



FORUM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, POLITOLOGY, AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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 - GERMAN EXTRADITION LAW AND CURRENT POLITICAL ISSUES

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zameraný na cudzie jazyky,
politológiu a medzinárodné vzťahy**

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E-mailová adresa redakcie:

michal.jankovic@vsdanubius.sk

**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 sekcií lingvistiky môžu svoje publikácie písať v anglickom i v inom svetovom jazyku a prispievatelia v sekcií politológia a medzinárodné vzťahy v anglickom jazyku.

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

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michal.jankovic@vsdanubius.sk

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

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

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Editoriál

Vážení čitatelia,

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

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

Prvá sekcia - **lingvistika** - bude tak ako aj doposiaľ venovaná potrebám a výsledkom výskumu v oblasti jazykovedy, didaktiky, svetovej literatúry a jazykového vzdelávania. Naším 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. Natália Kováčová, PhD.
šéfredaktorka časopisu

Editorial

Dear readers,

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

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

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

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

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

Assoc. Prof. PhDr. Natália Kováčová, PhD.
Editor in chief

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I. LINGUISTIC SECTION

TEXT IM KOMMUNIKATIV-ERFAHRUNGSORIENTIERTEN UNTERRICHT

ALICA HARAJOVÁ - VIERA LAGEROVÁ

Abstract

Im Bemühen, den Lernenden eine qualitativ hochwertige und den Grundsätzen entsprechende Sprachausbildung anzubieten, suchen für den kommunikativen Unterricht qualifizierter Arbeiter nach Verfahren und Mitteln, die dies ermöglichen führen Qualität des Lehrprozesses verbessern. Eine mögliche Lösung für dieses Problem ist die Bereicherung und Ergänzung der grundlegenden Lehrmaterialien (Lehrbuch, Arbeitsbuch, Wörterbücher, Zeitschriften für den Unterricht), mit denen der Lehrer im Unterricht arbeitet, für authentisches Material, das zusätzlich zu Motivation bietet den Studenten auch eine Aussicht auf die Gesellschaft und ihre Kultur. Das ist natürlich, dass echte Kommunikation, die auf der Lösung wirklicher Aufgaben basiert, kann vor allem durch authentisches Material abgeleitet werden. Wahres Material hat daher seine Berechtigung, spielt bei der Entwicklung der kommunikativen Kompetenzen der Schüler und beim Aufbau ihres kulturellen Bewusstseins eine wichtige Rolle.

Schlüsselwörter: Alphabetisierung, Lesen mit Verständnis, Vor- und Nachteile der Verwendung authentischer Materialien, Leseverstehen, Sprachkompetenz, Motivation

Einleitung

„Eine Fremdsprache lernt man, um in einem fremden Land nicht nur ein Fremder zu sein“.
(Sprachheld)

Mit diesem Zitat wird viel gesagt. Wir lernen Sprachen, um sich mit Menschen aus anderen Ländern und Kulturen zu mitteilen. Sich zu verständigen, heißt nicht nur das Verstehen was man sagt, sondern es geht darum die Fremdsprache und Kultur so kennen zu lernen, wie sie gesprochen und gelebt wird. Das Sprachenlernen ist keine künstliche, sondern eine natürliche, authentische Aktivität. Auch beim Fremdspracherwerb darf man auf die Natürlichkeit und Authentizität der Sprache nicht vergessen. Authentische Texte ermöglichen den Lernenden keine künstliche und bearbeitete, sondern echte, in ihrer natürlichen Form erscheinende, sprachliche Strukturen kennenzulernen. Ein authentischer Fremdsprachunterricht macht den ganzen Unterrichtsprozess lebendig und ermutigt den Lernenden sich aktiv an den Unterrichtsprozess zu beteiligen. Daher sollten nicht nur Texte, sondern auch Aufgaben

authentisch sein. Allerdings ist die Motivation der Schüler gering, der Unterricht erscheint ihnen uninteressant, neue Technologien werden alltäglich und sie fühlen sich nicht zum Lernen verpflichtet. Lehrer sind gezwungen, eine Methode zu finden, den Unterrichtsprozess behilflicher zu gestalten und die Schüler zu motivieren. Es ist eine sehr schwierige Aufgabe, die Aufmerksamkeit der Schüler zu wecken und sie zu stimulieren, damit sie zum Lernen motiviert werden. Eine der Möglichkeiten, den Deutsch- und Fremdsprachenunterricht insgesamt erfolgreichster zu gestalten, ist der Einsatz authentischer Materialien, diese Materialien tragen dazu bei, eine Verbindung zwischen Unterricht und der realen Welt herzustellen. Die Verwendung solcher Materialien ist nicht neu, dennoch stammt der überwiegende Teil des Unterrichtsmaterials aus Lehrbüchern. Der Einbezug authentischer Materialien eignet sich auch für die Entwicklung aller Sprachkompetenzen, also Lesen, Hören, Sprechen und Schreiben. Sie helfen dabei, Grammatik, Wortschatz und Aussprache zu verstehen, zu unterscheiden und anzuwenden. Sie bringen eine „*lebendige Sprache*“ in den Unterricht mit, und die Schüler werden sie mehr als einmal in ihrem zukünftigen Leben verwenden können.

Das Problem der meisten Lernenden besteht darin, dass sie den erklärten Text nicht perfekt wahrnehmen und verstehen können. Beim Lesen konzentrieren sie sich zu sehr darauf, jedes einzelne Wort zu verstehen und verpassen so den Aussagen. Auf der Grundlage des gelesenen Textes haben sie ein Problem mit der Verarbeitung, sie können vornehmliche Informationen nicht von unwesentlichen Mitteilungen unterscheiden, oder den Wortschatz automatisieren. Lesekompetenz ist für die Beherrschung aller Fächer von entscheidender Bedeutung, daher sollte die Entwicklung der Lesekompetenz auch beim Fremdsprachenunterricht, als zentral angesehen werden. Lesen ist eine der entscheidenden Sprachkompetenzen beim Fremdsprachenunterricht, eine der vier Kompetenzen, deren Wissen bei der Beurteilung des Niveaus der Beherrschung einer Fremdsprache überwacht wird. Vorlesen bedeutet nicht nur, geschriebene Zeichen mit den Augen zu erfassen, sondern auch ihre Bedeutung zu verstehen und sie in der mündlichen Rede verwenden zu können.

1 Alphabetisierung

Lesen gehört zu den grundlegenden Sprachkompetenzen und ist ein wesentlicher Bestandteil der elementaren Lese- und Schreibkompetenz eines Menschen. Es wird im Allgemeinen als ein rezeptiver Sprachprozess definiert, ein Komplex von Fähigkeiten und Kenntnissen, der die Arbeit mit geschriebenem Text ermöglicht. Lesen entwickelt das Denken und den Ausdruck der Schüler, trägt zum Aufbau der persönlichen und kulturellen Identität bei, stärkt das Selbstvertrauen, bereichert die Sprache, erweitert den Wortschatz und hilft bei der korrekten

Grammatik und dem richtigen Stil, erweitert das Wissen aus verschiedenen Bereichen (Terpitková, 2013, S. 8).

Unter diesem Begriff versteht man nicht nur die Begabung, einen geschriebenen Text zu entschlüsseln, sondern umfasst auch das Verstehen und Interpretieren des Textes sowie das Einordnen des Gelesenen in einen Kontext mit bereits erworbenem Erkennen. Es betont die Fähigkeit, Informationen und Kenntnisse aus dem Text zu gewinnen, sodass eine Person zum ausführlichen Lernen fähig ist.

Unter Lesekompetenz versteht man seit langem nicht nur technisch die Fähigkeit, einen Text zu lesen, sondern umfasst auch dessen Verstehen und Bewerten. Sie gehört zu den Grundkompetenzen und ist für den Erwerb anderer Kompetenzen notwendig, sie wird heute als Grundlage für die Erlangung funktionaler menschlicher Alphabetisierung als Voraussetzung für deren Anwendung in der Gesellschaft verstanden.

Lese- und Hörverstehen sind rezeptive Kommunikationsfähigkeiten. Der Unterschied besteht jedoch darin, dass der Text beim verständlichen Lesen immer verständlich, vollständig und ständig auf der Seite vor uns liegt, während der Text beim Zuhören kurzlebig, nicht immer klar und verständlich ist (Davies, Pearse, 2000, S. 91).

2 Alphabetisierungsprozesse

Um ein vollständiges Verständnis des geschriebenen Textes zu erreichen, listet PISA fünf Prozesse der Lesekompetenz auf (Kramcová, 2005, S. 1):

- Informationsbeschaffung – der Schüler kann Hinweise im Text finden und die Beziehungen zwischen ihnen herausfinden.
- Schaffung eines umfassenderen Verständnisses – Nachdenken über den Text, die Fähigkeit, die Hauptidee zu erfassen, einen Titel zu erstellen, die Daten in einer Grafik oder Tabelle herauszufinden.
- Interpretation – logische Verarbeitung von Informationen, ihr Vergleich, das Ziehen von Schlussfolgerungen, die Suche nach Beweisen.
- Nachdenken über den Inhalt des Textes und dessen Gutachten – Bewertung der Informationen, Vergleich mit früheren Erfahrungen, Bildung der eigenen Haltung.
- Berücksichtigung der Form des Textes und deren Bewertung – Gutachten der Qualität und Angemessenheit des Textes.

Lesekompetenz ist eine komplexe Reihe von Lesefähigkeiten, die für eine effektive Arbeit mit Texten erforderlich sind. Durch die Entwicklung der Lesekompetenz soll der Leser ein Niveau an Lesekompetenz erreichen, dass es ihm ermöglicht, mit unterschiedlichen Textarten zu

arbeiten, die für verschiedene Ziele verwendet werden, unter Kompetenz des Lesens versteht man die technische Fähigkeit des Lesens und des Verstehens, zu der gehören:

- die Fähigkeit und den Prozess, den Text zu verstehen,
- die Fähigkeit, Angaben im Text zu finden, das Gelesene zu bewerten, sich an die Ideen des Textes zu erinnern, den gelesenen Text zu reproduzieren, aus dem Text Schlussfolgerungen zu ziehen, sich ein eigenes Urteil zu bilden,
- die Fähigkeit, Zusammenhänge logisch zu verbinden, Hauptgedanken, Lehren, Schlussfolgerungen abzuleiten,
- die Fähigkeit, über den Rahmen des Textes hinausgehende Ideen zu konstruieren und diese in Verbindung mit bisherigen Informationen, Kenntnissen und Erkenntnissen zu verknüpfen.

3 Lesen und Fremdsprache

Unter Lesen verstehen wir die visuelle Wahrnehmung eines geschriebenen oder gedruckten Textes im stillen Ton oder seine laute Wiedergabe. Die Arbeit mit Text und Literatur ist nicht nur eine Frage unseres Unterrichts, der Einsatz unterschiedlicher Textsorten kann den Fremdsprachenunterricht erheblich bereichern. Die Einbeziehung entsprechender und inhaltlich interessanter Auszüge aus literarischen Werken, Zeitschriften und Zeitungen in den Unterrichtsprozess ist ein wichtiger Motivationsfaktor im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Durch das Vorlesen haben die Schüler die Möglichkeit, ihren Wortschatz zu erweitern, sich Redewendungen anzueignen und ihre Kommunikationsfähigkeiten zu entwickeln.

Lesen mit Verständnis

Leseverständnis ist ein Prozess, der mit der bewussten Konzentration auf den Text verbunden ist, beim Lesen ist es nötig, ihn zu verstehen und die notwendigen Mitteilungen finden zu können.

Die Aufgabe des Lehrers besteht darin, den Schülern dabei zu helfen, die Fähigkeit zum rezeptiven Leseverständnis zu erwerben, indem er ihnen ermöglicht, verschiedene Texte auf unterschiedliche Weise zu lesen. Hauptsächlich Lesefähigkeiten sind die Begabungen, mit einem Text zu arbeiten, einen Inhalt anzusehen und zu sagen, worum es in dem Text geht. Zu den grundlegenden Lesefähigkeiten gehören (Straková, 2009, S. 22-23):

1 Skimming – sie finden anhand von Überschriften, hervorgehobenen Wörtern und Bildern die Hauptidee oder das Wesentliche des Inhalts heraus. Die Schüler konzentrieren sich nicht auf Details, sondern auf das Wesentliche des Textes, sie gehen den Text schnell mit den Augen durch und bemerken vor allem die Überschrift, Zwischenüberschrift usw.

2 Scannen – Ziel ist die bestimmten Informationen herausfinden oder nach bestimmten Daten suchen. Die Aufgabe der Lernenden besteht darin, aus einem schnell gelesenen Text konkrete Nachrichten herauszufinden. Mit dieser Kennzeichnende verachten Schüler oft andere Fakten, die sich aus dem Text ergeben, das heißt, sie konzentrieren sich nicht darauf, jedes einzelne Wort oder jede einzelne Zeile zu lesen.

3 Intensives Lesen – ausführliches Lesen.

4 Umfangreiche Lektüre – Lektüre aus Interesse, Texte sind länger.

5 Search reading – Forschungsstudien, suchen Sie nach Schlüsselwörtern und Phrasen, die dem Leser helfen, bestimmte Auskünfte zu finden.

Wir erkennen auch *lautes* und *leises Lesen*. „*Vorlesen ist geeignet, Informationen zu vermitteln oder die Aussprache zu verbessern.*“ (Straková, 2009, S. 21) „*Der Leseunterricht sollte auf stillem Lesen basieren.*“ (Straková, 2009, S. 22) Der Grund für diese Aussage ist die Tatsache, dass bei dieser Art des Lesens die Schüler in ihrem eigenen Tempo lesen können und gleichzeitig die Fähigkeit, den Text zu verstehen, effektiver wird. „*Beim stillen Lesen können sich die Schüler darauf konzentrieren, komplexere Teile des Textes zu verstehen.*“ (Straková, 2009, S. 22)

Eine besondere Kategorie ist die sogenannte *intensive* und *ausführliche Lektüre*. Der Begriff „*Extensive Lektüre*“ bezeichnet Literatur, die Schüler häufig außerhalb des Unterrichts betreiben, sie lesen normalerweise Romane, Websites, Zeitungen, Zeitschriften usw. Durch genügendes Lesen soll die Freude am Lesen gefördert werden, die dadurch gesteigert wird, die Schüler lesen, was sie wollen. Obwohl nicht alle Lernende diese Art des Lesens mögen, können wir sagen, dass diejenigen, die regelmäßig lesen, bessere Ergebnisse erzielen (Harmer, 2007, S. 99). Ausgiebiges Lesen ist also Lesen in deutscher Sprache, da jeder Schüler anders ist und die Menge des gelesenen Textes von seinen Fähigkeiten und Umständen abhängt.

Hedge (2000, S. 202) listet die folgenden Merkmale ausführlicher Lektüre auf:

- es erfordert das Lesen einer großen Menge an Material (Kurzgeschichten, Novellen, Romane, Zeitschriften, Zeitungen, professionelle Lektüre),
- konsequentes Lesen in regelmäßigen Abständen,
- längere Texte lesen (mehr als ein paar Absätze),
- Lesen, um die Hauptidee des Textes in erster Linie aus Vergnügen, Neugier oder beruflichem Interesse zu entdecken,
- Lesen längerer Texte im Unterricht, aber auch selbstständiges Einzellesen ausgewählter Texte zu Hause.

Unter intensivem Lesestoff versteht man eine detaillierte Auseinandersetzung mit der Erstellung eines Lesetextes, die in der Regel während der Unterrichtszeit im Klassenzimmer stattfindet. Es ist einfacher, mit einem kurzen Abschnitt zu arbeiten als mit dem gesamten Text, da dies das Leseinteresse der Schüler steigert, gleichzeitig führt es zu einem effektiven Lesenlernen mit Verständnis. Das Verstehen des ersten Abschnitts wird den Schülern helfen, den zweiten zu interpretieren und so wird die Aufführung einfacher und verständlicher (Nuttall, 1996, S. 158).

Um die Lesekompetenz im Unterricht effektiver zu gestalten, ist es erforderlich, die bedeutenden Lehrmaterialien (Lehrbuch, Arbeitsbuch, Arbeitsblätter) durch etwas Neues zu ergänzen, z.B. authentisches Material.

4 Authentisches Material – Definition des Begriffs

Als authentisch gelten Texte, die für Muttersprachler geschrieben oder verfasst wurden. Es ist in einer Fremdsprache erstellt und für den täglichen Bedarf gedacht, dabei handelt es sich um Materialien, die nicht für das Erlernen von Fremdsprachen angefertigt wurden, etwa Lehrbuchtexte, stattdessen wurden sie mit einem echten Zweck geschaffen. Wie Homolová (2003, S. 7) feststellt, *„ist die primäre Funktion authentischer Materialien nicht der Sprachunterricht selbst, wie bei Lehrbüchern oder anderen Materialien, sondern sie können unterschiedliche Funktionen haben.“*

Solche Komponenten können in mündlicher oder schriftlicher Form vorliegen, als geeignetes Element werden verschiedene Werbespots, Fernsehsendungen, Interviews, Lebensmitteletiketten, Rezepte, Songtexte und Ähnliches angeboten, die größtenteils im Internet zu finden sind.

Wie Tsatsuki (2006, S. 2) feststellt: *„Texte selbst mögen tatsächlich an sich ‚real‘ sein, aber Authentizität selbst ist ein soziales Produkt.“* Mit anderen Worten: *„Authentizität entsteht durch die Interaktion des Benutzers, der Situation und der Texte.“*

Leskovianska (2015, S.7) stellt die Verbreitung authentischer Materialien nach F. Kilickay (2004) dar, wobei er die folgenden Arten echter Materialien unterscheidet:

- Audio – Filme, Fernseh- und Radiosendungen, aufgezeichnete Gespräche, professionell aufgenommene Kurzgeschichten,
- visuell – Fotografien, Zeichnungen und Gemälde, Straßenschilder, Postkarten, Münzen, Briefmarken, verschiedene Arten von Dekorationen,
- Text – Zeitungen, Zeitschriften, Liedtexte, Speisekarten, Touristeninformationsbroschüren, Kataloge, Karten, Briefe und E-Mails.

Oura (2012, S. 65) unterteilt die Materialien noch detaillierter in folgende Einheiten:

- Authentische audiovisuelle Hilfsmittel – Fernsehwerbung, Quiz, Märchen, Zeitungsberichte, Comedy-Shows, Filme, Serien, professionell aufgenommene Kurzgeschichten und Romane, Radiowerbung, Lieder, Dokumentationen und dergleichen.
- Authentische visuelle Materialien – Dias, Fotos, Gemälde, Kinderzeichnungen, Aufkleber, wortlose Straßenschilder, Silhouetten, Zeitschriftenbilder, Strichzeichnungen, Postkarten, Bilderbücher, Briefmarken, Röntgenbilder und dergleichen.
- Authentische gedruckte Materialien – Zeitungsartikel, Filmwerbung, Astrologie Kolumnen, Sportberichte, Todesanzeigen, Bedienungsanleitungen, Liedtexte, Restaurantmenüs, Straßennamen, Lebensmittelverpackungen, Touristeninformationsbroschüren, Hochschulverzeichnisse, Telefonbücher, Karten, Fernsehprogramme, Comics, Grußkarten, Kaufbelege und Gutscheine, Anstecknadeln mit Aufschrift, Busfahrpläne und dergleichen.
- Realien (tatsächliche greifbare Objekte) – Münzen und Papiergeld, Wanduhren, Telefone, Puppen und Marionetten, um nur einige zu nennen. (Realitäten werden oft zur Veranschaulichung und Visualisierung herangezogen und fördern in bestimmten Situationen ein authentischeres Rollenspiel.)

Verwendung von authentischem Material

Authentische Materialien sind die wichtigsten Arbeitsmittel des Lehrers, die er im Unterricht effektiv einsetzen kann, um allen Schülern das notwendige Wissen zu vermitteln. Durch die Verwendung authentischer Materialien wird nicht nur der Deutschunterricht belebt, sondern den Schülern wird auch bewusst, dass ihnen solche Substanzen in der realen Welt begegnen können und sie werden dadurch motiviert, im Unterricht mitzuarbeiten.

Wie Leskovianska (2015, S. 8) feststellt: „*Durch die Verwendung authentischen Materials bringen wir die reale Welt in den Unterricht.*“ Im Unterricht lernen die Schüler nicht nur die Sprache (Grammatik, korrekte Aussprache, neuer Wortschatz), erfahren auch die Kultur, doch haben die Möglichkeit, das erlernte theoretische Wissen direkt im wirklichen Leben anzuwenden. Authentische Texte, Situationen, Fragen und Aufgaben sind nicht nur sinnvoll, einfallsreich und interessant, jedoch spielen auch eine entscheidende Rolle bei der Vorbereitung der Schüler auf das wirkliche Leben. Die Schüler, aber auch die Lehrer selbst, konzentrieren sich mehr auf den Inhalt der Aufgaben, Bedeutung und auch auf die Struktur der Sprache. Die Lernende arbeiten mit zuverlässigem Material, beweisenden Aufgaben und können einzelne Situationen des Alltags erleichtern.

Wir bestimmen außerdem folgende „*Gründe für die Arbeit mit authentischem Material*“,:

- Anwendung des erworbenen Wissens direkt in die Praxis – wirkliches Leben,

- effektive Entwicklung kommunikativer Kompetenz,
- Erweiterung der Motivation der Schüler,
- eine positive Einstellung zum Lernen,
- dominierendes Interesse der Schüler an der deutschen Sprache,
- Aktivierung der Schüler im Lernprozess.

Im Deutschunterricht lernen die Schüler mit Hilfe der Lehrer nicht nur die Sprache, sondern auch die deutschsprachige Umgebung und Realität in den unterschiedlichsten Formen kennen. Die gesamte Persönlichkeit des Schülers, seine Kenntnisse, Anlagen, Gewohnheiten, Einstellungen und entwickelten Fähigkeiten, das alles gehört zum Erfolg eines solchen Lernens. Aus diesem Grund greift der Lehrer zu dergleichen Mitteln, die den Schülern näherbringen, offenbaren, verlangsamen oder beschleunigen, konkretisieren, zur Klärung des Unterrichtsstoffs beitragen.

Auswahl geeigneter authentischer Materialien für den Deutschunterricht unter Berücksichtigung didaktischer Grundsätze

Homolová (2003) stellt das folgende methodische Vorgehen für die Implementierung wahren Materials in den Lehrplan vor:

- Ermittlung der Bedürfnisse von Schülern und Lehrern
- Sammlung und Auswahl geeigneter authentischer Materialien
- Vorbereitung von Lernaufgaben zu Texten
- Arbeiten mit bezichtigtem Material im Unterricht
- Auswertung der Lektion

Bei der Suche nach geeignetem Begriff muss der Lehrer die Eignung und individuelle Herangehensweise berücksichtigen, das heißt, er sollte das didaktische Prinzip der Angemessenheit und individuellen Herangehensweise berücksichtigen.

Authentisches Material kann auf verschiedene Stufe der Sprachkenntnisse verwendet werden, um das Wissen zu vertiefen und den Einsatz von Sprachvarianten zu üben, vor allem aber zur Festigung in den Bereichen:

- Lexika (Entwicklung neuen Wortschatzes, Festigung des aktuellen Wortschatzes in einem interessanten Kontext, Synonyme, Antonyme)
- Semantik (die besondere Bedeutung, die bestimmte Ausdrücke in einem bestimmten Kontext haben)
- Syntax (Satzaufbau, implizite und explizite Aussagen)
- Text (Textanalyse, Auswahl grundlegender Informationen, Texttransformation)

Heutzutage ist es für Deutschlehrer kein Problem, authentisches Material zu bekommen, (das Internet- die Materialien sind aktuell, sie entsprechen der aktuellen Entwicklung von Gesellschaft, Wissenschaft und Technik, die Austauschaufenthalten, Erasmus-Mobilitäten, in Geschäften, beim Einkauf, in Touristeninformationszentren, in Zeitungen und Zeitschriften, oder aus der deutschen Literatur.)

Wie Leskovianska (2015, S. 10) feststellt, „*sind berufliche Weiterentwicklung, weitere Studien und die Verbesserung der Sprachkenntnisse auch für jeden Fremdsprachenlehrer wichtig. „Eine Möglichkeit, diese Bedürfnisse zu befriedigen, ist die Teilnahme an Austauschaufenthalten im Ausland, Sprachkursen oder der Lektüre ausländischer Literatur.*“

5 Vor- und Nachteile der Verwendung authentischer Materialien

Das Ziel des Lehrers ist wegen der Motivation, immer die authentischen Materialien im Hinblick auf die Fähigkeiten und Interessen der Schüler ausgewählt werden, die Schüler bei der Arbeit anleiten, unterstützen und bei Verständnisproblemen helfen.

Vorteile authentischer Materialien

Vorteile für den Lehrer:

- verschiedene Aufgaben können mit dem gleichen Material variiert werden;
- die Studie mit authentischen Materialien belebt den Deutschunterricht und erleichtert die Arbeit des Lehrers, muss jedoch an das Bildungsprogramm und den Lehrplan der Schule angepasst werden.
- authentische Materialien umfassen ein breites Spektrum an Sprachstilen und Texttypen, die in Lehrbüchern normalerweise nicht enthalten sind.

