme použili Anovu pre overenie vzťahu medzi vzdelaním a celkovým skóre a vzdelaním a antilokúciou, a Kruskal Wallisov H test pre overenie vzťahu medzi vzdelaním a diskrimináciou a vzdelaním a vyhýbaním. Kvôli nízkemu zastúpeniu osôb v kategóriách stredoškolského vzdelania (bez maturity) a vysokoškolského vzdelania tretieho stupňa sme tieto kategórie do testovania nezahrnuli.

Obrázok 1 Bodový diagram pre celkové skóre a vek
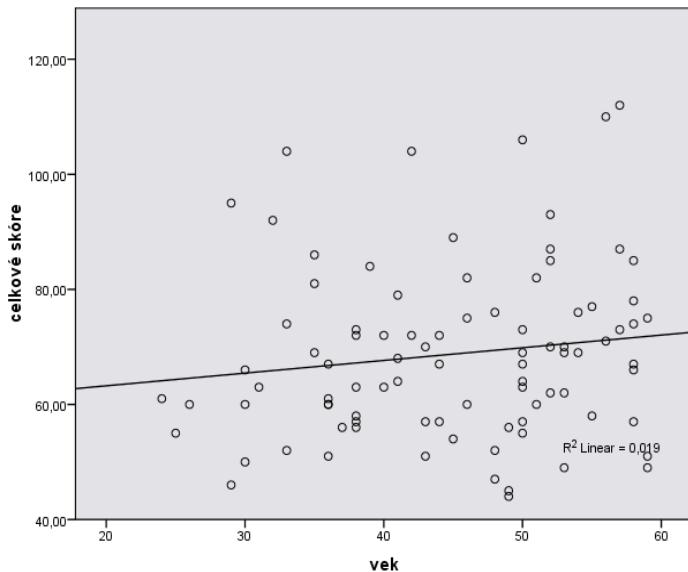
Tabuľka 4 Priemery celkového skóre ageizmu pre vzdelanie

Vzdelanie	N	Priemer
Stredoškolské	1	63,00
Stredoškolské s maturitou	21	66,62
Vysokoškolské prvého stupňa	10	64,00
Vysokoškolské druhého stupňa	60	67,23
Vysokoškolské tretieho stupňa	1	60,00
Spolu	93	66,62

Ani v jednom prípade sa vzťah nepotvrdil, hypotéza č. 3 sa nepotvrdila. Na deskriptívnej úrovni sme zistili, že najnižšiu mieru ageizmu vykazovala kategória vysokoškolského vzdelania tretieho stupňa a najvyššiu kategória vysokoškolského vzdelanie druhého stupňa, nasledovaná stredoškolským vzdelaním s maturitou, stredoškolským vzdelaním a vysokoškolským vzdelaním prvého stupňa, pričom rozdiely boli väčšinou malé (Tabuľka 4).

Záver

Výsledky výskumu poukazujú na mierny výskyt negatívnych postojov pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy voči starším ľuďom s prevahou pozitívnych postojov voči nim. Porovnaním skóre subškál sme zistili, že najnegatívnejšou sa javí byť kognitívna dimenzia reprezentujúca stereotypné zmýšľanie o starších ľuďoch, ktorá sa pohybovala tesne pod priemerom k pozitívnemu pólu postojov voči starším ľuďom. Ich emocionálne ladenie voči starším ľuďom ako aj tendencie ku konaniu sa pohybujú v mierne pozitívnejšom spektre. Môže to znamenať, že ak aj majú negatívne zmýšľanie o starších ľuďoch, nesprávajú sa vždy podľa toho. Avšak položkovou analýzou zistený priemerný podiel negatívnych výrokov voči starším ľuďom (približne 28%) nie je pre prax verejnej správy zanedbateľný. Ani jedna položka nemala nulové zastúpenie, ani také položky, ktoré poukazujú na zásadné sociálne vylučovanie starších ľudí zo spoločnosti a odopieranie ich základných práv. Naše odporúčanie pre prax je preto osveta na pracovisku v tejto téme, najmä na pracoviskách, kde sa ako klienti a klientky najčastejšie objavujú starší ľudia a scitlivovanie v tejto téme prostredníctvom ďalšieho vzdelávania zamestnankýň a zamestnancov predmetných pracovísk. Taktiež je podľa nás dôležité aby téma ageizmu bola súčasťou profesionálneho pregraduálneho vzdelávania budúcich pracovníčok a pracovníkov verejnej správy. Pre ďalší výskum by sme odporúčali porovnať mieru ageizmu u radových pracovníkov a pracovníčok v priamej línii stretu so staršími ľuďmi na danom úrade s ich nadriadenými, spolu s hostilným ageizmom zisťovať aj mieru ambivalentného ageizmu či prípadne skúmať pociťovú mieru diskriminácie klientok a klientov verejnej správy v staršom veku.

Pri porovnaní našich výsledkov s výsledkami súboru FSA vykazujú naše výsledky mierne ageistickejšie postoje. Keďže bol náš výskumný súbor v priemere starší ako súbor FSA, mohlo by to kontradikovať hypotéze, že mladší ľudia sú ageistickejší. Naše výsledky na deskriptívnej úrovni pritom ukázali, že v našom súbore mali negatívnejšie postoje voči starším ľuďom staršie participantky a participanti. Búgelová, Čupková a Kratochvíľová (2019) zistili vo svojom výskume ambivalentného ageizmu opak, mali však vyváženejší súbor z hľadiska nasýtenia jednotlivých vekových kategórií aj kategórie rodu a početnejšiu skupinu mladších dospelých (18-30 rokov). Vysvetlenie pre naše výsledky by sme ale mohli nájsť v štúdii von Hippela, Silverovej a Lynchovej (2000), ktorí zaujímavo zistili pokles inhibičnej schopnosti u starších ľudí spôsobujúcej stereotypnejšie zmýšľanie a vyššiu mieru predsudkov proti ich vôli ako u mladších ľudí. Taktiež sa traduje, že krajiny kolektivistickej kultúry, ku ktorej sa

radí aj Východná Európa by mala vykazovať pozitívnejší prístup k starším ľuďom ako krajiny individualistickej kultúry (napr. Slater 1964, in Nelson 2016, s. 347), ku ktorej sa radí Severná Amerika, kde bola FSA validizovaná. Avšak niektoré novšie výskumy poukazujú na tento fakt ako na mýtus a dokazujú, že to nie je pravda. Okrem iného, ako sme v úvode poukázali, aj Európska sociálna sonda preukázala, že na Slovensku boli oproti západným krajinám preukázané predsudky voči starším ľuďom na vyššej hladine. V rámci porovnania našich výsledkov s FSA treba tiež brať na vedomie, že výsledky FSA sú z roku 1990 a Slovensko sa odvtedy viac individualizovalo a westernizovalo. Naše výsledky však neboli potvrdené na signifikantnej úrovni, odporúčali by sme preto realizovať tento výskum aj v iných mestách v iných regiónoch Slovenska či sa potvrdia a porovnať ich s bežnou populáciou pri stratifikovanom vekovom výbere, či sa budú líšiť.

Ďalším predmetom nášho záujmu bola analýza podľa dosiahnutého vzdelania, ktorá nepotvrdila vzťah medzi ageizmom a dosiahnutým vzdelaním výskumného súboru. Výsledok však mohol byť ovplyvnený nerovnomerným zastúpením súboru podľa jednotlivých kategórií dosiahnutého vzdelania. Z rovnakého dôvodu sme nemohli overiť ani vzťah medzi ageizmom a rodom, čo je však pochopiteľné z dôvodu feminizácie tejto pracovnej oblasti, čo sa preukázalo aj v našom výskume.

