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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Journal is published twice a year, deadlines for submissions are 31st May and 30th November.

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.

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, dicschussions, reviews, and information in the field of politology. It aims to publish the papers on political philosophy and theory, comparative politology, political sociology, policy analysis, European studies, international relations, and security studies.

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

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

OBSAH

I. LINGUISTIC SECTION

WEB 2.0 TOOLS WEBLOG AND AUDIO BLOG IN EDUCATION

Ildikó NÉMETHOVÁ, Eva STRADIOTOVÁ

Abstract:

Information technology (IT) has recently experienced a huge boom in its development, which is reflected in all areas of society. Because the Internet is increasingly available today, unlike some other technologies, we want to focus on Web 2.0 tools like weblogs and audio blogs, and the possibilities of their use in education. Both weblogs and audio blogs are simple websites that we can use to support traditional classroom language teaching. With the help of weblogs and audio blogs, we can help students improve their writing, reading, listening, and speaking skills. Besides, working on a weblog and audio blog can be motivating for students.
Keywords: Web 2.0, audio blog, weblog, information technology, the Internet

Introduction

Since the early 1960s, language teachers have witnessed dramatic changes in the ways that languages are taught (Kern, R., Warscgauer, M., 2000). Behind these changes is the development of information and communication technology, which has transited the path for increased use of the Web, allowing access to diverse kinds of information and materials. With this advent of technology, a significant number of distinct technologies have been introduced to assist in human communication and interaction (Livingstone, K.A.).

In the last decade, a steady increase in the use of the Internet for language teaching and learning has led researchers to investigate the effects of a range of different task designs which can be implemented in that medium (Brandl, 2012, Sharma, 2008, Greenhow et al., 2009; Hartshorne, Ajjan, 2009).

It is important that educators recognize the impact of technology not only on the way we live our lives but also on the students, how they will interact in the world after school, how they will be prepared for the work. Teachers shouldn't employ technology just for technology's sake, but to improve learning outcomes and increase learner engagement. Administrators and managers must ensure that new teaching approaches meet or exceed learning expectations (Stein, J., Graham, Ch., 2014). Today´s students are used to using these new technologies. They are growing up with them and using technologies is for them natural, we can say that they are digital literate.

Recently, a major revolution has occurred in the way Web technology is being used in several settings. It is not only a technical revolution, but it is also a social revolution (An & Williams, 2010; Conole & Alevizou, 2010; Voithofer, 2007) which has changed Web 1.0 to Web 2.0.

Web 2.0 offers several powerful digital and also social media technologies that support participation and interaction in various digital formats (Cakir, R., Yukseltur, E., Top, E. 2015). The Web 2.0 tools are, f.e., blogs, microblogs, wikis, twitter, podcasting, social bookmarking, social networking. The key features of these tools include online character and access through a web browser, supportive for open content licenses, open sharing, and social interaction, and often free to use or support free features (Banday, T.M., 2013).

Some researchers have emphasized that the development and growth of the Web 2.0 technologies offer new benefits, new possibilities to education at all levels (Anderson, 2007; Bennett et al., 2012; Bull et al., 2008; 2008; Voithofer, 2007), and Web 2.0 has been defined from different perspectives (O'Reilly, 2008; Siemens, 2008, Zimmer, 2007; Alexander, 2006). According to some researchers, Web 2.0 refers to the social use of the Web which allows people to collaborate, to get actively involved in creating content, to generate knowledge, and to share information online (Grosseck, G., 2009, Baxter et al., 2011). Other researchers see Web 2.0 as the web that has the potential to design more interactive environments in which users become content developers, producers, editors, and evaluators (Cakir, R. et al., 2015)

In the paper, we focus on using Web 2.0 tools, weblogs, and audio blogs, in teaching foreign languages.

Weblogs

A weblog or blog is a personal diary, collaborative space, breaking-news outlet, and a collection of links to your private views memos to the world (Embi, A. M., 2011). The weblog can be described as an online journal with one or many contributors. Besides straight text and hyperlinks, many blogs incorporate other forms of media, such as images and videos. Blogs differ from traditional websites and provide many advantages over traditional sites (Duffy, Bruns, 2006, Yuliyatno, et al., 2019, Yasemin Koçak Usluel et al., 2009).

The choice of blogs, audio blogs, weblogs, or microblogs always depends on the goals, which we want to achieve in the teaching process. We can use a weblog as a supplement to teaching, and its goals can be very broad: from the bulletin board to the class blog. Blogging is viewed as a tool in facilitating the development of writing skills (Cequena, B.M., 2013), which is one of the four basic language skills.

Campbell (2003) categorized blogs into three types which can be used for ESL classrooms: tutor blog, learner blog, and class blog. These types differ from each other by the goals for which they are founded. A teacher blog is set up by a teacher and can serve:

• as a notice board on which a teacher informs students or parents about what is new in the classroom, about the achieved results of individual students, about the tasks they have to do, or about the dates of the exams, etc.,

• to students' comments,

• for study tips, i.e. advice on how to study,

• for an additional explanation of the grammatical categories,

• to mediate further exercises to improve the curriculum,

• to provide study materials.

The student blog can serve:

• as a portfolio of written work of the student, which is in one place and is information for the teacher and the student about the progress he/she has made,

• as a diary,

• as a portfolio of homework.

Class or classroom blog

• is very suitable for joint projects,

• can convey information about what is happening in the classroom,

• serves well as a magazine.

A weblog is a good tool for improving your comprehension writing and reading skills.

Advantages and disadvantages of weblogs

Based on the experience gained with working on weblogs, we can say that the benefits of a weblog are as follows:

• creates a connection between lessons, as the teacher can publish the applied materials and can also provide new materials for revision,

• motivates students to be more engaged and interested in language learning,

• provides students with the opportunity to write and read contributions on specific topics,

• content can be judged by classmates and teachers, i.e. they can get feedback from peers and also from the teacher,

• provides a wide audience (internet users, friends, classmates, family members, ... etc.)

• provide space for cooperation,

• students gain confidence in writing and reading,

• a blog that serves as an online journal allows students to express themselves, i.e. they can express themselves freely here and defend their opinion,

• papers are archived, teachers and students can read them again at any time, remind themselves of the mistakes they made in writing and how they responded to their contribution,

• according to Susana de Juana-Espinosa and Sergio Lujan-Mora (2007) they are not only easy to set up but also administrate in contrast to other technologies. Creating them requires minimal technical knowledge from the user.

In addition to the advantages, weblogs also have certain disadvantages:

• perhaps the biggest disadvantage is that they are time-consuming, i.e. writing, and publishing posts take some time, and reading, correcting them, and giving feedback are also very time-consuming activities. We can say that publishing posts on the blog are time-consuming for the students and providing students with the feedback is time-consuming for the teachers,

• are not confidential, i.e. anyone on the Internet can open and read them and everyone can also comment critically on the written post through the function comment and a negative comment can be demotivating for the author of the blog,

• some students may not want to blog unless they are forced to do so because blogging takes some time,

• students with weaker computer skills may have problems with blogging (Trimarco: 2004). These disadvantages of weblogs are not significant enough to negatively affect their active and regular use in foreign language teaching.

Audio blog

Another type of blog is an audio blog. Its name implies that this is a blog that focuses on the spoken word. Through this blog, students can be greatly assisted in improving their language speaking and listening skills. Audio blogging is an extension of the weblog, where bloggers replace a number of text posts with voice recordings. (The Guardian: 2004). Very similar to the audio blog is the podcast. The term of the podcast is constituted of words of iPod (portable digital audio player form apple) and broadcasting and they are digital audio programs that can be subscribed to and downloaded by users via RSS and listened to on either a variety of digital audio services or desktop computer (Petter et al., 2005, Abdulrahman et al., 2018).

An audio blog can be used in facilitating communication. Students can improve his/her speaking and listening abilities by using an audio blog.

Creating an audio blog or podcast is relatively simple, and because the development of computers has moved significantly forward, recording the spoken word is not difficult. To be able to record and play audio, a computer needs to have encased a microphone and speakers. If a computer does not have an encased microphone and speakers, then it is necessary to purchase them and connect them to a computer. As with the weblog, we distinguish three types of audio blogs:

Tutorial blog:

• to mediate recordings e.g. lectures,

• arranging additional recordings related to the issues discussed,

• arranging other exercises and tasks focused on speaking and listening to.

The student blog:

• online spoken diary,

• portfolio of oral homework, episodes, ...

Class blog:

• for joint projects, e.g. to create a "class radio".

Before using an audio blog in teaching, we should first ask ourselves the question "Why should we use it in education?" and decide on the basis of the answer whether we want to use this tool if it helps us to improve the process of teaching. Certainly, one of the answers why we should use an audio blog is the current situation in education, insufficient number of foreign language lessons, and large numbers of students in the classroom, which means that students do not have many opportunities to talk, and this is subsequently reflected in their uncertainty and unwillingness to speak in a foreign language. The audio blog can help to solve this situation since it allows teachers to:

• help students to improve the oral skills in a new way,

• teaching is more interesting and enjoyable,

• better guide individual students, which traditional classroom teaching does not provide to such an extent. (Tan Yuh Huann, Mong Kok Thong, 2006)

An audio blog allows students to:

• practice speaking and listening,

• express his/her opinion,

• be creative,

• made episodes, record, and publish them.

Advantages and disadvantages of audio blogs

Like a weblog, an audio blog has its advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of the audio blog are obvious due to a large number of students in the class (i.e. the possibilities of talking are limited):

• creating, recording and posting episodes can be motivating, stimulating and enjoyable,

• helps to improve speaking and listening skills,

• episodes are archived automatically,

• posting new content is easy,

• the dating and organization of the episodes are in reverse chronological order, i.e. the latest episodes can be seen first,

• both the student and the teacher can monitor progress in improving individual skills,

• content syndication via RSS feeds.

The disadvantages of the audio blog are:

• the biggest disadvantage, as in the case of a weblog, is the time required to regularly publish episodes,

• are not confidential, i.e. anyone on the internet can listen to them,

• it is quite possible that students will probably not want to blog unless they are forced to do so, as it will take them a long time to create interesting episodes,

• students with weaker language skills probably try to avoid making episodes,

• students with weaker computer skills may have trouble creating episodes.

Conclusion

The development of Information technology can help educators to make the process of teaching more interesting, stimulating and educators can find an ally in technology that helps them to achieve the goals they set.

Weblog and audio blog are just two of the many options that current technologies offer us, but they can be a very effective and motivating tool for improving writing/reading skills and speaking/listening skills, provided that students regularly perform the tasks assigned to them on the weblog or audio blog.

Using blogs enables students to work on their creativity, for instance, to create online cartoons, podcasts, etc. Besides being generally free, it is collaborative, so students can share ideas and finally write their essays together with by using the target language (Mietti, B., Moura, R.M., 2016).

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DAS PROBLEM EINER GEMEINSAMEN SPRACHE

Terézia ONDRUŠOVÁ

Abstrakt:

Das Problem einer gemeinsamen Sprache. In der Geschichte können wir eine Tendenz beobachten, eine gemeinsame Sprache als Lösung für eine mehrsprachige Situation zu verwenden. Lingua Franca ist eine Sprache für die internationale Kommunikation, wenn diese Sprache für einen Teilnehmer keine Muttersprache ist. Zu den Faktoren, die die Entstehung und Verbreitung von Verkehrssprachen beeinflussen, gehören geografische, städtische, wirtschaftliche, religiöse, militärische und politische Faktoren. Die Verbreitung der Religion hat auch zur Verbreitung der gemeinsamen Sprache beigetragen, insbesondere wenn eine Religion mit einer Sprache in Verbindung gebracht wurde. Lange Zeit war es katholischer Glaube und Latein, Islam und Arabisch, aber auch Sanskrit, das mit Hinduismus verbunden ist. Mit der Verbreitung von Religion und Sprache verbreitete sich oft auch das Drehbuch.

Schlüsselwörter: *gemeinsame Sprache, Mehrsprachigkeit, Sprachplanung, internationale Sprache*

Einleitung

In der Geschichte können wir eine Tendenz beobachten, eine gemeinsame Sprache - linguu franca - als Lösung für eine mehrsprachige Situation zu verwenden. Lingua franca ist eine Sprache für die internationale Kommunikation, wenn diese Sprache für einen Kommunikationsteilnehmer keine Muttersprache ist (Ammon, 1991). Zu den Faktoren, die die Entstehung und Verbreitung von Verkehrssprachen beeinflussen, gehören geografische, städtische, wirtschaftliche, religiöse, militärische und politische Faktoren (Calvet, 1998).

Geografie

In der Vergangenheit war der geografische Faktor entscheidend für die Verbreitung von Sprachen. Ihre Ausbreitung vermied natürliche Hindernisse wie Gebirgszüge und schritt auf natürlichen Straßen, insbesondere Flüssen, rasch voran. Der städtische und wirtschaftliche Faktor hängt eng mit den geografischen Bedingungen zusammen. Die Straßen verbanden Städte, Häfen und Märkte, die Orte mit der größten Konzentration von Menschen und

Verwaltung, die Kommunikation in einer Sprache erforderten. Städte waren auch Wirtschaftszentren. Von diesen hat sich die Sprache auch auf geografisch unzugängliche Gebiete ausgebreitet, wie z. B. Gebirgszüge, wenn sich Märkte entwickelt haben oder Handelswege, die beispielsweise zwei Häfen verbinden, gekreuzt haben. Die Verbreitung der Religion hat auch zur Verbreitung der Sprachfranken beigetragen, insbesondere wenn eine Religion mit einer Sprache in Verbindung gebracht wurde. Lange Zeit war es katholischer Glaube und Latein, Islam und Arabisch, aber auch Sanskrit, das mit Hinduismus verbunden ist. Mit der Verbreitung von Religion und Sprache verbreitete sich oft auch das Drehbuch. In muslimischen Ländern wird heute arabische Schrift verwendet, die Orthodoxie hat Kyrillisch verbreitet usw. Darüber hinaus ist Latein zur Sprache der Gelehrten und Hebräisch zur Landessprache des Staates Israel geworden (Calvet, 1998). Lingua franca kann auch durch militärische Expansion entstehen, und die Präsenz einer Armee in einem Land hat einen erheblichen Einfluss auf die Verbreitung einer solchen Sprache.

Der politische Faktor

Der politische Faktor ist hauptsächlich der Einfluss der Sprachpolitik auf die Entstehung von Sprachfranken. Ein Beispiel ist die Reihe politischer Entscheidungen des deutschen und britischen Kolonialismus, die zur Verbreitung von Suaheli in Ostafrika beigetragen haben (Calvet, 1998).

Soziale Beziehungen erzwingen normalerweise Kommunikation trotz der Vielfalt der Sprachen. Wenn eine Sprache verbreitet wird, geht dies immer zu Lasten anderer Sprachen. Die Entstehung von Sprachrausch ist das Ergebnis der Rivalität mehrerer Sprachen.

Die Frage ist, was der Unterschied zwischen Lingua-Französisch und der internationalen Sprache ist. Wenn eine Verkehrssprache eine Sprache ist, die zur Kommunikation zwischen Menschen mit einer anderen Muttersprache verwendet wird, kann sie unter dieser Definition auch eine afrikanische Sprache sein. In der Liste der als international bezeichneten Sprachen fehlen jedoch afrikanische Sprachen. Mit Ausnahme von Mandarin-Chinesisch sind nur europäische Sprachen enthalten. Calvet kritisiert Eurozentrismus im Bereich der Sprachen. Er versteht die Bezeichnung einer internationalen Sprache und einer anderen Verkehrsprache als Ausdruck des sprachlichen Rassismus - europäische Länder kommunizieren in internationalen Sprachen miteinander, während die Länder der Dritten Welt nur Sprachen verwenden, die als Verkehrssprache bezeichnet werden, für die gegenseitige Kommunikation (Calvet, 1998).

Der Begriff "internationale Sprache" sollte sich nur auf die Sprache beziehen, die tatsächlich in der internationalen Kommunikation verwendet wird, ob natürlich oder künstlich. Andernfalls könnten wir den Begriff internationale Sprache nur als eine Sprache bezeichnen, die ausschließlich zum Zweck der internationalen Kommunikation geschaffen wurde, so dass die Definition nur für künstliche, geplante Sprachen gelten würde, die nicht der Realität entsprechen würden (Ammon, 1991).

In der europäischen Geschichte waren die französische und die lateinische Sprache sowohl Griechisch als auch Latein und Französisch. Englisch hat heute eine privilegierte Stellung.

Griechisch und Latein als gemeinsame Kommunikationssprachen

Mit Ausnahme des Baskenlandes in Spanien und der ugrischen Gruppe (Ungarn, Finnen und Esten) sprechen alle Europäer indogermanische Sprachen, darunter Keltisch, Germanisch, Romanisch, Slawisch und Griechisch. Die Indo-Europäer waren das Gebiet zwischen Mittelosteuropa und Südrussland. Um 2000 v. begann die westliche Route nach Europa und den Südosten nach Kleinasien und Indien zu durchdringen (Krupa, 1983).

In der Zeit von 1850 bis 1600 v. Chr. Drang die westliche Gruppe in das heutige Griechenland ein und verschmolz mit der lokalen Bevölkerung. Die griechischen Stämme von Mykene, später die Dorianer und Ionen, ließen sich auf dem Peloponnes, später in Athen, auf den Ägäischen Inseln und an der Küste Kleinasiens nieder. Sie waren sowohl Soldaten als auch Kaufleute. Sie handelten mit Italien, Sizilien und Ägypten. Mit der Ankunft der Dorianer und der Ionen wurden die griechischen "Polis", kleine Gemeinschaften, gegründet, deren Regierungsführung und Regierungsführung den Grundstein für die europäische Politik legte. In den Jahren 750 - 500 v. Die griechische Zivilisation breitete sich an den Ufern des Schwarzen Meeres, Nordafrikas, Italiens und Südfrankreichs aus. Dies war auf den Mangel an Land zur Unterstützung einer wachsenden Bevölkerung und die Notwendigkeit zurückzuführen, den Seehandel zu entwickeln. Auf diese Weise wurden Kolonien geschaffen und die griechische Sprache verbreitet. Das griechische Nationalbewusstsein beruhte jedoch nicht auf Sprache und Kultur, sondern auf der Zugehörigkeit zu einzelnen Stadtstaaten, die miteinander konkurrierten, sich aber im Falle einer externen Bedrohung vereinigen konnten (Alcock, 2002).

Mit der Regierung von Alexander von Mazedonien kam Griechisch 334 v. nach Ägypten, Mesopotamien und Kleinasien und wurde eine internationale Sprache. In einem Versuch, das Persische Reich zu dominieren, unterstützte Alexander die Ehen von griechischen Soldaten und

persischen Frauen. Handelshemmnisse wurden beseitigt und der freie Personenverkehr im gesamten eroberten Gebiet gestattet. Griechische Sprachen, Literatur und Philosophie verbreiteten sich in den neu gegründeten Städten. Nur griechischsprachige Bürger konnten öffentliche Ämter bekleiden. Alexanders politische Vision wurde durch Hunderte ergänzt, die sich nicht als Bürger der Stadt oder des Staates, sondern der ganzen Welt betrachteten. Dies bedeutete die Auflösung des klassischen Griechenlands und der Stadtstaaten (Alcock, 2002).

753 v. wurde von Rom in Latium gegründet. In den Jahren 287-267 v. Nach der Niederlage Karthagos eroberte Rom Süditalien, Sizilien, dann Sardinien und Korsika und erlangte die Kontrolle über Spanien und das westliche Mittelmeer. Rom wurde zum Handelszentrum und Latein wurde im ganzen Reich verbreitet. In 58-52 v. eroberte Rom 31 v. Chr. von Frankreich und Belgien. wurde eine römische Kolonie von Ägypten. Kaiser Diokletian (284 - 305 n. Chr.) Teilte das Reich zur besseren Kontrolle in westliche und östliche. Der westliche Teil zerfiel 565 n. Chr., Das ostbyzantinische Reich dauerte weitere 1000 Jahre, weil es eine gesündere soziale und wirtschaftliche Struktur hatte und politisch stabiler war.

Unter Kaiser Justinian wurde Latein im Byzantinischen Reich in Verwaltung, Gesetzgebung und Militär verwendet, obwohl die Leute es nicht sprachen. Im Jahr 641 erklärte Lord Heraclius Griechisch, die Sprache des Volkes und der Kirche, zur Amtssprache des Reiches. Eine Generation später starb das Latein in Byzanz sogar unter Gelehrten aus (Krupa, 1983).

Die neue Religion - das Christentum - konnte am Anfang dank der griechischen Sprache entwickelt werden, in der das Neue Testament ursprünglich geschrieben wurde. Griechisch war unter gebildeten Einwohnern sowohl im östlichen als auch im westlichen Teil des Reiches weit verbreitet.

Latein gehört zum italienischen Zweig der indogermanischen Sprachen. Die romanischen Sprachen entwickelten sich aus dem lateinischen Volk, der umgangssprachlichen Form der lateinischen Sprache, der Staatssprache des Römischen Reiches. Die Lateinamerikaner sprachen ursprünglich Latio in Mittelitalien am Unterlauf des Tiber. Einer der Stämme Latias waren die Römer. Im Laufe mehrerer Jahrhunderte haben sie ganz Italien, alle Regionen rund um das Mittelmeer, ganz Westeuropa sowie einen Teil Mitteleuropas und die Schwarzmeerregion erobert. Um 353 v. C. Die Römer eroberten lateinische Nachbarn und ihre Sprache wurde zur Sprache der offiziellen Kommunikation. Ca. 265 v. C. Rom eroberte den südlichen Teil Italiens und Sizilien, das von den Griechen kolonisiert wurde, und begann, Elemente der griechischen Kultur zu übernehmen. Das Volkslatein unterschied sich jedoch von

der komplexen Literatursprache. Der älteste lateinische Text stammt aus dem 6. Jahrhundert v. C. aus Palestrina (Krupa, 1983).

Das Wachstum des Reiches führte dazu, dass sich die römische Kultur und das Latein in fast Europa und Nordafrika verbreiteten. Lateinische Anleihen gibt es in nahezu allen europäischen Sprachen sowie in den Berbersprachen Nordafrikas. Hier wurden einige Wörter beibehalten, insbesondere landwirtschaftliche Begriffe, die an anderer Stelle verschwunden sind. Das Baskische hat viele Worte genommen, insbesondere aus den Bereichen Verwaltung, Handel und Militär. In den keltischen Sprachen der britischen Gruppe können etwa 800 lateinische Wörter dokumentiert werden. In germanischen Sprachen sind lateinische Kredite hauptsächlich geschäftsbezogen und haben oft archaische Formen. Latein hat einen ständigen Einfluss auf die Romantik und die Nachbarsprachen als Sprache der Religion und Kultur. Mit dem Christentum drang es sogar in neue Länder (Irland) ein. Latein wurde im Mittelalter und bis in die Neuzeit verwendet, nicht nur als kirchliche und diplomatische Sprache, sondern auch in der Literatur, in der Wissenschaft fast ausschließlich, zum größten Teil zur Unterhaltung. Zu dieser Zeit war Latein eine internationale Sprache. In der Slowakei wurde es bis Mitte des letzten Jahrhunderts in der staatlichen Verwaltung eingesetzt.