Vorteile für Schüler:

- erhöhte Motivation der Lernenden;
- der Student kommt mit der ursprünglich lebendigen deutschen Sprache in Kontakt;
- der Schüler beobachtet, wie sich die Sprache auch im Zusammenhang mit der gesellschaftlichen Entwicklung des Landes verändert;
- der Schüler erkennt schnell den Vermögen und die Komplexität der Sprache.
- der Schüler hat die Gelegenheit, alle Kommunikationsfähigkeiten gleichzeitig zu entwickeln (Lesen, Schreiben, Hören, Sprechen);
- deutsch wird zu einem echten Mittel der Interaktion und des Informationsaustauschs zwischen Menschen;
- das Erlernen wirklicher Inhalte wird gefördert, nicht nur von Sprachformen;
- der Schüler lernt alles zu akzeptieren;

- durch die Verwendung authentischer Audiomaterialien können die Schüler verschiedene Arten von Akzenten erlernen und Vokabeln kennenlernen, die für verschiedene Regionen des Landes typisch sind.
- wenn wir das Interesse des Schülers wecken und ihm zeigen, dass es zum Verstehen nicht notwendig ist, alle Wörter zu verstehen, wird er auch individuell authentische Texte, Filme, Aufnahmen lesen, anhören oder ansehen;
- der Lehrer verknüpft seine eigenen Erlebnisse, der Unterricht wird dadurch dynamischer und orientiert sich an den Interessen und Fähigkeiten der Schüler;
- beim Zuhören, oder beim Anschauen ausländischer Programme haben Studenten die Möglichkeit, die Unterschiede zwischen österreichischem und deutschem Deutsch zu beobachten, oder einzelne Dialekte, d.h. unterschiedlicher Wortschatz, Aussprache oder Akzent.

Nachteile authentischer Materialien

Nachteile für den Lehrer:

- suche nach geeignetem authentischem Material oder dessen Modifikation oder die Kombination kann recht zeitaufwändig sein;
- der Lehrer wählt nicht nur geeignetes Material aus, sondern muss auch verschiedene Aktivitäten dafür vorbereiten (Aufgaben und Fragen zur Diskussion, Quiz, Bildmaterial, Spiele usw.);
- die Umsetzung authentischer Materialien erfordert die Kreativität des Lehrers;
- es kann zu Problemen mit der schwachen technischen Unterstützung der Schule kommen (schwaches Internetsignal für Online-Materialien, unzureichende Unterstützungsprogramme, fehlende technische Hilfsmittel usw.).

Nachteile für Lernende:

- die in den Materialien präsentierten Informationen können außerhalb des Kontexts schwer zu verstehen sein;
- der Wortschatz ist für den Schüler möglicherweise nicht relevant;
- der Inhalt der Materialien unangemessen ausgewählt, veraltet und veraltet ist, z. B. Zeitungsberichte und Artikel;
- Materialien können komplexe Sprachstrukturen enthalten (höhere Grammatik, Vokabular usw.) und ein Schüler mit einem niedrigeren Sprachniveau hat anschließend Probleme, Bedeutungen zu entschlüsseln;
- in einigen Texten werden Abkürzungen und Symbole verwendet, deren Verständnis Kenntnisse des kulturellen Hintergrunds verlangt;

- bei der Verwendung authentischer Audiomaterialien können die Schüler das Problem aufgrund unterschiedlicher Dialekte verstehen und stoßen auf Vokabeln, die nur für bestimmte Gebiete des Landes typisch sind;
- Grammatik- und Stilregeln werden oft schädigen, z.B. bei Dialekt

Zusammenfassung

Der Text ist Gegenstand der Forschung in vielen wissenschaftlichen Disziplinen, sei es Literaturwissenschaft, Geschichte oder Theologie. Die Disziplin, die sich mit der Erforschung der Textproduktion und -rezeption beschäftigt, wird Textlinguistik genannt (Thurmair, 2001). Thurmair definiert einen Text als ein spezifisches Mittel, das eine kommunikative Sprachübertragung ermöglicht. Andererseits beschreibt er Texte als komplex, also mehr als einen Satz inklusive fester sprachlicher Einheiten (Thurmair, 2001). Bezüglich des Fremdsprachenunterrichts zitieren wir Schmidts Definition eines kommunikationsbezogenen Textes: „Ein Text ist jeder ausgedrückte sprachliche Teil eines kommunikativen Aktes in einem kommunikativen Handlungsspiel, der thematisch fokussiert ist und eine erkennbare kommunikative Funktion erfüllt, d. h. aus es verwirklicht ein erkennbares illokutionäres Potenzial“ (Schmidt, 1976, S. 150). Vereinfacht gesagt ist der Text selbst also eine Möglichkeit zur Kommunikation. Anschließend erläutern wir die grundlegenden Kriterien der Textualität. Nach Beugrand und Dressler muss der Text folgende Kriterien der Textualität erfüllen: Kohäsion (was wir als Worte sehen oder hören) und Kohärenz (inhaltlicher Zusammenhang), Intentionalität (Zweck des Textes), Akzeptanz (Verständnis des Textes durch den Adressaten), Informativität (der Text als Informationsträger), Situationalität (Einbindung des Textes in eine konkrete Situation) und nicht zuletzt Intertextualität (Beziehungen zwischen Texten). Im alltäglichen Sprachgebrauch stoßen wir auf unterschiedliche Formen von Texten, seien es Rezepte, Berichte, Berichte oder Wetterberichte. Wir klassifizieren diese Texte in Texttypen, es gibt jedoch unterschiedliche Typologien der Klassifizierung von Texttypen. Malá (2009) unterscheidet zwischen Texten der Alltagskommunikation (Briefe, Privatgespräche), offiziellen Texten (Verwaltung, Wirtschaftsbereich), Texten der Massenmedien (Berichte, Berichte, Kommentare), Texten der beruflichen Kommunikation (Vorträge, Fachtexte), Texten der künstlerischen Literatur (Kurzgeschichten, Romane, Gedichte). Unter *authentischem Text* verstehen wir einen echten, realitätsnahen und glaubwürdigen Text. Nach Edelhoff (1985) kann der Begriff eines authentischen Textes auch durch seine Antonyme als Text erklärt werden, der nicht „künstlich“ und „unwirklich“ ist. Ein authentischer Text ist somit das Gegenteil eines didaktischen Textes, der synthetisch ist und nicht der Realität entspricht. Little et al. (1988)

beschreibt einen authentischen Text als einen Text, der seinen sozialen Zweck in der Sprachgesellschaft hat, in der er geschaffen wurde, und dessen Rolle nicht darin besteht, didaktische Ziele im Fremdsprachenunterricht zu erfüllen. Es handelt sich also um einen Text für eine Gruppe von Menschen, für die die Sprache im gegebenen authentischen Text ihre Muttersprache ist. Es kann sich um einen Zeitungsartikel, ein Gedicht oder einen Roman handeln. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht unterscheiden wir zwischen verschiedenen Texttypologien: authentische Texte, didaktische Texte, unter einem *didaktischen Text* verstehen wir einen Text, der zum Zwecke der Fremdsprachendidaktik erstellt wurde. Dies bedeutet, dass es künstlich aufbereitet wurde, um es an bestimmte didaktische Ziele anzupassen. Beglaubigte Texte stellen eine solche Gruppe von Texten dar, die zwar nicht authentisch sind, aber die Merkmale sowohl authentischer als auch didaktischer Texte aufweisen. Ein solcher Text wurde aus dem authentischen Bereich übernommen und für didaktische Zwecke nur geringfügig angepasst. Die Sprachkontrolle ist minimal, meist handelt es sich um eine leichte Modifikation der Grammatik oder des Wortschatzes. Auch Authentizität im Fremdsprachenunterricht spielt eine wichtige Rolle. Viele Linguisten und Didaktiker empfehlen die Einbeziehung dieser Texte bzw. authentische Materialien in den Unterrichtsprozess einzubeziehen. Nicht nur die Materialien, sondern auch die Themen, Situationen und Aufgaben sollten authentisch sein, sie sollten aus verschiedenen Blickwinkeln inspirierend vermittelt werden: angemessener Schwierigkeitsgrad (sie sollten der Situation angemessen sein, das heißt, wir sollten im Unterricht solche Situationen modellieren, die die Schüler könnten es später in Ihrem Leben tatsächlich erleben), eigene Antworten erstellen (anstatt eine Antwort aus mehreren Optionen auszuwählen) und vorhandenes Wissen über die Sprache und die Zielkultur aktivieren. Lehrbücher haben viele positive Aspekte, einer davon sind klar definierte Ziele. Lehrbücher enthalten eine sorgfältig gestaltete und ausgewogene Auswahl an Lerninhalten, die sowohl Lehrer als auch Lernende leicht verstehen können, auch im Hinblick auf Sprachmodelle, die nicht der Realität entsprechen (Hyland, 2003). Authentische Materialien können eine geeignete Alternative für Lehrer sein, die sich mit der Arbeit mit einem bestimmten Lehrbuch nicht wohl fühlen. Einer ihrer großen Vorteile besteht darin, dass sie an die Bedürfnisse und Interessen der Lernenden angepasst werden können. Authentische Materialien helfen Lernenden, schnellere und bessere Sprachmodelle zu erstellen und in realen Situationen selbstbewusst zu agieren, fördern nicht nur die Neugier der Lernenden, sondern auch die Kreativität der Lehrenden, sie sind eine Quelle kulturellen Wissens und durch ihre Einbindung in den Lehrprozess werden die Lernenden sowohl sprachlich als auch kulturell bereichert. Allerdings können wir bei ihnen auch einige Nachteile feststellen. Im Vergleich zu Lehrbüchern ist die Darstellung von

Sprachmodellen sehr abrupt. Lernende sind plötzlich Sprachmodellen ausgesetzt, denen sie noch nie zuvor begegnet sind, und können daher eine negative und einschüchternde Wirkung auf sie haben (Hyland, 2003). Aus diesem Grund ist es sehr wichtig, vor der Arbeit mit authentischen Materialien Aktivitäten für Lernende zu entwickeln, die ihnen helfen, den Text selbst zu verstehen. Bérešová (2014) empfiehlt, in die Vorbereitungsphase ein Brainstorming zu integrieren, das es den Studierenden ermöglicht, das gegebene Thema aus ihrer eigenen Sicht zu diskutieren oder das gegebene Thema in ihrer Muttersprache zu studieren. Das Erlernen einer Fremdsprache gibt uns die Möglichkeit, dass „Fremde“ zu kennen, zu verstehen und zu akzeptieren. In diesem Sinne meinen wir nicht das Erlernen von Grammatik und Vokabeln, sondern das Kennenlernen und Verstehen anderer Kulturen. Authentische Texte ermöglichen den Erwerb interkultureller Kompetenzen, indem sie eine reichhaltige Quelle an kulturellem Wissen und audiovisuellen Materialien bieten und gerade deshalb ist ihre Einbindung in den Fremdsprachenunterricht wichtig. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht hat die Bemühung mit Texten einen unersetzlichen Platz. Die Zielsetzung eines jeden Fremdsprachenlehrers sollte darin bestehen, den Fremdsprachenunterricht mit solchen Materialien zu erwerben, die zur Entwicklung der Lesekompetenz, zur effizienteren Gestaltung des Prozesses des Leseverständnisses und damit auch zur Entwicklung der Lesekompetenz beitragen. Der regelmäßige Einsatz geeigneter Texte und Aufgaben zum Leseverstehen im Deutschunterricht wirkt sich positiv auf die Entwicklung der Lesekompetenz der Schüler aus. Wenn die Lernende es gewohnt sind, im Unterricht regelmäßig zu lesen, wird ihnen diese Aktivität selbstverständlich vorkommen und für sie kein Problem darstellen.

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Kontakt:

doc. PaedDr. Alica Harajová, PhD. - PaedDr. Viera Lagerová, PhD.

Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

Pedagogická fakulta

Katedra nemeckého jazyka a literatúry

JUSTUS EHRHARDTS ROMAN STRASSEN OHNE ENDE IM KONTEXT DER DEUTSCHEN JUGENDBEWEGUNG

PAVEL KNÁPEK

Abstract

Der vorliegende Aufsatz untersucht den Roman „Straßen ohne Ende“ (1931) von Justus Ehrhardt im Hinblick auf die Ideale der deutschen Jugendbewegung, die nicht nur im Kontext des Romans vorgestellt werden. In den Jahren der Weimarer Republik machte die zersplitterte Jugendbewegung eine komplizierte und zum Teil bedrohliche Entwicklung durch, zu der Ehrhardt auch explizit Stellung nimmt. In dem hier analysierten Roman warnt der Autor implizit vor dem Verlust der individuellen und empfindsamen Einstellung zur Jugenderziehung. Im vorliegenden Aufsatz werden ebenfalls Fakten präsentiert, die die soziale Krise der letzten Jahre der Weimarer Republik beleuchten.

Schlüsselwörter: *Justus Ehrhardt, Straßen ohne Ende, Jugendbewegung, Literatur der Weimarer Republik*

1. Einleitung

Justus Ehrhardt gehört heutzutage zu den vergessenen Autoren der Weimarer Republik. Sein einziger Roman aus der Zeit vor 1933 trägt den Titel *Straßen ohne Ende*. Dem Stil und der Thematik zufolge kann das Werk der Neuen Sachlichkeit zugeordnet werden. Im Rahmen dieser literarischen Stilrichtung reagierten viele junge Autoren auf die plötzlich grundlegend veränderte Gesellschaftssituation der Zeit nach 1918. Mit dem Streben nach sprachlicher Klarheit und Nüchternheit beschrieben die Autoren der Neuen Sachlichkeit die Folgen des verlorenen Krieges sowie die neuen Lebensbedingungen in der Weimarer Republik, die sie – vor allem unter dem Eindruck der Wirtschaftskrise und der Erschütterung der traditionellen Autoritäten – zu analysieren suchten, indem sie sich im unterschiedlichen Maße verschiedener widersprüchlicher Deutungsmuster bedienten und ihre Gültigkeit erprobten.

Justus Ehrhardts *Straßen ohne Ende* erschien 1932 in dem den Kommunisten nahestehenden Agis-Verlag. Diesen Roman können wir auf der Liste der von Nationalsozialisten verbotenen Literatur finden. Der Autor selbst war zur Zeit der Weimarer

Republik Reformpädagoge, Journalist und Leitender Fürsorger des Landesjugendamts Berlin. Angesichts dieser Tatsachen überrascht Henry Jacobys (1980) Bericht über Ehrhardts späteres Leben, demzufolge der Autor zu den Nationalsozialisten bald nach Hitlers Machtübernahme gewechselt haben soll und vor dem Kriegsende auf dem von Deutschland okkupierten Gebiet der Sowjetunion ums Leben gekommen sein soll.

Da war der Hauptfürsorger des Berliner Jugendamtes Justus Ehrhardt, ein Idealist aus der Wandervogel-Bewegung, der gerade einen Roman, der eine vernichtende Kritik der Fürsorgeerziehung war, in einem der KPD nahestehenden Verlag veröffentlicht hatte und der nun in SA-Uniform auftauchte. Während des Krieges erschienen sentimentale Artikel von ihm über die weite russische Landschaft in den Zeitungen, eine Landschaft, aus der er nicht zurückkehrte. (Jacoby 1980: 242)

Im vorliegenden Aufsatz soll Ehrhardts Roman vor allem auf dessen Beziehung hin zu den Idealen der Deutschen Jugendbewegung sowie jenen der politischen Ideen der Kommunisten skizziert werden. Ebenfalls werden einige Stellen aus Ehrhardts pädagogischen Aufsätzen herangezogen, sofern sie einen Beitrag zur Beleuchtung der hier behandelten Thematik leisten können. Das Ziel des vorliegenden Aufsatzes besteht darin, die künstlerisch dargestellte Betrachtungsweise der gefährdeten Jugend der Weimarer Republik in *Straßen ohne Ende* zu präsentieren und sie mit den Kontexten der Jugendbewegung und teilweise des Kommunismus zu verbinden.

2. Die deutsche Jugendbewegung

Justus Ehrhardt reflektiert in seinen pädagogischen Aufsätzen der Weimarer Ära die Jugendbewegung relativ stark. In seinem Roman *Straßen ohne Ende* scheint der jugendbewegte Beamte Hermann Leukel das Alter Ego des Autors zu sein. Deshalb gebührt der Skizzierung der Merkmale dieser – wenn auch sehr heterogenen und theoretisch schwer fassbaren – Bewegung eine besondere Aufmerksamkeit. Die Anfänge der Jugendbewegung sind mit dem „Wandervogel“ verknüpft – einer apolitischen oder sogar antipolitischen Jugendorganisation, deren ursprüngliche Wurzeln schon um die Jahrhundertwende in Berlin liegen. Die „antipolitische“ Orientierung dieser Vereinigung verriet jedoch durch ihre Aversion gegenüber

der kapitalistischen Industrialisierung einen gewissen antizivilisatorischen Charakterzug und schon durch diese Abgrenzung kann sie streng genommen nicht als apolitisch gelten. Die Jugendbewegung repräsentierte einen Teil der jungen Generation, die auf die erstarrte autoritäre Pädagogik reagierte und ihren Protest gegen die Lebensform und die Werteorientierung des Bürgertums richtete. Im Gegensatz zu den konfessionellen oder politischen Jugendverbänden waren die Führer des Wandervogels in der Regel nur wenige Jahre älter als ihre Schützlinge. Zu den Idealen der Jugendbewegung gehörte eine intensiv erlebte autonome Jugendgemeinschaft, die Ablehnung des materialistischen Lebensstils der Elterngeneration und die Forderung nach einem „Zurück zur Natur“. Vom Berliner Raum aus verbreitete sich die Jugendbewegung in ganz Deutschland – am stärksten wurden ihre Gruppen in Mittel- und Norddeutschland – vorwiegend in den protestantischen Regionen. Die geteilte Freude an der Natur, die Lagerfeuerromantik, die Vorliebe fürs Mittelalter, die Romantik und die Pflege des deutschen Brauchtums war allen Wandervögeln gemeinsam, doch es entstanden bereits vor dem Ausbruch des Ersten Weltkriegs Streitigkeiten verschiedener Art: zum Beispiel in der Frage der Zulassung jüdischer Mitglieder, der Teilnahme der Mädchen oder älterer Führer in den Wandervogelgruppen. Neben dem Wandervogel sind zur Jugendbewegung verschiedene lebensreformerische Jugend- und Studentengruppen zu zählen.

Die große Zäsur in der Entwicklung der Jugendbewegung bildete der Ausbruch des Ersten Weltkriegs und dessen Folgen. Seit 1919 sprechen wir von der Bündischen Jugend in der Weimarer Republik. Der Unterschied zum Wandervogel lag vor allem in der Tendenz zum stärkeren Kollektivismus und zur Politisierung und Radikalisierung der Jugendgruppen, die zum großen Teil stark nationalistisch oder chauvinistisch orientiert waren. Es entstand eine unübersichtliche Zahl an Bünden, die sich in vielen Fragen voneinander unterschieden. Von der Nachkriegsphase der Jugendbewegung schreibt der bedeutende Reformpädagoge Herman Nohl im idealisierenden Ton folgendes:

aus einer Jugendbewegung, die zunächst nur der Jugend ein gemäßes Leben schaffen wollte, wurde eine Lebensbewegung, die das kulturelle Dasein überhaupt umgestalten will. Hatte sie zunächst vor allem an sich selbst gedacht, so vollzog sie jetzt die Wendung zum Dienst an der Gemeinschaft und zum Gefühl der Verantwortlichkeit gegenüber der Zukunft unseres Volkes.“ (Nohl 1988: 21).

Bei der Gesamtbewertung der Jugendbewegung wird immer wieder die Frage gestellt, inwieweit die Bünde den Nationalsozialisten den Weg zur Macht ebneten. Walter Z. Laqueur (1962) fasst die wichtigsten Aspekte der Frage zusammen: „Während einige ihrer führenden Mitglieder [der Jugendbewegung] geistige Schrittmacher des Nationalsozialismus waren und eine kleine Schar ihm aktiv Widerstand leistete, unternahm die Mehrheit in dieser wie jener

Hinsicht wenig.“ (Laqueur 1962: 216). Im Fall der Jugendbewegung sei eher von Unterlassungssünden als von begangenen Taten zu sprechen. Jedenfalls habe die Jugendbewegung weniger getan, als sie hätte tun können, um *ein Ethos der persönlichen politischen Verantwortung*¹ zu schaffen. (vgl. ebd.)

Es ist bemerkenswert, dass Justus Ehrhardt ziemlich genau die Gefahr benennt, die aus dem Wandel des Geistes der ursprünglichen Jugendbewegung in Richtung kollektivistischer Unterordnung des Einzelnen unter seine Führer hervorging. In einem Artikel von 1932 macht der Autor darauf aufmerksam, dass

die deutsche Jugendbewegung ihre Kraft nicht aus dem Kollektivismus, sondern aus dem Individualismus gewann. [...] Haltung und Zielsetzung der Jugendbewegung haben sich seither grundlegend verändert. Aus dem Wandern ist Marschieren geworden, aus Gruppen wurden Abteilungen, aus der bunten vielfältigen Wanderkleidung wurde die Uniform. Das Kommando, das festumrissene Programm, die Idee traten an Stelle der freien Bestimmung und des Ideals. Auf die immer von vorn anfangende, immer wieder auf die Erforschung der Eigenart des individuellen Menschen gerichteten Bemühungen werden wir auch nach dieser Erkenntnis nicht verzichten können, ohne unsere wesentliche Aufgabe mutwillig zu zerstören.

3. Der Roman *Straßen ohne Ende* im Kontext der Ideen der Jugendbewegung und der Gesellschaftskritik der Kommunisten

Die Hauptfigur des Romans – der sozial gefährdete Jugendliche Hans Schulze – scheitert eben an den Forderungen des Kollektivs – in diesem Fall des bürokratischen Systems, welches nicht gewillt ist „die Eigenart des individuellen Menschen“ (vgl. Zitat oben) genügend zu berücksichtigen und mit ihr pädagogisch zu arbeiten. Zum bürokratischen Apparat, der im Romantext mit einer Maschine assoziiert wird, gehört jedoch auch der jugendbewegte Beamte Hermann Leukel, dem es trotz seines großen Einsatzes für den Jungen nicht gelingt, dessen endgültiges Abdriften in die Verzweiflung sowie sein Untertauchen ins kriminelle Milieu zu verhindern. Die Ursachen für das Scheitern von Hans Schulze bestehen zum einen im Mangel an der Zeit, die ihm seine Familie oder die Beamten nicht gewidmet haben; zum anderen geht er an den bürokratischen Regeln zugrunde, denen er sich hätte unterordnen müssen. Der Autor scheint für seine Hauptfigur absichtlich einen möglichst geläufigen Vor- und Nachnamen gewählt zu haben, damit sie repräsentativ für die unzählige Menge der gefährdeten Jugend sei, für die in der Weltwirtschaftskrisenzeit aufgrund ihrer Vielzahl und wirtschaftlicher Unbrauchbarkeit nur sehr geringe Aussichten auf zufriedenstellende Zukunft bestanden. Die

¹ Hervorhebung hinzugefügt.

Motive des Tempos, des Zeitmangels, der toten Maschine, des Großstadtmolochs und der Kälte durchdringen den ganzen Text.

Im Fokus des Romans steht Hans Schulze, ein 17-jähriger Jugendlicher aus einer proletarischen Familie, dessen Vater SPD-Mitglied und Gewerkschaften-Aktivist ist. Seine Mutter ist krank und sie stirbt vor dem Ende des Romans. Der Junge ist arbeitslos — er „geht stempeln“ und teilt somit das Schicksal der meisten Unterschichtjugendlichen. Am Höhepunkt der Weltwirtschaftskrise (bzw. im Erscheinungsjahr des Werks 1931) waren etwa ein Drittel der erwerbstätigen Bevölkerung arbeitslos. Es wird geschätzt, dass etwa 40% der Jugendlichen von der Arbeitslosigkeit betroffen waren. Immerhin findet Hans den Beruf als Laufjunge bei einer Firma. Auf dem Fahrrad besorgt er Geschäfte und transportiert oft hohe Geldbeträge. Aufgrund der hohen Arbeitslosigkeit sind die Löhne der ungelernten Arbeiter entsprechend niedergedrückt. Hans verdient 18 RM pro Woche bei 10-stündiger Tagesarbeit. Da er beim früheren Arbeitgeber eine Unterschlagung von 83 RM begangen hatte, wurde er zum Jugendgericht vorgeladen. Er muss den Schaden wiedergutmachen und es wird ihm ein Betreuer vom Jugendamt zugeteilt, der ihn regelmäßig besuchen und beraten soll. Zum Betreuer wird der jugendbewegte Beamte Hermann Leukel, 27 Jahre alt, auserwählt. Leukel möchte viel mehr „Freund, Kamerad, Helfer“ (Ehrhardt 1931: 59) sein als „Vollstrecker der Staatsgewalt“ (ebd.: 58). Er war mal „Wandervogel und da war die Natur groß und rein. Bäume, Vögel, Himmel, Sonne und Sterne“ (ebd.: 60). Herr Leukel ist aber von so vielen Jugendlichen in Anspruch genommen, dass er keine Zeit hat, Hans näher zu kommen. Er ahnt, dass Hans, der mit einem falschen Freund verkehrt, wieder auf Abwege gerät. Hans kann auch seine Freundin nicht behalten, weil er nicht Geld hat, um Vergnügen nachzugehen — wie zum Beispiel dem Kino. In Hermann Leukels Perspektive erscheinen seine eigenen Erinnerungen an die Wandervogel-Zeit im Gegensatz zum darauffolgenden Krieg, der mit Heuchelei „der Alten“ assoziiert wird:

Herr Leukel denkt an die Jungen und Mädchen, mit denen er jung war. Eine schöne Freundschaft verband sie damals. [...] Da spuckte man auf die Alten, die einen nie und nimmermehr verstehen konnten. [...] Sechs Jahre sind herum. Zehn Jahre. Aber das Feuer brennt noch. Einst war es auf dem Berge. Im Walde. Am Bach. Jetzt brennt es da drinnen im Herzen. Meine Jugend ist nicht deine Jugend. Aber dann kam der Krieg. [...] Hurra. Hurra. Jeden Tag und jede Woche. Ein Jahr und zwei. Und dann ist Schluss. Der Junge schreit nicht mehr Hurra. Er sieht noch und horcht noch, aber es ist etwas hinzugekommen. Er denkt und denkt. Vaterland und Freiheit? Und warum machen

manche dann Geschäfte? Warum wollen sie nicht alle für das Vaterland sterben? (ebd.: 72f.)