Medzi obmedzenia výskumu radíme použitie iba jedného výskumného nástroja, reprezentovaného sebahodnotiacim dotazníkom administrovaným len raz v jednom čase, ktorého výsledky môžu byť skreslené nepriznanými a sociálne žiadúcimi odpoveďami, momentálnym psychickým stavom respondentiek a respondentov ako aj administrátorky dotazníka a zisťujú len subjektívne vyjadrované explicitné postoje. Pre ďalší výskum by bolo vhodné použiť aj implicitný test, ktorý by mohol minimalizovať toto ohrozenie validity. Použitý dotazník mal navyše nevalidizovaný preklad pre Slovenskú populáciu, hoci sme sa toto ohrozenie snažili minimalizovať realizovaním analýzy reliability. Pre ďalšie použitie by sme odporúčali realizovať validizáciu dotazníka na Slovenskej populácii. Ďalším ohrozením výskumu bol výber výskumného súboru, ktorý mal iba regionálny rozmer, a čo sa týka dosiahnutého vzdelania a rodu neboli jednotlivé kategórie frekvenčne vyrovnané. Pre presnejšie výsledky tiež odporúčame do budúcnosti väčší výskumný súbor s alternatívnymi metódami výberu respondentiek a respondentov ako je kvótny a náhodný výber.

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E-GOVERNMENT AS A NEW TOOL FOR MORE EFFICIENT PUBLIC SERVICE PROVISION

Luděk ŽÁKOVEC

Abstrakt

Elektronizácia verejných služieb a implementácia e-Governmentu sú v súčasnosti prioritou všetkých vyspelých krajín. Cieľom zavedenia e-Governmentu je efektívnejšie, spoľahlivejšie, rýchlejšie a lacnejšie poskytovanie služieb verejnej správy občanom. Koncom minulého storočia, konkrétne v roku 1998, začal e-Government oslovovať niektoré európske krajiny. Trend elektronizácie verejnej správy ako nevyhnutnej súčasti jej reformy a modernizácie sa začal uberať aj na Slovensku. V tejto súvislosti sa článok zameriava na vymedzenie a objasnenie podstaty e-Governmentu, predstavuje jeho pozitíva a negatíva. V závere poskytne stručnú analýzu vývoja a súčasného stavu implementácie koncepcie e-Governmentu na Slovensku.

Kľúčové slová

verejná správa, informatizácia verejných služieb, e-Government, Slovensko

Abstract

Electronic public services and the implementation of e-government are currently a priority for all developed countries. The aim of introducing e-Government is to provide more efficiently, reliably, faster and cheaper public administration services to citizens. At the end of the last century, specifically in 1998, e-Government began to address some European countries. The trend of electronic public administration as a necessary part of its reform and modernization has also begun to take place in Slovakia. In this context, the article focuses on the definition and clarification of the essence of e-Government, presents its positives and negatives. In conclusion, it will provide a brief analysis of the development and current state of implementation of the e-Government concept in Slovakia.

Key words

public administration, informatization of public services, e-Government, Slovakia

Introduction

Digitization of public administration or so-called e-Government is a term that has been used in our country for the last few years. E-Government originated in the 1990s in the USA, and subsequently several countries tried to develop this concept in their e-Government programs. Examples include the United States, the Netherlands and Estonia, which are world leaders in e-Government. Widespread e-government services can also be found in the United Kingdom, Australia and Singapore. In the 21st century, e-Government has become an important tool for change in public administration, bringing higher quality to the overall process of providing services to citizens, better results and performance in the public sector. However, the proper implementation of e-Government requires the involvement of several levels of public administration (mainly state administration) and horizontal cooperation between agencies in order to strengthen the principles of so-called well-governed society, including democratization, efficiency, transparency, coherence and public accountability.

As e-Government is a new concept that individual states have gradually applied to their national regulations in order to improve the services provided to citizens, we can include it among the phenomena of the 21st century in public administration. The trend of putting this phenomenon into practice can also be observed in Slovakia, where there have been several ongoing projects of digitalization of public administration since the 1990s. The problem, however, is that many of them are still in the early stages of development, are not working efficiently enough or are not working at all despite high initial investments in this area. Slovakia has been a member of the Union since 2004 and is committed to developing e-Government together with other Member States, but its progress in this area is not very noticeable. It is below the European average in various assessments of the level of e-Government. In this context, in this context, we will focus on defining and clarifying the nature of e-Government, introducing the positives and negatives. In the second part, we will focus on a brief analysis of the development and current state of implementation of the e-Government concept in Slovakia.

1 The importance of the phenomenon of e-Government in the 21st century

The term e-Government emerged in the late 1990s, but the history of computing in government organizations can be traced back to the beginnings of computer history. A literature on "IT in government" goes back at least to the 1970s. This literature concerns IT use within government, while the recent e-Gov literature more often concerns external use, such as services to the citizens. While some earlier e-Gov computer issues, such as office automation, may not be highly relevant to research today, many issues are, for example decision making, service processes, and values. All definitions of e-Gov go beyond services to the citizen to include organizational change and the role of government. (Grönlund, Horan, 2004)

In the 90s of the 20th century, there was a so-called period of the new knowledge economy, which meant the transfer of the market economy principle to public administration through the use of new principles. One of them was e-Government. In 1992, a proposal was submitted in the United States called the National Performance Revue, and a year later it was approved. The USA was thus the first country in which e-Government was introduced in public administration, at that time it concerned a specific area of healthcare. The United Kingdom, Australia, the Netherlands and others followed the United States with the introduction of e-Government elements. The first European country to follow them was the Netherlands, later Estonia, Austria and the Scandinavian countries. (Grönlund, Horan, 2004)

The introduction of information and communication technologies into public administration activities is a natural part of the process of informatization of the whole society. This informatization of public administration has come to be referred to in the professional literature as e-Government. Informatisation of society means a gradual transition to the maximum use of information and communication technologies in all areas of social, political and economic life. In this context, we could subsequently define e-Government as the introduction of information and communication technologies into public administration, together with organizational changes, new procedures and skills in an effort to increase efficiency in service delivery, increase transparency and strengthen public policy. E-government postulates the use of information and communication technologies, especially the Internet, as a means of achieving better governance. (OECD: The e-Government Imperative, 2003) The main goal of e-Government is for public administration to serve the public with the help of the latest technologies, not only externally towards the citizen or also within the internal system.

E-Government contains several processes. It is not just about informatization itself, but also about digitization and electronization. The term computerization refers to any information that is provided through websites on the Internet. Digitization is a process in which material things are digitized into electronic form, with the help of Internet portals and websites. Electronization represents services that are provided electronically, the so-called online services. (Chrenová, 2020)

E-Government refers to the activities of public (state) administration made available electronically through information and communication technologies. E-Government is thus essentially a digital interaction on several levels. This means that e-Government issues apply to all levels of government, from local to international. According to the communicating parties, we distinguish the following "online" forms of e-Government (Fábryová, 2011):

1. G2C (Government to Citizens) - communication between public administration and citizens
2. G2B (Government to Businesses) - communication of public administration with entrepreneurs
3. G2E (Government to Employees) - communication between public administration and employees of institutions falling under public administration
4. G2G (Government to Governments) - communication between public administration institutions
5. G2A (Government to Administration) - communication between administration and administration
6. C2G (Citizens to Governments) - communication of citizens and public administration bodies

In the implementation of e-Government, it is necessary to consider the following seven main principles, which are (Chrenová, 2020):

- Accountability (more accountable, efficient, transparent and open government, such as publishing contracts on the Central Register of Contracts)
- provision of electronic services (public authorities provide online services to citizens, thus cutting red tape and unnecessary paperwork that takes place in offices)
- transparency and fair access (the aim is for all citizens to be involved in the decision-making process, such as e-procurement)
- governance (represents an alternative experimentation with people's electoral approach, such as online elections)
- economic development (in the transitional period, when services are provided electronically and on paper, more people need to be employed in the state administration, which increases the state costs, but this transitional period lasts about 2 years and when the electronic system works effectively, the state costs decrease , as redundancies will follow)
- modernization of electronic activities (represents the purchase of constantly new technology, such as computers and software)
- improving ties (with the business community and the media is possible in cooperation between public authorities and the third sector)

We can state that the purpose of e-Government is to streamline, simplify and make transparent the performance of public administration. This new phenomenon represents new possibilities of communication between the public and state and public administration institutions. The introduction of e-Government elements into the public administration system has so many advantages, but it is also necessary to talk about its shortcomings.