Seit Alexander dem Großen gibt es in Europa eine Weltanschauung, dass die Menschheit eine Einheit ist, die sich aus einer Kirche, einem Reich (937 wurde der deutsche Prinz Oto, dessen Papst zum Kaiser des Heiligen Römischen Reiches gekrönt wurde) und einer Sprache - dem vom Klerus verwendeten Latein - manifestiert. , Gelehrte und Diplomaten, egal wo sie in Europa lebten.

Zwei Phänomene - Krieg und Sprache - haben eine Schlüsselrolle bei der Entstehung von Staaten gespielt, insbesondere in England und Frankreich, die das einheitliche Bild der Gesellschaft aufgelöst haben. Im 14. Jahrhundert kamen immer mehr Menschen, die die Landessprache sprachen, in öffentliche Ämter, und Sprachen wurden zum Unterscheidungsmerkmal, auf dessen Grundlage einzelne Staaten definiert wurden. Große literarische Werke in italienischer, französischer und englischer Sprache trugen ebenfalls zur Förderung der Sprache auf Kosten des Lateinischen bei. In Deutschland etablierte sich die Landessprache erst während der Reformation, als Martin Luther 1532 die Übersetzung der Bibel ins Deutsche vollendete, sie für das Volk verständlich machte und neben vielen Dialekten den Grundstein für eine einheitliche deutsche Sprache legte. Die Verbreitung der Bibel hat es seitdem möglich gemacht. 1445 erfand der Drucker von Johann Gutenberg.

In Europa ist die Kenntnis der lateinischen Sprache neben der griechischen Sprache seit Jahrhunderten ein Bildungskriterium. Erst im Zweiten Weltkrieg begann der Rückzug des klassischen Latein aus den Schulen. Latein blieb die offizielle Sprache der römisch-katholischen Kirche, obwohl vor einigen Jahren die Landessprachen im Gottesdienst eingeführt wurden. Latein ist in der internationalen Terminologie in vielen wissenschaftlichen Nomenklaturen (zusammen mit dem klassischen Griechisch) noch lebendig. Seine Neologismen sind in zeitgenössischen europäischen und sogar außereuropäischen Sprachen sehr stark vertreten. Es hat einen hohen Anteil am Wortschatz einiger internationaler künstlicher Hilfssprachen. Die lateinische Schrift, der weltweit am weitesten verbreitete Typ, wird derzeit von 35-40% der Menschheit verwendet (Krupa, 1983).

Französisch

Die international wichtigste romanische Sprache ist Französisch. Neben Frankreich (53 Millionen Menschen) wird Französisch auch im wallonischen Belgien (4,4 Millionen), in der romanischen Schweiz (1 Million), in Italien (90.000) und in Monaco (25.000) gesprochen. Es ist eine Amtssprache in Luxemburg (zusätzlich zu Deutsch und Luxemburgisch). Außerhalb Europas sprechen über 6 Millionen Menschen in Kanada mehr als 2 Millionen Menschen auf Französisch. in den USA die Bevölkerung von Haiti, einige Inseln der Kleinen Antillen, Französisch-Guayana und Reunion. Französisch ist auch in vielen ehemaligen Kolonien weit verbreitet, wo es heute Amtssprache ist. Nach Anzahl der Sprecher belegt es den dritten Platz unter den romanischen Sprachen. Mehr als 80 mil. Menschen.

Keine der romanischen Sprachen war so wichtig wie Französisch. 1066 eroberte der französische Feudalherr, Herzog von Norman Wilhelm I. (Wilhelm der Eroberer), England. Infolgedessen ist Französisch, die Sprache der Eroberer, seit langem die offizielle Sprache Englands. Im 18. Jahrhundert wurde die französische Sprache allgemein als Sprache der Zivilisation angesehen. Im 17. und 18. Jahrhundert wurde Französisch im mittelalterlichen Europa als Latein verwendet. Französisch hat Latein in Diplomatie, Wissenschaft und sozialem Leben ersetzt. Die französische Literatursprache begann sich im 11. Jahrhundert auf der Grundlage westlicher Dialekte auf dem Gebiet der größten und zentralsten feudalen Vereinigung dieser Zeit zu entwickeln. Zu Beginn des 13. Jahrhunderts. Die französische Sprache wird zum Dialekt von Paris. Vor dem Zweiten Weltkrieg war Französisch eine diplomatische Sprache und eine der wichtigsten internationalen Sprachen. Obwohl es nach dem Krieg von der englischen Sprache aus diesen Positionen verdrängt wurde, wird es in vielen

Teilen der Welt immer noch als zweite Fremdsprache verwendet. Viele Benutzer von kreolischem Französisch äußern sich bei offiziellen Anlässen in schriftlichem Französisch. Französisch ist nicht nur in vielen Ländern der Welt Amtssprache, sondern auch eine der sechs Amtssprachen der Vereinten Nationen (Spolsky, 2004).

Frankreich ist ein Beispiel für ein demokratisches Land, das in der Verfassung trotz einer großen Anzahl von Einwanderern eine Landessprache bekennt. Die Sprachpolitik in Frankreich hat eine lange Tradition und geht auf Kardinal Richelieu zurück, der durch die Einführung einer Sprache im Jahr 1624 intern vereinte Gebiete bildete, die bereits unter französischer Herrschaft standen, aber vom Zerfall drohten. Die Schaffung der Académie francaise trug dazu bei. Erst zu Beginn des 17. Jahrhunderts lernten die Kinder, Französisch zu lesen, und in dieser Zeit wurde das erste Werk in französischer Sprache verfasst. Die Sprache der einfachen Leute wurde unterschätzt, und die literarische Sprache der Aristokratie gewann einen hohen Stellenwert. Das französische Parlament hat die volle Verantwortung für den französischen Anbau übernommen.

Die französische Sprache wurde nach der Französischen Revolution, die Gleichheit als höchsten Wert proklamierte, zum französischen Nationalsymbol, und es war die einzige Sprache, die diese Gleichheit gewährleisten sollte. Andere Sprachen wurden als "unterpatriotisch" verboten. Dieser Trend hält bis heute an. Frankreich unterzeichnete die Charta für Regional- und Minderheitensprachen erst 1999, sieben Jahre nach der Unterzeichnung der Charta durch andere Länder.

1994 wurde das Toubon-Gesetz verabschiedet, das Französisch im Unterrichtsprozess, auf dem Arbeitsmarkt, in den Medien usw. verbindlich macht. Beamte sind verpflichtet, die angegebene Terminologie zu verwenden, dh französische Wörter nicht durch Wörter ausländischer Herkunft zu ersetzen. Während des 20. Jahrhunderts wurden mehrere Organisationen gegründet, um die Verbreitung von Französisch zu fördern und Englisch zu bekämpfen (Spolsky, 2004).

Fazit

In Bezug auf die Position des Französischen in der Welt wird seine Position sowohl in Bezug auf die Anzahl der Personen, die es als ihre erste oder zweite Sprache verwenden, als auch in internationalen Organisationen gestärkt. Die Position des Französischen ist somit nur gegenüber dem Englischen geschwächt.

Beim Vergleich der französischen Sprachpolitik vor und nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg, während vor dem Zweiten Weltkrieg, beim Aufbau einer Sprache für politische Ziele - zur Schaffung eines starken Staates, d.h. zur Lösung interner Probleme - konzentrierte sich die französische Sprachpolitik nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg den äußeren Feind bekämpfen - Englisch.

Englisch ist nicht nur die Anzahl der Personen, die es als Muttersprache verwenden, was viermal mehr ist als in der französischen Sprache, sondern auch in Bezug auf das wirtschaftliche, kulturelle und politische Wachstum der englischsprachigen Länder, insbesondere der USA.

Das Primat der französischen Sprache gehört somit in den internationalen Beziehungen der Vergangenheit an, ebenso wie ihre Gleichwertigkeit mit dem Englischen, das zunehmend alle Funktionen der internationalen Sprache übernimmt.

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CORRECTION OF MISTAKES IN STUDENTS´ WRITING

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Abstract:

In our paper we pay attention to different attitudes to the correction of mistakes in the written work of students. Correcting mistakes is a demanding and time-consuming task for the teacher and therefore we analyse the most effective methods used to improve students´ writing skills. We examine arguments for and against mistake correction and we advocate the opinion of teachers and research workers who are in favour of correction. We come to conclusion that this procedure is important for improving students´ writing skills and therefore students should be given systematic, accurate and selective feedback in the form of correcting mistakes.

Keywords: assessment of written work, assignment, feedback, mistake correction, motivation, standardized methods, writing skills

Introduction

Through many years the attitude towards errors and mistakes correction has been constantly changing. Especially in the past, when Grammar Translation Method was prevailing, errors and mistakes had to be eliminated at all costs. Today errors and mistakes are viewed as an integral part of the language process. The opinion of the linguists concerning error correction differs in many areas and teachers should carefully consider which approach they should adopt. After many years of the teaching experience we can say that the best way of error correction is the way which achieves the best results and has a positive impact on improving students´ language performance.

Theoretical background

According to Tafani (2009) there exists the distinction between errors and mistakes. "Errors reflect gaps in students' knowledge. They occur because the student does not know what is correct and they are caused by ignorance of the appropriate rule or structure in the foreign language. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance, confusion, slips of tongue, etc. They occur because in a particular instance, the student is unable to perform what he or she knows. Consequently, mistakes are problems of applying incorrectly whereas errors are problems of knowledge, they are the result of incorrect rule learning."

In Business English classes at the university level teaching writing skills represents for the teacher one of the most difficult tasks. One of the reasons is the fact that students´ level of mastering English differs significantly when they enter the university. While the minority of students have already achieved relatively good command of English during their secondary studies including writing skills, significantly higher number of students have serious problems when their writing skills are tested. In this situation the teacher should select and use appropriate methods in teaching writing skills so that all students can benefit from this procedure. In teaching the writing skills it is mainly the correction of errors and mistakes that plays an important role for achieving the target. In the process of analysing errors and mistakes it is very important to find the causes of their occurrence. Tafani (2009) gives these main reasons:

- inadequacy of our teaching techniques
- lack of hard work on the part of the learners
- the idea that we can't learn a language without making mistakes, consequently the mistakes will occur despite our best efforts
- more attention is given to the concern about teaching than improving the way of learning the foreign language
- the interference of the mother tongue (examples in phonology, word order, grammar, etc.)
- overgeneralization (for example overuse of the rules without focusing on exceptions as in the case of the "s" of plural, when the students wrongly say: child - childrens, foot – foots, etc)
- carelessness.

From our pedagogical experience follows that it is not strategically appropriate to correct all mistakes. Teachers should distinguish between serious and minor mistakes so that students can concentrate on improving their writing skills and learn how to avoid repeating the same mistakes in the future. As less significant mistakes we can consider spelling, punctuation and capitalization which should be corrected by the teacher but they are not decisive for correct understanding and perceiving of the written text. Sometimes these mistakes may occur because students don´t pay enough attention to editing and proofreading the text before the teacher checks their written assignments. Students whose writing skills are not sufficiently developed

have very often the problems to choose the correct or appropriate expressions when they consult a dictionary.

When correcting mistakes teachers should be consistent and they should use standardized methods to indicate their students the type and place of mistakes. It is useful to set a list of symbols which must be explained to students so that they understand their meaning and correction of a mistake when the certain symbol is used in their written work. As one of the possible systems of correction symbols can be used the Harmer´s table.

Symbol	Meaning
S	Spelling mistake
WO	Word order
G	Grammar mistakes
T	Verb tense
C	Subject/ verb agreement
Λ	Something is missing
WW	Wrong word
{ }	Redundant expression
? M	Not clear meaning
P	Punctuation
F/I	The level of formality: adequate, inadequate

Harmer´s correction symbols

Tafani (2009) suggests following procedures for the correction of mistakes in the written work:

- the correction of all mistakes
- the correction of the mistakes selectively
- underlining the mistakes; the student has to correct them
- students´ self-correction of mistakes.

The first approach may represent a discouragement for the students when they receive their work full of red notes. According to Truscott (2008) some students dislike if the teacher repeatedly points out the mistakes in the written works. We also came to conclusion that in

order to avoid making mistakes students usually prefer to write shorter and simple sentences or simplify the whole structure of the assignments.

When the teacher decides to correct mistakes selectively it means that not all mistakes are corrected but only those that the teacher has decided to focus on. This procedure has according to Tafani (2009) more positive effects than the correction of all mistakes because the correction concentrates only on the mistakes which are considered by the teacher to be the most relevant or the teacher may decide to correct only selected grammatical or lexical phenomena.

The third procedure is mainly done through symbols which help students focus their attention on the type of mistakes and to think about the appropriate way of correcting them. This method of correction is more effective especially with more advanced students. Before using the symbols the teacher should explain them to students so that their usage is clear, unambiguous and meaningful. When using the list of symbols students can work individually, in pairs or small groups. If they don´t understand the meaning they may ask the teacher for the explanation.

Self-correction of mistakes may be effective as it develops critical thinking towards students´ own written work. This procedure requires the teacher to check the correction and explain the most repeated and frequent mistakes in the class.

We must also distinguish between correcting mistakes of lower level learners and more advanced students. When correcting lower level students´ assignments it is advisable to use the direct method where the teacher writes the correct version. On the other hand, with more advanced students the teacher can use the symbols or just indicate the place of error in the text. It is very important for the teacher to realize that correcting all mistakes can be contra productive as it is very time consuming for the teacher and at the time very discouraging for the students. However, with advanced students who have reached fluency in the language, the teacher should correct all mistakes. In the process of teaching writing skills one of the prerequisites of achieving success is the requirement to re-write the corrected assignment as only this procedure will lead to avoiding frequently occurring mistakes and enhancement of correct lexical and grammatical structures. It is not only teacher´s role which is very important in eliminating errors but also student´s active participation in all class activities and accurate fulfilment of assignments. One of the most important tasks of the teacher is to motivate students to develop positive attitude to learning which can be reached by assigning interesting topics which will inspire students to think creatively. If our aim is to prove that students have achieved

progress in writing, the best way is to give students a progress test after each unit which will help them to evaluate their development and motivate them to continue in their studies.

Arguments against mistakes correction

The opinions of teachers and research workers differ when it comes to the questions related to mistakes correction. Some of them support correction of mistakes while the others claim that mistakes correction is not motivating for students and the expected results are not reached. To the main opponents of mistakes correction belongs the group of researchers represented by Kepner (1991), Leki (1990), Polio (1998) and Truscott (2008) who advocate the idea that mistakes correction does not automatically mean students´ improvement of the writing skills. According to Truscott (2008) students tend to repeat the same mistakes even after several repetitive corrections. In this situation there is the tendency of the teacher to blame the student for being lazy or inattentive. Truscott also claims that good students also tend to repeat the same errors which proves the theory that error correction is not effective. It is only natural that such arguments lead to criticism of teachers and research workers. Truscott is not opposed to feedback provided to students but he says it should be related to content, organisation and accuracy of the text. His objections concern the feedback in the area of grammatical mistakes. He also claims that some studies of Fathman and Whalley (1990) which analyse the positive impact of the error correction on the improvement of the writing skills take into consideration only obtaining short-term competence and they do not provide sufficient evidence that writing has improved from the long- term perspective. Another argument against error correction is that error correction is the time-consuming process and therefore many teachers do not devote sufficient time to this task or in case they are required to correct too many assignments they do not spot all mistakes. Correcting the written work is time-consuming especially in the situation when teachers have to correct essays, compositions and have to write comments on content or the quality of the piece of writing. Results of some research studies show that in some cases students are not interested in learning from their corrected mistakes. According to Truscott (2008) students in order to avoid the situation when their written work is full of corrected mistakes concentrate on writing shorter and simpler sentences and simplify the whole structure of their written work.

Arguments in favour of mistake correction

Our experience has proved that students expect the correction of assignments because they can learn in which areas they make mistakes most frequently and therefore they can eliminate them in the future. Our opinion is supported by Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) who in their study

state reasons for the mistake correction in the assignments. According to them students expect that the teachers will correct their assignments and consider this correction to be very important. If their written works are not corrected, students can be frustrated and they can lose motivation to improve their writing skills. It is equally important to teach students how to correct their own mistakes and the role of teachers in this process is be helpful in this process. On the other hand, if the teacher does not correct the mistakes he sends the signal that mistake correction is not important and thus students are not motivated to learn how to correct their own assignments.

Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) claim that correction and feedback must be provided systematically, accurately and selectively. The teacher must take into consideration also the level of the language competence of students, their learning style and motivation. Studies of correction opponents aiming at giving the evidence that correction of mistakes doesn´t have the positive results contain some deficiencies as e.g. they do not include the unified system of correction, in some cases control groups are not present in the research so that the comparison between the results of experimental and control groups cannot be accomplished. One of the most relevant studies which was realized in this area is that of Bitchener and Koch (2010). The aim of the study, which was conducted for ten months, was to demonstrate that the written work of intermediate level students improved as the result of the systematic mistake correction. Although authors concentrated just on the correction of the articles, the results showed significant improvement in the use of articles in the experimental group in comparison with the results of the control group. The same results were achieved by the authors Van Beuningen, De Jong and Kuiken (2012) whose research studies have proved that students, who were given regular feedback in the form of the mistake correction, made fewer mistakes than students without the feedback. The sentences in the students´ written work were not simpler nor shorter and the improvement persisted even four weeks after the correction. The majority of teachers and research workers agree with the opinion that well administered and systematic mistake correction improves the written work of students and therefore it should be given the adequate attention.

Correction of written works plays an important role in teaching foreign languages as it focuses attention on accuracy and content. Harmer (2001) argues that teachers should avoid the situation when student´s work is covered with red ink and no comment is made about whether the work was interesting or successful. He also emphasizes that teachers should not only correct spelling, grammar and lexical mistakes but also provide feedback on the content of written work.

Conclusion

Mastering writing skills is commonly understood as a demanding and longitudinal process requiring considerable attention of English teachers on all levels of education. The effectiveness and achievement of good results in teaching English language is to substantial degree influenced by using appropriate and consistent methods in the approach towards error correction. The decision about the type of correction relies on the teacher and should be based on the interests and needs of students. Whatever method of correction is used the teachers should be aware that only positive feedback on the written performance can reach the goal of the continuous improvement of English students.

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BLENDED LEARNING IM FREMDSPRACHENUNTERRICHT UND SEINE THEORETISCHEN MODELLE

Magdaléna PATÉ

Abstrakt:

V našom príspevku sa zaoberáme využívaním kombinovaného vzdelávania (Blended Learning) vo výučbe cudzích jazykoch. Nejde o novú metódu, ale o novú formu cudzojazyčnej výučby, pri ktorej sa spája prezenčná výčba s fázou samoštúdia a fázou výučby podporovanej počítačmi a novými technológiami s pripojením na internet. Výučba cudzích jazykov má svoje špecifiká, ktoré musia byť zohľadnené a využité pri hľadaní vhodnej kombinácie spomenutých troch foriem výučby, aby sa vďaka synergickému efektu dosiahol čo najsilnejšé učebný efekt.

Kľúčové slová : kombinované vzdelávanie, cudzie jazyky, teoretický model, prezenčná výučba, fáza samoštúdia, e-learning

Abstract : In our paper we discuss the use of Blended Learning in foreign language teaching. It is not a new method, but a new form of foreign language teaching, which combines face-to-face teaching with a self-study phase and a phase supported by computers and new technologies with an Internet connection. Foreign language teaching has its specifics, which must be taken into account and used in finding the right combination of the three forms of teaching in order to achieve the strongest learning effect thanks to the synergy effect.

Keywords : Blended Learning, Foreign Languages, theoretical model, face-to-face learning, Self-learning phase, E-learning

Einführung

Moderne Technologien sind der am schnellsten wachsende Sektor der Weltwirtschaft. Sie wirken sich auf jeden Aspekt des Lebens im 21. Jahrhundert aus und sind daher ein wesentlicher Bestandteil des Unterrichtsprozesses. Šukolová (2018) weist darauf hin, dass neue Anforderungen an die Sprachvorbereitung auch neue Unterrichtsmaterialien und Unterrichtsansätze erfordern und neue Anforderungen an die Rolle des Lehrers stellen. In unserem Beitrag wollen wir uns auf den Einsatz moderner Technologien im Fremdsprachenunterricht konzentrieren.

Der englische Begriff *Blended Learning* wird von Fachleuten aus dem deutschsprachigen Raum in derselben Form verwendet. Deutsche Begriffe wie *vermischtes Lernen*, *integriertes Lernen oder Hybrid-Lernen* wurden nicht umgesetzt. Der Begriff wird verwendet, um eine Lehre zu bezeichnen, die klassisches Lernen von Angesicht zu Angesicht mit computergestütztem Lernen (E-Learning) kombiniert. In unserem Beitrag wird nach einer Antwort auf die Frage gesucht, welche Vorteile und welche Grenzen oder Risiken das Blended Learning im Fremdsprachenunterricht hat. Da es sich um eine Kombination aus klassischem und computergestütztem Lernen handelt, ist es notwendig, das richtige Gleichgewicht zwischen den beiden Lernformen zu finden und den Inhalt des Unterrichts für jede Form zu bestimmen, um das Lernen auf die effektivste Weise zu unterstützen.

Das Thema Blended Learning ist in vielen in- und ausländischen Publikationen nach wie vor ein aktuelles Thema. In der englischsprachigen Literatur ist das z. B. das Werk von Picciano, Dziuban, Graham (Hrsg.) *Blended Learning, Band 2: Research Perspective,* wo die Autoren versuchen, theoretische Modelle des Blended Learnings zu entwickeln oder MacDonalds Arbeit zu entwickeln - z. Blended Learning und Online-Nachhilfe (2007).

In unserer Arbeit stützen wir uns hauptsächlich auf deutschsprachige Autoren wie N. Würffel, D. Rösler, R. Launer und P. Baumgartner. Sie befassen sich mit der didaktischen Ausarbeitung und theoretischen Verankerung des kombinierten Fremdsprachenunterrichts.

In ähnlicher Weise stellt Launer (2007) fest, dass Blended Learning und insbesondere kombinierte Fremdsprachenausbildung ein Thema ist, das wissenschaftlich nicht ausreichend ausgearbeitet ist. Die meisten Beiträge beschreiben oder bewerten Modelle der kombinierten Bildung, die bereits in der Praxis eingesetzt werden.

Das Hauptziel unserer Arbeit ist es, die Komplexität des Blended Learnings und seine Modelle herauszustellen. Wir möchten die Notwendigkeit einer didaktischen Ausarbeitung des Blended Learnings im Fremdsprachenunterricht hervorheben. Wir versuchen die Frage zu beantworten, welchen Mehrwert Blended learning im Vergleich zum klassischen Präsenzunterricht bringt. Ist Blended learning im Fremdsprachenunterricht nur eine pragmatische Alternative zum klassischen Präsenzunterricht oder kann es eine Lehrmethode sein, die insbesondere den Lernprozess von Fremdsprachen unterstützt? Wir möchten auch auf die Mängel oder Risiken dieser Unterrichtsform hinweisen, die durch die Einführung des kombinierten Lernens im Fremdsprachenunterricht berücksichtigt werden müssen.