So entschleiert der Erzähler die Heuchelei der Nachkriegsgesellschaft der Erwachsenen, die in erster Linie Vorbilder für ihre Kinder hätten sein müssen: „Sie haben alle im Krieg gestohlen. Sie stehlen weiter.“ (ebd.: 75), wird im Roman lakonisch festgestellt. Was Hans betrifft, leidet er unter der Kälte seiner Umgebung, Sein Vater ist freundlicher zu ihm, seitdem er die Arbeit bekommen hat, aber er hat keine Zeit für ihn, seiner älteren Schwester scheint er gleichgültig zu sein. Die Anonymität Berlins wirkt ungeheuerlich. Die Straßen sind ohne Ende - suggeriert der Titel: Sie sind unendlich lang und münden eine in die andere, aber sie haben kein Ziel, wenn man einsam ist oder sogar auf der Straße lebt. „Viermillionenfünfhunderttausend Menschen leben in dieser Stadt. Gute Menschen, schlechte Menschen. Jeder ist so, wie er sein kann. Keiner davon hat den Weg zu Hans Schulze gefunden.“ (ebd.: 51).

Schließlich passiert es, dass Hans Schulze zum zweiten Mal Geldunterschlagung begeht. Es handelt sich aber schon um den Betrag von 470 RM. Hans fährt mit der Geldsumme nach Hamburg, wo er allerdings von einer Prostituierten ausgeraubt wird. Er freundet sich später mit Jungen an, die auf der Straße leben. Eine besondere Freundschaft knüpft ihn mit Orje, der auf der Flucht aus der Fürsorgeerziehung ist und ebenfalls aus Berlin kommt. Orje, als Waise geboren, wandert durch ganz Deutschland und wartet auf seine Volljährigkeit (21 Jahre), um dann nicht mehr in Fürsorgeanstalten kommen zu müssen. Orje ist der beste Freund, dem Hans begegnet. Er war Mitglied der Kommunistischen Jugend und der Antifa (vgl. ebd.: 99). Die Jungen machen sich auf einen weiten Fußweg aus Hamburg Richtung Berlin. Sie übernachten meistens in Scheunen. Im Freien bekommt Hans einen Eindruck von der Freude und dem Jubel, von dem ihm die Natur erfüllt zu sein scheint: „Bis in den Schlaf hinein hört Hans die Vögel singen. Wie das jubelt und juchzt und wie die das fertigbringen. [...] Alles ist grün und alles ist voll Freude [...]“ (ebd.: 93f.). Zurück in Berlin besucht Hans die Wohnung seiner Familie, aber niemand ist zu Hause. Später in einer Kneipe führt die Polizei eine Razzia durch und Hans wird festgenommen. Während er abwesend war, hat das Jugendgericht beschlossen, ihn in Fürsorge unterzubringen. Die Natur stellt eine menschenfreundlichere Alternative zur Großstadt: „Wer kein Zuhause hat in dieser Stadt, ist einsamer als in der Wildnis. Da draußen trifft man einen Baum, einen Strauch, ein Tier. Du bist nicht allein, aber hier bist in einem Kessel. Oder in einem dunklen Schacht. Alles ist weit und fremd. Alles dreht sich. Das Rad, denkt Hans.“ (ebd.: 145f.).

Der Hauptfokus im zweiten Teil des Romans liegt auf der Fürsorgeerziehung. Sie wird als etwas für die Jugend potenziell Schädliches, ja Verhängnisvolles entlarvt. Von der breiten Öffentlichkeit der Weimarer Republik wurden die Erziehungsanstalten meistens als „Verbrecherschulen“ diffamiert und die Zöglinge als besonders gefährlich gebrandmarkt. Der überwiegende Teil der Erziehungsanstalten lag in konfessioneller Hand und die Zöglinge sollten durch abstumpfende Arbeit zur Dämpfung ihrer Erregbarkeit und ihres Geschlechtstribs erzogen werden. Das System der Fürsorgeerziehung scheiterte Anfang der 1930er Jahre fast vollständig. Die Fürsorgeerziehung geriet unter vernichtende Kritik insbesondere aus den Reihen der Kommunisten, die sie als ein Mittel der Unterdrückung der Arbeiterjugend betrachteten. Ins Zentrum der Aufmerksamkeit des öffentlichen Interesses rückten seit Ende der 1920-er Jahre mehrere große Skandale, die die Öffentlichkeit wegen der Brutalität der Erzieher gegenüber den Jugendlichen erschütterten. Wegen Mangel an Finanzen und an professionellen Pädagogen wurden 1932 alle Zöglinge oberhalb der Altersgrenze von 18 Jahre aus den Erziehungsanstalten entlassen. Im pädagogischen Diskurs wurden jene Stimmen immer lauter, welche Sonderbehandlung für Schwersterziehbare und so genannte Psychopathen forderten. Dabei wurde die Fürsorgeerziehung Anfang der 1920er Jahre nach der gesetzlichen Bestimmung gegründet, die das „Recht eines jeden deutschen Kindes auf Erziehung zur leiblichen, seelischen und gesellschaftlichen Tüchtigkeit“ garantierte. In *Straßen ohne Ende* wird die Fürsorgeerziehung mit einer Maschine konnotiert, die aufklappt und zuklappt. „Wer dazwischengerät, sitzt drin ...“ (ebd.: 96). Hans kann besonders die Nächte im Heim kaum vertragen, in denen die Jungen Ekel erregende Geschichten erzählen und darüber lachen. Als dann nachts einer der Jungen brutal zusammengeschlagen wird, entschließt sich Hans zur Flucht: „Er will hier nicht bleiben; er fühlt es: hier wird er zugrunde gehen, wenn er nicht schon morgen den Weg aus diesem Haß und dieser Enge findet.“ (ebd.: 140). Nach der Ankunft in Berlin scheint Hans Lehre aus seinen abschreckenden Erfahrungen mit der Fürsorgeerziehung gezogen zu haben. Frühmorgens arbeitet er jeden Tag in der Markthalle und erweist sich als besonders fleißig und verdient Geld. Hans möchte anständig leben und wieder von seinen Eltern aufgenommen werden. Er entscheidet sich Herrn Leukel aufzusuchen und hofft durch seine Hilfe, von der Fürsorgeerziehung befreit zu werden. Herr Leukel begreift, dass Hans an dem erneuten Aufenthalt in der Erziehungsanstalt psychisch zerbrechen würde, obwohl er aus der Perspektive der Ämter zurückgebracht werden müsste. Der Erzieher will aber nicht an einer Ordnung beteiligt sein, die einen Menschen zugrunde richtet. Die Gerechtigkeit seiner Vorgesetzten, die es zurückweisen, Hans aus der Fürsorge zu entlassen, findet er unmenschlich, starr und schematisch.

Jetzt läuft die Maschine, und da kann keiner herausspringen. Der Junge hat unterschlagen und hat sich rumgetrieben, also ist er in Fürsorge gekommen. Er ist ausgerückt, also wird er gesucht. Er wird gesucht, also wird er gefunden und eingesperrt. Also kann er nicht mehr zurück. Er steht also draußen. Wer draußen steht, kann nicht mehr herein. Alle Türen sind verschlossen. Das Leben geht seinen Gang. Wer in die Maschine kommt, wird durchgedreht, bis er unten oder dahinten wieder hervorkommt. Und wer in der Maschine zappelt, wird totgequetscht. Lieg still. Schweig still. Ein Rad saust. Viele Räder greifen ineinander, damit Gerechtigkeit und Ordnung in der Welt bleiben.“² (ebd: 177)

Der Vater von Hans gelangt inzwischen – nach dem anfänglichen Verstoß des Sohnes wegen dessen erneuerter Geldunterschlagung – zu der Einsicht, dass Hans eigentlich nichts vom Leben gehabt habe. Seine Schuld wiege viel weniger als das, was „die kapitalistische Gesellschaft an ihm verbrochen“ (ebd.: 163) hätte. Der Beamte Leukel – mit der Unterstützung des Vaters Schulze – unternimmt alles, was in seiner Macht steht, um die Rückkehr des Jugendlichen in die Fürsorgeanstalt zu verhindern, doch der Landrat hat das letzte Wort. Er fordert, dass der „Gerechtigkeit“ und „Ordnung“ Genüge getan werde. Hans muss wenigstens drei Monate in der Fürsorgeanstalt bleiben und sich auf diese Art und Weise bewähren. Bei der Nachricht über den behördlichen Beschluss

bricht Hans in die Knie [...] wie gefällt, plötzlich und ohne Wehren, ohne Kraft. Er schreit nicht, er ruft nach niemand. Er wimmert nur ... Er wimmert. Der Kopf auf der blau gewürfelten Decke bewegt sich im Schütteln und Zittern. Herr Leukel wartet noch einmal zehn Minuten. Vielleicht ist es auch eine Stunde. Und dann steht Hans plötzlich auf, sieht sich verwundert und etwas beschämt um. Was war denn das ...? (ebd.: 238) Er hat keine Sprache mehr und die Tränen sind eingefroren in der großen Kälte, die ihn erst langsam aber dann ganz schnell zum Erstarren gebracht hat.“ (ebd.: 240). Das System ist stärker als Menschegeist und Menschenwille. Aber das eine bleibt: Es ist von Menschen geschaffen worden und das ist das Große daran ...“ (ebd.).

Während der angeordneten Fahr in die Fürsorgeanstalt gelingt es dem verzweifelten Hans allerdings zu flüchten und unterzutauchen. Vom Begleiter des Jungen auf dieser Reise wird folgendes berichtet: „Bis wir in die Straßenbahn einstiegen, hatte der Zögling nichts geantwortet.

² Hervorhebungen im Zitat hinzugefügt.

[...] Vor dem Bahnhof fing Schulze plötzlich ohne Grund an zu weinen und lief dann mit einem Male davon.“ (ebd.: 244).

Im Roman kommt an mehreren Stellen implizit Sympathie zu kommunistischen Idealen zum Vorschein. Es ist beispielsweise an der Stelle, wo Hermann Leukel einem Umzug von Kommunisten begegnet, die nach Brot und Arbeit rufen, aber anschließend von der Polizei auseinandergetrieben werden. Der Idealist Leukel hat wie immer ein schlechtes Gewissen, wenn er solche Proteste sieht: „Brot und Arbeit ... Der Ruf dröhnt und das Echo kommt als furchtbare Anklage zurück. Manchmal rüttelt es Herrn Leukel: Was du tust ist Feigheit ... Da vorn die Bataillone marschieren an die Front. Idealisten sind Drückeberger.“ (ebd.: 77). Eine indirekte Sympathie zu den Kommunisten kann im Romantext noch an der Figur Orjes beobachtet werden: Er ist wohl die sympathischste jugendliche Figur im Werk. Er war Mitglied bei der KJ und bei der Antifa. Er erzählt, dass er ohne die Hilfe dieser Verbände wahrscheinlich nicht überlebt hätte.

4. Schluss

Wie dieser Analyse von Ehrhardts Romans entnommen werden kann, kritisiert der Erzähler die Entmenslichung des Umgangs mit der Jugend seitens der Behörden in Deutschland der Weimarer Zeit. Die individuell humanistische Herangehensweise verbindet er mit den Idealen der Jugendbewegung. So steht auf einer der letzten Seiten des Romans der lapidare Satz: „Der Traum der Jugendbewegung vom Reich der Gerechtigkeit ist aus ...“ (Ehrhardt 1931: 243). Diese Einstellung des Erzählers ist sicher nicht unbegründet. So lesen wir auch beim Reformpädagogen Herman Nohl eine ähnliche Charakterisierung der Wesensmerkmale der Jugendbewegung. Die Kräfte, aus denen diese ihre Ideale schöpfte, waren vor allem der Kampf gegen den Verlust des „Selbstwert[s] des Subjekts, [da] der Mensch [in der modernen Gesellschaft] nur noch nach seiner Leistungskraft gewürdigt wurde [...] Alle Bindungen seines sozialen Daseins lösten sich auf.“ (Nohl 1988: 4). Angesichts der vagen, widersprüchlichen und zum Teil antihumanistischen (rechtsradikalen) Tendenzen vieler Bünde der Jugendbewegung in der Epoche der Weimarer Republik muss jedoch festgestellt werden, dass der Humanismus dieser Organisationen in den meisten Fällen auf keinen festen Grundlagen stand. Demgegenüber schien der Kommunismus mit seinem Versprechen des Kampfes für die unterdrückten Schichten, denen Gerechtigkeit widerfahren sollte, größere Chancen für den notwendigen Wandel des Systems zu bieten. So lesen wir in Ehrhardts Roman auch solche

Sätze, die die Fürsorgeerziehung als ein Mittel der Unterdrückung des Proletariats anprangern: „Herr Leukel wird zum Stadtrat gehen und ihm ins Gesicht schleudern, was er über die Sinnlosigkeit dieser [staatlichen] Ordnung [...] denkt. Er wird ihm sagen, daß die Fürsorgeerziehung Unterdrückung und Rechtlosmachung von Arbeiterjugend sei.“ (Ehrhardt 1931: 243) Wie ist jedoch das Ideal der Menschenrechte mit der Idee einer totalisierten Gesellschaft unter dem Vorzeichen des Kommunismus zu vereinigen? Wie würden Kommunisten kriminelle Jugendliche behandeln? Würde die Jugendkriminalität mit der Sättigung der Hungernden und Entbehrenden verschwinden? Auf solche Fragen geht Ehrhardts Roman freilich nicht ein. Der Kommunismus und seine Anhänger werden im Text nicht vordergründig reflektiert, obwohl – wie gezeigt wurde – gewisse Sympathien zu kommunistischen Figuren im Werk bemerkbar sind. Demgegenüber finden wir keine expliziten Bemerkungen über den Nationalsozialismus in Ehrhardts *Straßen ohne Ende*, obwohl diese Bewegung zur Zeit der Herausgabe des Werkes bereits eine sehr wichtige politische Kraft in Deutschland darstellte.

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Autorenangaben:

Mgr. Pavel Knápek, Ph.D.

Pedagogická fakulta,

Katedra nemeckého jazyka a literatúry

Trnavská univerzita v Trnave

knapek.pavel@gmail.com

POLITISCHE BILDUNG – WARUM UND WIE?

INGRID KUNOVSKÁ

Abstrakt

Eine wichtige Voraussetzung zur Teilnahme am täglichen gesellschaftlichen, politischen und auch wirtschaftlichen Leben ist heute ein entsprechendes Niveau der politischen Bildung. Weil im Rahmen des Unterrichts an verschiedenen Typen der Schulen auch die aktuellen gesellschaftlichen so einheimischen als auch ausländischen Themen diskutiert werden sollen, hat auch die schulische Bildung eine politische Dimension. Auch der Fremdsprachenunterricht ist eine geeignete Plattform, die einen wesentlichen Beitrag zur Förderung der politischen Bildung leisten sollte. Warum und wie sollte die politische Bildung nicht nur in den allgemeinen, sondern auch in den fremdsprachlichen Unterricht integriert werden, sind Fragen, die der vorgelegte Beitrag beantworten will.

Schlüsselwörter: politische Bildung, politische Themen, fremdsprachliche Bildung, Sprache, Kultur, fremdsprachliche Kompetenz, Ziele des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts

Einleitung

Das Konzept der politischen Bildung entstand in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Im Falle Deutschlands trägt das Konzept der politischen Bildung dazu bei, demokratische Traditionen und Werte in der Bevölkerung zu stärken. Das Ziel des Prozesses der politischen Bildung ist ein selbstgerechter Bürger, d.h. ein Bürger, der nicht nur über ausreichend vermittelte Informationen, sondern auch über politisches Verständnis verfügt, sein kritisches Denken zur Bewertung politischer Prozesse nutzen kann, in der Lage ist, über Politik zu diskutieren und letztlich ein aktives Interesse an öffentlichen Angelegenheiten hat, auch durch politische Partizipation (Detjen, 2007; Reheis 2014). Das Ergebnis der politischen Bildung ist eine Person mit einem ausgeprägten Empfinden für die Werte der parlamentarischen Demokratie und der Marktwirtschaft (Štefančík, 2016a), d. h. eine Person, die die Gefahren der demokratischen Ordnung, unter anderem des Rechtsextremismus (Smolík, 2013), erkennen und verantwortungsvoll und kompetent darauf reagieren kann. Die politische Bildung sollte im

Unterricht aufgrund zahlreicher thematischer Anknüpfungspunkte fächerübergreifend stattfinden, wobei die freie Meinungsbildung der Studierenden nicht eingeschränkt werden soll.

Familie und Schule – ihre Rolle in politischer Bildung

Die Familie spielt im Prozess der politischen Sozialisierung eine Schlüsselrolle (Kleeberg-Niepage, 2012). Auf dieser Ebene ist die Möglichkeit der indirekten Kommunikation, der Diskussion über Politik wichtig. Es ist wichtig im familiären Umfeld Debatten über die Verwaltung öffentlicher Angelegenheiten, aber auch über verschiedene gesellschaftliche Probleme (Korruption, Klientelismus) zu führen. Die Rolle der Familie besteht darin, Meinungen zu vertreten, die mit den Grundsätzen der Rechtsstaatlichkeit vereinbar sind und umgekehrt, und solche, die im Widerspruch zu den Grundsätzen der demokratischen Ordnung stehen, sollten unterdrückt werden. Wenn Kinder bereits mit ihren Eltern über Politik diskutieren, ist es wahrscheinlicher, dass Jugendliche aus solchen Familien im Jugendalter und im späteren Leben ein besseres Verständnis für die Prinzipien der pluralistischen Demokratie entwickeln.

Auch die Schule ist für die politische Bildung von großer Bedeutung. Gerade in der Schule haben junge Menschen die Möglichkeit, erste Erfahrungen mit der Demokratie zu sammeln. In dieser Zeit eines jungen Menschen ist es wichtig, ob Politik nicht nur in der Schule diskutiert wird, sondern auch, ob die Entscheidungen des pädagogischen Prozesses mit Vorstellungen über die demokratische Verwaltung öffentlicher Angelegenheiten übereinstimmen. Letztlich kommt es darauf an, ob ein Jugendlicher eine unmittelbare Möglichkeit hat, an verschiedenen Entscheidungen innerhalb der Schule mitzuwirken. (Kunovská, 2017)

Neben Familie und Schule sind auch politische Jugendorganisationen wichtige Akteure der politischen Bildung (Polačková, 2012) und im Falle Deutschlands beispielsweise politische Stiftungen. Beide Arten von Organisationen sind direkt mit politischen Parteien verbunden, während politische Stiftungen, die vom Bund zum Zweck der politischen Bildung gefördert werden. An Schulen findet die politische Bildung nicht nur in Form des klassischen Unterrichts statt. Parlaments- und Gerichtsbesuche, interaktive Projekte bieten praktische Möglichkeiten, Demokratie und Politik erfahrbar zu machen.

Die Sprache der Politik erscheint in unterschiedlichen Formen, in unterschiedlichen Kontexten und Situationen (Niehr, 2014; Girth, 2015). Neben der Sprache der direkten Akteure der Politik, bei denen es sich in der Regel um Verfassungsbeamte (Präsident, Premierminister, Minister, Abgeordnete, Staatssekretäre etc.) handelt, sowie Vertreter von Berufsgruppen, die in direktem Zusammenhang mit der Politik stehen (Journalisten, Kommentatoren,

Politikwissenschaftler), kommt politische Sprache auch in der alltäglichen Kommunikation vor (Štefančík, 2016a). Eine der Möglichkeiten, wenn die Sprache der Politik in der kommunikativen Interaktion zwischen Nicht-Politikern eingesetzt wird, besteht unter anderem auch im Unterricht. Politik wird so zum Diskussionsgegenstand entweder zwischen Lehrern und Studierenden oder zwischen Studierenden. In der Regel wird es am häufigsten an Gymnasien im staatsbürgerlichen Unterricht oder im Geschichtsunterricht, an Universitäten in Seminaren und Vorlesungen im Bereich der Sozialwissenschaften verwendet.

Nach Gödecke, Grünewald, Steinhoff (2020) dient die politische Bildung als Unterrichtsprinzip, bei dem es um die Ausbildung kritisch denkender und reflektierender Heranwachsender geht und deren Inhalte persönlichkeitsbildend für Studierenden wirken können. Sie schreiben weiter: „In einem zeitgemäßen Fremdsprachenunterricht müssen Lehrkräfte demnach Lernarrangements und Aufgaben entwickeln, die sich an der Lebenswelt junger Heranwachsender und Herausforderungssituationen des 21. Jahrhunderts orientieren. Dabei sollen die Jugendlichen zur fremdsprachlichen Teilhabe an gesellschaftlich relevanten Diskursen befähigt und für andere Perspektiven sensibilisiert werden.“

Ziel und Themen der politischen Bildung

Das Ziel der politischen Bildung sollte es sein, die Analyse- und Urteilskompetenz und auch das gesellschaftliche Verantwortungsbewusstsein der Studierenden zu fördern und zu stärken. So gewonnene Kompetenz ermöglicht ihnen später, dass sie als Bürger an demokratischen Prozessen und Diskussionen teilnehmen können werden und zugleich fähig werden in politischen Zusammenhängen ihre eigenen Interessen und Einstellungen zu analysieren, zu vertreten und zu vergleichen. Auch im Rahmen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts sollte laut Gödecke, Grünewald, Steinhoff (2020) die politische Bildung nicht nur Informationen vermitteln, sondern auch die Entwicklung des Verständnisses und Prozesse sowie der Fähigkeit bestehende gesellschaftliche, politische und wirtschaftliche Probleme des Zielsprachenlandes unter Einbeziehung der jeweiligen Rahmenbedingungen analysieren, kritisch betrachten und beurteilen können.

Ein generelles Verständnis von politischer und wirtschaftlicher Entwicklung wird durch die exemplarische Behandlung aktueller Themen im Unterricht vermittelt.

Eine angemessene Wahl der Lernthemen sowie richtig ausgewählte Lernmaterialien tragen wesentlich dazu bei, dass das Interesse der jungen Generation am Erlernen von Fremdsprachen steigt. Vor allem authentische Texte, die den aktuellen Stand der Gesellschaft im In- und

Ausland, aber auch den aktuellen Stand der Fremdsprache selbst darstellen, sollten verpflichtender Bestandteil jeder Unterrichtseinheit des Fremdsprachenbildungsprozesses sein. Der Text ist ein wichtiges „Arbeitsinstrument“ im Fremdsprachenunterricht, ohne den der Lehrprozess nicht durchgeführt werden kann. Daher muss der Auswahl und der anschließenden Einbeziehung in die Lehre im Zusammenhang mit dem behandelten Thema gebührende Aufmerksamkeit gewidmet werden. Texte, die inhaltlich den aktuell behandelten Themen entsprechen, tragen in hohem Maße dazu bei, ein positives Verhältnis der Lernenden zur Arbeit mit einem fremdsprachigen Text aufzubauen, die Effektivität des Lehrprozesses zu steigern und gleichzeitig das Interesse an den aktuellen Themen zu wecken. (Kunovská, 2017)

Nicht weniger wichtig ist, dass solche Texte auch eine dynamische Interaktion mit einer Fremdsprache sowie mit der Kultur, die ein wesentlicher Bestandteil des Lehrens und Lernens jeder Fremdsprache ist, unterstützen. Um das Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts zu erreichen, nämlich einen sprachbeherrschten und mit interkultureller Kommunikationskompetenz ausgestatteten Fremdsprachenanwender zu erreichen, muss ihrer Auswahl genügende Aufmerksamkeit gewidmet werden.

Besonders wichtig auch für die politische Bildung sind unserer Meinung nach authentische Texte. Sie sind ein Mittel zum Erlernen einer fremden Sprache und Kultur. Sie stellen ein Modell der Kultur der Zielsprache dar. Es handelt sich um Lernmaterialien, die nicht für bestimmte methodische Zwecke künstlich erstellt werden. Im Gegensatz zu didaktischen Texten haben authentische Texte die Eigenschaft, in der Sprechergemeinschaft, aus der der jeweilige Text stammt, einen soziokulturellen Zweck zu erfüllen. (Kunovská, 2013)

Die authentischen fremdsprachigen Texte und die authentischen Interpretationen sind für eine authentische Kommunikation notwendig, insbesondere in den fortgeschritteneren Phasen des Fremdsprachenlernens.

Bei der Einbindung politischer Themen, beispielsweise in Form journalistischer Texte, in den Fremdsprachenunterricht ist das Sprachniveau der Studierenden der jeweiligen Gruppe zu berücksichtigen. Abhängig davon ist es notwendig, die Art, das Genre des Textes, seinen Schwierigkeitsgrad und seine Länge zu berücksichtigen. Der Lehrer muss in der Lage sein, die genannten Punkte mit dem gesetzten Ziel, dem Zweck des Unterrichts und der Ermittlung der Bedürfnisse der Schüler so zu verbinden, dass die Entwicklung kommunikativer Fähigkeiten in der jeweiligen Fremdsprache gewährleistet ist. Ideal ist es, die Auswahl der Materialien an die Interessen der Studierenden anzupassen, was ihre Motivation zum Lernen und zur aktiven Mitarbeit im Unterricht unterstützt.

Das Spektrum der Themen, die Teil der Lehre im Fach Landeskunde sein können, ist wirklich sehr breit. Und zu ihm gehören selbstverständlich immer auch die politischen Themen. Zumindest in Form grundlegender Theorien, die sich auf die Merkmale der Funktionsweise des Staates und der Institutionen im Land des jeweiligen Sprachraums sowie auf das politische Leben und die Ereignisse in einem bestimmten Land beziehen. Es ist wünschenswert, die junge Generation für das politische Geschehen im In- und Ausland zu interessieren, denn Desinteresse und Unwissenheit können ein schwerwiegender Grund für unerwünschte gesellschaftspolitische Entwicklungen sein. (Kunovská, 2017)

Die Wahl der politischen Themen muss jedoch auch an den erreichten Wissensstand im Bereich Politik sowie an das erreichte Fremdsprachenniveau der Studierenden, das Unterrichtsfach, die Studienrichtung und das Alter der Studierenden angepasst werden.