2 Positives and negatives of e-Government

The aim of e-government is to provide information, services and knowledge, to save money and time not only for the state but also for citizens, especially when dealing with official matters. The advantage in this context is the reduction of administrative burdens and easier and faster availability of information for citizens. They do not have to state their data for each time they arrive at the office, as the data will be collected from the completed form at one contact point and recorded in the register registers, which will be displayed to the individual offices due to the interconnectedness of the system. This leads to a shortening of the processing time. (Špaček, 2012) Other positives are the efficiency of the institutions' activities externally (especially towards citizens) as well as the efficiency of their internal functioning (reduction of public administration expenditures). The provision of e-Government services leads to an improvement in the provision of existing services and creates space for the provision of new services. Another advantage is the fact that e-Government acts as a catalyst for reforms, as it helps the reform and modernization processes in public administration. Last but not least, it reduces corruption and deepens trust between government and citizens. It strengthens confidence by opening up and making decision-making processes transparent. It enables greater citizen participation and, at the same time, the liberalization of public services for all. (Šebová, Kmecová, 2006) Thanks to electronic services, the state will also save money, because over time it can reduce the number of civil servants, which is a disadvantage for them and therefore they prevent the introduction of electronic elements. Despite the many advantages that e-Government brings, it is also necessary to mention the disadvantages, resp. shortcomings that are mentioned in connection with the informatization of public services not only in Slovakia but also in other countries. A factor that can clearly be considered a negative is the high initial costs of creating and implementing these electronic services. On the positive side, the state will also save money through electronic services, as it may reduce the number of civil servants over time, but we could include the initial increased costs of initial staff training as negative. Costs are also increased by the requirement for interoperability of individual systems, electronic services and data repositories, which would serve to make the systems of different offices and ministries work securely. Insufficient capacity of information and communication technologies or weak coordination between individual levels of central, regional and local government can also lead to inefficient functioning of public administration when implementing elements of e-Government. (Šebová, Kmecová, 2006) Other negatives include the low digital literacy of the population and the conservative approach of people to electronics (especially older generations) who have distrust of modern technologies and think that their personal data can be misused via the Internet. This is also related to the threat of cybercrime or "hacker" attacks. Another problem is the lack of information about the provision of electronic services by the state and the requirements of citizens, as well as insufficient coverage of the Internet connection. For e-Government to work effectively, it is necessary for citizens to be able to use it. However, this is not possible until an internet connection is available throughout the country, and therefore in every municipality. (Špaček, 2012)

As the prevailing view in the professional community is that e-Government should serve to a large extent to streamline and speed up all processes where interactions between citizens and businesses with public administration take place, it is clearly in the interest of every government to consider non-conceptual legislation and insufficient legal framework. (as other negatives) and their improvement thus eliminate these shortcomings and prove to citizens of all generations that the system of electronic public administration is the right step forward for the state as a whole. Many countries are currently struggling with these problems. We can therefore say that if e-Government within the EU achieves all its goals and is successfully implemented, it should have a number of benefits.

3 Development of e-Government in Slovakia

E-Government in Slovakia began its indirect start in 1995 with the adoption of Act No. 261/1995 Coll. on public administration information systems. The second indirect mention of e-Government appeared in Slovak legislation in 1999 in the Strategy on Decentralization and Modernization of Public Administration, which states the need to computerize public administration. The launch of other initiatives was connected with the accession negotiations of the Slovak Republic to the European Union, when Slovakia joined the eEurope + initiative, where it declared the support of the information society as one of its main goals. However, specific tasks were not defined. These were defined by the Company's Informatization Strategy in the Slovak Republic and the Information Society Development Action Plan of 2004. This was the first comprehensive strategy to address e-government and included solutions and proposals for its implementation. This document directly applied the plans of the European Union and focused on building the basic pillars of informatization in Slovakia. (Salner, Mišina, 2007) We can therefore state that the key impulse for the preparation of strategic documents regulating e-government in the Slovak Republic was the accession process of the Slovak Republic to the European Union.

Following the accession of the Slovak Republic to the EU, the adoption of the Public Administration Informatization Strategy

of 2008 became a basic step in the public administration informatization of the Slovak Republic. The time horizon for meeting the goals was set by the end of 2013 and Slovakia expected that at the end of the year it would gain a leading position in e-Government within the V4 countries. (Špaček, 2012) The strategy was created by the Office of the Government of the Slovak Republic and the Ministry of Finance. In the same year, we also date the creation of the National Concept of Public Administration Informatization, which describes e-government projects in detail. The main components of the concept include the e-ID project, the project of data identifiers and persons, and we are encountering the creation of the slovensko.sk portal, which is an e-government information page. In 2013, Act no. 305/2013 Coll. on the electronic form of exercise of public authority powers and on the amendment of certain laws (the e-Government Act), which has become the long-awaited basic pillar for the legal framework and building of electronic public administration in Slovakia.

The purpose of the e-Government Act was to establish general legal regulation of the manner of exercising public power in electronic form, including related legal institutes, and thus to enable the implementation of electronic services of public authorities in a uniform manner. The law monitors the establishment of an electronic alternative to the current way of exercising public power and defines new legal institutes that have not been enshrined in our legal system until then. These are electronic mailboxes, identification and authentication of persons, authorization, guaranteed conversion, payment of payments made to a public authority by law or by law. The law provided for the introduction of a transitional period during which state authorities were entitled to proceed with the electronic exercise of public power in accordance with special laws, if they provide for different legal regulation of the procedure in the exercise of public power. During the transitional period, the public authority was not obliged to exercise its public power electronically unless technical reasons allowed it, as it was necessary to consider the gradual harmonization and transition to a procedure solely in accordance with the law. Its purpose is to gradually introduce full electronicisation at all levels of government. (Chrenová, 2020)

In the field of e-government, 2016 was a crucial year for Slovakia. This year, a new Office of the Deputy Prime Minister for Investment and Informatization was established Slovakia. The concept presents the current state and plans for the time horizon to 2020 and contains a number of annexes focused on specific issues, such as the Detailed Plan for Public Administration Informatization or the Plan for the Adaptation of the Open Data Strategic Priority. The starting documents are documents adopted by the European Union in the given area, but also national documents and the concept builds on previous concepts. Currently, the possibilities of e-Government available to the citizens of the Slovak Republic are provided by the Central Public Administration Portal (IPOS), which represents a central and unified access to information resources and services. As the main goals, this concept sets out (National Concept of Informatization ..., 2016):

- Moving to quality of life services
- Shift to services aimed at increasing competitiveness
- Bringing public administration closer to maximum use of data
- Enabling the modernization and rationalization of trusted ICT by means
- Optimizing the use of information technology in public administration thanks to the shared services platform
- Cybersecurity

We can state that the agenda focused directly on e-government includes efforts to improve and increase the availability of electronic services of the state, improve the use of data or speed up processes within the public administration. The concept also mentions compliance with the rules set by the European Union, especially in the chapters dealing with broadband internet coverage and compliance with cybersecurity. The current concept, as well as the previous Slovak concepts in the field of electronic public administration, directly refer to the strategies adopted by the European Union. The European Union has a long-term interest in building an information society in which public administration also operates in electronic form. Although Slovakia's concepts are linked to EU strategies, they do not apply all the set areas, so we encounter content gaps in the Slovak Republic's strategies in some areas.