Definition von Blended Learning

Das Blended Learning ist ein didaktisches Modell, in dem verschiedene Unterrichtsformen kombiniert werden - Präsenzunterricht, Selbstlernphase und computergestützter Unterricht (insbesondere bei Nutzung des Internets). Es geht nicht nur darum, dem Unterricht eine neue Unterrichtsform hinzuzufügen, sondern die verschiedenen Formen miteinander zu integrieren und mehrere Formen zu einem intern zusammenhängenden Ganzen zu kombinieren (Baumgartner, 2008, S. 11-12). Baumgartner widmet sich jedoch speziell der Selbstlernphase, bei dem der Lernende das Lehrmaterial unabhängig verarbeitet. Diese Phase ist ein wichtiger Teil des Lernprozesses und von ihr in hohem Maße der ganze Lernerfolg abhängt.

Die rasante technologische Entwicklung und Verfügbarkeit von Informationstechnologie für die breite Masse der Bevölkerung stellen neue Möglichkeiten für den Einsatz von Computern und anderen Formen der Informations- und Kommunikationstechnologie (IKT) auch im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Der Einsatz neuer oder digitaler Medien im Fremdsprachenunterricht ist zu einem wichtigen Thema in Fachpublikationen geworden, die sich mit didaktischen und methodischen Fragen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts befassen.

In den letzten zehn Jahren wurde der Computer am häufigsten als Kommunikationsmittel im Fremdsprachenunterricht eingesetzt. Die rasante Entwicklung des Internets im Web 2.0 hat neue Kommunikationsoptionen wie soziale Netzwerke oder Anwendungen wie Facebook, Twitter, Instagram oder WhatsApp eröffnet. Das hat die Kommunikation viel schneller gemacht. Laut Krommer (2018) war es technisch noch nie so einfach, authentische Kommunikationsprozesse direkt in den Unterricht zu bringen.
Wie Würfell (2010) feststellt, sollte bei allen methodisch-didaktischen Entscheidungen sowie beim Einsatz digitaler Medien der didaktisch sinnvolle Einsatz digitaler Medien durch den Kontext, die Lehrform und die Zielgruppe bestimmt werden. Entscheidend ist nicht die Modernität der Medien, sondern die Qualität der Aufgaben, Übungen und Inhalte.

Das computergestützte Sprachenlernen (E-Learning), das allgemein als geeignete Alternative zur klassischen Form des Präsenzunterrichts begrüßt wurde, stieß auf seine Grenzen und suchte daher nach einer neuen Art des Lernens, die die Vorteile der beiden Formen des Lernens und der Begrenzung effektiv kombiniert ihre Mängel. Auf diese Weise wurde kombiniertes Lernen oder Blended Learning geschaffen. Es gibt viele verschiedene Formen und Erscheinungsformen von Blended Learning, wobei der Schwerpunkt auf Multimedia-

Lerneinheiten oder Präsenzunterricht in einer Gruppe liegt. Der Unterricht kann für Einzelpersonen oder in virtuellen Gruppen konzipiert werden. Die Kommunikation mit dem Lehrer und anderen Lehrern kann synchron oder asynchron erfolgen (Launer, 2010, S. 426).

Die wissenschaftliche Untersuchung des Themas Blended Laerning ist schwierig, was mit dem Konzept selbst zusammenhängt. Das Konzept des Blended Learnings verbirgt unterschiedliche Ideen und Konzepte (Rösler, Würffel, 2010). Wenn man eine korrigierte Aufgabe per E-Mail an die Schüler sendet und den Schülern Aufgaben zuzuweist, um im Internet nach Informationen zu suchen, bedeutet, dass der Lehrer das Blended Learning in seinem Klassenzimmer nutzt. In ähnlicher Weise kann die Abwechslung von Unterrichtsaktivitäten, bei denen die Schüler einmal alleine arbeiten, zu anderen Zeiten in kleinen Gruppen oder zu zweit, ordnungsgemäß in eine solche Unterrichtsform integriert werden. Das bedeutet, dass Blended Learning sowohl Präsenz- als auch E-Learning-Elemente sowie einen E-Learning-Kurs umfassen kann, der mit einer Veranstaltung beginnt oder endet, bei der sich die Teilnehmer persönlich treffen, sowie alle anderen Optionen, die zwischen den beiden Formen bestehen.

Kranz und Lücking (2005) bieten eine breite Definition – Blended Learning wird als eine Mischung aus verschiedenen Lernmethoden und Lernformen verstanden, bei der ein besserer und langfristiger Lerneffekt durch ein ausgewogenes Verhältnis von multimedialem Lernen und persönlichem Lernen erzielt wird. Computergestützte Lernphasen können durch andere Definitionen als online unterstützte Online-Phasen (MacDonald, 2008) oder eine Kombination aus Online- und Offline-Computing betrachtet werden.

Die meisten Institutionen, die Blended Learning Kurse anbieten, betonen in ihrer Marketingbotschaft die Flexibilität des Ortes und der Zeit des Lernens. Eine weitere Marketingattraktion ist das Versprechen, dass der Inhalt des Unterrichts an die individuellen Bedürfnisse der Lernenden angepasst wird. Das Blended Learning scheint die positiven Aspekte des computergestützten Unterrichts und des Präsenzunterrichts zu kombinieren. Aufgrund der korrekten Umsetzung des Lernprozesses im Konzept des Kurses kann Blended Learning laut Launer (2010, S. 9) jedoch viel mehr bieten. Es wird empfohlen, beim Erstellen jedes kombinierten Lernkurses nach den folgenden drei Fragen zu suchen:

- Welches Wissen oder welchen Inhalt möchten wir vermitteln?
- Welche Lernprozesse finden hier statt?
- Wie kann kombiniertes Lernen diese Prozesse unterstützen?

Der Lernprozess einer Fremdsprache ist sehr individuell und komplex. Es hängt mit der Komplexität der Kommunikation zusammen. « Unsere kommunikative Umwelt verändert sich.

Dadurch verändern sich grundsätzlich auch die an uns gestellten Anforderungen, die unsere Kompetenzen, Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten aber auch unsere Fremdsprachenkenntnisse betreffen. » (Kočišová, S.41) Das gewünschte Ziel ist, in der Zielfremdsprache aktiv zu handeln. Neben dem Sprechen, Schreiben, Lesen oder Zuhören beinhaltet der Kommunikationsprozess interkulturelle Kompetenz und das Verständnis der Zielkultur.

Der Gemeinsame Europäische Referenzrahmen für Sprachen (GER) gilt gleichermaßen für das Blended Learning von Fremdsprachen. Gemäß einem vom GER geforderten Handlungsansatz müssen rezeptive Fertigkeiten (Zuhören und Lesen) und produktive Fertigkeiten (Schreiben und Sprechen) geübt werden, damit die Lernenden eine Fremdsprache auf einem angemessenen Niveau verwenden und in dieser Fremdsprache handeln können. (Europarat 2017). Damit der Binnenmarkt der EU effektiv funktionieren kann, benötigt die Union mobilere Arbeitskräfte. Wenn eine Person mehrere Sprachen beherrscht, hat sie mehr Möglichkeiten auf dem Arbeitsmarkt, da sie in einem anderen Mitgliedstaat studieren und arbeiten kann (Ondrušová, S. 233)

Theoretisches Modell von Blended Learning im Fremdsprachenunterricht

Vor etwa zehn Jahren begannen intensive Forschungsarbeiten zu den theoretischen Grundlagen des Blended Learnings. Würfell (2014) stellt fest, dass nur wenige wissenschaftliche Arbeiten die Entwicklung der Theorie zu diesem Thema explizit verfolgen. Da das Blended Learning im Klassenzimmer zunehmend verbreitet ist und die Möglichkeiten für ihre Verwendung zunehmen, ist die Schaffung eines geeigneten theoretischen Modells erforderlich. Wie oben erwähnt, ist dieser Bereich durch unklare Terminologie und unzureichende Modellierung gekennzeichnet (Graham, Henrie, Gibbons, 2013).

Bei der Erstellung theoretischer Modelle ist es notwendig, den theoretischen Rahmen der Forschung festzulegen, die wesentlichen Aspekte des Phänomens sowie deren Kategorisierung und Systematisierung zu bestimmen. Darüber hinaus weisen einige Modelle auch auf die Beziehungen zwischen einzelnen Aspekten des Phänomens hin, wodurch das Verständnis der Ursache-Wirkungs-Beziehung zwischen seinen Komponenten ermöglicht wird. In der Praxis können theoretische Modelle die Planung erleichtern und eine bessere Bewertung ermöglichen (Würfell, 2014, S. 151).

In der Fachliteratur gibt es mehrere Modelle, die jedoch das Phänomen des Blended-Learnings und seine Beziehungen auf einer sehr unterschiedlichen Komplexitätsebene erklären. Es ist wichtig, Blended Learning nicht nur als eine Form der Unterrichtsorganisation

zu verstehen, sondern auch als eine Form des Unterrichts, bei der auch didaktische und methodische Aspekte berücksichtigt werden müssen.

Als Beispiel können wir das theoretische Modell von Baumgartner (2008) anbieten. Die didaktische Verarbeitung des kombinierten Unterrichts bedeutet für ihn, die einzelnen Unterrichtsphasen zu ordnen, ihre Dauer und gegenseitige Kombination zu bestimmen, um den größten Lerneffekt zu erzielen. Das Zusammenspiel der drei Grundphasen des Unterrichts wirkt synergistisch, es entsteht jedoch eine neue Qualität, die die einzelnen Phasen als solche nicht bieten (Baumgartner, 2008, S. 12). Baumgartner spricht von einer Makroebene, auf der einzelne Elemente der Mikroebene (Vollzeit, E-Learning und Selbstlernen) die richtige Kombination neuer Möglichkeiten für Lernende bieten. Ihm zufolge waren wir uns der neuen Merkmale und Muster, die entstehen, noch nicht sehr bewusst, da sie nicht Gegenstand einschlägiger Forschung waren.

Die Modelle des Blended Learnings beziehen sich auf den Unterricht im Allgemeinen, nur einige Modelle wurden speziell für das Blended Learning in Fremdsprachen entwickelt. Bei der Entwicklung jedes kombinierten Fremdsprachenlernprogramms stellt sich die Schlüsselfrage, welche inhaltlichen und prozessualen Aspekte des Fremdsprachenlernens in das Unterrichtsmodell integriert werden müssen, um den individuellen Lernstilen Rechnung zu tragen und den Lernenden die Nutzung ihres vorhandenen individuellen Wissens zu ermöglichen.

Launer (2010, S. 427) weist auf die Wissensvielfalt hin, die bei der Entwicklung des Konzepts des Blended Learnings im Fremdsprachenunterricht unter dem Begriff „Sprachkenntnisse" kombiniert werden kann. Es ist phonologisches, artikulatorisches, morphologisches, syntaktisches und semantisches Wissen, das miteinander verbunden und in einem mentalen Komplex gespeichert ist. Es ist weitgehend gekennzeichnet durch individuelles Wissen wie Muttersprache oder Erfahrung mit der Fremdsprache, die wir lernen möchten, Kenntnisse anderer Fremdsprachen und Allgemeinwissen.

Eine der Schlüsselfragen in der professionellen Debatte über Blended Learning ist, ob die Argumente über die Angemessenheit bestimmter Methoden, Aufgabeninhalte und sozialer Formen usw. für Präsenz- und virtuelle Lernphasen verallgemeinert werden können. (Rösler, Würfell, 2010, S. 9).

Launer (2010, S. 429) entwickelte ein Modell des Blended Learnings im Fremdsprachenunterricht, das sie im Kurs Deutsch als Fremdsprache für ausländische Studierende an der Universität München verwendete und verifizierte.

Die Lernphase, in der die Lernenden unabhängig am Computer arbeiten, sollte beim

Erlernen einer Fremdsprache ihre individuelle Ausgangsposition berücksichtigen. Sie können dann lexikalische und grammatikalische Strukturen entsprechend ihren Bedürfnissen trainieren. Sie wählen einen Rhythmus mit dem Tempo, das am besten zu ihnen passt, sie entscheiden, worauf sie mehr achten müssen und was sie nicht mehr üben müssen. Die Lehrkräfte vermeiden so die Probleme, die in heterogenen Lerngruppen hinsichtlich des Anfangsniveaus der Fremdsprache der Gruppenmitglieder auftreten. In der Selbststudienphase können die Lernenden individuelle Sprachkenntnisse entwickeln und den Computer wie oben erwähnt als Lehrmittel verwenden. Durch das Training der Strukturelemente der Sprache in einer separaten Unterrichtsphase wird Zeit für Kommunikationssituationen in der Präsenzphase gespart. Die Lehrer müssen nicht so viel Zeit damit verbringen, mehreren Schülern lexikalische und grammatikalische Strukturen zu erklären und zu üben, während andere schneller vorwärtsgehen möchten.

Online-Lernprogramme sollen die Lernenden ermutigen, aktiv mit Lerninhalten zu arbeiten. Entsprechend vorbereitete Lehrpläne sollten diesbezüglich eine sinnvolle Unterstützung bieten. Texte zum Lesen können als Hypertexte angeboten werden, die den Erwerb eines neuen Vokabulars im Kontext erleichtern, da einzelne neue Begriffe durch Verweise auf andere Quellen, z. B. Internet-Erklärungswörterbücher. Animationen einzelner grammatikalischer Phänomene sind für die Erklärung grammatikalischer Strukturen von großer Bedeutung. Die korrekte Verwendung von Bildern wirkt sich nach neuen wissenschaftlichen Erkenntnissen positiv auf den Lernprozess aus.

Das Training rezeptiver Sprachfertigkeiten hängt auch von der Individualität jedes Lernenden ab. Mit Online-Programmen können sie die Aufnahmegeschwindigkeit auswählen, die Aufnahme mit Untertiteln verknüpfen, mehrmals hören usw. Die Fertigkeit – das Schreiben wurde in den letzten Jahren aufgrund des zunehmenden Bedarfs an mündlicher Kommunikation und Interaktion vernachlässigt, gewinnt jedoch in Form von E-Mails, Blogs, Wikis-Texten und Internet-Forenbeiträgen im täglichen Leben wieder an Bedeutung.

In Bezug auf das Sprechen sollten der Monolog und die interaktive Form im Klassenzimmer entwickelt werden. Obwohl wir davon ausgehen können, dass interaktives Sprechen während des Präsenzunterrichts besonders geeignet ist, ermöglicht die sich ständig weiterentwickelnde und verbesserte Kommunikationstechnik eine gute mündliche Interaktion auch im virtuellen Raum.

Schluss

Blended Learning stellt eine neue Form, keine neue Lehrmethode dar. Das bedeutet, dass im Klassenzimmer mehrere Unterrichtsformen (Präsenzunterricht, E-Learning und Selbstlernen) kombiniert werden, die didaktisch angemessen verknüpft werden müssen, um eine effektive Unterrichtsform zu erreichen. Der Inhalt des Lehrplans soll daher in Präsenz- und virtuelle Lernformen unterteilt werden, um die Individualität jedes Lernenden zu berücksichtigen und gleichzeitig neue Qualität ind den Präsenzunterricht einzuführen, indem interaktive Kommunikationsaktivitäten gefördert werden.

Mit zunehmenden Möglichkeiten des Einsatzes digitaler Medien im Unterricht entstehen verschiedene theoretische Modelle, die den Einsatz des Blended Learnings im Unterricht beschreiben oder erklären sollen. Die Komplexität dieser Modelle ist unterschiedlich und wird in der Zukunft Gegenstand theoretischer Studien zum Blended Learning sein. Einige Modelle zeigen die Verwendung vom Blended Learning direkt im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Ein wichtiger Bestandteil von Fremdsprachenlernmodellen ist die Charakterisierung von Aktivitäten, die für jede Phase des Blended Learnings geeignet sind. Neben der Aufteilung der Phasen in Präsenz- und Virtuellphasen ist die Synchronität und Asynchronität der Aktivitäten zu beachten.

Der Erfolg des Blended Learnings hängt auch vom Lehrer und der Lernenden ab, od diese Unterrichtsform als geeignete Alternative zum Preäsenzunterricht zu identifizieren ist. An beiden Seiten werden neue Anforderungen gestellt.

Blended Learning erfordert weitere Forschung. Unter anderem stellen sich Fragen zur Eignung dieser Unterrichtsform für alle Sprachniveaus sowie zum Einfluss individueller Lernmerkmale (z. B. Kultur, Alter, Muttersprache) auf das Lernen.

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LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE L'AUTONOMIE DE L'ÉLÈVE DANS LES MANUELS D'ALLEMAND (L2) DU DEGRÉ PRIMAIRE

Slavka POGRANOVA

Abstract

L'article s'intéresse au développement de l'autonomie dans les manuels d'allemand en Suisse romande. Il décrit deux types : autonomie langagière nécessaire pour l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère et autonomie d'apprentissage (auto-évaluation des compétences, réflexions sur le fonctionnement de la langue, stratégies d'apprentissage du vocabulaire, stratégies de compréhension). Il propose une analyse de l'autonomie de l'élève qui mène à l'apprentissage auto-organisé, auto-dirigé, auto-régulé et contribue à l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie.

Mots-clés : autonomie, stratégies, compétence, langues étrangères, écoles primaires

Introduction

En Suisse romande, à l'école primaire et secondaire, les élèves sont amenés à apprendre les langues étrangères, dont l'allemand. La question de leur autonomie en tant qu'apprenants de langues, et du développement langagier tout au long de la vie, s'avère un enjeu important. Selon Cuq (2003), l'autonomie se décline en autonomie langagière et d'apprentissage. De nombreux travaux s'intéressent à cette dernière (Benson, 2001; Holec, 1979; Jiménez Raya, 2017; Little, 2017; Martina, 2005). La notion reste polysémique englobant l'autoformation, l'autodidaxie, l'autodirection (*cf.* Candas, 2009). Ciekanski (13-14 mars 2019) par exemple, utilise le terme *autonomisation* qui fait référence à « l'ensemble des conditions créées par l'enseignant pour soutenir le développement de l'autonomie des apprenants » (p. 3). Ce processus implique les démarches d'accompagnement résultant en un investissement plus personnel des élèves. Dans le contexte scolaire, cette autonomisation présuppose la prise en compte de l'aspect *âge* des élèves et de l'acquisition des savoirs sur l'apprentissage. Dans ce cadre se pose la question des manuels. Quel rôle jouent-ils ? Quelles activités permettent un apprentissage personnalisé, individualisé, auto-organisé, auto-dirigé, auto-régulé ? Comment ce développement vers l'autonomie se traduit-il dans les manuels ? Le présent article analyse cette question dans la discipline allemand au primaire. Dans une perspective didactique, nous interrogeons les

possibilités qu'offrent *Der Grüne Max* (2015; 2014) et *Junior* (2017; 2016). Nous observons les activités, et à partir de là, répertorions les formes du développement de l'autonomie, montrant les continuités au fil des manuels et abordant plus généralement les enjeux de l'éducation.

Stratégies de compréhension des textes

Le travail de compréhension commence par des consignes simples (parlez, écoutez, lisez…), complétées par des pictogrammes accompagnant chaque activité et permettant aux élèves une entrée facile dans les activités langagières. Les manuels encouragent l'usage des stratégies de compréhension, applicables à des textes oraux et/ou écrits. Les élèves observent les textes et récoltent des informations les aidant à les comprendre. Ils s'appuient sur leurs connaissances générales du thème et réactivent leurs acquis existants. Les indices verbaux et non verbaux sont recherchés et utilisés dans ce sens. Lors des lectures ou écoutes ultérieures, le repérage de mots connus, un peu connus ou de mots internationaux (dont il est possible de déduire le sens) valorise ce qu'ils savent déjà. Le repérage d'informations, sous forme de consignes, va de la compréhension globale, puis plus ciblée, à la compréhension détaillée, soit dans une approche toujours plus autonome du traitement des textes.

Stratégies d'apprentissage du vocabulaire

L'apprentissage du vocabulaire se fait par des associations, les élèves s'imaginant une action, activité, image, émotion... Ils font appel à leurs représentations. Apprendre le lexique signifie mémoriser les mots avec leurs images et réactiver ces dernières dans la mémoire. La gestuelle et les mimes aident aussi, les élèves apprenant les chiffres en bougeant ou comptant sur les doigts. Le vocabulaire est appris en l'utilisant dans une phrase, dans un contexte particulier. Les élèves mémorisent les contraires, les combinaisons de mots (noms, verbes) ou de courts textes. Ils complètent des tableaux rassemblant les mots connus liés à un thème particulier. Les associations des mots à un terme plus générique sont aussi possibles. Le travail avec les mots composés permet d'identifier leurs composantes, de reconnaître les parties et de déduire leur sens. Pendant les activités, les élèves s'appuient sur les glossaires, proposant des mots et des expressions triés selon l'ordre d'apparition des exercices et leurs équivalents en français, ce qui permet un repérage rapide. Dans les degrés 7P-8P, la recherche du sens est facilitée par un lexique rencontré pendant leur scolarité (année en cours et années précédentes).

Réflexion et conscientisation de la langue

Le travail complémentaire sur le fonctionnement de la langue (grammaire, prononciation…) est proposé en vue d'une observation, réflexion et découverte des régularités et irrégularités. Les élèves comparent les langues enseignées (L1-L2-L3), font des constats. Par moments, les activités font appel à leur connaissance des autres langues. La reconnaissance des structures grammaticales rencontrées lors des *inputs* langagiers des unités, les amène à une appropriation progressive de la langue. Les mots sont appris en les prononçant à haute voix, accompagnés par la gestuelle. Les particularités de la langue sont rendues visibles : position des verbes en caractère gras, indication de leur conjugaison, transformation des mots au pluriel, présence des déterminants en couleurs, indication de l'accent tonique du mot par une voyelle longue, indication de l'intonation montante par un point d'interrogation… La place est laissée à la construction progressive de notions grammaticales de manière implicite. Le triage du lexique dans des colonnes et les moyens mnémotechniques (couleurs rouge, bleu et vert) favorisent une meilleure conscientisation de la langue. La recherche des particularités de la langue cible dans un glossaire ou *Wort-schatz* sensibilise les élèves de l'école primaire au futur travail avec des dictionnaires bilingues.