Laut Gödecke, Grünewald, Steinhoff (2020) besteht für die Lehrenden die Herausforderung darin, die ausgewählten Themen in den Erfahrungshorizont ihrer Studierenden zu rücken und lernstandsangemessen mit der Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenzen zu verknüpfen. Sie behaupten auch, dass viele der politischen Themen sich aus unterschiedlichen Perspektiven betrachten lassen.

Grünewald et al. (2017) schlagen daher folgende Auswahlkriterien für geeignete Themen und Materialien zur Förderung politischer Bildung vor.

Leitfragen zur Auswahl von Themen	Leitfragen zur Auswahl von Materialien
• Weist das Thema einen Gegenwarts- und Lebensweltbezug auf?	• In welchen Maß berührt das Material einen zentralen Aspekt des Themas?
• Welche Relevanz hat das Thema für die Lebenswirklichkeit der Schüler*innen?	• Bietet das Material die Möglichkeit der Bezugnahme auf die Lebenswelt der Schüler*innen?
• Welche Bedeutung hat das Thema für das Zielsprachenland?	• Ist das Material angemessen für den sprachlichen Kenntnisstand der Schüler*innen?
• Werden vielfältige Perspektiven berücksichtigt?	• In welchen Maß vermittelt das Material eine persönliche Perspektive in Bezug auf das Thema?
• Auf welche Weise erfolgt eine Auseinandersetzung mit Werten und Normen?	• Ist das Material anschaulich und motivierend für die Lerngruppe?
• Welche Rolle spielen Problemorientierung und Zukunftsbedeutung?	• Regt das Material zur problemorientierten Auseinandersetzung an?

• Inwieweit sind die Themen authentisch?	• Ist das Material offen für andere Perspektiven auf den Gegenstand?
• Inwieweit ist eine Vielfalt bei den Inhalten und den damit verbundenen Textsorten gegeben?	• Inwieweit fördert das Material die sprachliche Weiterentwicklung der Schüler*innen?
• Inwieweit bieten die Themen Konfliktpotenzial für das Land/die Länder der Zielsprache?	•

Tabelle 1: Auswahlkriterien für Themen und Materialien zur Förderung politischer Bildung nach Grünewald et. al. (2017)

Schlusswort

Heisel (2022) unterstreicht, dass eine Schlüsselrolle des Fremdsprachenunterrichts für eine politische Bildung im Sinne schulischer Bildung neben den inhaltlichen, institutionellen und normativen Setzungen in der Sprache als Lerngegenstand liegt. Der Stellenwert von Sprache sowohl für die allgemeine als auch für die politische Bildung ist hoch. Sprache ist eine Voraussetzung von sozialer Teilnahme und Wirksamkeit.

Um den Fremdsprachenunterricht effizienter zu gestalten, ist es unter anderem notwendig, den Fokus auf die Methode /Art des Unterrichts, auf das Lehrmaterial und nicht zuletzt auf die angemessene Einbeziehung von Themen und Bereichen in den Unterricht zu legen und das Studium einer Fremdsprache auch mit Hilfe der aktuellen gesellschaftlichen und politischen Themen effektiver zu machen. Im Prozess der kulturellen Globalisierung stellt der Fremdsprachenunterricht einen Dialog der Kulturen dar, der auch auf Lehrmaterialien übertragen werden muss. Auf jeden Fall fördert man durch ihre richtige Auswahl und Einbeziehung in den Lehrprozess das Interesse der Studierenden an aktuellen, gegenwärtigen und vergangenen politischen Ereignissen, erweitert man ihren Überblick und ihr Bewusstsein für die Zusammenhänge, die zwischen Geschichte und Gegenwart, zwischen Geschichte und Politik, Wirtschaft und Politik bestehen. Nicht zuletzt werden die Studierenden motiviert, sich eine eigene Meinung zu bilden, die sie schließlich nicht nur in ihrer Muttersprache, sondern auch in einer Fremdsprache vertreten können.

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Kontakt:

Mgr. Ingrid Kunovská, PhD.

Katedra nemeckého jazyka

Fakulta aplikovaných jazykov

Ekonomická univerzita v Bratislave

ingrid.kunovska@euba.sk

THE IMPORTANCE OF CRITICAL THINKING IN POLITICAL AND BUSINESS NEGOTIATIONS

ŽANETA PAVLÍKOVÁ

Abstract

Negotiations are a fundamental aspect of human interaction. It is a process that is undertaken daily to manage relationships. Moreover, negotiations are a vital part of domestic and international decision-making. Their success relies not only on technical expertise but also on applying soft skills. Among these, critical thinking stands out as particularly vital. This article delves into the significance of soft skills, specifically critical thinking in the context of business and political negotiations.

Keywords: *soft skills, thinking, critical thinking, business negotiations, political negotiations*

Introduction

Negotiation is a fundamental aspect of human interaction. It is a process that is undertaken on a daily basis to manage relationships, including those between spouses, between parents and their children, employers and employees, buyers and sellers, business associates and high political representatives. In some instances, the stakes involved may not be particularly high, and therefore, there is no need to engage in extensive pre-planning. However, in other cases, such as those pertaining to business or political relationships, the stakes are considerably higher, necessitating a more meticulous approach to preparation, planning and negotiation.

In the contemporary global environment, characterised by interconnectivity and rapid change, the capacity to engage in critical thinking is of paramount importance for success in both business and political negotiations. The term critical thinking is defined as the disciplined process of actively analysing, synthesising, and evaluating information to make informed decisions. This cognitive skill is increasingly recognised as a vital soft skill. In the realms of business and politics, negotiations are not only about the possession of technical knowledge and expertise, they also depend on the ability of the negotiators to employ critical thinking in order to navigate complex scenarios, anticipate outcomes and achieve mutually beneficial agreements. Critical thinking enables business negotiators to develop persuasive arguments and counter opposing viewpoints. Similarly, in political negotiations, critical thinking allows negotiators to understand the nuances of complex issues, evaluate the credibility of information sources, and formulate persuasive policy proposals.

Although there is a general consensus that critical thinking is a crucial skill in business and political negotiations, there is a paucity of empirical research in this area. This paper seeks to address this gap by exploring the specific ways in which critical thinking contributes to successful negotiations in both business and political contexts. In the following chapters, the author will point out the key critical thinking skills that are essential for effective negotiation by examining existing literature on critical thinking, negotiation theory and case studies.

Political and business negotiations

Political negotiations and related issues have constituted a central focus of interest for numerous political scientists and researchers over the course of several decades. These processes are inherently complex, involving the utilisation of diverse strategies and techniques to facilitate consensus among political actors. These processes are frequently shaped by a multitude of factors, including political interests, power relations, and social dynamics. The study and discussion of political negotiations and their implications are undertaken from a variety of disciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives, including those of international relations and public administration. Notable contributors to this field include Mansbridge and Martin (2013), who address selected aspects of political negotiations in their book *Negotiating Agreement in Politics*. They emphasise the significance of collaboration and the pursuit of shared solutions in the context of political negotiations. It is their view that the capacity of politicians to surmount differences and identify mutually beneficial compromises is of paramount importance. In his book *International Negotiation and Good Governance* (2024), Spector analyses international negotiations, emphasising the significance of good governance and transparency. Furthermore, he analyses the dynamics of the negotiation process from several perspectives. The works of Binder and Lee (2015) are also of substantial importance. These authors examine, among other issues, how political and party interests affect the ability of legislators to reach agreements in Congress. They also analyse how political actors use negotiations to influence public opinion and gain voter support.

Business negotiations are a multifaceted domain, encompassing a range of strategies and skills that are crucial for achieving organisational goals. Business negotiations are not merely transactional exchanges, rather, they entail intricate interactions that necessitate a profound comprehension of human behaviour, strategic thinking, and efficacious communication. The ability to negotiate effectively is a critical competency for business leaders and professionals, as negotiations play a pivotal role in the business world. They affect a wide range of activities, from mergers and acquisitions to supplier contracts and labour agreements. Effective

negotiation skills can lead to favourable terms, cost savings and long-term partnerships that contribute to an organisation's competitive advantage (Thompson, 2012). The key elements of a business negotiation include, among other issues, preparation and planning, communication skills, emotional intelligence, strategic thinking and ethical considerations (Fisher, Ury, Patton, 2011; Goleman, 1995). Thompson (2012) posits that negotiations frequently entail intricate problem-solving and the capacity to think strategically and critically. This encompasses the ability to discern mutually advantageous solutions, anticipate the other party's actions, and adapt in response to evolving circumstances.

All in all, business negotiations represent a pivotal element in the attainment of organisational success, necessitating the integration of technical expertise, strategic reasoning, and emotional intelligence. Effective negotiators are able to prepare thoroughly, communicate clearly, manage their emotions, and employ appropriate strategies to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes. An understanding of the key elements and strategies of negotiations enables business professionals to enhance their ability to navigate complex interactions and secure favourable agreements.

Soft skills

The issue of skills, whether hard or soft, has been addressed by numerous authors in a variety of contexts. The term „soft skills“ is used to describe a set of universal abilities that are related to interpersonal interactions and emotional intelligence. The focus is on the manner in which individuals collaborate, rather than on the specific tasks they undertake. In contrast to technical skills, which pertain to professional expertise, soft skills emphasise the personal and human dimensions of interaction (Mülheisen & Oberhuber, 2008). Peters-Kühlinger and Joh (2007) posit that soft skills encompass an individual's capacity to manage relationships with others and their own self-management. It is frequently observed that these skills are designated as social competencies, which encompass cooperation, communication and conflict management. Joshi (2017) defines soft skills as inherent personality traits or characteristics. These foundational elements serve to shape an individual's identity, thereby influencing their attitudes and interactions with others. The utilisation of soft skills serves to enhance the performance of employees, whilst simultaneously facilitating the creation of opportunities that extend beyond the confines of their specific job roles. In essence, soft skills can be defined as the capacity to establish connections with others, facilitate group organisation, and communicate effectively in a range of formats.

Based on research to date (Plamínek 2008, Kozárová 2024, Smith 2017, Kaščáková 2019, Sotáková, Ganajová, Siváková 2016), soft skills can be categorised into several groups. The

initial category encompasses social and interpersonal abilities, including proficiency in presentation, conflict resolution, negotiation, active listening, teamwork, empathy, and assertiveness. The second group, comprising leadership skills, encompasses abilities such as the ability to lead teams and organisational skills. The third group comprises cognitive abilities, including critical thinking, analytical thinking, complex thinking and strategic thinking. The final category comprises skills such as time management, stress and workload management, self-reflection, and self-management.

Critical thinking

The development of critical thinking is now widely accepted as a key objective of scientific research and professional practice. The concept of critical thinking has been interpreted in different ways by researchers, with several competing definitions that can be understood as representing different conceptions of the same basic concept, namely rigorous thinking with a specific goal. Those who can be described as „critical thinkers“ are distinguished by a set of dispositions and abilities that enable them to engage in critical thinking when necessary.

The term „critical thinking“ was initially introduced by the American philosopher John Dewey in 1910, who frequently referred to it as „reflective thinking“. Dewey defined it as the *„active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends.“* (Dewey, 1910:6)

Dewey’s conceptualisation of critical thinking has been extensively referenced by various researchers, including Glaser (1941), Norris and Ennis (1989), Fisher (2011), Hitchcock (2024), and Facione (2013). These scholars view critical thinking as a complex cognitive process that involves a thorough and reflective approach to solving problems and making decisions. This process includes several key elements such as an open and inquisitive mindset, logical reasoning, evidence-based evaluation, reflective thinking, and adherence to intellectual standards. Practically, critical thinking is defined as the skill that enables individuals to think independently, solve problems effectively, and make informed decisions, making it invaluable in all areas of life.

Facione (2013) delineates the fundamental competencies associated with critical thinking. He bases his argument on a cognitive view of critical thinking, which he considers to be constituted by the following core elements: interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation. He defines the term „interpretation“ as the act of understanding and expressing the meaning or significance of diverse experiences, situations, data, events, judgements, conventions, beliefs, rules, procedures, or criteria. The term „analysis“ is, in his words, defined

as the process of identifying the intended and actual inferential relationships between statements, questions, concepts, descriptions, or other forms of representation that are intended to express beliefs, judgements, experiences, information, or opinions. Facione (2013) also elucidates the concept of „evaluation“ as the process of evaluating the credibility of statements or other representations that are descriptions of a person’s perceptions, experiences, situations, beliefs, or opinions. In defining the term „inference“, Facione (ibid) refers to the context of expert analysis. In this context, inference is defined as the process of identifying and providing the elements necessary to draw reasonable inferences, forming conjectures and hypotheses, considering relevant information, and drawing implications from data, evidence, claims, judgements and beliefs. Another pivotal term is „explanation“, which denotes the capacity to articulate the outcomes of one’s reasoning logically and coherently. This enables the presentation of a comprehensive overview that incorporates both reasoning and justification. The author asserts that any justification must consider the evidential, conceptual, and contextual factors that underpin the presented results. Furthermore, the justification must be presented in the form of compelling arguments. The final concept is that of self-regulation, which he posits as the act of monitoring one’s own cognitive processes, particularly through the deployment of analytical and evaluative abilities.

Critical thinking in political and business negotiations

As previously stated in the article, the intricacies of political negotiations are characterised by the utilisation of diverse strategies and techniques, with the objective of reaching a consensus among political actors. The capacity for critical thinking is an integral component of these techniques, representing a distinct skill set. It is a fundamental competency that empowers policymakers to engage in the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of information. The capacity to discern between facts and assumptions, to discern hidden agendas and to evade manipulation is contingent upon the capacity to engage in critical thinking. The ability to master this skill enables politicians to navigate complex negotiations more effectively, thereby facilitating the achievement of results that are in the public interest.

As Fisher (2011) notes, the capacity to analyse information is a principal component of critical thinking in the context of political negotiations. Those engaged in policy-making must be able to deconstruct intricate information into its constituent elements and comprehend the manner in which these elements are interrelated. Such an analytical approach then enables the identification of the principal issues at stake. As Fisher (ibid.) asserts, critical thinking entails

a systematic examination of arguments, which is instrumental in the formulation of decisions during policy deliberations.

A further crucial element of critical thinking in the context of political negotiations is the evaluation of the reliability and relevance of information. Those engaged in political activities must be able to evaluate the credibility of the sources from which they obtain information. This process necessitates a comprehensive verification of the data and an examination of the potential biases inherent in the sources. Paul and Elder (2014) posit that critical thinking necessitates the capacity to differentiate between well-founded information and information predicated on flawed reasoning.

The significance of emotional intelligence in the interpretation of information is underscored by the work of Goleman (1995), who posits that emotional intelligence enables the comprehension of the perspectives and motivations of all parties engaged in the negotiation process. The capacity to interpret information is of paramount importance for the effective conduct of political negotiations. It enables political representatives engaged in policy-making to anticipate the consequences of different negotiation outcomes and to make decisions that are consistent with the strategic objectives that they have set themselves.

In the dynamic and often unpredictable context of business, the capacity to think critically is a prerequisite for successful negotiations. The capacity to think critically, which entails the analysis, evaluation and synthesis of information in order to make well-informed decisions, represents a vital skill for those engaged in business. One of the crucial aspects to consider is that of analysing information. The capacity for critical thinking allows business negotiators to analyse complex information and gain insight into the fundamental issues at stake. By disaggregating data into constituent parts, negotiators are able to identify the points of leverage and areas of agreement. This analytical approach enables the formulation of strategies that are both informed and targeted (Thompson, 2012).

The objective of logical reasoning in business negotiations is to assess the negotiator's capacity to reason logically and to evaluate arguments. Effective negotiators can employ logical reasoning to evaluate arguments and proposals. The capacity for critical thinking at this stage enables the evaluation of the legitimacy of disparate viewpoints and the construction of well-reasoned, compelling arguments. This logical approach enables the other party to be persuaded and a mutually beneficial agreement to be reached (Paul & Elder, 2014).

Another aspect of critical thinking considered crucial in business negotiations is problem-solving. Problem-solving is a process that requires the application of logical reasoning to identify and implement solutions to complex problems. The process of negotiation frequently

entails the resolution of intricate issues and the identification of resolutions that are mutually beneficial to all parties involved. The application of critical thinking equips negotiators with the capacity to identify potential obstacles and devise innovative solutions, thereby facilitating the resolution of complex problems. This capability is essential for the resolution of impasses and the achievement of successful outcomes (Thompson, 2012).

In conclusion, critical thinking is an indispensable element of efficacious business and political negotiations. It facilitates the capacity to analyse information, evaluate credibility, apply logical reasoning, solve problems and engage in reflective thinking.

Conclusion

The existing research evidence indicates that critical thinking has the capacity to enhance decision-making processes by enabling individuals to subject assumptions to close scrutiny, rigorously evaluate evidence and consider alternative perspectives. (Paul & Elder, 2014). In business negotiations, this capability is crucial for identifying the underlying interests of parties, assessing the viability of proposals, and crafting innovative solutions that address the needs of all stakeholders (Thompson, 2012). Similarly, in political negotiations, critical thinking allows leaders to analyse the implications of policies, evaluate the potential impact of decisions, and negotiate terms that serve the public interest while fostering international cooperation (Fisher, 2011). Moreover, the integration of critical thinking into negotiation strategies mitigates the risks of cognitive biases and emotional influences that can derail rational decision-making processes.

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Contact:

PaedDr. Žaneta Pavlíková, PhD.

English Language Department

Faculty of Applied Languages

University of Economics Bratislava

zaneta.pavlikova@euba.sk

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7104-1657>

IL COLORE ROSSO NELLE ESPRESSIONI ITALIANE E SLOVACCHE

ELENA SMOLEŇOVÁ

Abstract:

Il contributo esamina la presenza, le connotazioni e l'uso delle unità lessicali italiane e slovacche che contengono il crononimo "rosso". Il suo obiettivo è quello di analizzare e identificare parallelismi e differenze nei significati delle due lingue in confronto. Attraverso un'analisi semantica, vengono esplorati i contesti in cui questi termini vengono utilizzati. Nella prima parte dell'articolo, ci concentriamo sul simbolismo e sul significato del colore rosso. La peculiarità di questo crononimo risiede nella vasta gamma di simboli che spesso sono contraddittori e ambigui. Il rosso si riflette praticamente in tutte le sfere della nostra vita, assumendo significati diversi a seconda del contesto, e non è da trascurare nemmeno il suo valore storico. Sin dai tempi antichi, ha ricoperto un ruolo di grande rilevanza ed è stato considerato il colore „per eccellenza“.

Parole chiave: colore rosso, analisi semantica, simbolismo, unità lessicali, espressioni idiomatiche

Introduzione

I colori hanno sempre affascinato l'umanità e sono stati oggetto di studio in diversi campi di ricerca. Secondo Skuza (2014, p.15) „I termini relativi al colore rivestono un ruolo fondamentale per la percezione umana e pure per la rappresentazione emotiva della realtà. Il problema della denominazione dei colori sembra uno dei più studiati dal punto di vista interdisciplinare.“ Presenti in ogni aspetto della nostra vita, fanno parte integrante della nostra esperienza. Anche se spesso non ce ne rendiamo conto, i colori evocano reazioni emotive e sono in grado di influenzare il nostro umore e le nostre scelte. Inoltre, con la loro infinita varietà di sfumature arricchiscono il nostro mondo e lo rendono più bello. Come afferma Démuth (2005, p.15) [...]“ *la quantità, diversità e infinita variabilità dei colori donano al mondo saturazione, pienezza e varietà. Senza colori, il mondo della nostra esperienza soggettiva sarebbe notevolmente impoverito.*“ L'influenza dei colori su ciascuno di noi dipende non solo dalla qualità della nostra vista, ma anche dalle nostre esperienze in uno specifico contesto culturale. Nell'epoca odierna l'uso dei simboli è più diffuso che mai. I partiti politici, varie società e istituzioni fanno di tutto per attirare l'attenzione alle loro attività o prodotti e servizi.

Sono proprio i colori ad avere una forte carica simbolica ed ogni situazione nella vita umana è legata da un determinato simbolo cromatico. La loro percezione riflette la mentalità dei diversi popoli e fornisce informazioni sulla loro storia, cultura e filosofia. L'adesione a diverse filosofie e religioni ha contribuito in modo significativo alla formazione della simbologia dei colori, causando differenze sostanziali, ad esempio, tra la cultura europea e quella dell'Estremo oriente. Le differenze riguardano il modo in cui i popoli diversi associano i colori ai vari fenomeni (Spišiaková, Mocková, Smoleňová 2021). Il nero, nella cultura europea, simboleggia morte, pessimismo, impurità, ma anche eleganza. In Africa, al contrario, rappresenta il simbolo di saggezza, maturità ed età. Riflettendo sulla percezione dei colori in culture diverse, dobbiamo considerare anche l'aspetto storico. L'evoluzione del simbolismo cromatico rispecchia lo sviluppo delle società. Le diverse percezioni dei vari popoli nei confronti dei colori hanno un impatto notevole sulle loro lingue. Il bagaglio delle espressioni ideomatiche, unità fraseologiche o paragoni rappresenta un vasto patrimonio linguistico culturale che rispecchia la vita quotidiana dei popoli.

1.Caratteristica e simbolismo del color rosso

Il rosso è il terzo nome base del colore e si trova in ogni lingua umana. È un colore prototipo. Dal punto di vista fisico, il rosso è la luce visibile con la lunghezza d'onda più lunga, ed è uno delle tre colori fondamentali. "Se il prototipo della non-colorazione e della mancanza di colore è il grigio, il rosso si pone come prototipo al centro della colorazione. Il rosso è inteso come 'il colore dei colori', il colore per eccellenza" (Vaňková, 2005, p. 201). Nella storia umana, il rosso ha rappresentato un ruolo particolare grazie alla sua complessità simbolica. È riuscito a suscitare emozioni forti e spesso contraddittorie. L'interpretazione dei suoi simboli dipende dal contesto culturale e richiede un'analisi molto attenta. Michel Pastoureau, un eminente storico, antropologo e saggista francese, nella sua opera „Rosso“ si concentra sull'analisi storica del simbolismo del color rosso dal Paleolitico superiore fino ad oggi. Il rosso lo considera un colore archetipico che l'uomo abbia prodotto e utilizzato per la prima volta, soprattutto in tinture e in pittura. Pone il colore rosso al piedestallo e afferma che è l'unico colore degno di essere chiamato l'unico vero colore (Pastoureau, 2016). “ In certe lingue, a seconda del contesto, lo stesso termine può indicare rosso o semplicemente colorato come nel caso di *coloratus* nel latino classico o *colorado* in castigliano moderno. In altre lingue, per aggettivi rosso e bello hanno la stessa radice, per esempio nel caso del russo in cui

i termini *krasnyj* (rosso) e *krasivj* (bello) appartengono alla stessa famiglia lessicale.“ (Pastoureau, 2016, p. 42-43). Kenner (2004) afferma che il colore rosso rappresenta simbolicamente la **vita**, ed è collegato al **sangue** e al **fuoco**. Esercita una forte attrazione su di noi e suscita forti emozioni. Il sangue è la prova fisica della nostra esistenza. Il fuoco ha una connotazione ambigua. Da una parte è sempre stato un elemento importante per civiltà. Aiutava l'uomo a sopravvivere, preparare le pietanze e mantenere il caldo. D'altro canto, però, poteva avere anche delle conseguenze devastanti. Il simbolismo del colore rosso è condizionato da culture diverse. Secondo Kenner (2004) il colore rosso in Cina si associa alla felicità, mentre in Africa appartiene ai colori dei maghi. Gli abitanti dell'Africa attribuiscono al sangue un significato molto forte. La religione cristiana associa il rosso alla morte di Gesù. Secondo lo stesso autore il collegamento del rosso con il sangue suscita le associazioni più profonde. In questo caso al rosso si attribuisce il simbolo di vita e morte, nascita, ma anche violenza, guerra e pericolo.

Il rosso è considerato un colore di vibrante energia. Secondo Widmann (2004, p. 87) “Tra le manifestazioni più evidenti in cui si esprime tale energia figurano la forza, il vigore, la potenza. E il rosso diventa un simbolo di tutti questi aspetti.“ Il rosso legato al concetto di sangue si riferisce ai sacrifici dedicati alle divinità. Nella simbologia del cristianesimo, il sangue del Cristo viene ricordato sotto forma del vino rosso. L'ambivalenza dei simboli del rosso si rispecchia anche nel fatto che questo colore si connette alle caratteristiche maschili come la forza fisica, virilità e coraggio e allo stesso tempo celebra la bellezza e l'eccellenza delle donne.