To assess the degree of electronization, a scale with levels 0-4 was defined, which recognizes the degree of electronization (Operačný program Informatizácia ..., 2007)

- Level 0: Public administration institutions do not have a website or do not provide the necessary information on the website. The citizen must recall his or her official affair in person, in the classic paper way
- Level I: Information services - public administration institutions have their own websites where they provide information on available public services, office hours or forms
- Level II: Unilateral interactive services - In addition to information, public administration institutions also provide the possibility to download various forms on their websites, which, however, must be physically delivered by the citizen to a specific service provider.
- Level III: Two-way interactive services - Public administration institutions provide the possibility of electronic completion of the form, its submission, authorization and authentication
- Level IV: Transaction services - Public administration institutions enable electronic application and obtaining electronic output of a certain service. Within the Slovak Republic, this is the target level of informatization

According to the information available under the Company Informatization Operational Program, it can be concluded that at level I there are currently the most services, such as identity documents, police notices, official registries, medical services or relocation notifications. And level II, services such as motor vehicle registration or public libraries are provided. In level III, services such as job search are provided. In level IV, 5 services are provided, namely services for entrepreneurs such as the submission of electronic statements in connection with social benefits for employees within the Social Insurance Agency, corporate income tax, customs declaration, public procurement. In the case of services for citizens, this level of service is achieved by the personal income tax.

The development of e-Government in Slovakia is the target of frequent criticism. Slovakia had set targets of almost 900 million euros under the Company's Operational Program, which were used in a non-transparent manner. The government has also failed to meet basic objectives, such as removing the provision of the same data to citizens in the offices or creating a transparent central portal. Successful e-Government can be measured on the basis of time and money saved, the number of citizens who use electronic services and the number of bureaucratic tasks. There are several reasons why the implementation of e-Government elements in Slovakia is time-consuming and costly. Economic reasons called digital devide, some kind of gap, can be seen, for example, in lagging regions, where the main problem is low employment, lack of funds, due to lack of internet connection and therefore not all households in Slovakia can use online services. We can consider inappropriate software that has been available on the market for 8 years as technological problems. It was not until 2006 that the law established a unified software for state administration. The relatively new law on e-Government, which was adopted in 2013, has already undergone several amendments, so that we can see that the system is still not working properly, as changes are constantly taking place. (Salner, Mišina, 2007)

Another problem is the insufficient political responsibility of central state administration bodies, as the agenda and competencies of the e-Government area have been transferred to the competence of several central bodies from the very beginning. The responsibility was transferred from the Statistical Office to the Ministry of Transport, Posts and Telecommunications, then to the Ministry of Education and then again to the Ministry of Transport. In 2007, responsibility passed to the Ministry of Finance in cooperation with the Government Office. It was not until 2016 that a new central state administration body was created, which is currently responsible for the electronic public administration, namely the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister for Investment and Informatization. The Office has strengthened competencies in the field of management, coordination and supervision of Eurofunds and also covers the company's informatization.

The development of e-Government in Slovakia is positively influenced by external pressure exerted on the state by institutions outside state administration bodies, such as civic associations, foundations, non-profit organizations and entrepreneurs. The e-Government Act has clearly improved the electronic communication between citizens and authorities, which takes place through electronic mailboxes, which are set up by every public authority, legal entity, natural person, entrepreneur and also a subject of international law. A significant shift in the process of electronic public administration is the possibility to use an electronic identity card (eID) as a means of creating a guaranteed electronic signature or electronic choice. E-ID cards and e-options are clearly the two most important areas resp. elements of e-Government that serve citizens.

The introduction of an electronic ID card in the conditions of the Slovak Republic was adopted within the Council of the European Union in 2000 with the aim of increasing the security of the document and expanding its functionality. In July 2008, new identity cards began to be issued in Slovakia, which met the format of the European Union. The card took the form of a polycarbonate card with the face and personal details of the holder. The most important element of the electronic chip, however, has not yet been in this type of card. It was therefore only a new format of the card, which still fulfilled only the function of an identification card. An electronic ID card with which citizens can use electronic services in Slovakia has been issued since 2013 at the district directorates of the Police Force. Unlike the previous ID card, it has an electronic chip that enables electronic communication via the Internet, and thanks to it, citizens can use a guaranteed electronic signature, which is used to prove their identity to state or private institutions. (Občiansky preukaz s čipom ..., 2013). Among the benefits of the introduction of an electronic ID card, we consider, in addition to expanding the use of electronic signatures, proving the identity of the citizen in electronic communication, expanding the security features of the document, enabling the development of e-Government services or simplifying business.

As for e-elections in Slovakia, the current situation in the field of electronic elections is constantly only in the initiation phase. Citizens of the Slovak Republic have been able to vote from abroad since 2006, but only by post and only until parliamentary elections. At a time when legislation was in place to allow voting from abroad, further future regulation of elections began to be considered, namely the possibility of voting via the Internet. This method of voting would be more comfortable and, above all, would allow Slovak citizens living abroad to take part in the elections. The interest of Slovaks living abroad in the opportunity to vote electronically is also confirmed by a petition launched by the citizens' initiative of Slovaks living abroad in 2014. (Chrenová, 2020)

Conclusion

The public administration reform concerning the introduction of e-Government elements represents changes in the system, which require the digitization of services and the adjustment of the entire system to meet the requirements required in the modernization. Their essence is to eliminate an inefficient bureaucratic system and bring it closer to private sector services. Therefore, it is necessary to streamline the whole system, so that citizens as well as officials are saved time, reduced costs and administrative complexity, it is necessary to further develop the involvement of citizens in the decision-making process and enable greater transparency and control of public administration. Despite the fact that the efforts of states to digitize services and eliminate unnecessary bureaucracy were identified as early as the end of the 1990s, the development of e-Government in the countries of the European Union varies greatly and is uneven. We can consider electronic ID cards and electronic elections as the most important element of e-Government. Electronic elections are a very attractive area that is an increasingly discussed topic and of interest to citizens because it allows them greater mobility. This is also one of the reasons why there will be increasing pressure on the public administration to take effective steps to put these elements into practice more promptly.

The paper concludes that public administration reform in the field of e-Government is an important step, but requires broad political support to ensure that the objectives are met. Recognizing the agenda as a political priority is crucial, because until the problem is recognized, it is unlikely that it will be able to move from the initial stage of initiation to the next. An example is e-elections in Slovakia. The eID project in Slovakia confirms that from the initiation to implementation phase, it can take more than ten years, despite the fact that technical proposals and solutions have been developed.

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III. SECTION OF INTERNATION RELATIONS

EUROPEAN INTEGRATION AND GLOBAL CHANGES FOR TRADE UNIONS[1]

Monika BENEDEKOVÁ

Abstract:

The paper highlights the need for a transformation and the main characteristics of changing union priorities, activities and strategies in the changing world of work, from the times of the Industrial Revolution to the revolution referred to as Industry 4.0. It reflects the development in the current globalized labor market and its wider context in the context of European trade unions, with an emphasis on the activities and priorities of trade unions in Central and Eastern Europe, including Slovakia.