Travail individualisé en production (orale/écrite)

La production orale est dirigée (répétition, reproduction de mots et expressions), semi-dirigée (variation langagière à partir d'un modèle), et par moments plus libre, permettant une prise de parole spontanée. L'autonomie des élèves est développée à travers les courts dialogues ; les élèves sont mis dans des situations de communication et incités à utiliser la langue cible comme un objet d'apprentissage et moyen de communication en classe. Leur prise de parole est encouragée par la proposition d'expressions dirigeant les jeux (interaction entre élèves) ou communiquant les informations à l'enseignant. Le travail individualisé en production orale ou écrite se réalise sous forme de projets interdisciplinaires, de posters, d'exercices online, de vidéos tournées et accompagnées par les paroles individualisées des élèves sur des sujets proches de leur environnement (anniversaire, achats, présentation de la classe…). Il se base sur un *input* précis (input introductif de thèmes d'unités) et sur les apprentissages ultérieurs. Les activités font appel à la créativité des élèves, en recyclant le langage existant différemment, dans un autre contexte, et en donnant l'opportunité de faire un travail de recherche d'informations (cf. par ex. la création de posters). Les activités proposées sont amenées de manière progressive dans la mesure où elles incitent à des échanges avec l'enseignant et/ou

entre pairs, tout en permettant aux élèves de mobiliser des ressources lexicales apprises ou observées. Par la même occasion, à travers les projets, les élèves montrent les compétences acquises, ce qui informe l'enseignant, les élèves et les parents sur les progrès réalisés. Le travail individualisé est encouragé par une variété de supports comme la boîte de matériel (flashcards, jeux…), les sites (exercices interactifs, textes oraux/écrits), les cahiers contenant les exercices particuliers (révisions individualisées du vocabulaire, création d'exercices sur le lexique d'une unité…).

Auto-évaluation des compétences

Le contrôle des apprentissages est en partie auto-régulé. Au fil des unités, les élèves vérifient leurs réponses au moyen des écoutes réalisées avec les CD accompagnant leurs cahiers. Cela leur permet de réécouter les exercices tant de fois que nécessaire et de se corriger. Les activités de contrôle et de drill en contexte leur permettent de travailler seuls. De plus, ils auto-évaluent leurs compétences langagières grâce à la rubrique *Meine Stärken* proposée à la fin de chaque unité et portant sur un thème précis. Suite aux exercices prévus à cet effet, ils cochent une des deux icônes disponibles (un smiley ou son contraire), montrant ainsi dans une estimation personnelle si le contenu de l'unité est maîtrisé. Leur auto-évaluation porte sur un acte langagier précis, formulé en français de manière simple, accessible, et qui les renvoie au contenu abordé dans le manuel principal. Cela amène les élèves à une conscientisation des apprentissages réalisés et si besoin, les invite à une auto-remédiation de la matière traitée.

Conclusion

En guise de conclusion, les manuels d'allemand du degré primaire proposent des activités qui encouragent une autonomie langagière des élèves et une autonomie d'apprentissage (cf. Cuq, 2003). Ils visent à les rendre conscients des apprentissages réalisés et de ceux qui sont en cours, par une multitude d'activités qui touchent plusieurs dimensions de l'autonomie. Par leur approche *top down*, les élèves sont invités à ne pas chercher à comprendre tous les mots du texte ou d'une phrase, mais à mobiliser des stratégies et induire le sens des unités du langage (à aller du global vers le particulier). Les stratégies de compréhension de textes, les stratégies d'apprentissage du lexique ou l'auto-évaluation des compétences langagières les outillent dans leur parcours d'apprenants et les dirigent vers un apprentissage plus auto-organisé, auto-dirigé, auto-régulé. Au fil des manuels, les élèves développent peu à peu une conscience

métalangagière du fonctionnement de la langue, qui peut leur servir lors de la production de textes oraux/écrits ultérieurs. Quant à la production orale individualisée, elle est developpée de manière à ce que les élèves procèdent à l'incorporation de divers èlèments du fonctionnement de la langue et à leur mémorisation. Les propositions explicites de tâches plus complexes de production finale de fin de séquences (*output*) s'inscrivant dans une approche actionnelle, davantage de suggestions de mise en place de dispositifs favorisant la créativité et une prise de parole libre (improvisation) seraient un pas en avant dans le développement de l'autonomie langagière des élèves, telle qu'elle est conçue à présent dans les manuels d'allemand du degré primaire.

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II. POLITOLOGY SECTION

THE FINANCING OF SPORTS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE LEGAL CHANGES TO THE SPORTS ACT

Gábor ASVÁNYI, Patrik HRBEK, Peter PLAVČAN

Abstract

This article deals with the current topic of the financing of sport from the point of view of the amendment to the Sports Act. It lists the impacts the amendment will have on the economic situation of professional sportspeople, as well as the sporting organisations where they perform their sporting activities. The article also focuses on the context of the amendment to the Sports Act as they relate to other legal regulations in the Slovak Republic, including the constitutional law.

Keywords: a sportsperson, a professional sportsperson, a sporting organization, sporting federation, sports infrastructure, Sports Act, Constitution of the Slovak Republic, Labour Code

Sport is a part of every individual's life. It helps to develop our personalities, to develop our physical and mental potential towards the establishment of the harmony that the old Greeks described and celebrated as kalokagathia. The position of sports in Slovak society has also been validated by its legal regulations, namely Act No. 440/2015 Coll. on sports and the amendment of certain acts (hereinafter referred to as the "Sports Act"). The Sports Act regulates the public interest in sports, that is "the promotion and development of sport among youths, ensuring that the representatives of the Slovak Republic are prepared and can participate at major sporting competitions, the protection of the integrity of sports and the promotion of a healthy way of life for our population." (Act, 2015)

The Sports Act that was prepared by a wide range of legal professionals, state administrators, researchers and university teachers regulated a number of sporting processes which the professional sporting community, as well as the lay public, welcomed. The complex implementation of the legal sporting regulations through the definition of the concepts and processes in sports meant a significant positive step for the future of Slovak sport, as well as providing legal security for sportspeople and their "employers" - sports clubs. This Act also created the conditions to allow the solution of the economic problems of Slovak sport. Draft legislation defined the process to allow the admission of other private sector entities into sports

financing through a so-called super-deduction. However, in the end, this tool was not reflected in the final version of the Act and remained an unfulfilled expectation of the sports movement. Another input into the sports financing included sports vouchers for children and youths; however, even though they were regulated by law (meanwhile, this measure has been transferred to a new Act on the Sports Promotion Fund), they have never been put into practice. Although neither the Act nor its amendment met the expectations of the general sporting public, we believe that they formed a legal basis for future modifications to make it more effective. The financing sports of all forms, from recreational sports to the top level representation of Slovak sport at the Olympic and Paralympic Games, might be the most effective form of promotion for both Slovak sport and talented youths, but also of the Slovak Republic itself, a country that has created the conditions for the personal development in the spirit of a healthy lifestyle for its citizens.

On 3rd December 2019, the National Council approved the amendment to the Sports Act in the second and third readings and the amendment was published in the Collection of Laws; number 6/2020. Due to the content of its provisions, the amendment might be considered to be crucial with a significant impact on the position of professional sportspeople and their sporting activities. In this article, we only focus on the part of the amendment to Sports Act that regulates the employment relationships of professional sportspeople. The amendment aimed to address the ambiguity in the Act, as the regulations allow several potential interpretations.

The submission of the amendment to the Sports Act No. 6/2020 Coll. was justified as follows: A clearer form of the relevant provision of the Sports Act is proposed, in line with the main intention of the proposers, which was to re-establish the freedom to choose the contractual relationship between a sportsperson and a sporting organization. In sports-related relationships, it is often very complicated or even impossible to assess whether or not the characteristics of dependent work have been fulfilled, as the activities undertaken by sportspeople do not fit into the framework of a traditional style of contractual relationship. Therefore, in their contractual relationships, a sportsperson and a sporting organisation should not have to experience the legal uncertainty associated with the potential of a subsequent assessment of whether or not it is dependent work and in the field of sports, this should be decided between the sportsperson and the sporting organisation, even in the case of team sports.

Regulation of the provision of Section106 (d) of the Sports Act as implemented through Amendment No. 6/2020 states: "A contractual relationship between a sportsperson and a sporting organisation that was established before 1st February 2020, providing a sportsperson performs sports for a sporting organisation as a self-employed person, including the performance of duties that meet the characteristics of dependent work, shall be considered to be a contractual relationship established by contract under this Act as a Contract for Professional Sports Performance. (Act, 2020).

Irrespective of the legal content of the above-mentioned provision of the Sports Act, it must be stated that the formulation of this provision probably breached the principle of the prohibition of retroactivity and legal certainty, which was the finding in another case by the Constitutional Court of the Slovak Republic; its judgement in this matter was published in the Collection of Laws under No. 131/1996. This provision might well, under certain conditions, come into conflict with the Labour Code. In Section 1 (3) it states that dependent work may only be performed in an employment relationship; this means that should a sportsperson perform an activity that meets all the characteristics of dependent work, they must be considered to be an employee of the sporting organisation. (Act, 2001)

Under the European Parliament resolution of 2nd February 2017 on an integrated approach to a Sports Policy: good governance, accessibility and integrity (2016/2143(INI)), section F states that compliance with basic labour rights is essential for professional athletes. (Resolution, 2017) In this area, therefore, Act No. 6/2020 Coll. might conflict with the legal opinion of the European Parliament.

Due to the complex nature of this issue, however, it needs to be noted that the law of the European Union does not require national professional sportspeople have the status of an employee. This issue does not fall within the jurisdiction of the European Union. European Union law only provides them with protection in the international relationships that are provided to "employees" under European Union law. It is in these terms that the above-cited Resolution of the European Parliament should be interpreted.

We do not consider the failure to comply with the basic requirements for balance in the legislation due to the lack of clarity of the relationship between the amendment to the Sports Act and other regulations that mainly regulate the issue of labour law (Labour Code, Act on

Illegal Work and Illegal Employment) to be capable of questioning the legally binding nature of the amendment to the Sports Act. However, we admit, that the adopted legislation allows several ambiguities of interpretation.

The provisions of the Sports Act of 2015 defined the position of a professional sportsperson as an employee in a sporting organisation. Before this change, in the case of sportspeople, whose sports activities met all the characteristics of dependent activities, it was tolerated that they acted in an employment relationship as a self-employed person. Given the deletion of the provisions in the Sports Act on the financial support of sports through the private sector, the proposers assumed that in the early years following the application of the Act, the financial support of sporting organisations and the associated real opportunity to fulfil new responsibilities would not reach the level desired. For this reason, the Sports Act also has an impact on other amendments to the Acts on Social Insurance and Health Insurance under which a sportsperson who performs sports under a Contract for Professional Sports Performance shall not be considered an employee for the purposes of these Acts up to 31st December 2018. In 2018, the National Council of the Slovak Republic, approved an amendment to the Sports Act through Act No. 366/2018 Coll. which extended this period to 31st December 2021. In 2015, the Sports Act also defined a three-year period up to 1st January 2019, within which all contractual relationships between professional sportspeople and sporting organisations were to be terminated and after this period, all legal relationships shall be seen as contracts for professional sports performance regardless of their legal basis. This means that after 1st January 2019, all sportspeople whose legal relationships with sporting organisations had the characteristics of dependent activities, had the status of an employee under the Act. If, for example, sporting clubs concluded a contract with a professional sportsperson, whose activities met the characteristics of dependant work, but the contract was as a self-employed person, it was illegal employment.

The Amendment to the Sports Act by Act no. 6/2020 Coll. is an amendment which in some sense provides an amnesty to sporting clubs for illegal employment and at the same time for not paying income tax advances for the dependent activities of professional sportspeople with whom they have legal relationships.

All the above-mentioned discrepancies or issues of interpretation can be solved either by following a suitable interpretation using accepted interpretation methods or by an amendment of the regulations.

It cannot be said that a sportsperson *de jure* does not have a choice between taking the status of an employee or the status of a self-employed person, as the amendment specifically addresses this objective. It may only be questioned whether sportspeople will not be, *de facto*, forced into a self-employed status and whether a flat-rate assessment of a contractual relationship under a "contract other than a commercial relationship" is not in conflict with the Labour Code and its provisions on dependent work. The opinion of the labour inspectorate and the decision-making practice of the courts of the Slovak Republic concerning this issue will also be important.

In European countries, self-employment among professional sportspeople in team sports is predominate only in the Czech Republic, Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia and Malta. In Slovenia, sportspeople may be self-employed up to a certain level of income and if their income exceeds this limit, they must change their status and become an employee. This is a similar situation (pre-amendment) to the one in Slovakia, should we compare a contract for professional sports performance and a contract for amateur sports performance, where the amount of the sportsperson's remuneration may not be higher than the minimum wage, and this sportsperson shall perform the sport as another self-employed activity.

To conclude this disputation, it must be stated that sportspeople working in sporting clubs do not have, by any means, a normal employment relationship, but they have a relationship with many specific features and peculiarities. This statement is also based on the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, which in Art. 165 provides that the specific nature of sport, which is also respected by the European Union itself, must be considered.

The current social situation and the statements of politicians have not implied that financing of the sport will improve in the near future. Therefore it is necessary that all the experts in the field of law, state administration, all researchers as well as university teachers engaged in this subject actively contribute to ensure that further changes to the legal regulations affecting the field of sport are positive changes in the legal status for the benefit of sports, sportspeople, as well as all the citizens of the Slovak Republic.

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PREPARATION AND ASSUMPTIONS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SMART DEMAND MODEL

Dušan ĎURČÁK

Abstract
The article will deal with a preparation faze and with the two main assumptions of the implementation and with the model of intelligent demand from our point of view. The first is a source of independent and relevant information and the second is the size and strength of the media. Gaining relevant and high quality information followed by using the right mass media is one of the key attributes for the implementation for this model. The article further defines the functional principles that delimit the researched model therefore without it would be non-functional. At the end, we will evaluate the analysed model and outline possible recommendations for real situations.
Keywords: smart demand model, implementation, functional principles

Introduction

In this over technologized and very hectic era, it is very important to be able to react quickly towards impacts that are constantly changing the world. This mainly effects the business area, but recently the development has been so significant that it has a major impact on consumers' behaviour. The consumer is overwhelmed by the amount of information he obtains from a constantly increasing amount of media. In addition, this information "storm" is supported by marketing, which plays an important role in the modern world. Rapid development has only occurred in recent decades, mainly due to increased competition between the various players in the market. For this reason, it is constantly taking on better, more creative and sophisticated forms.

Lately, the world has been shaken by a number of global incidences that are currently changing it, thus not only from an economic side but also from a political point of view. At present, it is mainly the ongoing COVID- 19 pandemic crisis. Although the immediate consequences for the world economy will be much more severe than the financial crisis, the depth of the pandemic's impact will depend on its ability of states to restart their economies and return to growth. The origin, extent and speed of the spread of the current disease is unprecedented in modern economic history. COVID-19 is the biggest crisis in health care, humanitarian aid and the labour market as well as the biggest economic crisis since the Great Depression of the 1930s. (Hucáková , 2020) Another problem is the migration crisis and

the ongoing problem with refugees, allocation of the power in the world, climate change and the threat of various terrorist attacks, etc. These and other issues are discussed at international conferences, where all the world politicians gather for a few days.

The initial situation in which the Smart demand model is embedded is defined by the current world political and especially economic situation. Today's situation in the world affect not only the individual regions, states, territorial units, but the world as a whole. This model could prevent from many threats or problems, offer a number of solutions and mainly shows a new perspective on a relationship between state and citizen. However, these are not vigorous and frequent state interventions against the population, but only the correction of their consumers' behaviour in time of a visible benefit for society as a whole.

1 Assumptions for the implementation of the intelligent demand model

For the creation and functionality of the model, two basic assumptions are necessary, without which the Smart demand model would not work and both must be fulfilled. There is a need to comply with both assumptions at the same time and in a full range. The assumptions of the model are:

- Acquisition, processing and providing information (impact of the mass media on humans)
- Existence of an independent source of information (operation of the statistical bureau)

The effectiveness of the Smart demand model is fundamentally influenced by the mass media. Its ability and power to influence public opinion and tilt it to their side is undeniable and indispensable for the model. Television, internet, press and radio are the key players of the mass media and their involvement on society is so enormous that in modern world there are hardly any people in complete information isolation. In today's world, the media are very important and play a significant role. This task has not always been that great and carried out on such a large scale as it is in today's hectic times. (Svobodová, 2000)

It took several decades for the media to become such an essential source of receiving, processing and providing information. On one hand, its size and power shows the possibility to distribute information in real time over several thousand kilometres, which means that you can provide the same information instantly worldwide. This is very important in spreading awareness of successes, problems and also disasters in the world. Subsequently, a strong public

opinion emerges, which often reaches a national level, where politicians take as their own ideas and interpret it further. From this point of view, they have a very positive significance. (Sisková , 2011)

In many cases, the media have a negative effect. Here are some examples. Their strength is obvious in development of the new form of terrorism that erupted after the attacks on September 11, 2001 on "twins" in New York and the immediate response to these assassinations in the form of attacks on Afghanistan and especially Iraq. Until then, it was very rare for tourists to be kidnapped, and it was even rarer for someone to be killed. This time the "public executions" occurred. To surprise of people, the media started to play their game and began to publish recordings, which unleashed much more hatred. The public opinion then leaned towards withdrawing its citizens, mainly from Iraq, including soldiers. At this time, the terrorists achieved partial success, mainly thanks to the media. It has been shown how political decisions can affect not only the world economy but also world peace, and how thousands of lives are decided there. Paradoxes arose here when countries such as Spain and Poland were one of the initiators of the attacks, but after a short time they withdrew from these territories. The reason for leaving was the change in the ruling parties, which occurred after the elections and was caused by hostile public sentiment in response to the participation of these two states in the war. The result was the withdrawal of troops from Iraq. On the other hand, the power and influence of the media is shown by economic figures in media turnovers and the number of recipients affected by their coverage.

The second precondition is the existence of an institution that would be able to obtain and process data, while its operation would be independent. There is a large disproportion in the quality of information provided by the media. Therefore, it is very important that the institution in charge of this task does it on the basis of precise scientific and methodologically widely accepted procedures. In this model, the state must be the mediator between the independent institution and the media themselves. The aim is to receive relevant information to the consumer in unchanged quality. (Smith , 2000)

Statistical office is working for the society which means that all its activities are intended in favour of it. This also implies its necessary independence from other state bodies, which could directly or indirectly affects any of the functions of the statistical office, which could lead to misinformation of the population. It could be interpreted as it is on the edge with demagoguery. One-sided information, which is not based on objective facts, today comes from all sides and the consumer, the recipient of this information, is often completely disoriented. For this reason these days, it is important to be able to receive, process and provide relevant

information. That is the reason why it is important to provide reliable source of information in the form of a statistical office, whether from the point of view of the state or the consumer. (Smith , 2000)

2 Basic functional principles of the model

The definition of functional principles is defined by two aspects. On one side there is the state and on the other side there are mass communication approaches, which play a very important role in obtaining, processing and further distributing information.

The most important functional principle, which is essential for the functioning of the whole model, is a great connection and cooperation in obtaining, processing and disseminating information between the statistical bureau, state institutions and the mass media themselves. Because the amount of information that has to be processed daily is enormous, but the most important thing is to be able to handle it. That requires a very strong bound of these individual parties in the communication space. At the time when this interconnection does not achieve the required parameters for the quality and content of information, the whole Smart demand model would be significantly limited by its effectiveness. (Kotler , 2001)

The second functional principle in this model is the role of the state. Understanding the situation followed by the right response on the market is the key to efficiency and functionality. It should be remembered that not every intervention into the consumers' behaviour is accepted and there is a risk which cannot be ruled out, and that is a loss of consumers' confidence in the model. It is all based on their trust and understanding reflecting the requested action on the certain market and in the certain segment. It is very crucial for the state to set priorities and determine the exact rules in which areas it wants to be engaged and at what level. The degree of focus is related to the size of the anomalies and the size of the market where they emerged. In this connection there is applied the media mix, which currently fits the situation on the market and provides recommend consumers' behaviour and reaches relevant consumers. (Alsbury, Jay, 2002)

Points of interest are divided into goods, services and the amount of money on the market. Focus on goods and services can be divided according to the their amount and size, which are applied to the model and the location and size of the market, where model is implemented (Kotler , 2001) :

a) Regional focus is only on one product or one market segment that shows anomalous behaviour (price, energy, environment) and this situation may have strong effect on a certain

wide group of consumers. It means mainly goods and services that can endanger consumers (economically, ecologically...) and create an imbalance on the market. Alternatively, the situation of a certain micro-regional market that is geographically, socially or culturally disadvantaged.

b) Nationwide focus on one or more market segments, which create inadequate inflationary pressures on economic development at that time. The Smart demand model offers two options:

- A change in consumers' behaviour will also change the price elasticity, creating a pressure for a slight reduction in prices
- By changing consumers' behaviour, consumers are postponing their purchases and reducing their demand for products and services

The model could affect economy and change the amount of money on the market therefore it is able to increase or decrease that amount of money on the certain market. Consumption recommendations are communicated to greater amount of savings within the population and thus shift part of the money intended for consumption towards savings. Such consumers' behaviour results in reduced household consumption and subsequently helps to ease inflationary pressures. On the other side, an increase in household consumption would support the growth of the economy. The advantage of this model is a much faster reaction as it is the way of raising the interest rates by the central bank, which means that the resulting effect is more likely visible in time. (Alsbury , Jay , 2002) In the case of a change the amount of money on the market, the discipline is even more important than in a case of involving goods and services. These long-time processes are difficult to communicate, especially at the situation where consumer does not see the result. It is hard to maintain the recommended consumers' behaviour, which in this case means a change (positive or negative) in the amount of expenditure per person. The process needs to be applied for a longer time, otherwise it would have almost no effect if we wanted to convert it into macroeconomic data. This is significant aspect for a „macro number" change into the desired direction and then the required value could be achieved. This is an opportunity to support the tools of national banks to a small extent. (Frey , 2005)

According to the goal on which is model focused, are chosen types of mass media to achieve the best result. An information campaign must reach people who are directly related to it. Therefore, the selection of the media involved is a very important part of the preparatory

phase of the model. The media are divided according to the possible level of involvement (Frey , 2005) :

- Local media - media of local importance or regional significance (regional press, radio, television)
- National media of minor importance - involvement of media with lower coverage, viewership and importance according to the social significance. (press, radios, smaller televisions)
- Nationwide media of great importance - involvement of all media, including the largest (mainly television but also all others)

The main task of the state is to create a legislative environment in which the model could work. It is necessary to have the space and time stipulated by the law for the implementation, which the media must provide it immediately (Sisková , 2011):

- Television - space in prime time (approximately one minute of airtime)
- Radios - during an all-day broadcast (a few minutes together)
- Print - ¼ pages on the title page (all periodicals)
- Internet – gaining space for promotion through browsers, social media, etc

Dividing consumers (recipients) depends on a degree of their involvement in following the recommended consumers' behaviour. Because each person is different and their consumers' behaviour is unpredictable, the target group is divided as follows according to the speed and willingness to participate in the model (Alsbury , Jay , 2002) :

- Leader
- Follower
- Doubter
- Blamer

The leader is a consumer who is very willing to get engaged in following the recommendations. He thinks that effort is going to bring changes at the national or regional level without any major problems. Through its behaviour also influences and motivates other consumers. The leader shows a continuous recommended behaviour throughout the duration of the campaign. (Alsbury , Jay , 2002)

A follower is a type of consumer who is prudent, thoughtful at first, and sometimes dubious, but does not reject recommendations. Based on the influence of leaders, he also joins the system, but it takes a little longer time to follow. He adheres to the recommendations to a greater extent, but by the end of the period his involvement weakens. (Alsbury , Jay , 2002)

The doubter is pessimistic from the beginning, he does not see the point in this system and especially a real possibility for change. At first, he does not believe in the model, but he is still willing to think about it and be influenced. Persuading this consumer is the hardest of all. It takes a long time for him to start accepting arguments and start realizing the outcome of the model. His engagement is supported by news of specific partial successes of the model. His involvement is not complete, but only partial and takes the shortest time of all involved in this model. (Alsbury , Jay , 2002)

The blamer completely ignores the recommendations that are published. He cannot absolutely understand the meaning of the model, he considers it to interfere in a person's personal rights and he considers it as a thing which is unrealistic and completely useless. He spreads negative awareness and pessimism among other consumers. There is really little hope for his mind to change, because he strictly rejects discussions and explanations. He does not engage in consumers' recommendations and in some cases deliberately misbehaves, as a sign of his independence in purchasing decision making process. (Alsbury , Jay , 2002)

3 Application of the model

We can apply this model especially to the regional level and to the national level. From the regional viewpoint, it is possible to split the use of this model to three areas (Svobodová, 2000):

1. Economic (In less developed regions, it is possible to use this model in the form of a strong pressure to the price level, in particular foodstuffs, which represent the basic and one of the biggest components of household expenses)

2. Ecological (its goal is to change certain non-ecological habits, which are common, especially in less developed regions. Many people do not even realize effects of their actions on the environment and, even less, they realize that it can be a big source of their income in the field of tourism, or agrotourism. Provide them with information about how it is possible to change the consumer behaviour, without increased expenses. How to behave to the environment, how it is more effective to use it for their own benefit)

3. Social-cultural (the goal is to increase awareness of the importance to maintain one's culture as identity that is undoubted and unique for the region. To initiate the effort of

inhabitants to increase the visibility of their region, spread the awareness of it and use their peculiarities for the benefit of the entire area. Attractiveness of the region also increases possibilities of attracting tourists and, later, investors, who will create jobs. There is a new room for the government to get citizens better engaged to the process of the whole area and, thus, accelerate the process of mindset shift)

From the national viewpoint, it is divided into two possible focus areas:

- Suppression of inflation pressures
- Change of the monetary reserve in the economy (boost to the economic growth)

Every economic area is exposed to various factors that are twofold – external or internal. Most pressures cannot be prevented but there are tools that can eliminate them or reduce their impact. This model only offers an alternative to some tools the government has at its disposal to regulate the quantity of money in the market. In principle, there is behaviour induced in the market that is similar to changing interest rates but with much earlier effect. When consumers postpone purchases, the demand decreases and that leads to price reduction, which can be used to effectively fight inflation pressures that are not adequate to the particular economic situation. On the contrary, at the time of economic recession or even at its indications, it is possible to increase the consumption of inhabitants and thus prevent deepening of economic problems. Right timing of an information campaign can support launching the economic growth of the country. (Smith, 2000)

The government plays an important role not only from the viewpoint of implementation but also creation of the conditions for the Smart demand model. That means adequate administrative and legislative environment without which this model could work only in limited scope if at all. (Smith, 2000)

4 Evaluation of the model and recommendations for real life

The present day is very hasty, as we indicated in the introduction. It is important to be able to respond very quickly to changes that are constantly changing the world. It holds true, in particular, to the business sector; however, the development has been so significant recently that it has material impact on the consumer behaviour. Consumers are "bombarded" from all sides with quantum of information they receive from continuously growing number of mass media. The most important role here is still played by television but the Internet has been

gaining ground consistently in recent years. It is huge space for drawing knowledge by means of information sources.