2. Sémantická analýza talianskych lexikálnych jednotiek:

a) espressioni simmetriche

andare in rosso – prepadnúť sa do červených čísiel

aperitivo rosso – červený aperitív

argilla rossa – červená hlina

Armata rossa – Červená armáda

bandiera rossa – červená vlajka

barbabietola rossa – červená cvikla

berretti rossi – červené barety

borsa in rosso – burzy v červených číslach

Brigate rosse – Červené brigády

camicie rosse/giubbe rosse – červené košele
candela rossa – červená sviečka
Capuccetto rosso – Červená čiapočka
carne rossa – červené mäso
carta rossa – červená karta
cartellino rosso – červená karta (šport.)
caviale rosso – červený kaviár
cavolo rosso – červená kapusta
cintura rossa – červený opasok
cipolla rossa – červená cibuľa
conto corrente in rosso – účet v mínuse
Croce rossa – Červený kríž
fagioli rossi – červená fazuľa
fosforo rosso – červený fosfor
Giubbe rosse – Garibaldiho vojsko
globulo rosso – červená krvinka
gola rossa – červené hrdlo
governo dei rossi – červená vláda
guance rosse – červené líca
Guardie rosse – červené gardy
inchiostro rosso – červený atrament
investimento in rosso – stratová investícia
linea rossa – červená línia
lista rossa – červený zoznam
luna rossa – červený mesiac
magia rossa – červená mágia
Mar rosso – červené more
marmo rosso – červený mramor
mela rossa – červené jablko (v rozprávke Snehulienka a sedem trpezlíkov)
midollo osseo rosso – červená kostná dreň
nana rossa – červený trpezlík (planéta)
(avere) il naso rosso – červený nos
nastro rosso – (červená inauguračná páska)
neve rossa – červený/krvavý sneh

numeri rossi – červené čísla (ekon.)
onda verde – červená vlna
occhi rossi – červené oči
onda rossa – červená vlna
ottobre rosso – červený október
Papa rosso – červený pápež
patata rossa – červený zemiak
pepe rosso – červené korenie
peperoncino rosso – červená čili paprička
peperone rosso – červená paprika
pioggia rossa – červený dážď
pianeta rosso – červená planéta (Mars)
Pinot rosso- Rulandské červené
pista rossa – stredne náročná lyžiarska zjazdovka
Prete rosso – červený kňaz (Antonio Vivaldi)
puntare sul rosso – stavať na červenú (v rulete)
quartiere a luci rosse – erotická štvrť
radicchio rosso – červená čakanka
ribes rosso – červené ríbezle
sabbia rossa – červený piesok
semaforo rosso – červený semafor
sindicati rossi – červené odbory
Stella rossa – Červená hviezda (päťramenný symbol komunizmu)
tappeto rosso – červený koberec
terra rossa – červená zemina
terrore rosso – červený teror
terrorismo rosso – červený terorizmus
uva rossa – červené hrozno
vino rosso – červené víno
zona rossa – označenie

b) espressioni parzialmente simmetriche

allarme rosso – stav najvyššej pohotovosti
andare in rosso – ísť do mínusu, zadlžiť sa
bandiera rossa – červená vlajka
berretto rosso del Papa – Pápežova červená baretká
bilancio in rosso – negatívna bilancia
calore rosso – červený žiar
conto corrente in rosso – účet v mínuse
disco rosso – 1. červený železničný semafor 2. príkaz alebo označenie, ktoré zabraňuje
v uskutočnení nejakého zámeru
febbre rossa – horúčka dengue
frutti rossi – lesné ovocie
capelli rossi – ryšavé vlasy
linea rossa – horúca linka (špeciálna linka zavedená pre politikov za účelom riešenia
urgentných situácií)
mattone rosso – pálená tehla
mirtillo rosso – černica
papavero rosso – vlčí mak
pelli rosse – príslušníci indiánskej rasy, čerevenokožci
pioggia rossa – červený dážď
principe rosso – červený princ
pulsante rosso – červený gombík
saldo in rosso – negatívne saldo

c) espressioni italiane senza equivalenti slovacchi:

„ricevere lo zucchetto rosso“ – significa essere nominato Cardinale
Biennio rosso – obdobie dvojročných sociálnych konfliktov v Taliansku
Casco rosso – príslušník talianskeho Požiarneho zboru
Codice Rosso – taliansky zákon na ochranu žien a maloletých, ktorí sa stali obeťou násilia
alebo prenasledovania
Dare disco rosso – zabrániť niekumu v dosahovaní cieľov
Il radicchio rosso (di Treviso) – špeciálna odroda talianskej červenej čakanky
Le scarpe rosse – symbol boja proti násiliu páchaného na ženách

Magliette rosse – cittadini italiani che indossavano le magliette rosse per ricordare i tanti bambini morti in mare

Passione rossa – názov Clubu Ferrari

salsa rossa – červená omáčka

Scuderia toro rosso – taliansky automobilový tím formuly 1

Vescovo rosso - Červený biskup

Nella maggior parte delle espressioni italiane con il rosso abbiamo riscontrato un rapporto di simmetria con quelli slovacchi. Ciò deriva dal fatto che si tratta delle strutture tipo N+AGG, in cui il rosso riflette la colorazione degli oggetti denominati. Come esempi possiamo citare i termini che indicano prodotti agrari, frutta e verdure. Nella nostra analisi abbiamo trovato molti esempi dei termini di questo genere (*barbabietola rossa – červená cvikla, cavolo rosso – červená kapusta, uva rossa – červené hrozno, ribes rosso – červené ribezle, cipolla rosa – červená cibul'a*, ecc). Un'eccezione la troviamo nel caso del termine *papavero rosso* che si traduce nella lingua slovacca come *vlčí mak* (lett. *papavero dei lupi*). Un simile esempio lo possiamo osservare in caso dell'espressione italiana *mirtillo rosso* a cui corrisponde nella lingua slovacca il termine *brusnica*. In caso di mela rossa si tratta di una metafora che si riferisce alla leggenda di Biancaneve e i sette nani.

Un'altra categoria semantica delle espressioni italiane ispirate dalla colorazione degli oggetti denominati, è legata al mondo dei fenomeni atmosferici, terrestri e all'universo. Visto che la stragrande maggioranza dei termini di questo tipo indica i fenomeni conosciuti a livello internazionale, possiamo constatare una simmetria tra le due lingue paragonate. L'acronimo rosso è presente nei seguenti termini: *Il pianeta rosso (červená planéta)* – si riferisce al colore del pianeta. *La nana rossa (červený trpezlík)* è una piccola stella fredda. Il cronimino rosso è legato alla colorazione rosiccia della stella. *La luna rossa (červený mesiac)* è un fenomeno astronomico che appare in occasione di un'eclissi lunare. Si usa anche l'espressione *luna di sangue (krvavý mesiac)* in cui manca l'aggettivo rosso. In questo caso l'aggettivo rosso viene sostituito dall'aggettivo *krvavý (sanguinoso)*. Tutti i due termini si associano al sangue, ovvero il simbolo più antico del rosso. In fisica viene utilizzato il termine *Il calore rosso (červená žiara)* che significa la temperatura alla quale un corpo riscaldato diventa rosso. Il bianco come un colore di contrasto rappresenta la componente del termine *calore bianco* e si riferisce ad una situazione opposta. *Il calore bianco (biela žiara)* – temperatura alla quale il corpo diventa incandescente fino a diventare bianco. *La pioggia rossa (červený sneh)* o *pioggia di sangue*

(*krvavý dážď*) si verifica quando le concentrazioni elevate di polvere o particelle di colore rosso si mescolano alla pioggia. Si tratta di un fenomeno raro che si presentava in piccole zone. Nelle opere letterarie più antiche era considerato un presagio del male. Come altri esempi citiamo i seguenti termini: *sabbia rossa* (*červený piesok*), *la neve rossa* (*červený sneh*), *l'argilla rossa* (*červená hlina*), *la terra rossa* (*červená pôda*), *il mattone rosso* (*červená; pálená tehla*), *il marmo rosso* (*červený mramor*), *il sale rosso* (*červená soľ*).

2. Avvenimenti storici e politici, ideologie di sinistra

In base alle espressioni estratte dal nostro corpus siamo giunti alla conclusione che una delle categorie semantiche più numerose riguarda gli avvenimenti storici e le ideologie di sinistra. In Italia negli anni '70 e '80 operava il gruppo terroristico comunista Brigate rosse, che pretendeva la creazione di uno stato rivoluzionario attraverso il conflitto armato e il ritiro dell'Italia dalla NATO. A causa della brutalità dei loro attacchi, il termine *terrorismo rosso* (*červený terorizmus*) viene utilizzato per descrivere i loro sanguinosi conflitti. Un nome simile è legato anche alla guerra civile nella Russia zarista, durante la quale i bolscevichi cercarono la liquidazione fisica dei loro avversari (*terrore rosso – červený teror*). Nella storia d'Italia, la tonalità scarlatta del rosso è associata alla personalità del generale Giuseppe Garibaldi e dei suoi successori durante la Spedizione dei Mille, che indossavano camicie di questo colore. I suoi seguaci passarono alla storia come *camicie/giubbe rosse* (*červené košeľe*). In questo caso le parole *camicie* e *giubbe* sono dei sinonimi e nella lingua slovacca vegono tradotti con il nome *košeľe*. Negli anni '70, in Cambogia operava il movimento di estrema sinistra Khmer Rossi (*Červení Kméri*), considerato il regime politico più crudele del mondo. È stato caratterizzato dagli scioperi di massa e dalle manifestazioni operaie. I termini legati ai periodi storici italiani, ai movimenti rivoluzionari e politici sono generalmente conosciuti e hanno delle espressioni simmetriche nella lingua slovacca. (*Brigate rosse – Červené brigády*, *camicie/giubbe rosse – červené košeľe*, *terrorismo rosso – červený terorizmus*, *Khmer rossi – Červení Kméri*). Lo stesso vale per i movimenti nati in altri paesi (*Armata rossa – Červená armáda*). Un'eccezione rappresenta il nome Biennio rosso, che non ha un'equivalente in slovacco. Nella lingua slovacca viene tradotto in modo descrittivo. È un biennio (1919-1920) di intenso conflitto sociale in Italia. Il Biennio rosso (*dosl. červené dvojročie*) si è svolto nel contesto della crisi economica alla fine della prima guerra mondiale, con elevata disoccupazione e instabilità politica. Considerando il fatto che il passato dell'ex Cecoslovacchia è stato segnato dal comunismo, nella

lingua slovacca esistono molti termini che non hanno un equivalente in italiano. Sebbene il nostro lavoro si concentri principalmente sui crononimi italiani, ne menzioneremo alcuni a titolo di esempio, visto che sono ampiamente presenti nella lingua slovacca: *červené karafiáty* – *garofani rossi* che venivano regalati alle donne l'8 marzo nell'ex Cecoslovacchia, *červená knižka* – libretto rosso che avevano tutti i militari cecoslovacchi nel periodo del socialismo, *červená šatka* – fazzoletto rosso da pioniere, *červené trenírky* – calzoncini rossi da ginnastica che indossavano obbligatoriamente gli studenti durante le lezioni di educazione fisica.

3.Allarme e avvertimento

Al rosso viene attribuito il significato di allarme e avvertimento. E' un colore che viene percepito più facilmente rispetto agli altri colori. E un simbolo universale del sangue che simboleggia la vita , ma anche la morte che in questo contesto significa il pericolo. Il rosso come vita si manifesta attraverso una grande capacità di attirare l'attenzione, ed è per questo che viene spesso utilizzato come segnale di avvertimento o indicazione di pericolo imminente che deve essere evitato. Viene usato nei segnali stradali di tutto il mondo (*semaforo rosso – červený semafor*) come obbligo di sosta, *nei segnali per imporre un divieto, negli allarmi per attrezzature incendio; cartellino rosso – červená karta* in caso di espulsione dal campo da gioco, nei segnali di mancanza di carburante nelle auto, di acqua calda nei rubinetti, di tensione negli interruttori elettrici.

Poichè i segnali di allarme hanno nella grande maggioranza dei casi un carattere internazionale, è naturale che in questa categoria troviamo in tutte e due lingue molte locuzioni simmetriche. *L' allarme rosso (červený alarm)* si riferisce ad un alto grado di allarme. *Passare con il rosso/prejsť na červenú* significa ignorare il semaforo rosso come obbligo di stop. Per l'espressione *telefono rosso, linea rossa* si intende una linea telefonica speciale per l'uso dei politici ai fini di risolvere delle situazioni urgenti. Nella lingua slovacca, invece, usiamo un equivalente che non ha nella sua struttura l'acronimo (*horúca linka – linea bollente*). L'espressione *zona rossa* indica un'area ad alto rischio di genere ambientale o sociale. Zona rossa dei Campi Flegrei è un area a maggior rischio vulcanico nella parte occidentale di Napoli. In riferimento al Covid si usava a denominare una zona in cui il rischio era massimo. L'equivalente slovacco (*červená zóna*) in riferimento al Covid 19 indicava il I.grado di emergenza , dopo il quale seguiva zona bordò e nera che rappresentava il massimo rischio. *La bandiera rossa (červená vlajka)* in italiano avvisa il pericolo per la balneazione legato alle sfavorevoli

condizioni meteo marine. Le pessime condizione riguardano l'inquinamento dell'acqua marina oppure i venti troppo forti. Di solito la bandiera rossa indica divieti di balneazione. In lingua slovacca, invece, l'espressione la *bandiera rossa* (*červená zástava*) si associa all'epoca del comunismo e socialismo. Il „ *pulsante rosso*“ (*červený gombík*) è un termine che appare nei film o nella letteratura e rappresenta un dispositivo immaginario usato per eseguire un attacco nucleare. Nella realtà non esiste un pulsante rosso fisico che controlli l'uso delle armi nucleari. Il rosso come avvertimento appare anche nel mondo dello sport. *Il cartellino rosso* (*červená karta*) è un'espressione usata nel calcio ed è conosciuta a livello internazionale. Significa l'espulsione del calciatore dopo aver commesso un fallo grave. *La bandiera rossa* (*červená vlajka*) si usa anche per interruzione di gare di F1, di motociclismo (come un incidente o altre situazione di pericolo). *L'onda verde* (*červená vlna*) – una locuzione colloquiale per gli impianti semaforici non coordinati che rallentano il traffico e di conseguenza inquinano l'aria. Esiste anche un'espressione *l'onda verde* che rappresenta una situazione opposta. Significa che i semafori sono sincronizzati e perciò il traffico non si rallenta. In tutte e due lingue comparate constatiamo un rapporto di simmetria.

Il crononimo *rosso* è utilizzato anche nei *termini* usati nel campo dell'economia e della finanza. Si riferisce al debito, mancanza di risorse finanziarie o ad una situazione economica difficile in generale. Anche in questo caso possiamo osservare una stretta connessione al simbolo di allarme o avvertimento. L'espressione *numeri rossi* (*červené čísla*) è conosciuta in entrambe le lingue confrontate. Il termine esprime un risultato economico negativo, oppure debiti subiti. *L'espressione italiana „il conto corrente in rosso“, nella lingua slovacca non ha un equivalente che abbia nella sua struttura l'aggettivo rosso. Nella lingua slovacca si usa il termine bežný účet v mínuse – lett. il conto corrente in perdita.* Possiamo citare altri esempi di questa categoria: (*bilancio in rosso- stratová bilancia, andare in rosso – dostať sa do mínusu, chiudere in rosso un bilancio – uzavrieť bilanciú so stratou, investimento in rosso- stratová investícia*). Osservando gli esempi estratti, risulta che la componente rossa è più produttiva in italiano che in slovacco. *In quanto alla struttura dei termini, abbiamo notato che nella lingua italiana viene spesso usata la forma in+agg al posto dell'aggettivo rosso.*

Rosso come rosa, fragola, peonia, lampone

Sia la lingua slovacca che quella italiana dispongono di una vasta gamma dei paragoni. In alcuni casi esiste un rapporto di simmetria con quelli italiani. I paragoni più frequenti nella lingua slovacca sono i seguenti: *červený ako paprika* (rosso come un peperone), *ako paradajka* (come pomodoro), *ako rak* (come un gambero), *ako moriak* (come un tacchino), *ako cvikla* (come barbabietola), *ako repa* (come rapa). I paragoni menzionati hanno spesso una connotazione negativa. L'arrossimento del viso può essere una manifestazione delle emozioni negative come rabbia, paura, vergogna o turbamento. Il rosso nella struttura dei paragoni di questo tipo viene classificato come forte e intenso. D'altro canto però, i paragoni con una connotazione positiva vengono classificati con la parola *bello/a*.

Červený ako ruža (rosso come rosa), *ako jahoda* (come fragola), *ako malina* (come lampone), *ako pivónia* (come pivónia). I nomi dei fiori e della frutta hanno delle tonalità accese e brillanti e si usano per evidenziare la bellezza delle labbra delle donne oppure il fascino del loro viso fresco e sano. In riferimento ai capelli, nella lingua slovacca, il rosso viene sostituito dal colore ruggine.

Come abbiamo menzionato prima, il sangue è strettamente legato alla nostra esistenza. Il sangue è il nucleo della nostra vita, prova della nostra forza, ma anche della nostra vulnerabilità. In questa categoria rientrano le espressioni con riferimento al corpo umano e le sue condizioni. Nel caso dei *globuli rossi* (*červené krvinky*) o *midollo osseo rosso* (*červená kostná dreň*) constatiamo un rapporto di simmetria dei significati. La gola rossa (*červené o začevenané* – rosso o arrossito) *hrdlo* può indicare un sintomo di laringite, comunemente chiamata il mal di gola. Ci sono espressioni che indicano le condizioni del corpo dovute ai rossori presenti su varie parti del nostro corpo che rispecchiano una condizione fisica comune dovuta all'aumento del flusso sanguigno sotto la pelle, a cui il corpo risponde dilatando i vasi sanguigni. *Il petto rosso* (*červnený hrudník*) potrebbe essere dovuto alle malattie come scarlatina. Nel caso dei rossori non si tratta sempre delle malattie, può essere un semplicemente una reazione al calore nel caso della cute sensibile. *Il naso rosso* (*červený nos*) può essere un sintomo del raffreddamento, ma anche condizione cutanea dovuta al freddo o ad un'eccessiva esposizione al sole. Il termine *le guance rosse* (*červené líca*) può riferirsi ad un sintomo di malattia accompagnata dalla febbre. D'altro canto però, la stessa espressione può indicare il segno di buona salute. Il rossore può apparire ad esempio dopo un'attività sportiva che nell'immaginario collettivo si riferisce allo stile di vita sano. Per la salute è altrettanto importante il sonno. In lingua slovacca esiste un'unità fraseologica "*vyspať sa do ružova*" – lett. dormire al rosa. Indica un'ottima condizione fisica dopo aver dormito bene. Il lieve rossore al risveglio si connette in questo caso al colore rosa. In italiano non esiste un'equivalente che

abbia nella sua struttura un crononimo. Per tradurlo in italiano potremmo usare il verbo pronominale *dormirsene* oppure un paragone *dormire come un sasso/ghiro*. *Le mani rosse* – *červené ruky* si riferiscono al rossore causato dall'eccessiva esposizione al freddo. *Gli occhi rossi* (*červené oči*) possono essere una causa delle congiuntivite infettiva o allergica oppure un'irritazione dovuta al contatto degli occhi con i corpi estranei come il sale marino, cloro nell'acqua in piscina, polvere o fumo. Oppure si può trattare semplicemente di un rossore causato dal pianto o dal deficit del sonno. Il rosso nel passato era anche un colore protettivo e grazie alla sua potente energia la medicina alternativa utilizzava oggetti rossi per prevenire o guarire la malattia.

4. Rosso come amore ed erotismo

Il rosso significa sia l'amore fisico che l'amore puro. Questo crononimo rappresenta simbolo di tutta la sfera amorosa, con tutte le sue sfaccettature. Lo testimoniano regalini simbolici come cuoricini rossi oppure le rose rosse che vengono regalate per esprimere sentimenti alla donna amata.

Il crononimo rosso simboleggia la passione, l'amore e l'erotismo più che altri colori. Basta pensare alle donne con le guance truccate con varie sfumature dello stesso colore, biancheria intima rossa, décolletés di color rosso, scarpe con tacco alto e ovviamente le labbra dipinte dal rossetto che mettono in risalto la sensualità di una donna. Il color rosso e il suo collegamento all'erotismo viene spesso usato nell'espressione *a luci rosse*. L'illuminazione rossa è sempre stata un simbolo di sensualità, peccato e prostituzione. „A luci rosse è un avverbio che fa parte delle unità fraseologiche, che denominano i fenomeni legati all'erotismo, ad esempio *il film rosso* (*erotický film*), *il cinema rosso* (*pornokino, kino pre dospelých*), *quartiere a luci rosse* (*erotická štvrť*), *hotel/albergo a luci rosse* (*hodinový hotel*), *locale a luci rosse* (*erotický podnik*), *servizio a luci rosse* – *erotické služby*. Fra i termini italiani e slovacchi che racchiudono in sé l'erotismo e la passione esiste solo un'equivalenza parziale. L'espressione *a luci rosse* viene tradotta in slovacco con l'aggettivo „*erotický/erotico*“. Il termine italiano *il cinema rosso* viene tradotto nella lingua slovacca come cinema pornografico. Da questi esempi risulta che nella struttura degli equivalenti slovacchi manca il crononimo rosso.

Il rosso come simbolo di sangue è presente anche nell'espressione italiana „Le scarpe rosse“ che rappresentano il sangue versato dalle donne uccise o scomparse a causa della violenza sessista. Gli abusi sulle donne restano troppo spesso nascosti tra le mura domestiche. Il simbolo delle scarpe rosse porta il seguente messaggio: La violenza domestica contro le

donne non è tollerata. L'abuso sulle donne è uno dei temi più discussi nell'Italia contemporanea. Le scarpe rosse sono diventate un simbolo di questo fenomeno negativo. Le décolleté sono un simboleggiare di femminilità e il colore rosso rappresenta lo spargimento di sangue. Il nome Codice rosso rappresenta una simile associazione. È un nome della legge che tutela le donne e i minori da violenze e persecuzioni. Ultimamente siamo testimoni degli abusi e maltrattamenti anche nel mondo dello sport. Il Codice rosso è un protocollo attivato a Milano nel 2023 con l'obiettivo di contrastare qualsiasi tipo di violenza nello sport.

Nella categoria semantica delle emozioni troviamo l'espressione idiomatica *vedere rosso* che ha una valenza negativa. Esprime l'ira, rabbia, fino al punto di perdere ogni controllo. Nella lingua slovacca non esiste alcuna espressione simetrica. Un'equivalente potrebbe essere *peniť od zlosti* (*schiumare di rabbia*), *očervenieť od zlosti* (*diventare rosso di rabbia*), eventualmente potremmo usare espressioni con la struttura *essere + aggettivo*, *byť nazúrený* (*essere furibondo*), *byť rozčertený* (*essere indiavolato*), *byť nasraný* (*volg. essere incazzato*). Si usano anche le frasi tipo *Skoro ho porazilo* (*Ha quasi avuto un infarto*); *Akoby čerti do neho vošli* (*Come se i diavoli fossero entrato in lui*). La locuzione *vedere rosso* si usa a volte nel linguaggio dell'economia e della finanza. Tra le espressioni italiane più note, che esprimono le forti emozioni, troviamo un'unità fraseologica *vedere rosso*, che ha una connotazione negativa. Esprime ira o rabbia, fino al punto di perdere ogni controllo. Dietro questa espressione esiste una spiegazione fisiologica. Gli ormoni rilasciati dal sistema nervoso aumentano la pressione sanguigna che causa l'arrossamento. Nella lingua slovacca non esiste alcuna espressione simmetrica. Un'equivalente potrebbe essere *peniť od zlosti* (*schiumare di rabbia*), *očervenieť od zlosti* (*diventare rosso di rabbia*), eventualmente potremmo usare espressioni con la struttura *essere + aggettivo*, *byť nazúrený* (*essere furibondo*), *byť rozčertený* (*essere indiavolato*), *byť nasraný* (*volg. essere incazzato*). Si usano anche i modi di dire come ad esempio „*Skoro ho porazilo*.“ (*Ha quasi avuto un infarto*); „*Akoby čerti do neho vošli*“ (*Come se i diavoli fossero entrato in lui*). La locuzione *vedere rosso* si usa a volte nel linguaggio dell'economia. La frase „*La Borsa cinese vede rosso*.“ indica i numeri rossi, ovvero la situazione finanziaria sfavorevole. Le frasi di questo genere si usano nel linguaggio pubblicitario. In italiano *vedere rosso come i torri* significa farsi prendere dall'ira come i torri che secondo la tradizione dovrebbero perdere il controllo vedendo un panno rosso utilizzato dal matador. Neanche in questo caso esiste un paragone simile nella lingua slovacca. La locuzione *diventare rosso* ha nella lingua slovacca un equivalente *očervenieť*. Il verbo slovacco si lega al rossore causato sia dalla vergogna che dalla rabbia (*očervenieť od hanby, od zlosti*). In riferimento al rossore molto intenso si usa dire *horieť ako fakla* (*bruciare come una fiaccola*). Come abbiamo

visto, in questa categoria il crononimo rosso è più frequente nelle espressioni italiane. A prescindere dal color rosso la lingua italiana è ricca delle espressioni idiomatiche per esprimere le emozioni che hanno nella loro struttura altri crononimi. Nella lingua slovacca, spesso riscontriamo un rapporto di simetria con degli equivalenti italiani. Ad esempio la componente verde per esprimere le emozioni con valenza negativa, come l'invidia o la paura è presente nella espressione *essere/diventare verde di invidia/ paura*. Per esprimere lo stesso concetto in slovacco usiamo una locuzione simetrica (*byť zelený/ozelenieť od závisti/strachu*). Il verde come il colore complementare del rosso si associa alla colorazione verdastra della bile. L'eccessive emozioni negative come invidia o rabbia fanno aumentare la quantità della bile. I entrambe le lingue confrontate l'invidia è legata al verde, ma in altre paesi o culture può essere associata ad altri colori, ad esempio al giallo nei paesi arabi.

Rosso come rosa, fragola, peonia, lampone

La lingua slovacca dispone di una vasta gamma dei paragoni. In alcuni casi esiste un rapporto di simetria con quelli italiani. I paragoni più frequenti nella lingua slovacca sono i seguenti: *červený ako paprika* (rosso come un peperone), *ako paradajka* (come pomodoro), *ako rak* (come un gambero), *ako moriak* (come un tacchino), *ako cvikla* (come barbabietola), *ako repa* (come rapa). I paragoni hanno spesso una valenza negativa. L'arrossimento del viso può essere una manifestazione delle emozioni negative come rabbia, paura, vergogna o turbamento. Il rosso nella struttura dei paragoni di questo tipo viene classificato come forte e intenso. D'altro canto però, i paragoni con una valenza positiva vengono classificati con la parola bello/a.