Key words

trade unions, changes on labor market, new challenges and new groups of employees

Introduction

The European integration process also has its repercussions in the sphere of industrial relations and the quality of social dialogue. Through the European legislation, it influences domestic legislation and integrates the social partners into policy-making.

Employees and trade unions in the integrating countries, including Slovakia, had specific expectations associated with joining the European Union. These expectations related mainly to quality of life and living standards, wage growth, quality of working conditions and the guarantee of a wider range of rights.

The common goal was the gradual harmonization of legal systems and convergence of social and labor standards in the new EU Member States.

Today, in addition to the regular cycles of recessions and booms, we are experiencing another industrial revolution, also known as Industry 4.0, which is changing not only the world of work, but also the everyday reality of millions of people around the world. Digitalization, transfer of work to robots and automation, the internet, big data and other technological changes have made a very significant impact not only on the nature of the production process in industry, but also on other areas of the economy and society's life, and have thus also affected working conditions. At the same time, humanity is also facing other serious challenges that affect all areas of society, not only trade unions. "The crisis of the welfare state and the weakening of the social dimension of citizenship are also reflected in the world of work and the lives of workers" (Čambáliková, M., 2020, p. 123). New technologies, as well as the consequences of climate change, resulting in public policies

aimed at climate neutrality, set challenging goals for governments, but also for other civil society actors, including trade unions, whose achievement presupposes the ability to conduct a society-wide and professional debate on strategic goals, as well as the ability to reach compromises when setting public policies and implementing new solutions.

Central and Eastern European trade unions in a globalized world of work

Trade unions in CEE countries operate in a different reality than their counterparts in the western part of the European continent. These differences are mainly related to the policies and priorities of trade unions and can be defined as differences in the systems and structure of social dialogue and its capacity to influence public policy-making and realities at sectoral, enterprise and national level.

Different ideas about the future direction of the EU social model between the so-called old and new EU Member States lead to diverging trade union attitudes on some of the issues that were part of the traditional social model in the post-war years, which also creates certain tensions within the trade union movement in Europe. EU Member States with traditionally very well structured and strong social dialogue are rejecting the intervention of European legislation for fear of a possible destructive impact on their national traditions and mechanisms that function precisely through social dialogue. "It now seems to be a generally accepted view that organized groups such as employees are very unlikely to give up their individually tailored domestic structures in favor of a European level." (Imig, D., 2002, p. 927)[2]

The values of the „European model" and policies rooted in those values have been continuously viewed as an essential reason that Slovak trade union representatives wish for in-

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2   Imig, D. (2002) Contestation in the streets: European protest in
the emerging Euro-polity. Comparative political studies 35(8):914-933

creased EU-level influence on national policy. *„The type of policy anchored in the ´European social model´ is not only similar to the Slovak trade unions´ programme strategy and vision in its basic principles and ideas but also eases the legitimization, enforcement and protection of employees´ - including trade unions´ - rights. It was proven that particularly during periods of the implementation of the policy of liberalism and reforms, the policy anchored in the European social model might constitute – at least in the form of vision – a legitimate socio-democratic alternative to the policy of strongly liberal national government; additionally, it may increase the protection of employees related to employers."* (Čambáliková, M., 2014, s. 340)

Trade unions in Germany, Austria, Sweden, Finland, Norway and other EU countries have for several years focused their discourse on the topical issues of migration, climate and demographic change or the impact of digitalization on the labor market, while in Slovakia and in some other Central and Eastern European countries, so-called "basic rights" are still at the center of trade union policies. These include the annual bargaining on minimum wages and wage issues, shortening of working hours, overtime, night work, weekend work, or social dumping issues, especially related to agency work.

The state and level of social partnership and collective bargaining in the CEE countries is also critically assessed by some trade union leaders from the old EU Member States who *"expected the CEE countries to rebuild familiar (Western) patterns of industrial relations with the help of EU-supported initiatives on capacity building, training and bargaining skills. They therefore find it increasingly difficult to understand why collective bargaining is not developing in the region, why the state rather than employers are the main partner of unions, why there are no effective organizing and recruitment programmes, why unions in CEE do not actively participate in the internal discussions of the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC). It also raises the issue of the over-politicization of trade unions in the region."* (Adamczyk, 2018, p. 188)[3]

The priorities of trade unions naturally depend on specific social conditions, the labor market situation and the needs of their members. "Trade unions in Slovakia have long been in a situation in which they have been trying to find some kind of compromise between their own demands, the expectations of the population and their members, the current political and economic situation, and current government measures." (Uhler, M., 2014, p. 381)

Shaping trade union priorities exclusively through a bottom-up system, however, carries a certain risk of insufficient reflection on forecasts of future trends. Focusing only on solving the current problems of employees without sufficient consideration of long-term and global issues and challenges will eventually result in reactive trade union policies, instead of a proactive approach and integration of new issues into trade union policies

and strategies. Without embedding these new objectives and looking for possible solutions to them, it will not be possible, in the long term, to continue economic or social convergence or convergence of views among the trade union movements in the EU.

Trade unions in Slovakia are europeanizing and trying to respond to national trends. "The Slovak Republic (as the EU Member State) currently provides - through its formal legislative and institutional framework - a platform for associating, activity and participation at all levels for all formal economic as well as non-economic (citizen) and other interests groups which is in all aspects compatible with the EU. The above refers also to the social partnership and social partners in Slovakia. Their agenda as well as ways of its articulation and advocacy has been significantly europeanized." (Čambáliková, M., 2016, p. 29)

The question of whether our trade unions are able to sufficiently reflect the needs of the membership base and at the same time respond flexibly to global development trends and worldwide challenges has already been the subject to several studies and researches (including international research in Čambáliková, M. 2015, Mansfeldová 2015). As it emerged from their conclusions, despite the European integration and certain efforts towards convergence, both in the social and economic spheres, there remains a significant difference between the so-called old and new EU member states in many quality of life indicators, confirmed by annual statistical data, but also by empirical research. (Eurofound 2020).[4]

Social convergence, mainly associated with wage convergence, between the so-called old and new EU Member States is not possible to achieve without economic convergence. They are two continuous vessels whose content and development are mutually determined. The maintenance of the low-wage trap as a competitive advantage, the existence of tax havens and new tax mixes are topics that are discussed and criticized quite frequently at various levels, but without any relevant results that would also translate into the elimination of differences between EU Member States.

Current trends and challenges for trade unions
Climate change and transformation of economy

The transformation of the economy triggered by the commitments to reduce CO2 emissions, achieve climate neutrality and decarbonize industry resulting from the climate agreement will, like digitalization, become another key driver of labor market change and an important determinant of the content of social dialogue at all levels. The heavy industry sectors - metallurgy, steel, mining, energy - will be most affected by the economic transformation. Pressure to invest in environmental measures

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3   Adamczyk, S. (2018) European Journal of Industrial Relations. Vol.24(2) p.188

4   *Eurofound (2020), Living and working in Europe 2019, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. dostupné na: https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sk/publications/annual-report/2020/living-and-working-in-europe-2019*

and the use of renewable energy sources may translate into pressure to reduce and optimize other costs and to cut jobs. The eventual decline in employment in heavy industries cannot be expected to be offset by job creation in other sectors of the economy, as the number of traditional jobs in traditional industries will decline as a result of digitalization, robotization and automation.