On the other hand, it is the cause of occurrence of problems concerning receiving and processing information by consumers, because data on the Internet is viewed without censorship. Out of that, there is huge quantity of unilaterally biased, fabricated and a significant volume of legally forbidden information. That makes room for huge manipulation with people, their opinion, when they get fascinated by available information. Along with that, the Internet offers information antipole to other media, which had more room in the past to influence the public opinion. Media are used also for the benefit of politics; it is even a public secret that certain political parties have influence on the media market. It is, however, very difficult to prove direct connection of any of the parties to a particular medium and the decision about impartiality and choice of the source of information is up to consumers. (Stuchlík, Dvořáček, 2000)

We can conclude that main ideas of the model are built on the principle of developed media environment that has the ability to influence listeners, viewers, readers as well as other consumer based on all forms of marketing. A properly set marketing has almost magical ability to change opinions, procedures and, above all, long-term habitual behaviour of consumers. Some people condemn it or underestimate it because they are, by far, not aware of its power and sophisticated nature of marketing methods and procedures.

Currently, successful companies can hardly live without marketing. In fact, it is used almost all the time but the entity in question does not even know it is there. People do not realize what significant influence it has on purchasing behaviour and they give in to it even when they do not expect it themselves. For example, they purchase products that might look useful at the first sight but, in principle, they will never use them. Also buying bigger packs for lower price when consumers get far beyond their needs. (Schmetterer, 2004)

Marketing, however, has also one disadvantage – it can exist for only very short time in one form. Therefore, it is necessary to look for innovative solutions that will ensure sales all the time. This is where the problem occurs also for the Smart demand model, which can work effectively only in the short term. With longer time periods, there could be instability and imbalance in the market. But, it is more probable that consumers may feel limited and will not be governed by consumption recommendations. (Stuchlík, Dvořáček, 2000)

It is quite difficult to attract consumers with an information campaign for longer time period, which, however, does not mean it is excluded. What matters is that the affected whole has certain shared characteristic features. Something that can motivate consumers to change or

limit their habits, either economic, cultural or social ones. It is relevant to make the feeling that provides consumers with the assurance that they can change the market. Such enthusiasm for the idea is the key to success of the entire model. (Schmetterer, 2004)

A lot is sometimes too much. That is even more relevant in this context. We can conclude that consumers, equally to classic marketing intervention, can be attracted by things that do not occur frequently. That is the reason why this model works only with a limited number of repetitions over a period of time. In the case, that information campaigns would be repeated very often, the efficiency of each one would be decreasing, by the time when consumers would be ignoring it therefore it would have no effect. Even though it might cause a different consumers' behaviour, which would be exactly opposite to the wanted stage.

This model must not lead in any case to a restriction of competition, or to direct a discriminatory campaign of a particular producer. All information are spread out only as a recommendation for customers and it should bring a strong pressure at a certain time on the market. (Stuchlík , Dvořáček , 2000)

These days the need for marketing in the whole world increases, especially at the state level. People are becoming more aware about what is happening in their countries and are interested in further news about ongoing situation and consequences. In some countries, the interconnection and communication of the government towards the citizens is at a very high level and continues to increase. The state has an marketing approach in these areas and has a direct impact on the population (Schmetterer , 2004)

- Preparation and implementation of reforms
- Promotion of the country abroad and creating a good picture
- Development of tourism and attitude of citizens towards the tourist industry
- Bringing the country closer to developed countries in a relation to recognized values

The principles and feasibility of the Smart demand model are best seen in the following practical cases from different levels of focus. The individual parts, in which is information campaign aimed are specific.

At the beginning of 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic crisis became a global topic, which of course also hit Slovakia. In the first wave aspects mentioned above for the model were used in favour of the realised precautions. After resolute and tough measures, which were very strongly supported by media, resulted in that people quickly adapt to the new way of life. Proper reasoning and communicating opinions of widely recognized experts caused, that the nation got

together and started to produce face masks and disinfecting agents. People were able to protect themselves very quickly and effectively, despite the shortage of protective equipment in the shops.

The consequences of these changes led to a temporary transformation in shopping behaviour, for example, in the field of tourism industry in Slovakia. There was a great number of regions producing the supporting campaigns towards domestic tourism and finally people were able to save the summer tourist season for many businesses, although there was no major support of the state.

These days, the main topic is the second wave COVI-19 in Slovakia in a connection with the new measures to slow down the virus. People are already tired of the length of the crisis and measures taken, especially with weak state support in the segments of social, cultural and sports life. This phase proved two key points of the Smart demand model.

To keep consumers' attention throughout any campaign for a longer period of time is very difficult. There must be created a feel for a customer that he is unique and even his decision making could change a development on the market. Especially, this kind of commitment is crucial for a success of any campaign. These days, people have stopped believing in campaigns, wearing face masks, measures and mainly the government support.

If the individual person does not see the point of restricting its self then it results in a decrease in willingness to follow recommendations. State regulations, information campaigns and measures should be focused on the most affected areas of ordinary life, so the consumer could see sense in helping others. During summer the successful transformation of behaviour of the individuals and then the whole group of people led to a partial rescue of culture, sport and tourism. It helped even other areas during the first phase, but in the second phase we cannot rely on it.

The Smart demand model points tout a significant power of marketing in the macroeconomic area and politics as well. Right approach to the model could significantly help during these quickly changing times.

Conclusion

In the future should be expected continual growth of the world trade and globalization, unless some unpredictable circumstances will occur. Such a great development could cause a different view of social problems. People would have to merge to achieve their own interests

as well as global initiatives. Their thinking will be rather global, therefore many elements would be directly influencing them, what is not that common at this time. The government and independent organizations would have to take over the leading role in providing information, to create a sustainable environment for implementation and control.

The Smart demand model outlines other possibilities of viewing the role of marketing. It points out the macroeconomic option for realisation. The main idea of the whole model is that consumers' behaviour is changeable in favour of the state and not only from side of the business industry. It must be taken into an account that any hard and frequent interference could lead to an imbalance on the market. It is only an occasional and short-term correction of consumers' behaviour in a case of unwanted impacts. The biggest problem of the model is the people's motivation and that's why the chosen marketing strategy is mandatory for a success. At the same time the target group must show common signs to achieve a change of their behaviour.

Very important role in the model plays an independent source of information, which obtains, processes and communicates further relevant data. In this case it is the statistical bureau which acts for the public interest. On one hand the government should leave the economy untouched until it is necessary to intervene to protect the economy. On the other hand it plays a crucial role in creating business environment and further communicates relevant information towards people to keep them informed.

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THE SOCIAL STATUS OF A TEACHER IN SELECTED SCHOOL POLICY PROGRAMME DOCUMENTS IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

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Abstract

The article presents selected findings on the financing of education and teachers' salaries from the Programme statements of the Government of the Slovak Republic since its inception in 1992. The aim of the paper is also to present theses on the position of the teacher in understanding his salary evaluation in three program documents of school policy, which are: National Program of Education Project Constantine from 1994, National Program of Education in the Slovak Republic for the next 15 to 20 years Millennium from 2002 and the National Program for the Development of Education for the years 2018 - 2027 Learning Slovakia from 2017.

In the paper we synthesize the knowledge conducted from all school policy programme documents and present the conclusions of their analyses.

Keywords: *education funding, teacher's salaries, teacher's position, national education and training programme, national education system, funding of education, teacher, school*

Introduction

The financing of education and the financial evaluation of a teacher have been dealt with by experts since the existence of the school. Xanthippe had already criticized her husband Socrates 2500 years ago for not asking for a fee for his work as a teacher from his, mostly wealthy students, that is, in today's sense a tuition fee. This topic is also not avoided even by the first textbook of pedagogy in the Slovak Republic written in Slovak language, entitled „Education for Seminarists and Parents" by the author Samuel Ormis from 1871 and published in Veľká Revúca. The second volume of this textbook of pedagogy was published in 1874 and its chapter under paragraph 18 entitled Age, affectus, rank and salary of teachers is stated (in the aboriginal Slovak language): "As far as salary is concerned, the rule should apply: what kind of work, such kind of pay… As the state pays the soldiers, so it should also provide teachers… and if the value is added to the salary, they will certainly work happily even with a low salary. In this respect, many states sacrifice a great deal for the teaching of young people, and even some municipalities devote all their property to this sacred goal, and yet there is a shortage."

„Our tool is to make teaching obligatory to everyone, just like the military. The soldiers often hear a saying: "Others have defended you while you were little and so you should too defend others for a while." And that is absolutely true…They should say the same to every adult: "Others have taught you, and so you should teach others."… And they should impose by law that none can be a state or church official, or an officer in the army, or medicine, or law, etc. until a certain number of years (eg. two years) have been devoted to the benefit of school children... If one felt a special appetite for teaching be he remained a teacher until his death… and on such experienced men the state would entrust the administration of the whole education system and reward their merits with an appropriate pay "(Ormis, p. 109). Xanthippe states "any" salary and Ormis a reasonable salary.

The research problem of this study is to examine the development of the opinions of the management sphere, at the top level of state management, on the importance of financing education and teachers through the declared intentions in the programme documents of state and school policy. The analysis included all Programme Statements of the Government of the Slovak Republic since 1994 in the following program documents of school policy: National Programme of Education Project Constantine of 1994, National Programme of Education in the Slovak Republic for the next 15 to 20 years Millennium of 2002 and the National Programme for the Development of Education for the years 2018 - 2027 Learning Slovakia from 2017. These are considered to be fundamentally influencing the views on the current teacher and his work and school in general.

The thesis that the importance of financing education and teachers in society, according to the declared opinions in the programme documents of state and school policy in the period from 1994 to the present, practically did not change, can be called into question by the antithesis that the importance of education and the position of teachers in society, together with opinions, change in accordance with social and economic changes in the Slovak society. It is also reflected in the here analysed programme documents of state and school policy.

The topic of financing education and teacher salary has been very actual for a long time and remains so even today. The position of a teacher in society from the point of view of his salary evaluation also directly affects the educational results of pupils. The results of international comparisons of PIRLS, TIMSS and PISA show a close dependence between the size of funds spent from the government budget on education and better results of students in selected school subjects (Plavčan, 2019).

Programme Statements of the Government of the Slovak Republic

The programme statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 1994** considers the development of the teacher's personality and the strengthening of his social position, moral and material appreciation, and social security to be one of the government's priorities. It further states that even in the conditions of economic transformation, it will be crucial to look for all possible sources for a differentiated increase in the salaries of pedagogical staff, with a preference for the most qualified and highest-quality teachers. In cooperation with the labour unions, it will propose a time schedule for solving the wage problems of education. In fact, there has been no increase in the funding of education, compared to the funding of other ministries, nor has there been an increase in teachers' salaries.

The programme statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 1998** articulated that the government will gradually increase the funds intended for the provision of education with such a share of the gross domestic product (GDP) that it would be comparable with the states of the European Union. It will imply a law on funding which will ensure the normative distribution of funds to individual schools. For the first time, the intention to increase teachers' salaries is officially stated. During this period, the government considered it necessary to create conditions for improving the social status of teachers and education workers and to stabilize their position by the law on state (civil) service. In agreement with the labour union, it intended to prepare for an annual increase in tariff wages. In fact, these increased only together with the salaries of employees of other ministries.

The Programme Statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 2002** says that the government will support multi-source financing of education and its higher efficiency through normative financing per pupil. According to this document, the government will strive for higher social recognition and differentiated salary evaluation of pedagogical staff at all levels, adequately to the quality of their work and the importance of this profession for society, so that this work becomes more attractive for young teachers.

The government will increase funding for education to gradually approach the average value of the share of the GDP in the states of the European Union.

The government sees the teacher's personality and professionalism as a key element in the development of the school system. Therefore, it will develop a motivational system of remuneration, professional and career growth of teachers, in order to increase the attractiveness of the teaching profession. It will provide principals with tools to differentiate teachers' pay and space to shape and improve teaching staff. However, these increased only together with the salaries of employees of other ministries. It further states that the government will also increase

subsidies to higher education from the government budget, in order to gradually reach a level corresponding to the member states of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

The programme statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 2006** declared the goal of the government, namely to gradually achieve the average salary in education in this election period which will be at the level of the average salary in the national economy. The Government of the Slovak Republic will create such legislative and economic frameworks in which teachers meet the professional and moral preconditions for the performance of this demanding profession as much as possible.

If the education system is to be further developed, the long-term lag in its funding must be eliminated. The Government of the Slovak Republic will use more source funding in education with the aim of gradually reaching the level of 5% of the GDP.

The government will focus on solving the problem of more source funding for universities. The government will adapt the new funding methodology to the economic demands of studies, the quality of education and the level of science and research. The government will not introduce tuitions for full-time higher education. It will legislatively motivate the business sector to invest in education, science, research and development. In fact, the above mentioned methodology has been modified and put into practice.

The Programme Statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 2010** states that the Government of the Slovak Republic considers better salary evaluation of pedagogical employees of education to be its important goal, as well as equal financing of schools and school facilities, regardless of their founder.

The Government of the Slovak Republic will create a motivating financial instrument for universities that have the ambition and capacity to significantly increase their quality and international competitiveness and to be a driver of improving the overall state of Slovak universities. This tool will support university projects on a competitive basis and subsequently reward success. The Government of the Slovak Republic will support the improvement of the current system of financing in higher education institutions by using a smaller, output-oriented and especially results-oriented number of indicators, with the focus on outputs in scientific activities, appropriate to the mission of the university. The above described methodology change was accomplished.

The government's programme statement **from 2012** focuses on ensuring a more significant role and position of teachers at all levels of schools in society, therefore, in addition to the professional and social aspects, their societal position must also be emphasized, i.e. political, professional and lay public support for the teaching profession and, of course, its financial evaluation and increase of social status. Therefore, it will systematically address the improvement of the remuneration of pedagogical, professional and non-pedagogical employees according to their quality and depending on the possibilities of the government budget. Within the given possibilities, the volume of financial resources from the state budget will be increased with a focus on strengthening education, science and research, in order to increase their quality and efficiency.

The government is aware that a necessary precondition for the further development of education will also be the renewal of discipline in primary and secondary schools, based on a natural model and authority, as well as in improving the training of future teachers and professionals at universities. Within the given possibilities, the volume of financial resources from the government budget will be increased with a focus on strengthening education, science and research, in order to increase their quality and efficiency.

The government's programme statement **from 2016** declares that the government will ensure a significant increase in public investment in education, associated with fundamental internal changes in the education system. Therefore, according to this document, the government is determined to combine the implementation of fundamental internal changes with regular year-on-year increase in public resources for education and teacher training, so that the total volume of increase within the election period reaches 2 billion. € and that the level of public resources invested annually in education at the end of the election period in 2020 is comparable to the average of the European Union countries.

The government has also committed itself to creating the preconditions for increasing the attractiveness of the teaching profession through its financial rewards, a suitable working environment and support for improving the quality of his work; increasing the financial reward will be implemented for all categories of pedagogical and professional staff with special emphasis on beginning teachers; implying legislative adjustments so that the salary scale for pedagogical staff and professional staff from 1 September 2016 and subsequently, subjective to the implementation of fundamental internal changes in the education system, starting on 1 January 2018, will increase annually by an average of 6%, to which will ensure an appropriate increase in funding.

The programme statement of the Government of the Slovak Republic **from 2020** states that the Government of the Slovak Republic will also ensure adequate evaluation, create conditions for continuous growth of salaries of pedagogical and professional employees, in order to increase salaries of pedagogical employees, depending on the government budget.

According to this document, the Government of the Slovak Republic will promote solutions for changing the system of university funding, so that funding reflects the diversification of universities, according to their performance in the areas on which the university will focus and at the same time, will motivate universities to increase the quality of scientific work and apply the outputs of its activities in accordance with the needs of society, regions and the economy. Changing the methodology in this matter thus only redistributed the existing resources of the government's budget - funds for universities.

Program documents of school policy

Programme document of school policy - The Constantine project, according to (Komárik, E. et al., 1994), is the first comprehensive programme document of school policy after 1990, which significantly influenced the opinions of the professional and lay public on the development of Slovak education.

In the introduction, Constantine contains the text of the Educational Memorandum of the Government of the Slovak Republic, which states in the strategic interests of the Slovak Republic in point 5 as follows: "…Increasing the ranking of teachers as one of the key educational factors, together with increasing the quality of education, while developing personal integrity." In the 5th part entitled Changes in pedagogical thinking and understanding the position of the child and the teacher - an important condition for the success of the National Program of Education, the position and training of the teacher is defined on the platform of the system of creative-humanistic education. When it comes to pedagogical/teacher thinking, or teacher cognition, in relation to society, according to Ostradický (2020), the teacher's ideas (strategies and methods, actions / non-actions) correspond to his life and professional experiences. They are (co-) constructed in a specific (culture) society, in cultural and discursive practices.

The position of a teacher meant his statutory role in education and a certain monopoly position of the teacher in providing this educational path leading to the qualification of a graduate. Other discussions about the position of a teacher dealt with his salary evaluation in the context of

salary evaluation of other employees in the civil sector, or in the private sector, who have approximately the same level of education and similar qualifications.

The position of teachers in terms of their salary evaluation in the context of that time represented a low status, resulting in salary evaluation below the average not only in the category of university-educated workers in the national economy, but also below the average of the economically active population. The authors of this document question the currently actual system of egalitarian salaries with a minimum possibility of a differentiated approach in the teacher's salary. Furthermore, they propose a two-component financial evaluation based on a minimum standard and a relatively variable system for the results achieved, for example, for the achievements of school students, but also for the results of specific teachers. This pay model should maintain the basic job security of teachers regardless of the type of school at all levels of the school system and its founder.

The Millennium School Policy Programme Document (Rosa, Turek and Zelina, 1998) was produced in 2002 and marked significant progress in formulating theses on the status of teachers, as it refers not only to the vision for the future, but also to shortcomings in education, including those emerging after 1990 and compares them with the previous period before 1990.

The Millennium programme document considers the financing of education to be the most painful aspect of the ,at that time, implemented educational system in Slovakia. (Rosa, V., Turek, I., Zelina, M., 1998). As it states on page 20, "As a characteristic feature of the educational policy of the member states of the European Union is to increase the quality of education, in the Slovak Republic it is rather the opposite." According to the authors, the conditions of education in the Slovak Republic and, as a result, its quality are constantly deteriorating.

This school policy programme document presents selected statistical indicators on wage comparisons with other categories in the national economy; the average wage in education, which has the most university-educated workers of all sectors, is the second lowest after agriculture and forestry. The average ratio of teachers' salaries to the GDP in the member states of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is 1.6. This means that, on average, a teacher's salary in OECD member countries is 60% higher than gross domestic product per capita. In the Slovak Republic, this indicator was 0.71 in this period.

In the fifth chapter Program changes in key areas, importance is given to the position of the teacher as a decisive factor in education. In order to increase the status of teachers, the

programme document proposes an increase in the social and especially, the financial reward of teachers and educators, by about 60%.

The most important proposals for increasing the position of teachers in this programming document mentioned on page 76 include in particular, the following: "…Implement the law on public service of teachers, develop a system of protection of teachers, educators from excessive psychological stress and to regulate the protection of pedagogical staff, as public officials, against the increase of aggression and violence by pupils and parents, to increase the financial evaluation of teachers and pedagogical staff, to develop and implement control of compliance with the pedagogical staff code of ethics, to carry out research on teacher personality. "

The programme document of school policy Learning Slovakia (Burjan, Ftáčnik, Juráš, Vantuch, Višňovský and Vozár, 2017) in its second part The Profession of a Teacher, deals with the topic of the position of a teacher in more detail, compared to the previously analysed programme documents. It is based on the assumption ,stated on page 102, that attractiveness is given by an adequate financial evaluation and adequate conditions for personal development within the profession, but also by the working environment and social recognition.