Červený ako ruža (rosso come rosa), *ako jahoda* (come fragola), *ako malina* (come lampone), *ako pivónia* (come pionia). I nomi dei fiori e della frutta hanno delle tonalità accese e brillanti e si usano per evidenziare la bellezza delle labbra delle donne oppure il fascino del loro viso fresco e sano.

Conclusion:

Il mondo dei colori ha sempre suscitato l'interesse sia da parte degli specialisti dai vari rami scientifici che dai laici. I colori fanno parte della nostra vita quotidiana ci accompagnano ovunque andiamo senza che ce ne rendiamo conto. Il rosso con le sue infinite sfaccettature ha trovato posto in tante sfere della vita. Del rosso parlano scrittori, poeti, pittori, psicologi, linguisti e tanti altri professionisti. Nessuno rimane indifferente nei suoi confronti. Grazie alla sua capacità di attrarre attenzione riesce a conquistare tante persone. Il suo carattere è però

ambivalente, ciò vuol dire che può provocare delle reazioni diverse negli individui. Alcuni lo amano, altri invece non lo sopportano. Può suscitare emozioni positive, ma anche un senso di irritazione o inquietudine. Lo stesso vale anche per le diverse culture.

In questo contributo ci siamo concentrati al suo aspetto linguistico. Grazie alla sua ricca simboleggiatura siamo riusciti a identificare una vastità delle unità lessicali che si associano ai suoi simboli. Tra i vari campi semantici a cui si lega l'acronimo rosso, abbiamo constatato che i più produttivi sono quelli che riguardano gli avvenimenti storici legati all'epoca del socialismo e del comunismo, come ad esempio le Brigade rosse, Il Biennio rosso, le camicie rosse, i partiti rossi, ecc. Un'altro campo molto produttivo viene rappresentato dalle emozioni che possono avere una valenza sia positiva che negativa (vedere rosso, guance rosse, labbra rosse, fiocco rosso, ecc). Abbiamo considerato molto interessanti anche le espressioni dal campo che si riferisce all'allarme e all'avvertimento (allarme rosso, allerta rossa, la bandiera rossa, la carta rossa). In questa categoria rientrano anche i termini dal campo del lessico professionale dell'economia e delle finanze che hanno il sema di allarme (numeri rossi, il conto corrente in rosso, investimenti rossi, bilancio in rosso). In quanto al grado di simmetria tra le due lingue paragonate abbiamo constatato che la maggioranza delle espressioni sono in un rapporto di equivalenza.

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Contatti:

Mgr.Elena Smoleňová, PhD.
Fakulta aplikovaných jazykov
Ekonomická univerzita v Bratislave
elena.smolenova@euba.sk

TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED LISTENING COMPREHENSION

EVA STRADIOTOVÁ

Abstract

In this paper, we focus on research on technology-assisted listening comprehension. Listening comprehension is one of the most difficult language skills that does not receive enough attention in the educational process. A frequent reason for this is the insufficient hourly allocation for language teaching. The solution to this situation is, for example, Web 2.0 applications that allow students to practice listening skills outside the classroom. Such applications that can be used to support the teaching of listening comprehension are audio blogs and podcasts. These applications allow students to record the spoken word and listen to the recordings.

Keywords: *listening, audio blog, podcast, technology*

Introduction

Listening comprehension in foreign language teaching is one of the language skills that are quite difficult to acquire, especially in English, where the written form of words is different from the spoken form. This language skill is often not given as much attention as it should be. We suggest that one reason for this is that teachers generally believe that students acquire listening skills spontaneously. Another reason may be the insufficient number of hours devoted to foreign language learning in schools. However, foreign language listening skills can only be improved by hard work and repetition (Bostrom, 1990; Brody, 2004; Mendelsohn, 1984).

It is important to note that in verbal communication, the speaker and the listener have different roles. Verbal communication is very often seen as a process of sending and receiving information, where the receiver decodes the message that is being sent by the sender. The decoding of the message takes place in real-time; it is an immediate response in which the listener demonstrates the extent to which he or she can decode the message. Brown, G. (1987) argued that teaching listening was greatly influenced by reading and writing in the 1950s and 1960s. Much emphasis was placed on decoding skills as well as imitation and memorization of sound and grammatical patterns. Typically, students were asked to distinguish sounds, answering questions that tested whether they had listening comprehension. These questions were based on listening to excerpts of works or dictating written excerpts. In such

circumstances, students had to demonstrate both whether and how well they understood what they heard. Listening is an essential skill that develops faster than speaking and influences other language skills such as writing and reading (Scarella, Oxford, 1992). Listening involves understanding spoken language, which is usually accompanied by other sounds and visual cues, with the help of the relevant preceding knowledge and the context in which we are listening (Brown, 2001).

Another important fact that is important to take into consideration is that today's era allows the use of modern technology in teaching. Today's generation of students live in an environment where the use of digital technology is common. Garrett (1991) practically more than 30 years ago saw the computer and interactive technology as a means to enable teachers to select diverse materials according to student's needs, to use visual options of presentation on-screen or interactive options of computer control to help students develop listening comprehension. According to S. M. Gana Gandhi, and D. Lourdes (2019), the implementation of multimedia in educational institutions requires major changes in traditional learning and teaching as well as in teachers' approach to technology.

Defining listening

Through the definitions we want to document what a complex process this is and how views on listening have changed. The definitions are arranged in chronological order.

Chastain (1971) defined listening as the ability to understand native speech at normal speed. According to Postovsky (1975), listening differs in meaning from distinguishing sound to sound comprehension. Goss (1982) defined listening as the process of understanding what is heard and organised into lexical items to which we can assign meaning. Bowen et al (1985) showed that listening is the comprehension of spoken language. Listeners hear spoken language, distinguish sounds, classify them into lexical and syntactic units, and understand the message. Listening is the process of taking in what the speaker is saying, making and representing meaning, negotiating meaning with the speaker, responding, and making meaning through participation, creativity, and empathy.

Listening is also defined as the process of receiving and assigning meaning to sound stimuli (Wolvin, Coakley, 1985). It is a complex process that is more than just perceiving sounds, although perception is fundamental. However, listening also involves understanding the meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and related discussions (Oxford, R.L., 1990). Listening is the process whereby one person perceives another person through sense (specifically

auditory), assigning meaning to a message and understanding it. It is a basic and necessary prerequisite for individual communication in social life. DeVito (1995) defines listening as an effective process of perceiving, understanding, recognizing, evaluating, and responding in communication. According to Purdy (1997), listening is the process of receiving, making meaning from verbal and nonverbal messages, and responding to verbal and nonverbal messages. Rost (2001) defined listening as the most important language skill and as a complex process of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know. Morley (2001) said that listening involves auditory discrimination, aural grammar, selecting necessary information, remembering, recalling, and connecting it to the process between sound and form of meaning. Listening helps us understand the world around us and is one of the essential elements in creating successful communication. Listening comprehension has been defined by Jinhong (2011) as a process-oriented activity in which listeners must actively engage with input information step by step and as a creative activity [in which] listeners construct or assign meanings based on given information or their past experiences and knowledge.

Jafari and Hashim (2015) emphasized that listening is a channel for comprehensible input and more than 50 percent of the time spent by students in learning a foreign language is devoted to listening. Brownell (2016) defined listening comprehension in language learning as a basic skill in an active process of deciphering and constructing meaning from both verbal and nonverbal messages.

It is important to note that listening in everyday life, i.e. outside the learning process, or in other specific situations such as theatre performances, watching a film in the cinema, etc., is not an isolated language skill, but it is often closely linked to the skill of speaking. This fact is supported by research results which confirm that in almost any setting involving the mother tongue, listening is the most frequently used language skill. Of the total time devoted to communication, 45% is devoted to listening, 30% to speaking, 16% to reading, and 9% to writing (Duker, 1971; Feyten, 1991). Myers, G., E. and Myers, T. (1988) stated that a good listener spends 70% of his/her time listening and only 30% of his/her time speaking. In schools, these percentages can be even higher because during lectures students mainly listen to what the lecturer is saying. Listening comprehension is a complex linguistic activity and is often a problem for native speakers. In foreign languages, this problem will be even more pronounced. Conaway (1982), based on an evaluation of several studies, pointed out that a lack of listening comprehension skills is a factor that leads to failure in college more than poor reading skills and low academic ability. As a result, after listening to a 10-minute presentation the average listener understood, evaluated, and retained in memory what was said only about 30%, and after

48 minutes the ability to remember anything from that presentation had declined to 20% (Breecher, 1983).

We assume that a similar situation exists with a foreign language, where also, as with the mother tongue, factors enter into the listening process that influence this process, such as, for example, gender, education, level of proficiency in the foreign language, time spent reading books in the foreign language, time spent listening in the foreign language (in class, out of class), etc. Unlike other language skills, listening comprehension, as we have already mentioned, is very demanding and is influenced by the speed of speech, which can cause problems and require constant attention from the listener. If the listening takes place outside the classroom or language laboratory, then immediate comprehension is essential (e.g. a play, a film in a cinema, etc.), as there is no opportunity to replay and listen to the recording. However, in some circumstances, the listener may ask the speaker to repeat or clarify what has been said.

Review of Literature

As we mentioned in the introduction, listening comprehension is one of the most demanding and difficult language skills, and it is not given the sufficient attention in language teaching that is needed to develop this skill. Research confirms that listening comprehension is a very important skill in developing a foreign language.

Feyten (1991) views listening comprehension as a set of related skills that contribute significantly to the prediction of foreign language proficiency, i.e., we can say that according to the mastery of the language skill listening comprehension, we can estimate a learner's language proficiency. The better he/she understands and comprehends the spoken language, the better he/she can respond to it.

In recent years, researchers have sought to answer the question of which model is more important when listening to speech in a foreign language. Until recently, it was assumed that most errors in listening comprehension were due to learners mishearing individual words-meaning that failure occurred in a bottom-up model (Wilson, 2010). To document the situation, we can give the example of Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), who cited a study of academic listening where it was reported that one student heard "communist" but the lecturer said "commonest", and another student heard "plastic bullets" instead of "postal ballots".

However, other research claims that it is the top-down approach that often causes errors in listening tasks. A typical example is that students know the topic, have heard similar vocabulary, and guess the content without really thinking about the topic. This is an area in which research

is still ongoing, but we can say with confidence that we use both processes simultaneously when we listen to a foreign language.

Meihami et al (2013) investigated the practical benefits of computers in the foreign language learning process, mainly focusing on improving students' listening skills. The results they obtained in their research showed that when using CALL as a support for teaching listening comprehension, learners had a better understanding of the assigned listening exercises. When using CALL materials, learners became less fatigued compared to using the traditional method. Al-Jarf (2004a) stated that several researchers confirmed that technology in EFL instruction led to significant improvements in learning outcomes and attitudes.

The use of technology plays an important role in increasing productivity and improving communication (Al Rahmi, et, al., 2019). Researchers are also aware of this fact and therefore their interest in researching and integrating technology into EFL/ESL instruction has increased (Ulla & Perales, 2020; Lin, et al, 2019).

Technology

The use of technology in foreign language teaching has its merits. The younger generation, unlike the older generation, has no problem with the use of information technology (IT) in learning. Students expect technology to be used in the learning process, but the reality is often different from expectations. In the educational process in Slovakia, the promotion of the use of IT to a greater extent is very slow. This situation is influenced by several factors such as the lack of IT equipment in schools, the unpreparedness of teachers to use it (there is a lack of training for teachers on how to use IT and also to be regularly informed about the possibilities of using IT in teaching), the lack of interest in using IT as a supplement to educational process on the part of students, if it takes up their free time.

Despite these barriers, the use of IT to supplement teaching is important. In the case of improving language listening comprehension skills, audioblogs and podcasts are a useful supplement. As we have already mentioned, teachers do not devote as much time to teaching listening as they should (an insufficient number of lessons in foreign language teaching leads to insufficient time being devoted to the language skill of listening), and it is this deficit that could be alleviated by using the aforementioned web-based applications.

Audio blog

With the development of technology, new methods and approaches to teaching are emerging. It is now common that student textbooks are supplemented with online exercises where not only all listening activities are uploaded to a web-based repository but also exercises to develop reading, writing, and listening skills. Students can also record their pronunciation of words/sentences and compare it with the pronunciation recorded by a professional in his/her mother tongue.

Since audio blogs are relatively easy to use, they are gaining more and more popularity among teachers. The fact that there are many free and open-source versions of these tools only increases their popularity.

The asynchronous nature of posting and commenting makes audio blogs an ideal tool for promoting reflective forms of learning (Wheeler, 2010).

An audio blog, unlike a weblog, is not based on written posts but on audio recordings. However, this does not mean that written commentary is not part of it.

An audio blog is defined as a recording of the spoken word by an individual that can be shared online. If an audio blog is available in a syndicated format such as RSS, then it is a podcast.

Audioblogs usually contain spoken words, but we can also encounter music audio blogs, which are more commonly referred to as MP3 blogs. MP3 blogs can also contain dialogues and gossip about music and musicians. An audio blog is similar to a written blog because the author can cover any topic from entertainment, politics, and family to any other subject (Roland, P., 2011, Hsu, H.Y. et al, 2008). As a result, the audio blog has inherited the main features of a blog such as:

- arrangement of posts in chronological order,
- ease of publishing,
- automatic archiving,
- content syndication via RSS feeds (Tan Yuh Huann, Mong Kok Thong, 2006),
- composed by an individual,
- based on audio recordings,
- contains audio recordings in MP3, AAC, or other audio formats with brief text describing their content.

Students use their blogs to create casual comments which, depending on the goal of the blog, may be related to their personal lives or may be related to their studies. It is a space where they can not only communicate their ideas, questions, challenges, and comments to fellow students, but they can also reach out to other people who are on the web.

Most regular bloggers are very aware of their audience and are careful when creating content to create a favorable impression (Sun, 2009). As social beings, we are naturally aware that we are in a certain social environment and we take care to present ourselves to others in the best possible light.

It may also be the case that some students may not want to actively participate in publishing their audio recordings, since they may perceive it as an invasion of their privacy. Another factor that can affect regular blog publishing is the feeling that it is extra work and without immediate reward.

If audio blogs are to be successfully integrated into the educational process, then teachers should ensure that audio blogs are seen as a tool that does not create a sense of threat (Ojala, 2005).

Benefits of audio blogging:

- publishing their creative work,
- supports the teaching of oral skills in a new way,
- motivates,
- allows students to speak in a foreign language and thus practice it in real life and also helps to improve listening skills,
- anyone on the web can open an audio blog, and it motivates students to improve their performance,
- students can check their improvement through archived episodes,
- the archived episodes form a student portfolio that can be listened to not only by the creator of the recordings but also by others,
- can be used to support distance learning,
- allows the teacher to better guide and mentor individual students,
- computers in the classroom are not a prerequisite for the use of audio blogs,
- reduces plagiarism because students are aware that their work can be listened to by anyone who is on the internet,
- audio blogs are not only easy to create but also easy to use,
- the communication between the audience and the audioblogger is two-way.

Disadvantages of an audio blog:

- they are not confidential, anyone on the internet can open them and listen to the recordings,
- students may not want to make voice recordings because they will be concerned about their pronunciation,
- making a recording takes time,
- the recording may be of poor quality,
- inaccuracy of information,
- there is a possibility of infringing intellectual property rights,
- they are unstable (episodes may be deleted),
- if the computer does not have a built-in microphone, then the audioblogger must provide an external microphone.

Podcasting

Podcasting is a web service belonging, like audio blogging, to Web 2.0. The word podcasting is derived from a combination of the words "iPod" and "broadcasting". It involves downloading audio programs in digital form for the user to listen to. It is also a way to distribute multimedia files such as audio programs or music clips on the Internet via RSS. The podcast is automatically downloaded for playback by a digital recording device such as an MP3 player. The most common file format used in podcasts is MP3 (a format for audio compression), but we can also encounter other formats such as "wave" (an audio format from Microsoft)," real-audio" format (a format for streaming audio) (Tan Yuh Huann, Mong Kok Thong, 2006). Podcasting is especially popular among the younger generation who have experience in using MP3 players.

A podcast, like an audio blog, is based on the human voice. There may be written texts, but these are usually only focused on the description of the published post. In addition to the description, we may find visual supplements. For example, we can embed a slideshow in a podcast that is accompanied by an audio file. The disadvantage of a podcast is that we cannot use the "trackback" service available with audio blogs. Unlike audio blogs, interaction with the audience is limited. This is due to the aim of the podcast, which is more of a radio show and is usually a one-way communication. The podcaster usually does not respond to audience reactions. It does not mean that the podcaster does not take into account what the audience writes to him/her, because he/she would lose his/her audience. His/her response is incorporated into the next episode to increase or maintain audience interest.

Despite its burgeoning popularity, podcasting is not yet widely used in language learning. We anticipate that it will receive more attention in the future. Podcasting in the teaching process allows us to:

- disseminate information,
- convey authentic language,
- deliver lessons, teaching material,
- listen to audiobooks,
- allow working with materials offline, i.e. without a network connection.

Podcasting and audio blogs have some common features:

- the content of podcasts and audio blogs are voice recordings that interested parties can subscribe to,
- RSS feeds through which listeners of audio blogs or podcasts are notified of a new post or episode,
- both podcasters and audiobloggers try to gain an internet audience by updating content regularly (Tan Yuh Huann, Mong Kok Thong, 2006).

Conclusion

Mastering all language skills is very important for anyone who wants to use a foreign language as effectively as possible. Proficiency in a foreign language is also important to increase the chances of finding a better paid job on the labour market. The language skill listening is one of those language skills that is neglected in the teaching process. It is necessary to look for ways to change this situation for the better. Such tools that we can use to practice listening in a foreign language are audio blogs and podcasts, which are popular because they are easy to use and also because they are usually free, or we can choose between a paid and an unpaid version. In addition to these, we can also use CD-Roms or online links, which are usually part of a student's textbook.

Audio blogs and podcasts are web-based applications that the young generation is familiar with. It is also important to mention that this generation of students usually has a positive relationship with information and communication technologies and can see their use in the educational process as a motivation. The advantage of these web applications is that the tasks can be carried out at a time, place, and pace that suits the student. They create ideal conditions

to support the teaching of listening comprehension. One of the problems that teachers may encounter when using web applications in teaching, and which they should take into account, is that they are time-consuming, not only for them but also for the students. For this reason, we recommend using these applications for a maximum of 3 months. The reason is that during this time, published audio post tasks are still motivating for most students, even though it is extra work for them. It is due to the fact that they are still something new and unconventional for students at this time, providing them with new opportunities for self-expression and to exercise their creativity. They move from passive listeners to active listeners who become the creators of the content of the audio blog or podcast, i.e. creating recordings, listening to recordings, responding to questions, etc.

Web-based audio blogs and podcast applications are effective tools for improving communication and promoting critical thinking and collaborative learning. Audio blogs have great potential in education, but blogging will not stand alone or automatically improve learning. Teachers should use educational blogs in a way that supports the content area in a pedagogically and technically appropriate way.

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Contact:**PaedDr. Eva Stradiotová, PhD.**

Katedra anglického jazyka

Fakulta aplikovaných jazykov

Ekonomická univerzita v Bratislave

Eva.stradiotova@euba.sk

II. POLITOLOGY SECTION

COMPARISON OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN DENMARK AND FINLAND

Lukáš BERNÁTEK

Abstract

Education systems worldwide vary in structure, approach, and underlying values that shape the educational process. The purpose of this paper is to compare a selected sectoral public policy, specifically the education sector of two chosen countries. The paper focuses on the education systems in Finland and Denmark, with an emphasis on the organization and structure of these systems within each country.

Keywords: *education, schooling, Republic of Finland, Kingdom of Denmark, financing*

Introduction

This paper highlights the importance of education within sectoral educational policy, as education is an essential part of life. We consider Scandinavian countries as models of educational policy, setting an example in both their education systems and their investments in education. In the first part of the paper, we briefly describe Scandinavian countries, their sophisticated state model, and emphasize that quality education is a crucial resource for a country's future development. We also outline the characteristics of educational policy, including curricular policy as a component.

The second part of the paper delves into a detailed description of educational policy in the Republic of Finland. Finland can be viewed as a model of educational policy within the European Union, representing an example of 21st-century education that belongs to the most knowledge-oriented economies. Finland is renowned for achieving economic growth within a short time frame through investment in knowledge. The paper also discusses the free nature of the Finnish school system and notes that Finnish teachers are highly respected in the country, similar to lawyers and doctors. The Finnish education model is also divided into three levels: primary, secondary, and higher education, with a detailed focus on each level within this framework.

In the final section of this paper, we focus on the Danish education policy model in comparison to the Finnish model. The Danish model is also characterized by high quality and a highly professional approach by educators. Similar to Finland, the Danish education system

is divided into three levels: primary, secondary, and higher education, and we thoroughly examine these levels as we did with the Finnish system.

In our paper, we conclude that despite small differences in their education systems, both countries share a common characteristic: a high level of investment in education. Both Denmark and Finland have faced crises and addressed issues of unemployment through education.

Findings

Scandinavian countries, known for their well-developed sectoral policies, serve as prime examples of advanced nations. These countries share high living standards and "quality of life, competitiveness, and a sophisticated social state model," setting an example for many other countries. Scandinavian nations lead in numerous areas, achieving some of the world's highest living standards. They "demonstrate that a state can succeed not only by redistributing resources but also through efficiency" (N. Kováčová, 2015, p. 6). This is also evident in their education policies.

"The only source of development that we have in virtually unlimited quantities is education" (I. Turek, 2014, p. 39). "Human intellect represents the key source of values of a knowledge-oriented society, arising as a result of the transformation of a society of mass production into a society with a knowledge and intellectual base, as the most productive economic resource" (Kováčová, 2020, p. 223).

Education is an integral part of our lives, intrinsically linked with society. Schools prepare children, youth, and adults for both current and future life and work. Hence, it is essential to anticipate societal developments and to design education systems that can respond to changes. When setting educational goals, we must consider the ongoing and expected changes in societal development.

People spend up to a quarter of their lives in school, yet many children are reluctant to attend, and adults often have unfavorable memories of their school experiences. This may sometimes stem from the uniformity of education, lack of attention to students' interests and individuality, student passivity, or excessive directiveness, as students are typically expected to listen to the teacher, act only upon their instructions, and mimic the teacher's actions. Schools may lack space for independence, activity, creativity, and positive experiences for students. Education policy can address these issues by setting rules to ensure that children and students feel comfortable and, most importantly, safe in school.

The goal is for "school to be an enjoyable and exciting experience, where students learn more but also derive greater joy, satisfaction from gaining knowledge, and a sense of assured

success" (I. Turek, 2014, p. 24). The Scandinavian countries mentioned earlier serve as an inspiring model of how this can be achieved. Ultimately, quality education is a crucial source of future development, prosperity, and competitiveness for nations. Since the teaching process is a fundamental part of education, providing high-quality, ideally advanced, education is a key condition for social cohesion, reducing social inequalities, misunderstandings among people, and social conflicts. In this sense, we can say that the education and knowledge we gain through it are our wealth, something that cannot be taken from us.

With a developing society also comes the trend of modernization, which is closely monitored by educational policy. However, it is essential to understand that "modernizing education does not merely mean changing teaching methods and forms, reorganizing or equipping the school, but fundamentally it entails changing the understanding and status of students in the educational process, altering the school's working style to emphasize the development of students' creativity and independence" (E. Petlák, 1997). Modernization in education also raises the issue of lifelong employability—that is, the ability to find employment and succeed in various situations and conditions in the labor market. Knowledge and skills focused on a single situation quickly become outdated. Therefore, even in economically developed countries, there is an effort to cultivate competencies, namely skills and knowledge, that are applicable across most jobs and roles.

"Educational policy, as one branch of human development, is a part of public policy" (P. Plavčan, 2021, p. 9). In relation to educational policy, there are several definitions from international, Czech, and Slovak sources. According to J. Kalous (Průcha, 2009), "Educational policy encompasses the principles, priorities, and decision-making methods related to exerting social influence on education. This decision-making includes strategic development objectives for education, the legislative framework for the activities of educational institutions and learners, methods of financing, defining educational goals and content, and influencing and monitoring the activities of educational entities" (P. Plavčan, 2021, p. 11).

According to A. Veselý (Kalous, Veselý, 2006), "The term educational policy generally refers to the set of formal and informal rules, norms, and practices that guide and influence the actions of individuals and institutions in the field of education" (P. Plavčan, 2021, p. 11). Educational policy encompasses a broad spectrum, shaping not only educational institutions but also affecting broader social and economic contexts. Similarly, J. Benčo (Benčo, 2002) describes school policy as the framework that "defines and develops the goals and tasks, the content focus, organization, and resources for education at various school types. It generally

aims to promote societal interests, allocate resources, address political aspects of governance, and establish priorities in education and culture institutions" (P. Plavčan, 2021, p. 11).

An essential component of educational policy is curriculum policy. Curriculum policy is crucial at the national level as it reflects a country's educational goals and aligns with societal needs, from respecting national educational traditions to meeting the cultural, social, and economic needs of a diverse society. "The curriculum has an ideological dimension that reflects educational goals, which are translated into broad principles of teaching and learning. It also has a content dimension, which specifies educational goals and determines the material and immaterial resources required for instruction" (P. Plavčan, 2021, p. 252).