Industry 4.0

According to several sources[5] , the impact of Industry 4.0 on the Slovak labor market will be far-reaching and in terms of the number of jobs threatened by robotization, Slovakia is one of the countries that will be most affected, as according to some forecasts, up to 60% of jobs in Slovakia are expected to be directly or indirectly threatened, while up to 30% could disappear altogether. Despite the fact that this topic has been resonating for several years within the EU, any public discussion on the impacts of this new phenomenon has long been absent in Slovakia, and the first solutions to the negative impacts of the transformation have only appeared in public policies in the form of the Digital Transformation Strategy for Slovakia 2030 in 2019.[6] The success of its implementation will depend on the effectiveness of cross-sectoral cooperation, not only in the formulation of objectives, but especially in the implementation of solutions. However, the same can be said about the strategies of the trade unions in the era of digitalization. The concept of Industry 4.0 has significantly accelerated changes, especially in the world of work, with the emergence of new forms of work, its organization and also changes in the content of work, which also places new demands on the trade union movement to reflect on these changes in the trade union approach.

Population ageing and implications for the labor market

The implications of this phenomenon not only for the labor market will be far-reaching. The growing number of employees over 55 will require adaptation of working conditions, working environment, work organization, work safety issues, work pace, physical and mental strain and many other factors that create so-called well-being in the workplace.

This phenomenon, for which the term 'silver economy' is also used, will not only affect the nature of work, but will also bring about changes in other areas of life. Ageing will have an impact on national social systems, will affect the nature of consumption in the market and is likely to affect the range of services in the health sector, but it may also be an opportunity to improve working conditions to reflect the older age of workers.

Within trade unions in the Slovak Republic, this issue resonates in particular in the context of the increasing retirement age and the level of pensions. However, the ageing of the population and the labor market participation of older workers have other aspects that require the attention of the social partners and their inclusion on the social dialogue agenda

New approaches and new target groups for trade unions

The strength of trade unions and their influence depends on the size of their membership base. It is therefore important to attract new members also from new groups of working people whose interests the union could and should represent.

Trade unionists

One such group is the bogus self-employed and the so-called platformists.[7] The working conditions of these new groups of workers are not yet subject to strict jurisdiction in this country, which in practice often leads to so-called precarious working conditions.

"In identifying key priorities for national trade unions, most responses focused on two main areas, namely organizing freelancers and extending collective agreements to them. Other topics identified as priorities for national unions included educating members, addressing social security issues, combating abuses of tradespeople, and expanding workplace protections."[8]

In contrast to the European level, the discussion on the possibility of representing the new groups of self-employed workers did not find a sufficient response in Slovak conditions.

However, according to the current legal situation in the Slovak Republic,[9] a trade union is a civil association, not an association of employees, and thus its members can also be persons who do not have an employment relationship with the employer. This opens up opportunities for trade unions to reach out to these groups of workers.

Agency workers

Unions work to integrate these workers, represent their interests and protect their rights. The precarious working conditions of agency workers also tend to worsen the working conditions of the so-called 'core' workers. At trade union level, there have been several attempts to negotiate a collective agreement at the level of the entire agency sector, which is even represented by several employers' unions. Although these initiatives have so far failed, there have been several collective agreements at company level which also provide for certain rights for agency workers.

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5   OECD (2017), The Next Production Revolution: Implications for Governments and Business, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264271036-en.

6   2030 Digital transformation strategy of Slovakia (2019) available under: https://www.mirri.gov.sk/sekcie/informatizacia/digitalna-transformacia/strategia-digitalnej-transformacie-slovenska-2030/index.html

7   People performing work for digital platforms as BOLT, AirB&B and others

8   EOK project with the financial support of EC (2018) Trade unions protecting self-employed workers.p.87 available under: https://www.etuc.org/sites/default/files/publication/file/2018-10/Trade%20unions%20protecting%20self-employed%20workers_EN.pdf

9   Act no. 83/1990 Z.z. on association of people

Migrants

The robust wave of migration to the EU in recent years has also brought in another new category of workers, namely migrants from outside the EU. In relation to these workers, the dilemma of inclusion versus exclusion persists in trade unions, i.e. whether to include them in domestic unions and collective bargaining, or to exclude this category of workers from organizing, or even to seek to eliminate their access to the labor market. From an analytical perspective, a third dilemma of trade unions in relation to migrants has also been identified, namely the approach of *"equal treatment versus special treatment."*[10]

The topic of migration and the representation of migrant workers' interests by trade unions is also a rather controversial topic in Slovak conditions and will require further discussion.

Employees with disabilities

Another group so far under-represented by trade unions are employees with health disadvantages, chronic diseases or employees returning to work after long-term incapacity for work. The efforts of various non-governmental organizations to represent the interests of these workers are limited and often fragmented. In trade union strategies and in bipartite social dialogue, the issue of disabled workers appears only sporadically in the context of OSH issues.

As the conclusions of the REWIR[11] project mapping the role of social dialogue at both national and European level on the issue of returning employees with chronic illnesses or after long-term incapacity to work back to the workplace is not a priority on the current agenda of the social partners, this is also evident from the findings of the REWIR project. Nevertheless, there is potential to bring this issue into collective bargaining as well as into public policies. In particular, the lack of capacity of the social partners, but also unclear accountability and control of the process of return to work after long-term sickness absence, was identified as an obstacle to a more proactive approach on this topic.

Conclusion

This article has outlined just a few of the major global trends that will increasingly have their reflection in the labor market and in social policies in the coming years. If trade unions are to continue to fulfil their role as representative of the interests and defender of the rights of workers, including new groups of labor market participants, in the coming decades, their priorities and strategies will need to be set in a way that responds to emerging trends and offers solutions that eliminate the negative impacts of the transition and, conversely, offer opportunities for positive change.

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10   ILERA (2017) Trade Unions and Migrant Workers. New Contexts and Challenges in Europe. ISBN 978 1 78811 408 0 s. 27, dostupné na: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_625024.pdf

11   REWIR Project – available under: https://www.celsi.sk/en/projects/detail/64/

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MAJOR PECULIARITIES OF SPORTS DIPLOMACY AND SPORTS POLICY IN AUSTRALIA

Ivan ŠTULAJTER

Abstract

The aim of the paper is to outline Australia's sports policy from a historical perspective, as well as to present current management and funding of sports in this country, with regard to the position of sports in society. We will point to important documents elaborated in Australia for the area of sports, namely the Bloomfield Report and the Coles Report. Furthermore, we discuss the peculiarities of Australian sports policy at the federal, state and regional levels and we focus on Australia sports diplomacy. From the point of view of financing we discuss the funding of sports by the federal government, as well as by Australian Sports Commission, which supports financially individual national sports organizations and federations including national sports organizations for people with disabilities.