Chapter 2-02 on page 105 of the programme document directly states, that "the standard of teachers' salaries is one of the manifestations of the appreciation of the teaching profession by society and also an important factor in the attractiveness of the teaching profession. It influences the interest in the teaching profession, as well as the retention of those who already are a part of it. This proposal is supported in the document by further proposals for applying measures: …" To be active in the presentation and appreciation of the teaching profession"…, together with other proposals.

Conclusions

The following evaluation conclusions emerged from the analysis of state policy documents, namely the Programme Statements of the Government of the Slovak Republic:

- the 1994 programme document generally mentions the search for all possible sources for a differentiated increase in the salaries of teachers, with a preference for the most qualified and the highest quality teachers,

- the 1998 programme document formally stated that the government would gradually increase funding for education to a share of the GDP, comparable to that of the European Union,

- the 2002 programme document formally states that the government will increase funding for education, in order to gradually approach the average value of the share of the GDP in the countries of the European Union,

- the 2006 programme document declared the government's goal of gradually achieving an average salary in education, in this election period, at the level of the average salary in the national economy,

- the programme document from 2010 formally states that the Government of the Slovak Republic considers better salary evaluation of pedagogical employees of education to be its important goal,

- the 2012 programme document only formally states that the improvement of the remuneration of pedagogical, professional and non-pedagogical staff, according to their quality and depending on the possibilities of the government budget, will be systematically addressed,

- The 2016 programme document sets out specific amounts of funding to increase funding for education, as well as teachers' salaries, by 2 billion EUR over a four-year period, resulting in a 6% increase each year. The target for increasing teachers' salaries has been met.

- The programme document from 2020 only formally states that the Government of the Slovak Republic will ensure adequate evaluation and create conditions for continuous growth of salaries of pedagogical and professional employees, in order to increase the salaries of pedagogical employees, depending on the possibility of the government budget.

After analysing three programme documents of school policy, which are the National Programme of Education Project Constantine from 1994, the National Programme of Education in the Slovak Republic for the next 15 to 20 years Millennium of 2002 and the National Programme of Development of Education for 2018 - 2027 Learning Slovakia from 2017, it can be stated that they jointly put the position of the teacher in the context of his salary evaluation. The Millennium Programme Document deals in some detail with the status of teachers' salaries and compares it with other categories of employees in the public administration, according to their level of education, or presents statistical indicators from international comparisons concerning teachers. The programme documents Millennium and Learning Slovakia accurately captured the contemporary nature of the effects of the underrated position of the teacher in society, from whom it expects a lot, but with a low financial reward. The main accompanying feature of the teaching profession is its low attractiveness for the young generation.

According to the analysis of programme documents of state and school policy, it can be stated that, the whole society, professional and lay public, is aware of the importance of the position of the teacher in society and the importance of education for the development of the Slovak society. The school policy programme documents set out specific measures to improve the state of education in schools in the Slovak Republic. However, in the entire period of the Slovak Republic's existence, these were not reflected in most specific state policy documents, with the exception of the period from 2016 to 2020, when not only the increase in the education funding in general, but also the increase in teachers' salaries was implied in actual numbers. According to available data, between 1994 and 2020, teachers' salaries increased by 1% in 2010 before state election and then by 10% in 2016 and by 6% over the next three years approved at the beginning of the parliamentary term. In this record, we did not monitor the general increase in the salaries of state and civic employees.

The consequence of insufficient funding for the work of teachers and also insufficient funding of education is the critical condition of education in the Slovak Republic, which causes teachers to leave this profession. Especially, the best ones.

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THE ROLE OF SPORT IN FRENCH DIPLOMACY

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Abstract

Sport as a global phenomenon is an inseparable segment of every developed democratic society. It is an effective tool for the presentation of the achievements of a particular country or state at the international level. The management and financing of sport are as significant aspects of society as the other social sectors. This paper investigates the status of sport and a sport diplomacy within a classic diplomacy and the international policy of France, which has relatively soon realized the significance of the presentation of its country via sport. The fundamental areas of the sport diplomacy in France are its historical development and its role and functions in the 21st century. The paper focuses on the management of sport, and its most substantial bodies in this field. In addition, it interprets reasons why sport has such an important status in the traditional French diplomacy.Key words: diplomacy, sport diplomacy, France, sporting event, sport organizations

Sport Diplomacy in France

The concept of the sport diplomacy first appeared in 1971 in connection with so called "ping-pong" diplomacy established by the USA and China, resulting in the reinstatement of the relationship between these two states. In the course of time, this type of diplomacy has been widely spread and it has become more and more popular. (Gomez, 2018) With the increasing significance of sport and politics, numerous states have decided to establish their own sport diplomacy policy. Impartial sport is an effective tool for the demonstration of advanced facilities, infrastructure, cultural or economic development of a country. Perceiving this huge potential, Brazil, China, Russia, South Africa and France could implement this strategy in the years of 2008 – 2022 at seven prominent international competitions such as Olympic and Paralympic Games, or FIFA and UEFA Championships. To achieve a better international status and to emphasize the geopolitical importance, Qatar has become the most influential example of sport diplomacy implementation in the late '20s. The strategy of Qatar is based on hosting the greatest tournaments, sponsoring, or investments in sport clubs – particularly in the French football club Paris Saint Germain. (Gomez, 2018)

Sport diplomacy represents so called "soft power", with its significant economic component including broadcasting rights, marketing, sponsorship and activities related to sport management, e. g. logistics in organising sporting events. France has soon realized the significance of the reception and presentation of the country via sport diplomacy. Despite the implicit existence of the French sport diplomacy, it has been able to develop to such an extent that it can be considered an independent diplomatic entity. Furthermore, in January 2014, it led to the establishment of a specific position - the sports ambassador. The position was created by the mutual initiative of the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs (Ministère de l'Europe et des Affaires étrangères), and Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sport (Le ministère des sports, de la jeunesse, de l'éducation populaire et de la vie associative). The status of the sport diplomacy within the French foreign policy is embraced in the so-called "action plan of the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs" aimed to increase French influence in sport, make sport a priority for the Ministry, and make sport an integral part of the economic diplomacy. (MEAE, 2014a)

Action Plan of Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs

"Sport plays a major role in attracting visitors to France and showcasing the country´s international outreach. France hosts many international championships, and is fully prepared to ensure that they will be a success." (MEAE, 2017) France organises the international sporting events at a very high level. As an example, may serve the UEFA football championship which was attended by more than 1.5 million visitors from all over the world in June and July 2016. The majority of state bodies, including the Ministry and its main operator Atout France, were mobilized which resulted in a huge success. One of the priorities of the Ministry is to ensure the highest organizational standards. (ibid.)

Having hosted numerous international championships, France and its state administration bodies have adapted to the changing needs of the tournaments, athletes, and fans. New infrastructure has been built, and some facilities were renovated, including stadium and transportation facilities. In order to safeguard overall security, the amount of police and private security officers at French international sporting events have increased significantly. (ibid.)

The sporting competitions are major events in terms of attractiveness and outreach of France. They generate massive flow of tourists and attract new potential customers to the tournaments´ hosting destinations. "For UEFA Euro 2016, for example, France launched the "Welcome to..." campaign in order to offer a high-quality welcome and show hospitality. Everyone initiated –

from state bodies, sport professionals, volunteers to associates in tourism and catering were fully mobilized to welcome visitors with open arms, providing them with a thoroughly enjoyable experience." (ibid.)

Sporting competitions offer an exceptional opportunity to present national innovations and know-how in a wide range of sectors, e. g. transport, environment, tourism, or health care. Additionally, French strive to promote the values of sport, since these events unite athletes and fans from around the world in a spirit of communication, sharing and friendly rivalry between people, all of which are values appreciated in France and beyond.

For the French people, sport is a tool of an international prestige, reputation, competitiveness, as well as the means of creating career opportunities. As such, sport occupies a significant position in the French economic diplomacy. As stated above, in 2014, the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs (MEAE) designed the action plan, which grants power of the sport diplomacy management to a newly established position of the sports ambassador - l'ambassadeur désigné pour le sport. The Ministry aspires to respond to the challenges, which the sport diplomacy faces in the 21st century (MEAE, 2014b).

The action plan comprises various aims through which the Ministry intends to increase the attractiveness of major sporting events such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games, or the European and World Football Championships. Besides, they seek to increase the amount of French managers in the international sports bodies, to promote French as the official language of the Olympic movement, spread French attitudes towards ethics in sport, and ensure better position for French companies on the sport-related markets beyond the French territory. The action plan has the following objectives:

1. promote organising significant international sporting events in France;

2. strengthen ties with French managers working for international sport institutions;

3. invite prominent French athletes to presidential and ministerial visits;

4. promote using the French language as an official Olympic language in the countries hosting the Olympic Games;

5. encourage foreign visitors to come to France for major sporting events;

6. promote values such as ethics in sport, and fight against doping;

7. help companies submit tenders for international sporting events. (MEAE, 2016)

Tools of Sport Diplomacy in France

Sport is an excellent tool of international prestige, competitiveness, economic growth and creating career opportunities. Therefore, all subjects participating in the world of sport need to be mobilised, including state administration bodies. Based on the previous chapter, it can be said that the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs runs a proactive policy in terms of the sport diplomacy. At the initiative of the Ministry, several additional structures have been established, contributing to achieve French ambitions of promoting sport at the international level. These structures include the aforementioned sports ambassador whose task is to mobilize a diplomatic network in order to promote French attractiveness to organise the prominent sporting events. (MEAE, 2014b) Belonging to the tools of the French sport diplomacy, the French Committee for International Sport (CFSI) sets the complex French strategy within the international relations. It focuses on the development of the international sports network and enhancing cooperation among the subjects involved in international sport.

An Office for Professional Sport and the Economics of Sport aims to transmit the knowledge of sport economy in France to all its dimensions. "Its objective is to ensure the contribution of sport sector to the achievement of goals of the Europe 2020 strategy, particularly by increasing positive impacts of the major sporting events in France, highlighting the French offer of goods and services." (MEAE, 2014b)

The French influence on the international sports scene, and recognition the French "know-how" are conditioned by the flawless organization of the great international events as well. An Interministerial Delegation for Major Sports Events (DIGES) coordinates the aspects under the State control (security, transport, visas, etc.). In cooperation with the Department of Tourism, it provides impetus of capitalization strategies so that each event creates economic spin-offs and a lasting legacy.

French Olympic Committee - a Fundamental Element of Sport Diplomacy

The French National Olympic and Sports Committee (CNOSF) represents the International Olympic Committee in France, and simultaneously the French Sports Movement, in particular the sports federations towards the International Olympic Committee. In France, CNOSF is an associate of public authorities, and civil society, it also executes activities of common interest for the benefit of the federations. At the international level, CNOSF promotes French sport, by organising the prominent international sporting events by France and in France. Furthermore, it cooperates with the French managers in the international sports institutions, promotes sport

and the use of French, the official language of the International Olympic Committee, at the European level. It also participates in consultation of the various Olympic movement bodies such as the European Olympic Committees, or the International Committee of Mediterranean Games. (CNOSF, 2019)

The purpose of the French Olympic Committee is to develop and protect the Olympic movement in France. It creates, organises, and leads French delegation for competitions sponsored by the International Olympic Committee. Moreover, it chooses French cities to apply for organising the Olympic Games. It also promotes fundamental principles of Olympism in France, by launching the events such as the Olympic day, or the Olympic Youth Camp. (CNOSF, 2019)

On 13 September 2017, France was appointed to organise the Olympic and Paralympic Games 2024, a hundred year after the Games were organised in France in 1924. For the French it is a great opportunity to promote sport in everyday life, to innovate, create, and unite. In six years, they want to be fully prepared to welcome the world. (CNOSF, 2019) The Paris 2024 Project relies on 95% of already existing, or temporary sport facilities with an announced budget of EUR 6.6 billion. The only necessary facilities to be built are the aquatics centre, which is supposed to be built next to the Stade de France, the basketball indoor arena with the capacity of 7500 seats, and the Olympic Village, stretching over three villages Seine-Saint-Denis. (Hervio, 2017)

Conclusion

Sport occupies the significant place within the classic diplomacy and foreign policy of France. Alongside with tourism and promoting French companies, it is the priority of the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs. The sport diplomacy in France is a tool of representation and reputation. Through organising prominent international sporting events it brings economic benefits. Sporting competitions are the major events in terms of attractiveness and outreach of France. They generate large tourist flows and attract new customers to the tournaments´ host destinations. Also, it is the exceptional presentation to support the national innovation and know-how.

Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs has attempted to respond to current issues and challenges in this field. Therefore in 2014, the action plan was established in order to increase the attractiveness of the French territory for huge sporting events such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games, or the European and World championships. Likewise, they seek to increase the amount of French managers in the international sports bodies, promote French as the official

language of the Olympic movement, expand French attitudes towards ethics in sport, and ensure the better position for French companies on the sport-related markets beyond French territory. Due to the efforts of the Ministry, several additional structures have been established such as the Sports Ambassador, the French Committee for International Sport, the Office for Professional Sport and the Economics of Sport, and the Interministerial Delegation for Major Sports Events, contributing to achieve French ambitions of sport promoting at the international level. The French Olympic Committee significantly participates in this field as well, facing the huge challenge to organise the Summer Olympic Games in Paris in 2024.

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III. SECTION OF INTERNATION RELATIONS

MARTIN WIGHT'S APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Barbora KRIŠTOFOVÁ

Abstract

Martin Wight was one of the most influential twentieth-century British scholars associated with the prominent English School of international relations. The paper focuses on Wight's approach to the study of international relations, especially, his ideas on international theory. The main purpose is to discuss whether the history of ideas played an important role in Wight's interpretation of international theory. It would be overstating the case to argue that Wight thought that the only way to study international relations was through the history of ideas, or that the history of ideas was itself sufficient for understanding the nature of international relations. It is important to note, however, that the study of the history of ideas about international relations was integral to Wight's approach because he believed that the best place to locate the values of international society was in the history of its ideas. Wight's attitude towards the study of international relations provided an important theoretical framework in which international relations could be clearly understood.

Key words: English School of international relations. International relations. International theory. Martin Wight. Theory.

Introduction

Robert James Martin Wight[1] was one of the most influential twentieth-century British scholars associated with the English School of international relations.[2] It could be argued that for all those who identify themselves with the English School, Wight is something of an intellectual godfather." (Dunne, 1998, p. 47) The attitude of the English School towards the study of international relations[3] is unique, and quite distinct from the other prominent

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[1] For more information about Martin Wight, see Hall, Ian, *The International Thought of Martin Wight.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2006.

[2] For more information about the English School of international relations, see Roy Jones, "The English School of International Relations: A case for Closure," *Review of International Studies* 7:1(1981). and Andrew Linklater and Hidemi Suganami, *The English School of International Relations*: *A Contemporary Reassessment* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006). and Navari and Green, eds, *Guide to the English School in International Studies.*

[3] Here it should be noted that by the term "international relations", or "international theory" in lower case refers to the events or issues that are being studied, while the term "International Relations," or "International Theory" with capital letters refers to the academic study of international phenomena.

approaches such as classical realism, neorealism, liberal international relations theory, constructivism, feminist international relations theory, postcolonial theory, and other critical theories. However, it is important to note that the approach of the English School contains elements from most of these theories.

In this paper, I want to focus my attention on one of Wight's legacies, viz. his approach to the study of international relations. The main purpose is to discuss whether the history of ideas played an important role in Wight's interpretation of international relations. I contend that for Wight, the history of ideas was a fundamental aspect for constructing something close to a comprehensive schema of the history of modern international theory. My argument is that it is possible to notice the broader context of a peculiarly British manner of studying politics that placed the history of ideas at the centre of its sphere of interest. As the British political theorist Harold Laski argued:

> *the study of ideas in their historical context is a source of political illumination as valuable as any that lies to our hand. ... it serve[s] to correct, more truly than any other discipline, that tendency to over-estimate the originality and significance of our own ideas.* (1940, p. 38)

Firstly, I shall analyse Wight's interpretation of international theory based on the history of ideas. Secondly, I shall explain important differences between political theory and international theory, and examine Wight's deep conviction of the importance of international theory. Thirdly, I shall survey the intellectual development of the concept of three traditions of international theory. If one wants to consider whether there is a need to study the history of ideas, it is necessary to note that Wight's attitude towards the study of international relations provided an important theoretical framework in which international relations could be clearly understood. It would be overstating the case to argue that Wight thought that the only way to study international relations was through the history of ideas, or that the history of ideas was itself sufficient for understanding the nature of international relations. It is important to note, however, that the study of the history of ideas about international relations was integral to Wight's approach because he believed that the best place to locate the values of international society[4] was in the history of its ideas.

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[4] International society is a central issue in Wight's approach to the study of international theory. It could be argued that international society is a part of a trio of important ideal types about ways in which international relations might be ordered: the international system, international society and world society.

Martin Wight's Interpretation of International Theory

Martin Wight could, without risk of overstatement, be described as a pioneer in the debate about the existence of international relations. One could be confused as to whether Wight's approach to the study of international relations comprised international theory, or international thought, or the political philosophy of international relations, because he frequently used all three terms. To make clear what he meant under which notion, Wight provided a nuanced explanation in his lecture "An Anatomy of International Thought" given in 1960 at the Institute Universitaire de Hautes Etudes Internationales in Geneva:

> *You might say there is no such thing as the political philosophy of international relations, I have therefore played safe and called it "international thought" in my title to use the least pretentious phrase describing speculation about international relations. International thought is what we find in the discussions of the man-in-the-street or in the popular press. International theory is what we find in the better press and hope to find in diplomatic circles and foreign offices. The political philosophy of international relations is the fully-conscious, formulated theory, illustrations of which you may find in the conduct of some statesmen, Wilson, probably Churchill, perhaps Nehru, and it may be expressed by serious writers, for example Kant or Kennan, Machiavelli or Morgenthau. The differences between thought, theory and philosophy are partly in the precision with which they are formulated, and partly in the degree of their profundity. But I am not concerned with these and ignore them. (1987, p. 221)*

As Wight argued that the differences between these three terms are only partial and decided to ignore them, in this paper, I shall consider all three notions as synonymous. To provide a clearer interpretation, I shall use only one term, namely international theory.

If one wants to examine international theory, it is important to first consider international relations themselves. Roughly speaking, Wight classified international relations as "the state of affairs which produces international theory." (1987, p. 221) He tried to explain his philosophical analysis on the basis of a sociological analysis which explores the origin of international relations. It could be argued that Wight described international relations as the subject matter that consists of three interrelated political conditions.[5] Under these component social elements, he perceived "international anarchy" (Wight 1991, Wight 1960), "diplomacy and commerce"

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[5] Wight explained these three interrelated political conditions, which define international relations twice: Firstly, in his lecture "An Anatomy of International Thought" given in 1960, Wight called them as follow: international anarchy, habitual intercourse and moral solidarity. Secondly, in the introduction to his book *International Theory: The Three Traditions* edited in 1991, Wight stated the following three components: international anarchy, diplomacy and commerce, the concept of a society of states, or family of nations. Given that these definitions delivered in both of his abovementioned pieces are not different in their deepest sense, in this paper, I shall use a definition of these three political conditions given in his book in 1991.
For more detailed information about these three interrelated conditions of international relations, one should read: Wight, "An Anatomy of International Thought," *Review of International Studies.* and Wight, "The Three Traditions" in Wight and Porter, eds, *International Theory: The Three Traditions.*

(Wight, 1991), or "habitual intercourse" (Wight, 1960), and the concept of a society of states, or family of nations (Wight, 1991)," or "moral solidarity" (Wight, 1960). In the introduction to his book *International Theory: The Three Traditions* published in 1991, he introduced the following explanation:

> *International anarchy is a multiplicity of independent sovereign states acknowledging no political superior, whose relationships are ultimately regulated by warfare. Diplomacy and commerce is continuous or organised intercourse between these sovereign states in the pacific intervals: international and institutionalised intercourse. The concept of society of states, or family of nations is that although there is no political supervisor, nevertheless there is a recognition that the multiplicity of sovereign states forms a moral and cultural whole, which imposes certain moral and psychological and possibly even legal obligations – even if not political ones.*

Thus, there is no doubt that Wight's understanding of international theory is what he is most celebrated for among International Relations theorists. It is important to note that Wight's approach to the study of international relations was carried out "at base a world of ideas, of thought." (Jackson, 2005, p. 55) Similarly, it could be concluded that he exercised a profound influence on the ways in which International Relations theorists think about the history of ideas.[6]

According to Ian Hall, a former lecturer at the University of St Andrews, "Wight was an unconventional thinker." (Hall, 2006, p. 1) Hall argues that Wight's definition of international theory was characteristically "idiosyncratic." (2006, p. 134) In other words, Wight did not mean by the term international theory "what many might assume it means: an explanation of the behaviour of states in the international system." (2006, p. 134-135) Considering that Wight's general approach to the study of international relations was interpretive and evaluative, and required a historical interpretation, it may be correct to argue that his approach demands attention to the study of ideas rather than the observation of behaviour. Thus, one could ask what he meant by the term international theory. The answer can be found in his essay "Why Is There No International Theory?" presented at the inaugural meeting of the British Committee in January 1959 and published in 1966 in *Diplomatic Investigations: Essays in the Theory of*

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[6] It could be argued that one of the most evident influences of the history of ideas on the study of international relations was that of Alexis de Tocqueville. He made one of the earliest attempts to place the study of international relations among the political and social sciences in his presidential address to the Académie des Science Morales et Politiques delivered in 1852. In this sense, he distinguished on the one side the study of the rights of society and of the individual, what laws are appropriate to particular societies, and what forms of government to particular circumstances, quoting as examples the ideas of Plato, Aristotle, Machiavelli, Montesquieu and Rousseau. See Wight, "Why Is There No International Theory?" in Wight and Butterfield, eds, *Diplomatic Investigations: Essays in the Theory of International Politics.*

International Politics. In this polemical essay, Wight argued that "by international theory is meant a tradition of speculation about relations between states, a tradition imagined as the twin of speculation about the state to which the name political theory is appropriated." (Wight, 1991, p. 17)

In the introduction to his book *International Theory: Three Traditions of International Theory* (1991), Wight continued to understand international theory as "something corresponding to political theory." (p. 1) However, now the difficulties begin. Political theory is a recognisable subject, but on the other hand, it is not easy to recognise international theory:

> *Politics is a realm of human experience continuously studied in one form or another since Plato heard Socrates arguing about justice in the market-place, and himself immediately began lecturing to Aristotle. To study politics means, primarily, entering this tradition, joining in the conversation, speckling about the state, authority, the justification and limits of power, the sources of law and political obligation, and the nature of enquiry about relations between states, the problems of obligations that arise in the absence as distinct from the presence of government, the nature of the community of which states are members, and the principles of foreign policy. (p. 1)*

In this sense, Wight argued that political theory "is one half of politics … the other half being institutions or government," rather than "international theory is the political philosophy of international relations." (p. 1) The main difference between the two subjects was described in the abovementioned essay "An Anatomy of International Thought": as Wight argued, "the most fundamental question you can ask in international theory is, What is international society?, just as the central question in political theory is, What is a State?" (Wight, 1987, p. 222) Similarly, in another abovementioned essay "Why Is There No International Theory" he clearly defined this difference: "If political theory is the tradition of speculation about the state, then international theory may be supposed to be a tradition of speculation about the society of states, or the family of nations, or the international community." (Wight, 1966, p. 18)

As demonstrated above, political theory and international theory are corresponding subjects, but Wight clearly recognised both of them. In this sense, he lamented that "while the acknowledged classics of political study are the political philosophers, the only acknowledged counterpart in the study of international relations is Thucydides, a work of history." (p. 32) Wight noted that to layman international theory can seems to be "scattered, unsystematic, and mostly inaccessible" and, as Wight added "it is largely repellent and intractable in form." (p. 20) According to Wight, international theory can be marked, not only by "paucity but also by intellectual and moral poverty." For this Wight was forced to look to internal reasons, which

the most obvious are, "the intellectual prejudice imposed by the sovereign state" and "the belief in progress." (Ibid) As Wight said elsewhere, "[i]t is not the absence of literature which is the difficulty… but its scatteredness." (1991, p. 3-4) Therefore, the first important step before any enquiry into international theory could begin was that " past thinking about international relations needs to be put into order." (Porter, 1978, p. 64) Thus, some detailed qualification about authors and their writings for understanding international theory is greatly needed. In his essay "Why Is There No International Theory?", Wight classified four kinds of writings where international theory could be found.