In the context of European Union countries, Finland's education policy is often viewed as exemplary, serving as a model alongside Denmark. Finland has transformed its educational approach significantly, particularly since the 1990s when it faced economic challenges, including rising unemployment and inflation. Despite these issues, "Finland succeeded in shifting from a resource-based, forestry-oriented policy to a knowledge-driven approach, establishing itself as one of the most advanced knowledge-based economies with a high standard of living" (N. Kováčová, 2015, p. 58). Finland's investment in education has led to notable economic growth and elevated it to one of the EU's leading examples of high-quality education, resulting in a highly productive and educated society that contributes to the nation's overall prosperity and competitiveness. Education is a priority for Finnish society, and the school system is structured accordingly. The Finnish Republic is known for its free education system, including higher education, and also provides free meals, transportation, textbooks, materials, accommodation, excursions (L. Sidorová, 2020), and more, along with boasting advanced technological facilities. An interesting aspect in Finland is that private schooling is also funded by the state and free of charge. "Private schools differ from public ones in that they are not state-established but may be founded by associations, organizations, or legal entities, and their existence is subject to state approval" (N. Kováčová, 2015, p. 63).

A distinctive feature of the Finnish educational sector is the high moral and material status of teachers; they are highly respected and valued, with a focus on student-centered education. Finnish teachers are as respected in society as lawyers or doctors, ensuring a steady supply of teachers in the country. All teachers are required to hold a university degree, including those in preschools, who must have at least a master's degree, which is fully funded. "Furthermore, Finnish teachers receive two paid hours each week dedicated to professional development" (P. Brejčák, 2015). "The high prestige of teachers is deeply rooted in Finnish culture for historical

reasons, as teachers played an essential role in various nation-building phases and in resisting aggressors from neighboring countries" (R. Chovanculiak, 2022, p. 4).

In the early 20th century, the teaching profession in Finland was reserved only for the best candidates. Those wishing to study to become teachers had to pass an entry examination that lasted several days and included a medical examination, personal interviews, and various tests. Only the best were admitted, and they had to maintain excellent academic results while also meeting high moral and ethical standards. "Students preparing to become teachers were strictly prohibited from smoking or attending dance events, and they had to dress appropriately outside of school. These rules remained in effect until the mid-20th century" (R. Chovanculiak, 2022, p. 5). The selective process for potential teachers remains in Finland today, with only one in ten applicants being admitted to the selected pedagogical university.

Interestingly, Finnish teachers spend relatively little time in direct teaching, yet their students achieve excellent results. This success is reflected in Finland's consistent top rankings in PISA tests conducted by the OECD, focusing on mathematics, reading, and science among fifteen-year-old students.

The Finnish educational system emphasizes "equality, pluralism, pragmatism," and is divided into three main levels: primary, secondary, and higher education. Nearly 99% of children attend free preschool education a year before starting compulsory schooling (Chalachánová, 2012). Compulsory schooling begins at age seven and lasts for nine years.

Local authorities assign a school placement for all students near their place of residence. However, parents can freely change this decision and enroll their child in another school based on their own choice. Another notable aspect of the Finnish education system is that students are not regularly tested, and the only mandatory standardized test they take is at age 16. The educational process in the early years focuses on fostering a student's interest in learning. The goal of education in Finland is for students to enjoy school and take pleasure in learning. Students are graded only from the sixth grade onwards, on a seven-point scale from 4 to 10, where 10 is the highest and 4 is the lowest grade. Until then, students receive only verbal assessments until age twelve. "Classes are interactive, involving many projects, games, and discussions, which makes the information engaging for them" (L. Sidorová, 2020). The Finnish model of education is also known for multidisciplinary learning, meaning that subjects are not taught in isolation but are interconnected; students learn in groups rather than individually. It is also interesting that each subject has one high-quality textbook designed with questions first, prompting students to think about the topic.

Primary education follows a two-tiered system. Each school establishes and adopts its own curriculum based on the principles of the law. The National Core Curriculum for grades 1-9, created by the Finnish National Board of Education, is binding for schools. It specifies mandatory subjects, core content, and goals students must achieve in each subject. While local governments can adapt their own curricula, they must still respect the national framework. In addition to required subjects, students have the option to choose 20% of their classes according to their preferences.

The school year is divided into two semesters, and the educational process is split into two stages in primary school. The first stage covers the first six years, during which students are taught by one teacher, who is also their class teacher. After completing the first stage, students move on to the second stage, which lasts until ninth grade. However, at this stage, they attend a different school than the younger grades, and specialized teachers in individual subjects take over the instruction. Finnish education also emphasizes foreign language learning, usually requiring students to learn two additional languages beyond their native language. For students with specific learning disorders, either a guidance counselor or a specialized teacher is available.

During the school year, students receive midterm and final report cards, and school guidelines specify what should be included. These report cards may feature verbal or numerical evaluations, or a combination of both. For eighth graders, numerical evaluation is mandatory and can be supplemented with written feedback from teachers. For general upper secondary schools, "admission is based solely on student grades. This type of school typically lasts two to four years, ending with final exams, which include four required subjects." In these schools, studies consist of at least 75 courses, approximately 45 to 49 of which are mandatory. Additionally, unpaid mandatory practical training is part of the curriculum.

If a student is graded below an 8, they automatically attend a vocational school, which lasts three years, ending with a qualifying exam. Higher education, or universities, is structured in two levels, with a three-year bachelor's program and a two-year master's program, similar to Slovakia and Denmark. Additionally, there is a doctoral program that takes four years. A strong emphasis is placed on adult education. The aim of adult education policy is to promote a skilled workforce, social cohesion, fairness, and to provide learning opportunities for adults at all levels. The system's flexibility allows adults to study while working. Education funding comes from both the state and local governments.

Preschool and primary education fall under the responsibility of municipalities, which receive state support and can allocate funds at their discretion. Funding for secondary education

depends on the number of enrolled students, unit costs set by the ministry, and in vocational schools, businesses contribute to the costs. University funding is provided by the state. Municipal offices are responsible for organizing primary education. At the local level, a School Board, with its size based on the population, oversees education, and the school's management is handled by a school council, which includes teachers and students elected for one year. General secondary schools are run by regional self-governing institutions (N. Kováčová, 2015).

In the late 1980s, Denmark faced an economic recession, which led to increased unemployment. In the 1990s, the country's investment strategy prioritized education and social security. By the early 1990s, adverse economic trends were reversed, and the country began to prosper, resulting in a competitive economy within the European Union (N. Kováčová, 2015, p. 81). In education, there was an increasing emphasis on skill development and personal growth. The state played an essential role, providing grants for worker education to promote skills advancement, with part of the funds directed at the unemployed to ensure quick integration into the workforce. "Denmark is a developed country with a high standard of living. The education system is designed to provide students with practical skills, preparing them well for their future careers, making internships in companies a frequent part of studies" (Paula, 2017).

Like Finland, Denmark has a high-quality education system led by highly qualified educators. "Education is an integral part of the social system, funded by taxes, with approximately 10% of public spending allocated to it, about 30% of which goes to universities. Like Finland, Denmark also provides free education to all EU citizens. Denmark's educational model emphasizes interactive teaching combined with the latest educational techniques.

The Danish education system is divided into three levels, similar to Finland: primary, secondary, and higher education. Before entering primary school, children attend kindergarten or preschool, which is optional. Like in Finland, Denmark has a nine-year compulsory school attendance starting at age seven. Denmark, like Finland, emphasizes foreign language learning, with students required to study English from the fifth grade and later German. "Primary education concludes with a final exam, enabling students to move on to secondary education" (A. Konopásková, 2012, p. 2). One unique aspect of Danish education policy is the option of a 10th grade after completing primary school, which helps students decide on further education. In secondary education, students can choose between vocational education, lasting three to four years, or upper secondary education, concluding with a final examination.

The Danish education system also includes a law for young people with special needs, introduced in 2007, requiring local authorities to offer a three-year educational program for

people with disabilities after compulsory education. The aim is to prepare students for an independent and active life, ensuring access to further education or integration into the workforce.

In Denmark, higher education is divided into several levels. Similar to the Finnish model, the lower level is a bachelor's degree, which lasts for three years, followed by a two-year master's degree. As with Finland, students who obtain a master's degree can continue their studies at a higher level. After completing a three-year postgraduate program, students can earn a PhD. Interestingly, a doctoral title such as *dr.phil.* (Doctor of Philosophy) or *dr.scient.* (Doctor of Science) can be achieved only after 5 to 8 years of individual research (Systém vzdelávania v ..., 2014). The education system is based on a unified ECTS credit system, meaning the credits students earn in Denmark are widely recognized by other European universities. The study format is seminar-based, with an emphasis on practical solutions to examined problems. A unique feature is that access to the university is typically unrestricted throughout the entire day.

Based on the findings and comparisons of the educational policies of Finland and Denmark within the European Union, it is clear that both countries share a common feature: they faced various crises, but despite that, they did not stand idle. In response, both countries realized the importance of education. In both cases, this was in the context of unemployment. Therefore, it can be said that investing in education and the school system, in general, makes sense, and other countries, including those in Europe, could learn from their example. Another common trait between Finland and Denmark is free education and a highly professional approach to teaching, combined with the use of the latest teaching techniques.

Conclusion

In our contribution, we focused on comparing the educational policies of two EU countries, the Republic of Finland and the Kingdom of Denmark. We highlighted the importance of education within the context of their educational policies, recognizing education as an essential part of our lives. We considered the Scandinavian countries as role models for educational policy, as they exemplify high-quality education systems and significant investments in education. In comparing the educational systems of Finland and Denmark, we concluded that, despite minor differences, both countries share a common feature: their investment in education. Both faced crises and addressed the issue of unemployment, and education was seen as a vital solution. Another common feature we identified was free education, the division of education into three levels (primary, secondary, and higher

education), and the highly professional approach of educators, who employ the latest teaching techniques. These elements make both Finland and Denmark exemplary models for other European countries to consider when investing in education.

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Contact:

JUDr. Mgr. Lukáš Bernátek

external doctoral student

Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration

Danubius University

THE ISSUE OF HIGHER EDUCATION FUNDING IN SLOVAKIA

Lukáš BERNÁTEK, Martina KONEČNÁ

Abstract

One of the long-standing issues facing universities is their underfunding and the low efficiency in utilizing financial resources. In 2024, each university signed a grant agreement, accompanied by performance parameters, committing to fulfill specific measurable indicators. Upon meeting these indicators, the university is entitled to a specific amount with the goal of gradually improving the performance of all universities in Slovakia from 2024 to 2026. These agreements introduce a new method of funding for universities, aiming for a gradual transition to performance-based funding and the quality of their outcomes. The aim of this paper is to highlight the essence of the new performance agreements, whose signing also marks the achievement of a key milestone in the Slovak Recovery and Resilience Plan.

Key words: *funding, universities, scholarships, state budget, performance agreements*

Introduction

Higher education institutions can be considered the engines of developing a knowledge-based society, and higher education plays an exceptional role in an individual's life. The demand for highly qualified, socially engaged individuals is increasing and continually evolving due to a changing society. According to forecasts, by 2025, it is expected that half of all jobs will require a high level of qualification. The current situation shows that high-level skills are already lacking. Jobs are becoming more flexible and complex as a result of digital technologies. Today, it is more important than ever to possess the ability to manage and process complex information, think independently and creatively, use resources intelligently, communicate effectively, and be resilient. Education presupposes expertise : „*Expertise as a basic prerequisite for competence is a key principle determining the effectiveness of the administration of a democratic state, the essence of which lies in finding a balance between democratic forms and methods of exercising public power with elements of expertise in state management through which public power is exercised*“ (Kováčová, Cevárová, 2022, p. 117). The growth of society requires more successful individuals capable of creating cutting-edge technologies and solutions, which will shape the level of our future prosperity. In the fight against the growing polarization of our society and the distrust of democratic institutions, everyone – including higher education workers and students – is called to engage more actively in their local communities and promote social inclusion and mobility. We cannot respond to

these challenges without higher education institutions and systems that are effective in education, research, and innovation.

The primary source of values and profit of the knowledge-oriented society system, which is based on linking production and innovation, is above all the human intellect. „*In the society of the 21st century, physical strength is thus suppressed by human thought, knowledge and intellectual labor as inherent attributes of a new system of wealth creation and overall prosperity*“ (Kováčová, Masár, 2013, p. 351).

The essence of this article focuses on a selected aspect: the funding of higher education, with an emphasis on a new trend – performance agreements. The mission of performance agreements is to shift the focus from quantity to quality in the matter of funding so that the financing system is not solely based on student numbers but emphasizes the value of universities. This can be understood, for example, as the social employability of graduates or the improved applicability of bachelor's degree programs. The inspiration for performance parameters came from best practices in Austria, Denmark, the Netherlands, Germany, and the United Kingdom.

Results

The primary source of funding for public universities is subsidies from the state budget. To cover the expenses necessary for their operations, public universities also utilize other sources, which include: (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2024)

- tuition fees,
- study-related fees,
- revenues from continuing education,
- revenues from the assets of the public university,
- revenues from intellectual property,
- revenues from own financial funds,
- revenues from donations,
- other revenues from the main activities of the public university,
- revenues from business activities of the public university.

Public universities' income can also come from subsidies from the budgets of municipalities and regional authorities. Public universities, with the consent of academic bodies such as the academic senate and the board of trustees, can also use bank loans as a source of

funding for research activities and capital expenditures. However, it is not permissible to use state budget subsidies for loan repayments, including interest payments.

Subsidies from the state budget are provided: (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2024)

- „to public universities through the chapter of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sports of the Slovak Republic (this is implemented based on Act No. 131/2002 Coll. on Higher Education, and the allocation of subsidies to specific public universities is carried out based on the methodology for distributing subsidies from the state budget for the relevant academic year, which is prepared and annually updated by the Ministry of Education, after prior consultation with the representation of higher education institutions),
- to military universities through the chapter of the Ministry of Defense of the Slovak Republic.
- *to police universities through the chapter of the Ministry of the Interior of the Slovak Republic,*
- *to healthcare universities through the chapter of the Ministry of Health of the Slovak Republic“* (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2024).

According to the methodology for the distribution of subsidies, a portion of the financial resources is allocated to universities based on performance agreements, which contain measurable indicators for a period of three years. These indicators are organized into thematic areas defined in the directive of the Ministry of Education No. 48/2023 on measurable indicators of grant agreements for public universities. The measurable indicators are differentiated into two groups: basic (mandatory) and optional measurable indicators (from which universities must select six) (Smernica č. 48/2023..., 2023). The mandatory measurable indicators of the performance agreements are clear quantitative data that determine the target performance values of public universities for a three-year period, initially from 2024 to 2026, and are based on the current state of public universities. Each measurable indicator for each public university also takes into account the current differentiations among universities (specifically, the dispersion and quartiles). "If the values of the indicators fall within closed intervals (percentages ranging from 0 to 100 percent, scores closed from above and below), the general goals and performance achievements (annual increases or decreases) are determined in percentage points (for percentages from 0 to 100 percent) or in percentages (for scores closed from above and below). If the values of the indicators fall within an interval that is closed only

from below (points for publication and artistic activities, amounts in euros, etc.), only the performance achievements (annual increases) are determined, and these are expressed in percentages" (Príloha č. 2 k smernici., 2023).

In January 2024, all universities in Slovakia signed performance agreements in which, as mentioned earlier, they committed to fulfilling several measurable indicators. For meeting these indicators, they can receive additional financial contributions from 2024 to 2026. Over 300 million euros have been allocated for the funding of universities for three years. (Vysoké školy podpísali..., 2024). One hundred million euros are tied from their budget to performance agreements, and 200 million will be granted over three years if they meet the individual parameters and milestones outlined in the performance agreements, which is in addition to the planned state subsidy. The introduction of performance agreements by the end of 2023 also fulfilled one of the key milestones of the Recovery Plan. The mission of these agreements is to bring a new method of funding to schools, with the aim of a gradual transition to performance-based funding and quality of their outcomes. Each university must fulfill seven mandatory and seven optional indicators, while for art schools, there are six mandatory and eight optional indicators, all of which must be monitored, evaluated, and published annually. The mandatory indicators set by the state primarily include study efficiency, openness of study, openness of study to international opportunities, graduate unemployment, employability of first-degree graduates in practice, foreign research grants, and professional study programs. Of the 22 optional indicators, universities mainly focused on collaboration with practice (19 universities), outcomes of doctoral studies and the establishment of doctoral schools (16), internationalization of universities (11), cooperation and capacity concentration among universities (11), and research and excellent research outputs (11). (Vysoké školy podpísali..., 2024).

The individual indicators will be monitored and evaluated annually. For the performance agreements, funding has been allocated for the year 2025 in the amount of 67,000,000 euros, in addition to the planned state subsidy, and for the year 2026, 85,100,000 euros have been allocated. (MŠVVaŠ SR, 2024).

The Ministry provides public universities with subsidies for the implementation of accredited study programs, for research, development, or artistic activities, for the development of the university, and for student social support, issuing these subsidies based on contracts.

When defining the subsidy for the implementation of accredited study programs, certain criteria are taken into account, such as:

- the number of students,
- the number of graduates,

- the economic demands of the study programs offered,
- quality,
- employability of graduates in practice,
- other factors related to ensuring the delivery of education.

An indispensable tool for financing science and technology in Slovakia is also the Agency for the Support of Research and Development, which is an agency of the Ministry of Education and was established to support research and development in Slovakia by providing financial resources from the state budget for project implementation. A public university can also engage in entrepreneurial activities; however, these must not jeopardize the quality, scope, and availability of activities fulfilling the primary mission of the public university. Subsidies from the state budget for the activities of public universities are purpose-bound. Public universities create financial funds primarily from the profits they acquire, including: (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2023)

- reserve fund,
- reproduction fund (designated for the acquisition of tangible and intangible assets),
- scholarship fund,
- fund to support students with specific needs,
- social fund.

A public university must use at least 40% of its profit to create a reserve fund, which serves to offset losses from the previous year and to cover any unpaid losses from past periods (years) if such a loss is reported. If a public university does not report a loss, it may use the funds from the reserve fund to supplement other financial funds of the university. The annual financial statements of the public university must be audited by an auditor at least once every four years. The rector is accountable to the Minister of Education for the efficient and effective use of subsidies and their settlement with the state budget, as well as for managing the assets of the public university.

At the end of each calendar year, the public university prepares an account of its operations and settles its financial relationships with the ministry's budget, which it then submits to the ministry by a deadline set by the ministry. It is also the obligation of the public university to annually submit a proposal for its budget for the respective fiscal year to the ministry. The ministry conducts audits in the area of the public university's management.

Full-time study at public and state universities is free of charge. However, if students exceed the standard duration of study established for the study program or study multiple programs at the same level, they must pay tuition fees. The amount of tuition is determined by the university and is defined in its internal regulations but must not exceed the maximum amount set by law. This means that "in the academic year 2023/24, the annual tuition for full-time study programs must not exceed 2,725 euros, and in the academic year 2024/2025, the amount must not exceed 3,075 euros." (*Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania*, 2024).

If a student studies a program longer than the standard duration, meaning they exceed the established length without a serious reason, they are required to pay annual tuition fees set by the university for each additional year of study. The external form of study at public and state universities is a paid form. Each university individually determines the tuition amounts for its various study programs, while the state regulates only the maximum amounts of annual tuition through legislation. In practice, for the academic year 2023/24, the maximum annual tuition is defined as 5,970 euros for bachelor's programs and 8,330 euros for second-level master's programs in external form.

By law, public universities are required to publish the amount of tuition and fees associated with study for the following academic year no later than two months before the application deadlines. Tuition fees are also set for study programs conducted in a language other than the state language or the language of a national minority. The amount of this fee is determined by the university's internal regulations and is not subject to state regulation. For students studying under international agreements, tuition is paid according to the provisions of those agreements. Public universities have the right to charge applicants for study fees related to the material costs of the admission process, which are derived from the actual costs incurred by the university for this purpose.

A public university also has the right to charge students fees, the amounts of which are determined by internal regulations and depend on the actual costs incurred by the university related to these actions, for:

- issuance of study-related documents and their copies,
- issuance of documents confirming the completion of studies, if required in a foreign language (except for the diploma supplement, which is issued free of charge),
- issuance of copies of documents confirming the completion of studies,
- recognition of equivalence of study documents.

Tuition and fees associated with study may be reduced, waived, or the payment deadlines postponed by the rector, taking into account individual circumstances such as academic performance, social and health situations of the student, etc. For private universities, tuition and fees are defined by internal regulations.

In Slovakia, financial support for families of university students is provided indirectly in the form of family allowances and tax credits. Direct financial support for students is provided in the form of scholarships and loans, as well as indirectly through subsidies for student social support, primarily for services related to catering and accommodation, support for sports, cultural activities, university pastoral centers, and also discounted travel tickets.

From the state budget or through their own sources via scholarship funds, universities provide students with motivational scholarships aimed at recognizing the best students and motivating others to improve their academic results. The state budget allocates funds to universities so that 10% of the best students in full-time bachelor's and master's programs at each public university can be awarded a motivational scholarship of €500. Each university or faculty defines its own specific criteria. Eligibility for such a scholarship arises automatically upon fulfilling all criteria set by the university. The number of students awarded a scholarship, as well as its amount, is determined by the university, which publishes a list of students who have received motivational scholarships.

In addition to this, individual universities receive funding for motivational scholarships for students in selected study fields. The list of study fields eligible for the scholarship is regulated by the ministry in its methodology for distributing subsidies from the state budget for the relevant year. "The subsidy from the state budget is provided in such a way that 15% of students can receive a scholarship with an average amount of €1,200." (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2024). The use of funds is purpose-bound to students in selected study fields and, in specified cases, is limited to a specific level of study—bachelor's degree programs.

Extraordinary scholarships from the university's own resources are awarded, as feasible, to students and graduates whose regular studies have not been completed more than 90 days prior, as a one-time or regular form of social support. This may be granted for outstanding academic results, fulfillment of study obligations, or achieving excellent results in research, development, artistic, or sports activities. The conditions for providing these extraordinary scholarships are defined in the university's scholarship regulations.

The conditions for social scholarships, which are intended for all university students studying at institutions based in Slovakia and having permanent residency in Slovakia, are

established by the Ministry of Education through Regulation No. 102/2006 on awarding social scholarships to university students. These conditions are identical for all universities. The amount of the social scholarship is conditional on the income of the family members who are assessed together with the student. The regulation also specifies the income threshold. Recipients of social scholarships can only be students enrolled in the first year of full-time university studies. (Vyhláška č. 102/2006 Z. z.) If an applicant is simultaneously a student at multiple universities, they can only apply for a social scholarship at one institution. Social scholarships can be awarded to students of public, private, or state universities who are enrolled in full-time studies at the first or second level, or in combined first and second-level study programs (e.g., general medicine).

In the academic year 2023/2024, the monthly amount of the social scholarship ranges from €10 to €375. The amount of the scholarship is determined by whether the student studies more than 30 km from their permanent residence. There are no age restrictions for awarding the scholarship, meaning that students can be older than 26 years.

When applying for a social scholarship, applicants must submit income documentation for themselves and other family members who are assessed together, typically parents and siblings, for the previous calendar year, along with additional documents that enable the assessment of the group of individuals considered together. Individuals such as aunts, uncles, and grandparents are not included in this assessment, even if they live with the student.

The list of required documents can be obtained during personal consultations at the university's student affairs office. "Just because a student does not live with their parents does not automatically mean they will be assessed independently. For independent assessment, the student must demonstrate a sufficient income, at least 12 times the amount of the minimum subsistence level for an adult individual for the previous calendar year. Income from dependents, which is subject to income tax and does not exceed 1.2 times the amount of the minimum subsistence level for an adult individual, is not considered as income. If this income is not proven, the assessment is done jointly with the parents, who must meet the conditions specified in § 3 (1) (a) of the regulation, regardless of whether the student lives with them or not." (Sociálne štipendiá, 2021). If a student has specific needs, they may be eligible for a social scholarship even after exceeding the standard duration of study, provided that their disability is the reason for the delay. However, if the student is studying at a foreign university outside of Slovakia, they are not entitled to a social scholarship, as these institutions do not operate under Slovak legal regulations.

In the case of pregnancy, a female student can receive a maternity scholarship starting from the 13th week of pregnancy, even if she has interrupted her studies due to pregnancy, as long as she has permanent residence in Slovakia and is not entitled to maternity benefits. The amount of the maternity scholarship in 2024 is set at €200 per month. This scholarship is intended to cover the increased expenses associated with the health condition of the pregnant student, her special material needs, and preparation for the birth of the child. (Financovanie vysokoškolského vzdelávania, 2024).

Student loans can be provided to college students by entrepreneurs through so-called enterprise scholarships based on a scholarship program agreement between the university and the entrepreneur. This is intended to support students in programs that entrepreneurs consider relevant to their employee needs or to motivate other students to study such programs. The university, in mutual agreement with the entrepreneur, will primarily establish the conditions within the contract that regulate the deadlines for submitting applications for the enterprise scholarship, the amount or method of determining the amount of the enterprise scholarship, criteria for selecting students, and the timing of the provision of the enterprise scholarship. The average monthly amount of the enterprise scholarship set for a student in the academic year 2023/24 must not exceed the sum of €1,075.53.

For third-level higher education, a doctoral student in full-time study with permanent residence in an EU member state is entitled to a scholarship during the standard duration of their studies, which commences on the date of enrollment. The amount of the monthly scholarship is defined by a government regulation on special salary scales for university teachers and research and development staff. A doctoral student in full-time study has the status of a state-insured person; the state pays the student's health insurance, and for social insurance purposes (pension, sickness, and unemployment insurance), the student may insure themselves as a voluntary insured person. Upon reaching the age of 30, they become a self-payer. Private schools apply the self-payer institute.

Student loans may be provided through the Education Support Fund (FnPV), and during the study, they carry a 0% interest rate. The repayment of the loan begins only after the completion of studies. The amount of the loan may be as follows: (Študentská pôžička, 2024)

- €1,000 - minimum loan amount.
- €4,000 - maximum loan for students of bachelor's and master's programs without a guarantor.
- €7,500 - maximum loan for students of bachelor's and master's programs with a guarantor.