Key words

sports policy, sports management, sports diplomacy, the Olympic Games, finance, society, Australia, federal level, state level, regional level

An outline of sports policy in Australia from the historical perspective

Australia's sports policy reflects the importance that the society attributes to sports. It is often integrated with objectives outside the sports sector, including prevention of health and well-being, community and urban development, tourism and trade, and international relations. An increased interest in the development of sport in Australia was recorded in the 1940s under Robert Gordon Menzies, Australia's longest-serving Prime Minister. In 1941, the National Fitness Act had been approved, and the Commonwealth Council for National Fitness had been established. Although the law stated that the aim of these measures was to improve the condition of the population, the main motivation for passing the law was the improvement of poor condition of many male Australians who were enlisted during World War II. (Sport Australia Hall of Fame, 2008) After the war, state and federal fitness councils continued to operate, but the reason for their existence was slowly disappearing and their funding was declining. As a result Australia lagged behind the United States and Europe in sports, although in the 1960s investments in sports facilities and health education grew gradually. John Bloomfield, respected Australian researcher in the field of sports, pointed out at this problem. He was a professor at the Department of Human Movement at the University of Western Australia and the president of the Australian Sports Medicine Federation, the main body for sports medicine and sports science in Australia, today known as Sports Medicine Australia. John Bloomfeld, along with other critics, emphasized that due to the government's failure to develop sport, and the lack of federal funding for sport, Australia's overall competitiveness had fallen dramatically. He therefore called for the establishment of a Ministry of Sports, which would be responsible for developing a professional sports system. (Sport Australia Hall of Fame, 2008)

In the 1970s Australian P.M. Edward Gough Whitlam indicated sport a means of improving the nation's overall well-being. Frank Stewart, minister of the newly established Ministry of Tourism and Recreation, instructed John Bloomfield to elaborate a report on the current situation in Australian sport and recreation and to propose recommendations for the future improvements in sport. Bloomfield considered the professionalization of sports the most important task and proposed the development of programs to improve physical fitness in schools, the development of programs in sports management, coaching, sports science, medicine, and the establishment of the National Institute of Sports. (May, 2021a)

Another major report was worked out by a group researchers from the Australian Sports Institute. The so-called Coles' Report (1975) supported the idea of establishing the National Institute of Sport, proposed by Bloomfield. One of their most important recommendations was the proposal to set up an Australian Sports Institute in Canberra. Following the recommendations of Bloomfield and Coles, Prime Minister Whitlam's government began to provide grants to sports organizations, to develop national coaching system, as well as to support sports science and medicine services. (ibid.)

The next P.M. Malcolm Fraser (since 1975), initially criticized the generous funding of sport during the Whitlam´s administration and as a consequence he remarkably reduced financing of sport, which reduced the desired effect of the previous national sport's reforms. Consequently, this measure reflected negatively at the Montreal Olympics in 1976: the Australian

Olympic team consisting of 149 male and 35 female athletes returned home - for the first time in Australian history – without gold medal (one silver and four bronze medals meant the most modest number of medals ever won). Poor results in Montreal led to protests across the country, so the government was forced to reconsider their attitude towards sport. (The Australian Olympic Committee Inc, 2021)

The failure of Australian athletes in Montreal has increased public pressure to increase funding for sport again. The government provided 1.8 mil. dollars for a period of three years for the „Life Be in It" programme, which was to raise the society's awareness of the benefits of physical activities. Finally, the most significant step taken by the Fraser´s government was the establishment of the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) - an institution that supported ordinary people in their sporting activities and helped Australian sport talents in their growth. (Jolly, 2013)

In the 1980s, following the House of Representatives' report, P.M. Hawke's government established the Australian Sports Commission (ASC). The ASC's role was to increase funding for the development of sports not only from the government resources but also from the private sector – by setting up a foundation. Due to the fact that in that decade sports activities of children and young people have significantly decreased, the ASC's task was to find a way to bring young people into sports. So ASC had adopted a new strategy called *Aussie Sport*, which emphasized that sport is not just about winning, but above all about fun. The mentioned strategy was successful, children in primary schools, but also students in secondary schools were involved in various sports activities. In the late 1980s and early 1990s about 7,5 million dollars have been invested in Aussie Sport and in 1995, the government announced that Aussie Sport reflected positively in 96% primary and secondary schools. (ibid.)

Under P.M. Hawke and later Keating, not only programs to involve young people were promoted, but also the involvement of women and people with disabilities were supported. The sports program for the disabled started operating in the years 1988-1990 with a financial support of 1 mil. dollars. The Hawke and Keating governments have found that attracting tourists to sporting events brings economic and health benefits to the country. Sport has improved Australia's reputation as a sports nation, increasing national pride. The two prime ministers have completed the transition from an amateur to a professional sports system that began under P.M Whitlam. (ibid.)

During John Howard's second government, Sydney hosted the 2000 Summer Olympics – the Millennium Games. More than 5.158 billion dollars were invested in the games with 199 participating countries. With 16 gold, 25 silver and 17 bronze medals, Australia placed 4th overall after the USA, Russia and China. These were the last Olympic Games chaired by the International Olympic Committee, headed by Antonio Samaranch. The next Olympics will take place in Australia in 2032 in Brisbane, Queensland. (Olympic Channel Services, 2000)

In 2009, a new study, the so-called Crawford Report, was elaborated under the patronage of the Ministry of Health and Aging. The report was named by one of its authors, David Crawford, who came with 38 new recommendations for the development of sport. In particular, he highlighted a national approach to sport policy at both professional and community levels, the need to reform the Australian Sports Commission, a closer cooperation of sports institutions, the outlining a national sports vision, as well as bringing sport and physical activity in educational facilities. (May, 2021a)

Sports management in Australia
Australia has three levels of government – the Australian Government, the Federal Government, also referred to as the Commonwealth, the Governments of the States and Territories and Local Authorities, also referred to as the General or Local Councils. Similarly, sports management in Australia operates at three levels: federal level, state level and local level.

Federal level
At the federal level, the sport is managed by the Ministry of Sports. The most important national sports authorities include the Australian Sports Commission, the Australian Sports Foundation, the National Sports Tribunal and the Australian Sports Integrity. The Australian Department of Sports is currently headed by senator Hon Richard Colbeck, who is also the Minister for Senior Citizens and Senior Citizens' Services. The Department of Sports manages the activities of the Australian Sports Commission. The ASC, a corporate body of the Commonwealth within the Australian Government's portfolio of health, was established on 13 September 1984 and is governed by the Australian Sports Commission Act dated 1989. The ASC is headed by a board of directors, which determines the overall direction and decides on resource allocation. The ASC brings together Sport Australia (SPORTAUS), which is responsible for managing the wider sports sector, supporting sports-related activities and the growth of the sports industry, and the Australian Sports Institute (AIS), which manages the high-performance sports system. ASC's vision is to make Australia one of the most active nations in the world, known for its integrity and sporting achievements. (Australian Government: Australian Sports Commission, 2020)

The Australian Sports Foundation is a leading Australian non-profit sports fundraising and a charity that funds grant programs in the field of sports. It is also the only organization in Australia that provides tax deductions for sports donations. It cooperates with all sports, at all levels from primary to national sports organizations, helps to finance sports - athletes, sports clubs and organizations, helps so that disadvantaged and marginalized people and communities can go in for sports. It allows every Australian to have an access to sports, regardless their age, gender, ability, language or financial situation. (Australian Sports Foundation, 2020b)

The National Sports Tribunal provides sports organizations,

athletes and staff with independent, cost-effective dispute resolution services. It offers alternative dispute resolution options without litigation. It uses four basic methods of dispute resolution: arbitration, mediation, conciliation and case assessment. (National Sports Tribunal, 2020)

Sports Integrity Australia (SIA) is an essential tool in a comprehensive government sports integrity strategy. Since 2020, the organization is the roof of the following institutions: the Sports Anti-Doping Authority, the National Integrity of Sport Unit and Sport Australia. SIA provides advice and helps in the anti-doping movement in sports, bullying, intimidation and discrimination. (Sport Integrity Australia, 2020)

Another federal institution – Sport Australia (SPORTAUS) – decides on the basis of established criteria which organizations will be recognized as National Sports Organizations (NSOs) and National Sports Organizations for People with Disabilities (NSOD). These organizations are designed to help achieve the Australian Government's sporting goals. Recognition NSO / NSOD status is not permanent, it is only for the prescribed period. The NSO and NSOD must submit annual financial reports and an annual report to SPORTAUS. The recognition criteria and the support process are regularly reviewed, and the organizations included in this network are regularly checked by SPORTAUS to ensure that they meet the set criteria. The granting of NSO / NSOD status does not automatically entitle these organizations to obtain funding from SPORTAUS or AIS. However, belonging to the NSO / NSOD brings many other benefits for sports organizations, in addition to possible financial ones. They may use the NSO / NSOD logo and, on an approved request, use the Commonwealth coat of arms and the uniforms of Australian national athletes and accompanying officials. They have access to grant programs providing direct financial support to athletes to focus on training and achieving strategic goals at the Olympic or Paralympic Games. In addition, they receive invitations to various workshops, seminars and other sports forums for the NSO / NSOD. They have access to the services and information from the National Sports Information Center and the Clearinghouse for Sport. SPORTAUS does not grant the status of NSO / NSOD to more than one sports organization in a given sport. (Australian Sports Commission, 2020).