In the first category are authors whom Ernest Nys called the irenists, such as Erasmus, Sully, Campanella, Crucé, Penn, the Abbé de St Pierre and Pierre-André Gargaz. In the second category are those whom it is convenient to label the Machiavellians. This is the succession of writers on "raison d'état" of whom Meinecke is the great interpreter. In the third category are the parerga of political philosophers, philosophers and historians. Examples of this kind might be Hume, Rousseau, Bentham, Burke, Ranke and J. S. Mill. The fourth category comprises the speeches, despatches, memoirs and essays of statesmen and diplomatists. To illustrate speeches and despatches as a source of international theory, one might quote the authority of Canning. To demonstrate memoirs, Bismarck is, perhaps, the supreme example. To illustrate essays, Lord Salisbury is a good example. Wight had two conscious aims with regard to international theory.

The first was to reject the bifurcation of international theory into realism and idealism and refuse the "fashionable division of international theory into two schools: Realists and utopians (Carr), or realists and idealists (Morgenthau)." (Wight, 1991, p. 267) In this sense, Wight was the first theorist who demonstrated the inadequacy of the two Schools analysis while he did not favour any particular international theory. Roughly speaking, the "diseased" situation in Britain in the 1930s inspired E.H. Carr to write. Another "diseased" situation in the United States during convalescence from isolationism inspired Kennan and Morgenthau to write. Wight explained his attitude that "the two-school analysis may be a useful diagnosis for these diseased situations, but the more it is made the basis for a general international theory the more untrue it seems to become." (Ibid) In this sense, it is important to remember the political consequences of the early Cold War period in which Wight was writing. It could be argued that "[Wight's] attitude to two school's inadequacy powerfully reflects the normative commitments of the English School to a pragmatic, middle-ground ethic." (Cochran, 2009, s. 53)

His second aim was to try to bear out Alexis de Tocqueville's point that there is very little, if anything, new in political theory, that the great moral debates of the past are in essence our debates. He concluded that:

To read about the Wars of Religion, and the theories of the Huguenots, Calvinists, and Jesuits, is at once to be struck by the parallel with modern totalitarianism, especially Communism. It is therefore possible, as Tocqueville said, by studying the most illustrious writers who have engaged in moral and political studies throughout the centuries, to rediscover what are the principal ideas in these fields which have been in circulation among the human race – to reduce them to quite a small number of systems – and so to compare them with one another and to pass judgement on them. (Wight, 1991, p. 268)

Wight organised the wide range of material contained in the history of ideas about international theory into a much simpler and more intelligible notion. He created the concept of the three traditions of international theory calling them rationalists, realists and revolutionists.[7] The three traditions were based on the principal ideas of three illustrious thinkers, namely Niccolò Machiavelli, Hugo Grotius and Immanuel Kant, and, thus, they can also be known as Machiavellianism, Grotianism and Kantianism.[8] Bull wrote about Wight's attempt to classify the three traditions of international theory:

The impact of his lectures was produced not only by the grandeur of the design but also by the detailed historical embroidery, worked out with great subtlety, humanity and wit and with staggering erudition. In the hands of a lesser scholar the threefold categorization would have served to simplify and distort the complexity of international thought. But Wight himself was the first to warn against the danger of reifying the concepts he had suggested. He insisted that the Machiavellian, Grotian and Kantian traditions were merely paradigms[9], to which no actual thinker did more than approximate: not even Machiavelli, for example, was in the strict sense a Machiavellian. (Bull, 1984, p. 106)

Thus, Wight recognised that there is overlap and indistinctiveness between the three traditions and suggested various ways in which each of the three traditions could be further subdivided:

The Machiavellian tradition into its aggressive and its defensive form, the Grotian tradition into its realist and idealist form, the Kantian tradition into its evolutionary and its revolutionary forms, its imperialist and its cosmopolitanist forms, its historically backward-looking and its forward-looking or progressivist forms. (Ibid)

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[7] I shall not survey the detailed ideas of each tradition here. Instead, my focus will be on the brief intellectual development of Wight's concept of the three traditions and the fundamental principles that give each tradition its distinctive character.

[8] For detailed ideas on Wight's attitude to diplomacy within the concept of the three traditions, see Wight, "Theory of diplomacy: Foreign Policy" and "Theory of Diplomacy: Balance of Power" and "Theory of Diplomacy: Diplomacy" in Wight and Porter, eds, International Theory: The Three Traditions.

[9] As Steve Smith argues, "the proponents of each paradigm literally do not see the same world". Steve Smith "Paradigm Dominance in International Relations: The Development of International Relations as a Social Science" in Hugh C. Dyer and Leon Mangasarian, eds, *The Study of International Relations: The State of the Art* (London: Macmillan, 1989), p. 20.

As demonstrated above, from these subdivisions of the traditions, it could be argued that the Grotians and Machiavellians agree in being realists, in accepting the facts of the world of politics, although they differ in what they bring under the heading of fact. Moreover, the Grotians and the Kantians agree in being idealists, in pursuing ideals in the world of politics, although they differ in their estimate of the power of ideals and in their method of attaining them. It is important to note that a difference between these three traditions lies in the emphasis placed "on the importance of facts as against ideas, and of men as against ideals." (1991, p. 157) To take some examples to demonstrate these differences between them: Peter Alexandrovich Saburov, the defensive Machiavellian wrote that "ideas are only service [to men] as munitions. They load telegrams and speeches with them just as you load muskets and cannon with powder." (Simpson, 1929, p. 136) Benito Mussolini, an aggressive Machiavellian, said: "Political doctrines pass, people remain." (Binchy, 1941, p. 353) Joseph Stalin, a revolutionary Kantian echoed this: "Only the people are immortal. Everything else is transient. That is why we must be able to value the confidence of the people." (Plekhanov, 1940, p. 8) In contrary, Woodrow Wilson, an evolutionary Kantian concluded: "Men die but ideas live." (1991, p. 161) Similarly, Don Luigi Sturzo, an ideal Grotian said: "Victory belongs to the ideal, not to us, defeat falls on us, not on the ideal." (Binchy, 1941, p. 159)

If one wants to briefly discuss the intellectual development of these traditions, one should start with one of Wight's earliest lectures, "Elements of International Relations," given in 1951 at the London School of Economics. As Hall writes, the germ of this idea "lies latent within the Toynbeean division of the international history of the West into three periods: a society of states, international relations, and a universal state." Hall adds that towards the end of the lecture, Wight reflected upon the theory that might correspond to these phases: "to Rationalism – which does not depreciate the Ought in favour of the Is – and Realism, as well as to Political Missionaries to Fanatics." (Hall, 2006, p. 137) Among the first, he counted Hans Morgenthau and George Orwell, among the second, E.H. Carr and James Burnham, and the last encompassed Jesuits, Huguenots, Jacobins, Cobden and Marxists. References to rationalists, realists and revolutionists could be found in many of Wight's lectures given in the mid-to-late 1950s. In his International Institutions lectures, for instance, he was concerned to highlight the revolutionary alternatives to "the Conciliar Movement (he thought it the Czech Hussite Revolution), the Concert of Europe (the counterrevolutionary Holy Alliance), the League (the Communist International) and the UN (the World Peace Campaign, later, from within, the Bandung movement)." (Hall, 2006, p. 141) Similarly, in *Power Politics* he examined the realism that underlines the conduct of international relations as power politics. Wight examined

in greater detail "the essentially Christian" rationalist tradition in "Christianity and Power Politics". In 1956-1957, at the University of Chicago, where he acted at Morgenthau's invitation, he drew these insights into a systematic treatment of international theory.

It could be argued that the influence of Wight's approach still remains strong, as Michele Chiaruzzi remarks: "the schemes of thought that underlie Wight's international theory are discernible in the world of existence." (Chiaruzzi, 2010, p. 124) And, as E.B.F. Midgley notes it "seems to have treated these theories not as theories whose claims should be investigated to determine their truth or falsity but as cardinal elements which were severally present in international politics." (Midgley, 1979, p. 264)

It is important to note that Wight's approach to the study of the history of ideas can be expressed in a quotation by D'Entrèves: "Men have kept repeating the old slogans over and over again. The novelty is very often a question of accent." (1951, p. 11) In other words, Wight believed that history displayed no pattern of progress; that it showed instead only peripeteia. This antiprogressivism of ideas was manifest in his entire historical thought. As Wight put it:

> *Modern science ... proceeds by the elaboration, testing and discarding of hypothesis, Philosophy does no such thing – least of all Metaphysics. Thus, Newton's hypotheses have now been replaced by Einstein's, because the latter explain observed phenomena more satisfactorily, but there is no sense in which Kant has replaced Plato, or Bergson has replaced Anselm. Their relationship with one another is not a relationship of progress and suppression, but of facets of a single truth, soundings of a single ocean, portraits of a single sitter.* (p. 495)

It could be concluded that Wight gave for attaching special value to the history of ideas, "that there is very little, if anything, new in political theory, that the great moral debates of the past are in essence our debates." (1991, p. 268) The history of thought, then, provided a kind of vast bank of ideas, all of which were potentially equally relevant to what was now being represented as the perennial question about the nature of international society. As Butterfield and Wight put it in a programmatic statement about the English School's aims at the beginning of *Diplomatic Investigations: Essays in the Theory of International Politics*, they believed that "the continuities in international relations are more important than the innovations, that statecraft is an historical deposit of practical wisdom growing slowly, that the political, diplomatic, legal and military writers who might loosely be termed "classical" have not been superseded." (Wight, 1966, p. 12)

Given that Wight believed in the continuous and unchanging nature of international relations, there is one important qualification to this belief. If one precisely thinks about Wight's concept of three traditions, it is necessary to note that Wight, in a lecture "An Anatomy of

Political Thought," made a clear distinction between thinking of international theory in terms of "patterns of thought" and thinking in terms of "traditions of thought." (Wight, 1987, p. 226) In Wight's explanation, "patterns of thought" represented a "philosophical standpoint" and tended to emphasize "the logical coherence of the complex of thought" and the way "how acceptance of any one unit-idea is likely to entail logically most of the others." (Ibid) "Traditions of thought," on the other hand, were considered "historically," as "embodied in and handed down by writers and statesmen," and Wight suggested that a focus on them would tend to shed more light on" illogicalities and discontinuities because exigencies of political life often override logic." (Ibid) Additionally, Bull concluded that "each pattern or tradition of thought embodied a description of the nature of international politics and also a set of prescriptions as to how men should conduct themselves on it." (Bull, 1991, p. 103)

Roughly speaking, the fundamental difference between the three traditions is that each one represents an idea of what international society is. The realists are those who emphasise in international relations the elements of anarchy, of power politics and of warfare. "For this line of thought, the question: What is international society? Admits of only one answer: Nothing! – until there is a world state." (Wight, 1987, p. 104) Realists include Machiavelli, Richelieu, Hobbes, Hume, Frederick II and Hegel, Clémenceau and the twentieth century Realists such as Carr and Morgenthau. The revolutionists are those who believe in the moral unity of the society of states, or international society; they identify themselves with it, and therefore they both claim to speak in the name of this unity, and experience an overriding obligation to give effect to it, as the first aim of their international policies. They do not believe in international society, however, they think that it must be brought into being. Their representatives range from sixteenth- and seventeenth-century Calvinists and Jesuits to eighteenth-century Jacobins, Kant, Lenin, and the twentieth-century totalitarians. The rationalists are those who concentrate on, and believe in the value of, the element of international intercourse in a condition predominantly of international anarchy. They believe the existing diplomatic system is an international society. Representatives of this tradition are Grotius, Burke, Mill, Locke, Burke, Cobden, Tocqueville, Castlereagh, Tocqueville, F. Roosevelt, Churchill and Lincoln.

Bull in his lecture *Martin Wight and the Theory of International Relations: The Second Martin Wight Memorial*, added that:

> *[Wight] was always experimenting with new ways of formulating and describing the three traditions and in some versions of his lectures he suggested a fourth category of what he called Inverted Revolutionists, the*
> *pacifist stream of thought represented by the early Christians and by Tolstoy and Gandhi. He was aware that particular international thinkers in many cases straddle*

his categories: thus he explored, for example, the tension in Bismarck´s thought between a Machiavellian perspective and a Grotian one, the tension in Woodrow Wilson between a Grotian perspective and a Kantian one, and the tension in Stalin between a Kantian perspective and a Machiavellian one. (Bull, 1991, p. 106)

Similarly, in the sense of the three traditions, Robert Jackson noted that:

[Wight's] categories are discernible in the ideas and thought of the existential world, they have a life of their own outside the academy; they have a basis in historical fact. His typology is not an a priori social science frame- work or model that is imposed upon the subject by the researcher and that generates its own "data." His typology is an arrangement and re-enactment of "evidence" left behind by the decisions and actions of historical agents. Wight is seeking to interpret the evidence. His evidence is the thought and ideas of others—not his own. He is a historian of international ideas and arguably one of the best. Like any good historian of ideas, Wight is immersed in the thought of others. (Jackson, 2005, p. 68)

Conclusion

If one wishes to present a precise discussion of Wight's attitude towards international relations, it is necessary to be aware of important aspects that influenced and shaped his intellectual thought. It is important to note that history had an irreplaceable position in Wight's approach, as Hall notes, "Wight began and ended his academic career as an historian." (Hall, 2006, p. 33) Wight himself contended that what he wanted the most in his work in academia was to "continue to inhabit the Ernest Barker (Barker, 1961) borderland where classical studies and history and political theory meet." (Wight, 1960) Similarly, Hedley Bull of the English School wrote, in the introduction to Wight's book *Systems of States*, (Wight 1977) that Wight "saw history as prophetic drama, philosophy teaching by examples." (Bull, 1977, p. 3) As Wight put it:

I do tend to think of the big historians rather as one thinks of artists or musicians, each with his own perfection, each bringing his own outfit of moral purpose or imagination and technical virtuosity to the business of interpreting the past. (Wight, 1950)

An examination of the history of ideas allowed Wight to create a certain theoretical framework in which international relations could be understood, however, "he was never truly

reconciled to the discipline of International Relations." (Hall, 2006, p. 33) Wight noted that "the teaching of International Relations ... convinced me that the only subjects which ought to be taught were philosophy, literature and history." (Wight, 1961) In a sense, Wight tried to open the way to a construction of international theory as a historical interpretation. His thought as a historian was "unorthodox." (Hall, 2006, p. 43) In other words, he was highly critical of the "modernist mode of historiography" (Hall, 2006, p. 43) that prevailed in the understanding of history during his lifetime and which, as Michael Bentley put it, "implied the availability of truth, the undesirability of metaphysic and all forms of blurredness, the necessity for a rationalism of an Enlightenment kind." (Bentley, 1998, p. 138) In Wight's mind, the assumptions of this kind of historical writing were "closely similar, a kind of cultural parallel, to [the] analytical movement in philosophy" – and just as flawed. (Wight, 1968) Wight critically refused this "attempt to establish a neutral technical history valid irrespective of the individual historian, to write history without any philosophy of history, to separate facts from philosophical interpretations" (Hall, 2006, p. 43) and "denied that it could be done." (Hall, 2006, p. 43)

It would be overstating the case to argue that Wight thought that the only way to study international relations was through the history of ideas, or that the history of ideas was itself sufficient for understanding the nature of international relations. Wight himself suggested that "the quality of international politics, the preoccupations of diplomacy, are embodied and communicated less in works of political or international theory than in historical writings." Similarly, he underlined that to understand statecraft, for instance, one can turn to historical papers, by, for example, Leopold von Ranke or Albert Sorel.[10] On the other hand, the study of the history of ideas about international relations was integral to Wight's approach because he believed that the best place to locate the values of international society was "not so much in the record of its practice, nor even in the simple doctrines which, like those of international law, are mainly a codification of practice, as in the history of its ideas." (Wight, 1996, p. 90) For Wight, the most obvious point about international theory was its talk of a canon of individual classical texts. Thus, it could be argued that Wight believed that the examination of the history of ideas played an irreplaceable role in this enquiry. Similarly, it could be concluded that Wight

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[10] Wight simplified this statement by putting it into the following equation:
Politics: International Politics = Political Theory: Historical Interpretation.
In other words, Wight stressed the importance of historical literature for understanding international relations. It is clear, that historical papers provide a common explanation of international phenomena. See Wight "Why is there no International Theory?" in Wight and Butterfield, eds, *Diplomatic Investigations. Essays in the Theory of International Politics*.

exercised a profound influence on the ways in which international relations theorists think about the history of ideas. It is important to point out that Wight's activities in academia should be understood in terms of his overriding intention to stimulate a debate on international theory based on the history of ideas, which played an important role within it. There is no doubt that Wight succeeded at this endeavour and his few books and many essays deserve a place in the home library of every scholar.

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INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN SELECTED AGRICULTURAL COMMODITIES AND ITS SECURITY DIMENSION

Milan VOŠTA

Abstract:

This study evaluates the involvement of two selected agricultural commodities; rice and coffee in international trade. Included in the study is the security dimension which both these crops represent for their producer countries. By „security dimension' we mean the producer countries' dependence on the crops' exports, as well as their nutritional function and role in the employment of the population. The aim of the text is to analyze the involvement of rice and coffee in international trade as well as to evaluate the territorial structure of the trade in these commodities in addition to the position of the largest exporters and importers. At the same time the study highlights the importance of the security dimension that both commodities play in their respective producing countries. The methodological framework of the study presented here is based on the analysis of the spatial distribution of the production capacities and territorial analysis of exports and imports within the framework of the world agricultural market. The synthesis of the findings shows the importance of both crops, the complexity of their sectors but also the differences in relation to the economic security of the producing countries.

Keywords: International trade, agriculture, commodity, export, rice, coffee, security, economic security, food safety

Introduction

In common with all areas of international trade, trade in agricultural commodities is currently exposed to a number of external and internal factors, and the involvement of individual countries in international trade is an important element, and integral part, of their economic security. The aim of economic security in the international environment is to prevent: i] instability on the world markets; ii] disruption of security of commodity supply and; iii] abuse of the producer countries' interdependence for political purposes (Eichler, 2006). The identification of various factors makes it possible to determine significant changes in the market. Trade ties are influenced by, for example, input and energy prices, climate externalities, demographic and consumer behavior, as well as political and environmental factors, and so on.

The share of agricultural products as a part of total world exports of goods is still declining and currently reaches only 1.5% of world exports. Over the past sixty years, this share has fallen by almost ten percentage points. Nevertheless, the agricultural sector is of key economic importance to many countries and regions. Agriculture employs an ever-increasing number of workers. In addition to creating job opportunities in the primary production process itself, it generates employment in the processing segments of the economy as well as in the areas of many other types business activities. The present study, which focuses on two selected agricultural commodities (rice and coffee), shows the differences in the distribution of production of these two commodities, as well as their involvement in international trade. Production of the aforementioned two commodities is not only of great economic and social importance; it can also be a political tool as well as fulfilling an environmental function, while also having a significant security impact. The aims of this study are to analyze the involvement of rice and coffee in international trade as well as to evaluate the territorial structure of the trade in these commodities and the positions held by the largest exporters and importers. At the same time, the study aims to point out the importance of the security dimension that both commodities play in their producing countries.

Features of the location and functions of agricultural commodities and food safety

At present, agricultural products account for less and less of world exports of goods. In 2018, exports of agricultural commodities reached about 1.5% of the value of world exports. For comparison, in 1965 agriculture accounted for almost 10 percent of world exports (World Bank, 2020). From the point of view of the involvement of countries in the trade in agricultural commodities, the distribution of agricultural production in an area that has specific and differing social and natural preconditions is still crucial. This results in considerable regional differentiation as well as differences in quality, volume and degree of involvement of the particular countries in international trade. Natural conditions define areas suitable for growing crops or for animal production. However, utilisation of these conditions is decided by socio-economic facts. Consumer areas decide on the distribution of production as well as the direction of the agricultural commodities' trade flow in a broader spatial context. Examples of the creation of global supply areas include coffee, rice, corn, soybeans, natural rubber as well as other commodities. Developed economies are characterized by the supply character of agricultural production, while in developing countries it is very often a demand sector.

For many developing countries, agriculture is still of key economic importance and the efficient distribution of agricultural production is an important economic operation, as well as a problem. Agriculture employs a decisive number of economically active inhabitants, with a share of 31% in the world at present. In addition to the creation of job opportunities in the primary production process itself, it is necessary to mention other areas of employment which exist in the processing segments and allied business activities. In developing countries, employment in the agricultural sector remains high and often well above 50% (examples show agricultural employment in selected countries relevant to the export commodities analysed in this study: India 47%, China 28%, Bangladesh 43%, Thailand 32%, Vietnam 40 %); (CIA World Factbook, 2019).

The currently selected commodities are characterized by specific features of production distribution and involvement in international trade. Rice plays an important role in the nutrition of individual countries; both commodities are of great economic importance and we can also mention the problematic elements of their production, including their environmental impact. Both crops thus play an important role in the economic security of their producer countries and were chosen because of their completely different role in the field of food self-sufficiency. Food self-sufficiency can be explained as the country's ability to meet the nutritional needs of the population through its own production; the opposite of food self-sufficiency is free trade, i.e., where countries specialize in producing those crops for which they have comparative advantages (Hunt, Lautzenheiser, 2011). Self sufficiency in food production is closely linked to food security, which represents people's fearless approach to securing their means of nutrition. The Committee on World Food Security defines food security as the physical and economic access to adequate nutrition for all members of the given household without unnecessary loss (Thomson, Metz, 1998).

Production and involvement in international trade
Rice is an important food crop that also makes a significant contribution to increasing food security in many developing countries. It is characterized by widespread use not only in the food sector, but also in the cosmetic, pharmaceutical and other industries, as well as in animal husbandry. This enables rice to continue to hold its position as a significant global trade item in the agricultural commodity export and import sectors. Many developing countries specialize in rice production. The export of this commodity affects the trade balance of these countries; its production in turn helps form the producer countries' labor markets, thus contributing to the

creation of the value of the gross domestic product. It can be stated that in addition to its food function, rice also plays an important economic role.

One billion people depend on rice cultivation and processing for their livelihood. As four-fifths of producers are small farmers who grow small volumes for their own consumption, it is desirable to support domestic production so as not to increase unemployment, which would be reflected in the other economic and social indicators of these countries. The economies of these countries are thus saturated with the necessary resources, which contribute to the elimination of a number of risks. The rice-growing sector creates jobs, creates an export commodity and makes a significant contribution to meeting the nutritional needs of the population. Economic security, which is also dependent on the country's foreign trade, is thus strengthened and contributes to increasing the producer countries' overall security.

Traditionally, Asian countries have the largest share of world rice production. In 2017, almost 770 million metric tons of paddy rice were produced worldwide. In 2017, with a production volume of over 210 million tons, China was the largest producer of paddy rice in the world, followed by India and Indonesia. The Asian monsoon region maintains a dominant position in the harvest of rice (90% of the harvest). The largest producer regions are the China-Japan Region (almost 40% of the world's rice production), South Asia (30%), South-East Asia (25%) and, to a lesser extent, Africa (4.8%) and the US region (4.6%), where rice is grown mainly in Brazil and the USA. The USA, as a producer country exerts a growing influence on the situation on world markets thanks to the modern cultivation methods it employs in the lowlands of the Gulf of Mexico. The largest producers in Africa are Egypt, Nigeria, Kenya and Madagascar (FAO, 2019).

rank	country	production in t	production in %
1.	China	212 676 000	27,6
2.	India	168 500 000	21,9
3.	Indonesia	81 382 000	10,6
4.	Bangladesh	48 980 000	6,4
5.	Vietnam	42 764 682	5,5
6.	Thailand	33 383 383	4,3
7.	Myanmar	25 625 866	3,3
8.	Philippines	19 276 347	2,5
9.	Brazil	12 470 516	1,6
10.	Pakistan	11 175 700	1,5

Table 1 Production of paddy rice in 2017 (in tonnes, %)

As the leading country, China exceeds 27% of world production, followed by India with a 22% share of world production and in third place is Indonesia with 10.6%. Outside of Asia, only Brazil ranks 9th among the largest producers. Rice plays a vital role in the food chains of the largest producer countries. China, India and Indonesia, as the three largest rice producers, are also the largest consumers. Rice cultivation in individual countries is influenced by the distributional factors of this sector, which are physio-geographical and socio-economic conditions. From natural assumptions, the basic factors are temperature, precipitation and hydrological conditions. However, socio-economic factors such as crop areas, profitability of agricultural land, use of agricultural land in combination with increasing mechanization and technological innovations are becoming increasingly important. Production and subsequent consumption can also be significantly affected by countries' economic policy instruments. E.g. the Government of India has adopted a national law on food security for the domestic and international rice market, and as a result of this subsidy program, a significant increase in rice consumption is expected (Debnath, Babu, Ghosh, Helmar, 2018).

Rice is one of the ten most traded food and agricultural commodities, but it does not reach the volume of major corn and wheat cereals and has never fluctuated significantly in terms of dynamics. The international rice market is also relatively narrow in terms of unequal state involvement and benefits from various protectionist measures. States seek to protect their internal markets from external influences. Covering domestic demand is essential for many countries in order to maintain food security. National stabilization policies are contributing to international rice price volatility.

India exported 12.3 million tonnes of rice, making it the largest exporter of rice, accounting for about a third of world exports. The next largest exporters were Thailand with 10.3 million tonnes (22.7%) and Vietnam, which generated about 8.5% of world rice exports (EOC, 2020). Thailand, which has long held a leading position, was replaced by India. In 2012, Thai rice exports fell by more than 30% due to controversial measures by the Thai government, which increased purchase prices, and has led to a reduction in Thailand's competitiveness on world markets (DW, 2020). Other world exporters include Pakistan, the USA, China, Cambodia, Brazil and Uruguay. In 2018, China imported 5.9 million tons of rice (12.4% of world imports) and replaced Nigeria as the leading exporter. Significant changes in China's market behavior

have been observed in recent years. Its volumes of imported rice have increased and the value of rice produced may be intentionally overestimated. The fact is that there is a decline in the area of land suitable for cultivation, especially in the southern regions of China, which is due to the progressive industrialization and urbanization process. China focuses closely on imports from nearby countries such as Thailand, Cambodia and Vietnam. Reasons related to the contamination of up to 10% of Chinese rice production, making the cereal unfit for consumption, are also given (Ewing, Hongzhou, 2013). Nigeria is the second largest exporter with 2.9 million tons with Bangladesh and the Philippines; with imports of 1.8 and 1.4 million tons, respectively; next in rank. The other large importers of rice are Ivory Coast, Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Senegal. EU countries imported a total of 2 million tonnes, representing 4.2% of world rice imports (FAO 2018).

exporter	export volume	importer	import volume
India	12,5	China	5,9
Thailand	10,3	Nigeria	2,9
Vietnam	7,0	Bangladesh	1,8
Pakistan	4,3	Côte d′Ivoire	1,5
USA	3,2	Philippines	1,4
Myanmar	3,0	Iran	1,3
China	1,9	Saudi Arabia	1,2
Cambodia	1,3	Senegal	1,2
Brazil	0,9	Iraq	1,1
Uruguay	0,8	Malaysia	1,0
World	47,6	World	47,6

Table 2 Rice exporters and importers in 2018 (in million tonnes)

Source: FAO 2018.

The international trade in rice came to 201.6 million tonnes in 2018. There was a year-on-year decrease of 1 percentage point, but in 2017 a record volume of trade in this commodity was recorded (FAO 2018).

The global rice trade is expected to grow by an average of 1.73% per year over this decade, reaching 55.8 million tonnes by 2029, compared to an average of 46.2 million tonnes in the period 2016-18. Significant investments in the production and processing capacities in the Mekong Delta in Vietnam, Cambodia and Myanmar are well reflected in the growing export role of these countries. These are low-cost producers and geographically well positioned in relation to supplying China. Thailand's traditional export has recently been facing climatic problems, but it is expected to restart and maintain a strong export position, especially given

the good infrastructure and focus on developing branded high-quality rice. India is expected to remain the main exporter of rice over the same period due to its stable production growth. Continued investment in the Vietnamese rice sector aimed at improving the quality and sustainability of the country's rice production and increasing resilience in the face of climate fluctuations is likely to keep Vietnam among the reliable exporters. The presence of Chinese investment in Myanmar and Cambodia is helping both countries on the path towards becoming global suppliers of rice (AGREP, 2020, p. 11).

The largest importers of rice in this decade are expected to be China, Nigeria and the Philippines. Although China's imports have fallen significantly recently as the country has held auctions to dispose of some of its old stocks, it will remain the largest importer. In February 2019, the World Trade Organization ruled in favor of a 2016 US complaint that China consistently exceeded the limits of WTO agricultural subsidies. This decision could have significant consequences for the Chinese and global rice market in the coming years, including for Chinese imports. China has opened a market for milled rice to India, Japan and, more recently, the United States. The expansion of global imports is generally associated with a combination of relatively rapid population growth and lagging production in relation to consumption. An example is Nigeria with a 5% annual increase in imports, driven by a 2.8% increase in consumption, which exceeds a 1.8% increase in production. Other countries in West Africa and the Middle East are also showing strong expansion in import demand (AGREP, 2020, p. 12).

Another important and widely traded agricultural commodity plays that plays a completely different role in the food security of countries is coffee. It is grown in highly specialized areas and is one of the crops that has disrupted the proportionality of agricultural production in most countries, worsened the food balance and made their economies dependent on foreign markets. For many developing countries, it is an important commodity which has entered the agricultural market. A huge population is dependent on coffee production. It is grown in more than 70 countries and is said to be a source of livelihood for up to 25 million households. Over 20% of production is generated by some of the poorest countries in the world, where a large part of the population depends on the cultivation of this commodity. Although domestic coffee consumption is growing, more than 70% of world production is exported. Some countries are heavily dependent on exports and these are often low-income countries. Of the low-income countries, coffee exports account for a high share of total exports in the following: Burundi

(33.7%), Ethiopia (23.9%), Uganda (16%), Rwanda (10%). In Latin America, Honduras (23.3%) and Nicaragua (17.4%) are the most dependent on coffee exports; (ICO 2020, p. 46). In underdeveloped countries the small farmers, especially, are exposed to high agricultural and market risks. For many countries, growing coffee is one of the engines of economic and social development, and in light of this fact, overcoming all obstacles and being able to take advantage of growing global demand is essential. The economic security of countries, which is related to social security in connection with the creation of sufficient jobs, is exposed to a number of potential shocks, especially in those countries which are heavily dependent on coffee production. These include pandemics and health crises, climate change, political instability and conflict, and the concentration of inappropriate conditions. Disruption of production can have a negative effect on the entire value chain. This can significantly affect coffee exports, thereby affecting foreign exchange gains and job creation throughout the coffee production sector. This sector encompasses a wide range of industries, including coffee processing (ICO 2020, p. 41). The coffee production sphere is crucial for the employment of the population in many developing countries, thanks to its very extensive cultivation and processing chain, which contains specific links in the process. The outbreak of Covid-19 showed the sector's vulnerability in two ways, which affected supply in the short term; there was a reduction in labor supply as well as disruptions and delays in supply chains. Many coffee-producing countries have below-average levels of health infrastructure and are thus struggling to respond adequately to the health crisis.

Coffee is a plantation crop and its production is concentrated in the sub-equatorial and equatorial climate zones. The coffee harvest is strongly dependent on climatic conditions and varies regionally during the year. For instance, in the most important growing area - Latin America; it is harvested in most countries in April; in July the harvest takes place in the Caribbean, Congo, Zambia, Tanzania and the Philippines. October is the month of harvest in the Gulf of Guinea, Central America, but also in India, Thailand, Vietnam, Venezuela and Colombia. Regionally, coffee production is divided among three main regions: the most important are: the Americas (55% of production), followed by Asia (32%) and Africa (12%). The world's largest coffee producer is Brazil. In 2018, it produced 61,444 thousand 60 kg bags of coffee (bales), which represented 36.4% of world production. Vietnam is in second place with a share of world production of 18.4%, with Colombia in third position (8.2%). The other large producers are: Indonesia, Ethiopia, Honduras, India, Uganda, Mexico and Peru (ICO 2020a). During the past monitored year [**2020**], coffee production reached a year-on-year

growth of 6.3% and, after fluctuating in 2019, again exceeded the amount grown in 2018. Although a number of African countries recorded year-on-year declines in production (Africa as a whole: -0.9%), world production saw an increase in production of 18.5% in Brazil, the largest coffee growing country (ICO, 2021).

rank	country	production in 60 kg bags	production in %	variations 2017/18
1.	Brazil	61 444	36,4	11,1
2.	Vietnam	31 174	18,4	11,8
3.	Colombia	13 866	8,2	0,3
4.	Indonesia	9 813	5,8	-6,5
5.	Ethiopia	7 457	4,4	0,0
6.	Honduras	7 328	4,3	-3,1
7.	India	5 325	3,2	-8,4
8.	Uganda	4 704	2,8	2,3
9.	Mexico	4 351	2,6	-3,0
10.	Peru	4 135	2,4	-2,8
	World	169001	100	5,4

Table 3 Coffee production in 2018 (in thousands of bales%)

Source: ICO 2020b.

Coffee is an important trade commodity and for many developing countries it is the main focus of their exports, but it is not one of the most important commodities in global trade. The traditional dichotomy of producing and importing coffee-consuming countries is increasingly coming under question. In the past two decades, domestic consumption in producer countries has grown faster than consumption in import markets. As a result, the share of exports in world production has decreased from 76% to 72% (ICO 2019, p. 20).

The largest exporter of coffee is Brazil with a third of the share of world exports (28.8%), ahead of Vietnam and Colombia. Other exporters are Honduras, Indonesia, India, Uganda, Peru, Ethiopia and Guatemala. Venezuela is also a traditional exporter of coffee, but between 2019 and 2020 it recorded the largest year-on-year drop in exports [by 12%] in the world (ICO, 2021). The main geographical feature of the foreign coffee trade is the still predominant direction of supply from developing countries to developed countries. In comparison with rice; analyzed above; a larger part of coffee production is exported to individual countries and a smaller part of it is consumed in its growing countries.

exporter	export volume	importer	import volume
Brazil	35 383	EU	83 869
Vietnam	27 866	USA	28 918
Colombia	12 808	Japan	7 540
Honduras	7 144	Russia	5 288
India	5 967	Switzerland	3 086
World	122 739	World	129 977

Table 4 Exporters and importers of coffee in 2018 (in thousands of bales)

Source: FAO 2020.

Consumption, and logically also, the import of coffee is concentrated in the developed world. The region of Europe and North America consumes more than 50% of total coffee production. The largest importers are the European Union, the USA and Japan. The largest share of coffee imports to the EU go to Germany, Italy, and France. Other large importers are Belgium, Spain, Great Britain, Russia and Switzerland. The United States, Germany, Italy and France are at the forefront, not least because they are global players in world trade. Moreover, in the case of Germany, for example, re-exports account for half of the volume of imports and coffee is further exported on to other European countries.

CONCLUSION

Despite a gradual decline, agricultural commodities remain an important item in global world international trade. At the same time, the production of agricultural crops is of great importance in terms of economic security and the related food and social security of countries. In the economies of individual states, it helps to create direct, indirect and induced effects. The agricultural sector is a key sector, especially for less developed countries with a high dependence on agriculture, where it functions as an employer and often plays a decisive role in the country's exports as well as fulfilling the basic means of nutrition of the population. The analysis which was carried out has confirmed the high tradability of both examined commodities. This is documented by their involvement in the international division of labor in the global projection. Research has shown other country-specific consequences, especially in the area of economic security. The great specialization of countries in growing specific crops is exposed to a number of shocks that can undermine these countries' economic security in many ways.

The two commodities dealt with in this study differ both in the distribution of production and the territorial structure of exports, as well as in their economic significance for producer countries. From the point of view of international trade, the relationship between production and exports is typical for rice. Most of the production is consumed on domestic markets. Only a small share of production enters the international trade arena and about a tenth of world consumption is not traded. The largest rice-growing countries are also the most populous countries in the world, in addition to being the largest consumers. On top of its food role, rice also plays an important economic function. It not only affects the trade balance of countries, but also shapes producer countries' labor markets and generates the added value of their gross domestic product. Socio-economic factors are increasingly important in the territorial structure of production, such as the reduction of the areas under the rice crop (in southern China it is caused by industrialization and urbanization) or the profitability of agricultural land, and so on. In terms of economic security, rice cultivation and the whole chain connecting production, processing and distribution is essential for many countries, the developing ones in particular.

Coffee is another important commodity that contributes to the economic security of growing countries. However, its main importance lies not in its nutritional function, but the key effect which is reflected in the exports of countries. Unlike rice, a larger part of coffee production (over 70%) is exported and a smaller share is consumed in the growing countries. Although domestic coffee consumption has been growing recently. The main export flow of coffee goes from developing countries to developed countries. Specifically, the main coffee producers are also the largest exporters, and it can be stated that coffee production in highly specialized areas has disrupted the proportionality of agricultural production in many countries, worsened the food balance and increased the import dependence of these areas on world markets. It has also exposed them to the risks associated with a possible decline in demand on world markets. For many developing countries, coffee growing is the engine of economic, as well as social, development. This, plus the fact that the agricultural sector, especially in the least developed countries, is exposed to high market risks. Fluctuations in production can have a negative effect on the entire value chain and can significantly affect exports and thus disrupt the entire sector from cultivation, processing and so on to all specific links in the entire process chain. It follows from the abovementioned facts that the economic security of the state is determined by a number of factors of an economic, political, environmental, as well as other, nature. Some have a positive effect; others, or their combinations, threaten the economic security of producer countries. Using the example of the two selected agricultural commodities of rice and coffee,

we have demonstrated the important role of both crops, the complexity of their sectors but also the differences in relation to the economic security of their producer countries.

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SELECTED ACTIVITIES OF THE SLOVAK OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN THE CURRENT STATE OF EMERGENCY – TOKYO 2020

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Abstract

This article considers the topical subject of the preparation of Slovak sports representatives for the Olympic Games in Tokyo. It presents the reasons that the Olympic Games were delayed until 2021 and the consequences of this postponement for the sports representatives of the Slovak Republic and the whole sports movement. The article also deals with the coordination, sporting and financial measures required to ensure the high-quality training of sportspeople, after the timing of their peak of performance has been delayed until 2021.

Keywords: *recognized sports, elite sport, sports representatives, sports federation, sporting infrastructure, Olympic Games, Paralympic Games, International Olympic Committee.*

Sport is an essential part of human life and its significant position in the Slovak society is demonstrated by Act No 440/2015 Coll. on sports and on amendments and supplements to certain laws. The Sports Act defines the social aspects and thus the public interest in sport which is "the promotion and development of sport among youths, to ensure that the sporting representatives of the Slovak Republic are prepared and may participate in major sporting competitions, the protection of the integrity of sport and the promotion of a healthy lifestyle for the population." (Act, 2015)

Elite sport, which means the continuous training of a sportsperson to achieve top results in sporting competitions and their participation in international competitions or at the highest level of competition, has an important place in the structure of sport in the Slovak Republic. Elite sport is a significant source of sporting representatives who, as sportspeople, are nominated as members to represent their sports by the national sporting federations or other sporting organisations. The social importance of our sporting representatives is also expressed by the legislation in the Sports Act, where the preparation by a sporting representative following a training plan approved by a national sports federation and the participation of a sporting representative in a major competition shall be considered a special act in the public interest for which leave from work will be granted for the required length of time.

Under the Sports Act, the most significant sporting competition that a sporting representative can participation in is the Olympic Games and other competitions organised by the International Olympic Committee or the National Olympic Committees of other countries.

The national sports organisation of the Slovak Republic that manages and organises sporting representation in the Olympic Games and other competitions organised by the International Olympic Committee, European Olympic Committees or the Association of National Olympic Committees is the Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee.

The Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee promotes the development of sport and manages, develops and protects the Olympic movement and ensures compliance with the Olympic Charter. Moreover, it represents the Slovak Republic at the Olympic Games and other competitions organised by the International Olympic Committee or the National Olympic Committees of other countries.

In line with the four-year cycle for the organisation of the Summer Olympic Games, the Olympic Games in Tokyo were planned for 2020. After the Japanese organiser, in cooperation with the International Olympic Committee, had spent several years responsibly preparing for the games, an emergency situation arose. Although the Japanese organiser had completed all the preparations needed to hold a successful Olympic Games in Japan in terms of sports infrastructure, technical infrastructure, transportation logistics, accommodation for sportspeople, etc., the Japanese organisers and the International Olympic Committee mutually agreed that the Olympic Games should be delayed from 2020 to 2021. On 24th March 2020, the International Olympic Committee officially decided to postpone the Olympic Games in Tokyo until 2021.

The Olympic Games were postponed as a consequence of the prognosis announced by the World Health Organisation (WHO) concerning the extremely wide spread of the viral disease (Covid-19) which became a pandemic. We believe that the decision to postpone the games by a year to 2021, a joint decision made by Japanese organiser and the International Olympic Committee, was the correct course of action. It is the first postponement of the Olympic Games in its history. Yet, Tokyo has lost the Olympic Games before – in 1940 – due to the Second World War. The Olympic Games of 1916 and 1944 were also cancelled due to World Wars.

The goal of international and national sporting organisations is, first and foremost, to promote a healthy lifestyle in all the people of the world. National states are represented by sporting

representatives, i.e. young people who take part in the Olympic Games. The Olympic Games are considered to be the highest level of global celebration of sports for the young people of the world, a celebration of friendship, understanding between nations and national states, as well as celebration of the support of a healthy lifestyle for all the people of the whole world.

The sporting activities that sportspeople might carry out while we have the ongoing threat of the spread of the virus during sporting competitions could cause diseases that may threaten the life and health of sportspeople. This would not only devalue the results but also the many years of personal effort put in by sportspeople to prepare to be able to represent their country and would also contradict the principle of healthy competition with a level playing field for all competitors.

Once the Japanese organisers, in cooperation with the International Olympic Committee, made the decision to postpone the Olympic Games in Tokyo, the Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee issued an opinion on 24th March 2020, in which it agreed with and appreciated the decision to postpone the Olympic Games.

The Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee confirmed that, in their opinion, it was necessary to protect the health of the participants in the Olympic Games and stated that the postponement would allow the sportspeople to fully prepare for the Olympic Games in a more relaxed atmosphere without endangering their health. The Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee also stated that the decision to postpone the Olympic Games "undoubtedly took into account the current WHO opinion which described the development of a pandemic of the spread of SARS-Cov-2 coronavirus and Covid-19 as accelerating." (SOŠR, 2020)

This opinion also draws attention to issues that need to be resolved by the start of the Olympic Games next year. Mainly, these are the numerous negotiations taking place at the level of the National Olympic Committees and all the International Federations representing the Summer Olympic sports. It also highlights the importance for a comprehensive adjustment of the qualification criteria as well as a re-evaluation of the entire qualification process for sportspeople in general. It is necessary to adjust the sporting calendar for the following year and consider the option that the Olympic competitions might be also considered as the World Championship in some sports.

It will not be easy to for sportspeople to postpone their peak sporting performance by a year, especially for older sportspeople who planned to end their sporting careers at the end of the

Olympic Games 2020. This is not a simple situation for any of the world's sporting representatives.

As was stated in the opinion of the Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee, "The fact that the Japanese organisers and the International Olympic Committee have agreed that the Olympic and Paralympic Games would continue to be called Tokyo 2020 next year will remind the world, even many years in the future, that in 2020, humanity faced a huge threat and challenge, but it managed it." (SOŠR, 2020)

More than 11,000 sportspeople from 206 countries should have participated in the 50 disciplines of the Tokyo summer sports program. The International Olympic Committee has approved baseball/softball, karate, skateboarding, competitive climbing and surfing as exhibition sports for the Olympics in Tokyo.

To ensure high-quality representation by sportspeople at the Tokyo Olympics, postponed to 2021, it will be necessary to adopt a number of important measures. These measures primarily include those that concern the coordination of procedures required at sporting events at home and abroad, as well as measures related to the training programs of sporting representatives so that they peak at Tokyo next summer. Also, financial measures need to be considered, as the representative sportspeople need a high-quality sporting infrastructure; however, in during the current recession in the Slovak economy, the Sports Promotion Fund might not be able to provide sufficient funds in the near future to build this infrastructure; the use of the so-called super-deduction and sports vouchers does not seem to be a viable option at the moment. Eligible sporting entities mostly do not have the finances to take make a 30-33% contribution and obtaining loans is virtually impossible.

The current situation related to the postponement of the Olympic Games will make high demands on sports management at all levels of the sporting hierarchy. Therefore, the Slovak Olympic and Sports Committee have already started to make efforts that are intended to ensure the representatives at the Tokyo Olympic games receive high-quality training so that their participation in the games meets the expectations of both the professional sports community and the general public.

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Act No 440/2015 Coll. on Sport and on amendments and supplements to certain laws.

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