State level

The management of sports at the state level falls within the competence of the Ministries of Sports of the individual Australian states, which are the Australian Capital Territory, New South Wales, the Northern Territory, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia. With regard to sport, national and territorial governments work independently, through coordinated approaches to the development and implementation of sports policies and programs, from leisure to elite sports. (Australian Government: Department of Health, 2021)

Ministries of Sports and Recreation establish state and territorial sports offices, state and territorial institutes, sports academies, Australian and state territorial government associations. Of course, at both the national and state levels, other ministries and state and territorial government departments, which are in charge of education, tourism and the environment, also participate in the development of sports. (ibid.)

The most important sports authority in New South Wales is Sport NSW - an independent state organisation focusing on the development of sports and recreation. In Victoria the supreme body for sports and active recreation is Vicsport, which has provided advice, assistance and support to its members and the wider sports community for more than 30 years. In the state of Western Australia, such tasks are performed by SportWest, the supreme sports body that promotes, strengthens and defends the state's sports community. In the territory of the capital Canberra it is ACTsport and in Tasmania the Tasmanian Sports Federation. (ibid.)

Since the early 1980s, governments in Australia and territories have set up their own sports institutes and academies, primarily to help professional athletes. The Academy of Sports (ACTAS) was established in 1989, the New South Wales Institute of Sport in 1996, and the Northern Territory Institute of Sport in 1996. Queensland Academy of Sport was establised in 1991, South Australian Sports Institute (SASI) in 1982, Tasmanian Institute of Sport in 1985, Victorian Innstitute of Sport in 1990 and the Western Australian Institute of Sport in 1984. These institutes / academies and AIS work together through a network of National Institutes (NINs) and the National Council of Elite Sports. The Network of National Institutes (NINs) consists of the Directors of the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and eight State and Territorial Institutes and Academies of Sport (SIS / SAS). (May, 2021b)

Local level

Local governments in Australia play an important role in promoting community sport as well. These provide financial resources to clubs and individuals, sponsor sports events, build and maintain sports infrastructure, provide sports facilities, clubhouses, courts, swimming pools, sports centers, and ensure that sports, sports and leisure facilities are affordable. Therefore, close cooperation with local governments is important for sports and recreational organizations.

The role of sport in society

Australia is a proud sports nation, sport is largely part of their DNA for Australians. The country is a successful world leader, innovator in sports. The country invests huge sums of money in professional athletes. It ranks among the most successful countries at the Olympic Games. At the last Tokyo Summer Olympics, Australian athletes won 17 gold and a total of 46 medals, with the Paralympic team winning 80 medals, including 21 gold. Despite the pandemic, elite athletes proudly represented their country. And the Australian government, and the ASC in particular, is already focusing on the preparation of the Olympic Games and the Paralympic Games, which will take place in

Brisbane in 2032. They realize that sport is an essential means for a cohesive and prosperous country, helping to promote national and international interests. (Australian Government: Australian Sports Commission, 2021)

Australia has joined the countries that boycotted the Beijing Winter Olympics in 2022 through diplomatic channels. Following the example of the United States, Australia did not send any government officials to the Winter Olympics in Beijing. Many human rights organizations were calling for a complete boycott of the Winter Olympics in China. (Šport.sk, 2021)

Australia is also aware of other benefits of sports, namely health and economic benefits as sport significantly contributes to Australia's economy. It brings in about $ 50 billion dollars a year in the economy, which represents 2-3% of Australian GDP. Furthermore, the sports sector employs has more than 220,000 people. (Australian Sports Foundation. 2020a).

Sports diplomacy strategy

In 2015, Australia released its first sports diplomacy strategy. It was focused on close cooperation between the government and individual sports organizations in order to use national sports excellence to advance national interests and strengthen Australia's influence and reputation. Current Sports Diplomacy Strategy 2030 focuses on the following strategic priorities - strengthening Australian sport to represent Australia around the world, building links with neighbors, maximizing trade, tourism and investment opportunities, strengthening the community in the Indo-Pacific and beyond.

To achieve these goals, it is necessary to expand the knowledge, skills and contacts of Australian sports leaders, improve the global reputation and build lasting relationships, increase representation in international sports bodies and associations. The main objectives of Australian sports diplomacy include:

- the involvement of prominent sports personalities in the promotion of Australia through trade missions and targeted sports diplomacy initiatives;
- increasing the participation of women and girls in sport;
- using the power of sport in order to promote gender equality;
- the inclusion of people with disabilities;
- supporting global efforts to raise awareness of the contribution of sport to the goals of sustainable development. (Australian Government, 2019)

Sports diplomacy is set to become part of Australia's diplomatic trade. With the right knowledge and skills, Australian sports diplomats and agents, as well as Australian sports managers can make it easier to build relationships with influential political, business leaders. (ibid.)

Conclusion

The involvement of the Australian Federal Government in the development of sports policy, management and financing of sports and physical activity from the local to the professional level has taken place relatively recently. It was during the government of Edward Whitlam in the 1970s that sport began to be considered a legitimate area of federal politics. The government has realized that the whole nation can benefit from mass sport. Gradually, other governments developed programs to promote sports. Under the pressure from sports organisations, academics, media and public, and especially after the failure of the Montreal Olympics in 1976, the government was forced to increase funding of sport.

Sports policy had to deal with a dilemma in terms of balance - who, how, and in what amount to finance sport in order to achieve the required results not only at the professional level, but also to achieve mass sports. In the field of sports policy, governments have been confronted with addressing the interrelationships between sport, recreation and healthy living, as well as the rising costs of financing the development of professional athletes and the health prevention of Australians. Therefore, the funds allocated to elite sports exceeded those allocated to mass sports. It has been assumed that governments provide funding for certain top sports and the subsequent success of athletes in these sports will inspire the population to go in for sports.

Sports management in Australia takes place at three levels. At the federal level, also known as the Commonwealth, at the state government level, and at the local level. The most important national sports authorities include the Australian Sports Commission, the Australian Sports Foundation, the National Sports Tribunal and Sport Integrity Australia.

Furthermore, Australian sports policy deals with issues such as illegal doping, allegations of violence against women, gender discrimination, racial inequality, and bullying. It is pointed out that male dominance is stil significant in Australian sport and that external intervention is needed to restore cultural integrity in order to achieve meaningful inclusion of women as athletes, coaches and managers into Australian sport. It is essential to report annually on how government funds have been used to improve gender diversity and the inclusion of women in sports organizations.

There is also a need to increase funding for mass participation in sport, funding for the participation of disadvantaged citizens and marginalized groups. It is necessary to reconsider the criteria on the basis of which Sport Australia decides on the allocation of NSO or NSOD status to individual sports organizations, to reconsider the distribution of funds to these organizations and especially to control their use.

In order to fulfill the desire of Australians to become the most active sports nation, it is necessary to fully integrate sport into government policy, multi-government policy, not only sports ministries, Commonwealth government policy, but also national and territorial government policy.

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