- €19,900 - maximum loan for students attending one of the 500 best universities in the world.
- €40,000 - maximum loan for students attending one of the 500 best universities in the world designated for covering tuition fees.

The Education Support Fund provides loans under favorable conditions to selected target groups: college students, teaching staff, specialized school employees, doctoral students, university educators, university researchers, and artistic staff of universities up to 35 years of age. (396/2012 Z. z.).

A loan applicant can be a student enrolled in a bachelor's, master's, or doctoral program, studying not only full-time but also part-time, at a university located in Slovakia or abroad. The student loan has a low interest rate of only 4% per year and can be applied for repeatedly each academic year throughout the entire duration of studies. In case of a study interruption due to maternity or parental leave, the student is entitled to a deferral of repayments. This deferral can last for a maximum of 5 years, during which the loan will not accrue interest or require repayment. "The Fund can provide a loan to a student in one academic year only once and at most during six academic years, which do not have to be consecutive." (Financovanie vysokoškolského štúdia, 2024).

"A student preparing for a shortage-regulated profession or for a group of shortage-regulated professions included in the list of shortage-regulated professions for the purpose of the stabilization loan may apply for a stabilization loan from the fund's resources." (396/2012 Z. z.). The list of shortage-regulated professions, including the relevant study programs, is issued by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sports of the Slovak Republic. The Board of the Education Support Fund approved new conditions for stabilization loans for the academic year 2024/2025 at its meeting on August 28, 2024. The basic framework for loans is defined by the law on the Education Support Fund, and further binding and specific conditions are outlined in the grant agreement for stabilization loans, in Resolution No. 1-031/2024, and the procedure is specified in the internal regulation of the board of the fund No. VP1-002/2024. A new joint fee schedule will take effect on October 1, 2024.

Private universities must secure financial resources for their educational, research, artistic, and other creative activities independently. The Ministry of Education may enter into a contract with a private university to provide funding; however, the condition for providing a grant is the fulfillment of measurable indicators agreed upon for three years, aligned with the thematic areas outlined in the long-term plan of the Ministry of Education. A private university

may receive earmarked funds for project activities. Additionally, as previously mentioned, the ministry provides a grant to private universities for social support for students. A private university is required to prepare, publish, and submit an annual report on its activities to the ministry each year. If a grant from the state budget has been provided, it must also submit a report by August 31 on the evaluation of measurable indicators, which form the content framework of the grant agreement for the provision of financial resources.

Given the long-term insufficient number of employees in certain sectors in Slovakia, and the existence of professions and positions that are either difficult to fill long-term or are undersubscribed in terms of interested applicants, the Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Youth has decided to create an additional category within the established scholarship scheme “Study at Home, Slovakia Will Reward You.” In addition to the two categories known from previous years, an additional 400 top successful applicants who enroll in a study program preparing for shortage professions will be selected. In the category of "the greatest talents among Slovak graduates," 750 successful graduates will be selected, along with an additional 420 from the category of "above-average students from socially disadvantaged backgrounds or who belong to specific disadvantaged groups." The total number of supported scholarship recipients for the academic year 2024/25 is set to be up to 1,570 . The list of shortage professions was identified with the help of experts from various fields dealing with labor market expertise and its needs. The Ministry of Education also consulted the academic community in creating this list of professions. This includes organizations such as the "Ministry of Economy of the Slovak Republic, Association of Employers' Unions and Associations, Institute of Educational Policy, Union of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Industries of Slovakia, Association of Waterworks Companies of Slovakia, Slovak Electricity, Association of Industry Unions and Transport, Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, and Family of the Slovak Republic, Republic Union of Employers of Slovakia, Club 500, and the Confederation of Trade Unions." (Rezort školstva poskytné..., 2024). The mission of the scholarship scheme is to keep the best students at home in Slovakia and thus partially address brain drain. The original scholarship scheme has been expanded for the academic year 2024/2025, making it even more attractive and offering scholarship opportunities to an additional 400 students.

An allocated amount of €16,500 will support students in the academic year 2024/2025 who are enrolled in study programs related to long-term shortage professions such as teachers, caregivers, doctors, and also employees in the field of nuclear energy. The process of disbursing scholarships will be structured so that scholarship recipients will receive €300 per month throughout all three academic years, just like other students in both categories. After

successfully completing the first year, scholarship recipients will receive a one-time payment of €1,000 upon enrollment in the second year, €1,500 after successfully completing the second year and enrolling in the third year, and a reward of €5,000 after successfully completing the third year.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we would like to summarize the essence of performance contracts. State expenditures on higher education institutions will increase by nearly one-fifth year-on-year in 2024, reaching €759 million. An additional €122 million will be allocated to strengthen regular funding as well as for performance contracts. The ministry will significantly increase the long-stagnating subsidies for student accommodation in dormitories by 20%, for the operation of dormitories by 31%, and for meal allowances by 33% (Ministry of Education, Science, Research, and Sports of the Slovak Republic, 2024). Thanks to performance contracts, higher education institutions will receive nearly €47 million additionally in 2024. All public universities have signed a performance contract as part of the state subsidy agreement, committing to fulfill specific measurable indicators. The essence of the funding change is linked to the fulfillment of these measurable indicators. Each university has committed in the performance contract to meet 14 indicators, of which 7 are mandatory and must be fulfilled by all institutions, while 7 are optional. The universities could choose from 22 indicators based on their focus, mission, and profile.

Mandatory measurable indicators may include, for example, the efficiency and openness of studies towards foreign collaboration, graduate unemployment rates, the employment of bachelor's degree graduates in practice, foreign research grants, and professional study programs. Optional indicators may include collaboration with industry and external institutions, the outcomes of doctoral studies, the internationalization of universities, excellent research outputs, inclusion and support for students with specific needs, student satisfaction, and stakeholder satisfaction—specifically, employers' satisfaction with graduates. Each of these indicators will be monitored and evaluated annually. For the performance contracts, funding of €67 million is allocated for 2025, beyond the planned state subsidy, and €85.1 million is allocated for 2026.

Regarding the funding of higher education institutions, we would like to conclude in summary that the system is set up to encourage competition rather than collaboration among individuals. While competition is desirable, it is also necessary to emphasize mutual cooperation in the field of science.

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Contact:

JUDr. Mgr. Lukáš Bernátek, Ing. Martina Konečná

external doctoral student

Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration

Danubius University

TAX JUSTICE IN THE CURRENT PERIOD

Róbert GULIŠ

Abstract

In this article, the author focuses on the issue of tax justice as an accompanying phenomenon in the regime of development of tax conditions. In individual parts, it points out aspects whose development of tax conditions must be taken into account. At the same time, the article points to the introduction of new forms of tax burdens, forms of their application also at the international level. He points to the fact that monitoring is increasingly becoming essential in controlling and preventing tax evasion. The article points to the fact that the development in question should continuously reflect the fairness of the tax burden in the regime of all participants.

Keywords: *taxation, tax justice, tax policy, public finances, tax havens*

Tax justice is a key concept in the field of tax policy and economic justice. In the current period, as in the past, this topic is very much discussed and diverse. Some argue that tax justice requires those with higher incomes or greater wealth to contribute more through taxes in order to support social programs and infrastructure that contribute to the prosperity of society as a whole. This approach is often referred to as progressive tax policy, where the tax rate rises with an individual's income or assets. On the other hand, there are also arguments for simplified tax systems, which are often considered fairer as they eliminate complexity and possible tax evasion. Some argue that tax justice means having simple and transparent tax rules that apply equally to all citizens.

As a result of economic, political and social factors, there are many different views on what exactly tax justice means and how it should be achieved. In any case, it is important that tax systems take into account the needs and values of a given society and that they are designed to strike a balance between fairness, efficiency and economic growth.

- A. Tax justice is an important aspect of economic and social justice in every period. In most countries, companies are trying to achieve a fair tax policy that ensures that the tax burden is sensibly distributed among the different sections of the population and businesses.

At present, there are several key issues and challenges in the area of tax justice:

Tax burden on workers – Many countries are trying to ease the tax burden on workers, often through personal tax reform, to increase national competitiveness and boost the economy. This includes lowering tax rates, increasing tax bonuses and deductions.

Taxation of Multinational Companies – With increasing globalization, there is an increasing emphasis on taxing multinationals fairly in each country in which they operate. Measures are being taken to prevent tax evasion and avoidance through international structures.

Fighting tax evasion and tax havens - Governments are trying to effectively combat tax evasion and the use of tax havens, where companies and individuals can hide their income in order to minimize their tax obligations.

Sustainability of public finances - At present, it is important to ensure the sustainability of public finances. Therefore, many countries are concerned with the question of how to obtain enough income to finance public services and social programs without increasing inequality in society.

Environmental taxes and carbon taxation – With the growing threat of climate change, some countries are focusing on introducing environmental and carbon taxes to reflect environmental costs, thus supporting the transition to a sustainable economy.

- B. Tax justice is an important and frequently discussed concept in politics and economics. It focuses on whether the tax system distributes the tax burden fairly between individuals and the community. In the current period, there are many factors and questions related to tax justice.

Progressivity vs. Regressivity – There is debate about whether the tax system should be progressive, meaning that people with higher incomes should pay a higher percentage of taxes, or regressive, where everyone pays the same percentage of their income.

Fair Income Taxation – The question of whether all forms of income are taxed fairly. Many countries are engaged in tax evasion and aggressive tax plans by large corporations and wealthy individuals.

Tax Credits and Exemptions – Deciding which groups should be eligible for tax breaks and exemptions is another aspect of the tax justice debate. Some countries are trying to implement policies that minimize tax evasion.

Social implications – In recent years, the social aspect of tax justice has also become increasingly emphasized. Some countries are trying to increase tax justice by introducing measures to reduce inequalities in society.

- C. In the current period, the debate on tax justice is varied and includes a number of factors and aspects. Politicians, economists and civil society are engaged in debates and looking for ways to create tax systems that are both fair and efficient. Tax justice is a key aspect in the economic and political-social debate in every period. Some of the main topics and questions related to tax justice that may arise in the current period may include:

Tax evasion and tax havens – A discussion on how to prevent wealthy individuals and corporations from tax avoidance through the use of tax evasion and tax havens.

Progressive vs. Regressive Taxes - A debate about whether the tax system should be built in such a way that the rich contribute more as a percentage of their income than the poor, or whether the tax burden should be evenly distributed.

Taxation of digital businesses – A growing emphasis on taxing digital giants and tech firms that may avoid tax obligations in some jurisdictions.

Tax incentives and rebates – A discussion of how tax incentives and rebates can support socially just causes, such as supporting families, education, or combating climate change.

Transparency and effectiveness of tax administration – It would be important to ensure that tax administration is transparent and efficient, which can include improving tax collection, conducting audits, and preventing corruption.

Tax reforms – Possible discussions on the need and appropriateness of tax reforms to simplify the tax system and improve tax justice.

New technologies and tax reforms - With the increasing digitalization of the economy, new challenges and opportunities in the field of taxation are emerging. Many countries are considering tax reforms to take into account new forms of earnings and online trade. These

reforms should be designed and implemented with regard to the principles of fairness and equality.

These and other topics are important for the debate on tax justice in the current period and are the subject of attention of economists, politicians and civil society around the world.

Overall, tax justice is a complex topic and addressing this issue requires a comprehensive approach that takes into account various factors and interests. Tax justice is still an important topic that requires the attention of political leaders and the public to ensure that tax systems are not only efficient, but also fair and balanced.

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Contact:

PhDr. JUDr. Róbert Guliš

external doctoral student

Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration

Danubius University

WHAT IS THE SOCIAL POLICY OF THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC, SO IS THE STATE FULFILLING ITS ROLE IN THE EYES OF CITIZENS

Róbert GULIŠ

Abstract

In this article, the author focuses on the issue of fulfilling the social role of the state in relation to civil society. A society whose state provides social security, health care, conditions for quality education necessary to find employment in the labor market through social policy instruments. The article elaborates partial parts of the social policies of the state, causes and consequences in their appropriate application. Last but not least, the fundamental role of the state is pointed out to provide citizens with social security to such an extent that civil society perceives the role in question as sufficient and thus contributes to civic satisfaction and cohesion.

Keywords: social policy, Slovakia, social services, health care, education, quality of life

The question in question deals with the relationship between state social policy and its perception by citizens. The social policy of the state is aimed at addressing the social needs of the population, such as health care, pension system, unemployment benefits and other social benefits. The perception of the role of the state in fulfilling these tasks can be a fundamental factor for citizens' trust in state institutions and political representatives. Although the state may have good social policies in place, their effectiveness and availability can be affected by administrative procedures, financial resources, and the state's ability to implement these policies effectively. From the point of view of citizens, it is important that social policies are fair, accessible and respond effectively to their needs.

The overall perception of state social policy can also be influenced by a number of other factors, such as the media, social organizations and personal experience with these policies. It is therefore important for state institutions and political leaders to communicate with citizens, providing transparency and accountability to how they fulfil their role in the social field.

Ultimately, the relationship between state social policy and citizens' perception of it is dynamic, influenced by a number of factors that can change according to the specific circumstances in a given country.

- A. The social policy of the Slovak Republic plays a very important role in the lives of citizens. Its aim is to ensure an adequate standard of living, health protection and social security for all the country's inhabitants.

In the eyes of citizens, a state fulfilling its role in the field of social policy is perceived by how effectively it can solve current social problems and people's needs. For example, the following factors are important:

1. **Availability of services and benefits** – People expect to have access to basic social services such as healthcare, education, old-age pensions, and unemployment benefits. It is important that these services are available to all citizens, regardless of their financial situation.
2. **Fairness and transparency** – Citizens expect social benefits and support to be allocated fairly and transparently according to established rules and criteria. Lack of transparency and corruption can affect citizens' trust in state social policy.
3. **Efficiency and effectiveness of measures** - The effectiveness of spending public funds on social programs is also important. Citizens expect that the funds will be used effectively to support those most in need, and that the measures will have a real positive impact on people's lives.
4. **Responding to social needs** - The state should be able to respond flexibly to the changing social needs of the population, including addressing new challenges such as the consequences of the pandemic, migration or changes in the demographic profile of the country.
5. **Improving quality of life** – Ultimately, the success of social policy is measured by how successfully it contributes to improving the quality of life of the population, including reducing poverty, improving health and promoting equal opportunities for all.

Overall, social policy is a critical factor in evaluating the performance of a state in the eyes of its citizens. Its effectiveness and confidence in its functioning can have a significant impact on social stability and trust in the institutions of the state as a whole.

B. In the Slovak Republic, social policy is focused on several main areas:

1. **Social Security and Pensions** - The social system provides various forms of support for citizens in need, including a pension system, child benefits, maternity leave, and unemployment benefits. The sustainability of the pension system and its adequacy are frequent topics of public discussion.
2. **Health care** - Access to healthcare is a fundamental right. The Slovak healthcare system provides universal health care, but often faces challenges such as long waiting times, shortages of medical staff and the need for funding reform.
3. **Education** – Investment in education is crucial for the future development of a country. Slovakia is striving to improve the quality and accessibility of education at all levels, from primary schools to universities, but it still faces challenges such as inequalities in access to education and the need to modernise the education system.
4. **Housing** - Affordability and quality of housing are an important aspect of social policy. Slovakia is trying to improve the situation in the area of affordable housing, but high property prices and a lack of social housing pose significant problems.
5. **Family policy** – Supporting families through various financial contributions, such as family allowances and maternity benefits, is the basis for supporting families with children. The state also focuses on promoting work-life balance.
6. **Employment and the labour market** - Policies aimed at promoting employment and reducing unemployment, including reskilling and business support programmes, are important for economic growth and social stability.
7. **Social services** - The provision of social services, such as homes for the elderly, facilities for people with disabilities and other forms of assistance, are key to ensuring a dignified life for all groups of the population.

The effectiveness and fairness of social policy directly affect how citizens perceive the state and its ability to fulfil its role. A good social policy can contribute to greater social cohesion and stability, while an inadequate or unfair policy can lead to discontent and social unrest.

C. The social policy of the Slovak Republic is a comprehensive and multifunctional area of public policy that encompasses various aspects of citizens' lives, including health, education, employment, housing, social services and protection. How effectively the state

implements this policy has a direct impact on citizens' perception of the state. Here are the main areas on which Slovak social policy focuses:

1. **Healthcare**

- **Universal access** - The Slovak Republic provides universal health care, which is financed from public funds and health insurance.
- **Improving quality** - The long-term goal is to increase the quality and availability of health services.

2. **Education**

- **Free education** - Primary and secondary education is free and compulsory.
- **Education reform** - Current reforms are aimed at improving the quality of education and adapting the education system to the needs of the labor market.

3. **Employment**

- **Employment support** – There are employment support programs such as active labor market policies and support for the retraining of the unemployed.
- **Minimum wage** - Setting the minimum wage and increasing it regularly is one of the tools of social policy.

4. **Social services and benefits**

- **Social Insurance** – Includes sickness, pension, and unemployment insurance.
- **Family benefits** - Support for families with children through various benefits such as child benefits and parental allowance.

5. **Housing**

- **Housing support** - Programs to support affordable housing, including subsidies for rental housing and support for the construction of social housing.

6. **Protection of vulnerable groups**

- **Social inclusion** – Programs to promote the inclusion of vulnerable groups such as the elderly, people with disabilities, and the long-term unemployed.
- **Support for marginalized Roma communities** - Projects to improve living conditions and integrate Roma communities.

The importance of social policy in the eyes of citizens

Effective social policy is key to creating citizens' trust in the state. Citizens judge the state by how well it takes care of their needs and how it can ensure their social and economic security.

If the state can provide quality health services, support education, employment, affordable housing and ensure a dignified old age, citizens will perceive it as effective and fair.

On the other hand, if social policy is insufficient or ineffective, it can lead to dissatisfaction among citizens and a loss of trust in state institutions. It is therefore important that social policy is continuously improved and adapted to the changing needs of society.

Ultimately, good social policy contributes to social cohesion and stability of society, which is the basis for the long-term development and prosperity of the Slovak Republic.

The expression "What kind of social policy of the Slovak Republic, so is the state in the eyes of citizens fulfilling its role" indicates the importance of social policy for the perception of the state by citizens. Social policy encompasses various areas such as healthcare, education, pensions, support for families and the unemployed, and tackling poverty.

The effectiveness and fairness of these policies have a direct impact on citizens' perception of the state and its ability to fulfil its tasks. When social policies are effective, fair and accessible, citizens tend to have a positive perception of the state and trust it. Conversely, if these policies are ineffective, unfair or underfunded, it can lead to frustration, mistrust and dissatisfaction among citizens.

The importance of good social policy lies in the fact that it contributes to social cohesion, improves the quality of life of citizens and promotes economic growth by providing an educated, healthy and motivated workforce. Therefore, social policy is a key indicator of how the state fulfils its role in the eyes of citizens.

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Contact:

PhDr. JUDr. Róbert Guliš

external doctoral student

Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration

Danubius University

THE IMPLEMENTATION SYSTEM OF THE RECOVERY AND RESILIENCE PLAN IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Vladimír KOVÁČIK

Abstract

The main subject of the paper is to describe the implementation system of the Recovery Plan in Slovakia. This system regulates the common rules for the implementation of the investments and reforms involved in the Recovery Plan and creates a basic implementation framework, while respecting valid EU and Slovak legislation and agreements concluded between the Slovak Republic and the EU, as well as the particularities of the implementation of individual measures. To implement the Recovery and Resilience plan of the Slovak Republic, the Slovak government has set up a dedicated structure. This structure contains bodies of the national and others levels. The implementation system of the Recovery Plan is approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic by resolution.

Keywords: *implementation, recovery and resilience plan, NextGenerationEU, financial allocation, system*

INTRODUCTION

The recovery plan represents a unified and comprehensive package of reforms and investments, which is of key importance for Slovakia. It responds to the need to implement fundamental systemic changes in the form of reforms and the need to secure investments in important areas such as the green economy, education, science, research and innovation, healthcare, effective public administration and digitization (Government office of the Slovak republic, 2021). The implementation system of the Recovery Plan regulates the common rules for the implementation of the investments and reforms involved in the Recovery Plan and creates a basic implementation framework, while respecting valid EU and Slovak legislation and agreements concluded between the Slovak Republic and the EU, as well as the particularities of the implementation of individual measures.

1 THE RECOVERY PLAN AFTER PANDEMIC IN EU

COVID-19 pandemic and its consequences have hit various economic sectors in the European Union (EU) hard. The stability and prosperity of the EU depends, among other things, on its ability to provide timely and effective measures to repair the damage caused by COVID-19 and

prepare a better future for future generations. After overcoming the Eurozone crisis and the Great Recession, the EU is now facing the most dramatic economic crisis in its history. COVID-19 and the subsequent necessary public health restrictions have had far-reaching consequences for all Member States. But thanks to initiatives taken during the pandemic, the process of European integration has seen an unprecedented leap forward in 2020-2021, with the EU now having fiscal powers that would have been unthinkable until recently (Fabbrini, 2022).

It is a widely known fact that the Slovak Republic was hit hard by the pandemic of the coronavirus disease COVID-19, which, in addition to the loss of life and threat to the health of the population, also brought extensive economic damage. A key tool to help achieve higher competitiveness of the economy and quality of life in Slovakia is support for research, innovation and talent. Better research and cooperation between the public and private sectors will contribute to the development of sectors with high added value, to higher long-term innovativeness and competitiveness of Slovak companies and to the building of the EU's strategic autonomy in the field of top innovative technologies. Attracting and retaining talent creates prerequisites for economic growth and job creation (MIRRI, 2021).

One of the means by which Slovakia can contribute to the rapid and sustainable growth of the economy and the quality of life in Slovakia is the Recovery and Resilience Plan of the Slovak Republic. This plan is a comprehensive response to the consequences of the crisis associated with the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as a response to the identified main challenges and systemic shortcomings of the Slovak economy.

The COVID-19 pandemic has shaken Europe and the world to its foundations, testing healthcare and social security systems, our societies and economies, as well as our way of living and working together (Boni and Zevi, 2022). The European Commission proposes to use the full potential of the EU budget to protect lives and livelihoods, to correct the single market, as well as to achieve permanent and prosperous renewal and sustainable protection of the environment.

To manage the consequences of the pandemic, for the first time in history, the EU will borrow hundreds of billions in total to save the economies of its member states, which are facing a record recession at the time of the coronavirus pandemic (Antonini, 2022). To finance the EU Recovery Plan (officially called "The NextGenerationEU" in English), the European Commission - on behalf of the EU - will borrow from the markets at more favorable rates than many member states and redistribute the amounts (European Commission, 2021). The Recovery and Resilience Plan sets out a comprehensive package of reforms and investments to be implemented by 2026, supporting the Recovery and Resilience Mechanism. The plan

consists of investments and reforms that will address the challenges identified in the context of the European Semester. This mechanism is a central pillar of the EU Recovery Plan, designed by the European Commission as an emergency temporary recovery tool to help repair the immediate economic and social damage caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, support economic recovery and build a better future for future generations. The criteria are mainly set by Regulation 2021/241 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 12 February 2021 establishing a mechanism to support recovery and resilience.

On May 27, 2020, the European Commission presented the draft of the main EU recovery plan. The funding of the EU Recovery Plan of €750 billion, as well as the targeted increase in the long-term EU budget for 2021-2027, will increase the total financial capacity of the EU budget to €1.85 billion. In order to ensure that the recovery is even, inclusive and fair for all member states, the European Commission proposes to create a new recovery tool, a new generation EU, which will be integrated into a strong, modern and sophisticated long-term EU budget (European Commission, 2020). The European Commission has also published its revised annual work program for 2020, in which it will prioritize the steps needed to jump-start recovery and build Europe's resilience.

The EU Recovery Plan is a €750 billion recovery tool and aims to help repair the immediate economic and social damage caused by the coronavirus pandemic as a matter of priority. This package represents the largest financial aid ever financed in the EU. This mechanism will be flexible, which means the ability to react to unforeseen events and thus better manage possible future crises or problems. After the COVID-19 pandemic, Europe will be greener, more digital, more resilient and better prepared for current and future challenges thanks to The NextGenerationEU (European Commission, 2020). The NextGenerationEU program has rightly been hailed as a major institutional innovation: the EU has never borrowed to finance member states' spending, let alone transfers to member states; For the first time ever, the EU would be able to run a fiscal deficit to respond to an economic shock (Miró, 2022). As part of the comprehensive package, the Recovery Plan for Europe, Member States were required to submit their own National Recovery and Resilience Plans to the European Commission by 30 April 2020, which then went through an assessment and approval process. The EU Recovery Plan instrument will raise funds by temporarily raising the EU's own resources ceiling to 2.00% of EU gross national income, allowing the European Commission to use its strong credit rating to borrow €750 billion in financial markets. These additional funds will be provided through EU programs and will be repaid over a long period through future EU budgets – at the earliest in 2028 but at the latest in 2058. Under this mechanism, grants totaling €390 billion will be

provided to Member States and the remaining €360 billion will be provided in the form of loans. Loans and grants of €672.5 billion (in 2018 prices) will support Europe's recovery plan through post-pandemic reforms and investments across the EU, while enabling a digital and environmental transition in a cohesive society across Europe (Alcidi and Gros, 2020). To access the funds, member states must submit their recovery and resilience plan to the European Commission, which will check compliance with EU priorities and country-specific recommendations. Member States must allocate at least 37% to climate investment and reforms and at least 20% to the digital transition. Reviving new generation in the EU will also be essential for the EU to achieve its 55% emissions reduction target, as first envisaged in the European Green Deal proposed by the Commission in December 2019 (European Commission, 2019). The European Green Deal is a response to environmental and socio-economic challenges, which aims to achieve a sustainable and carbon-neutral economy by 2050 (Hermoso et al., 2022). The Slovak economy contracted by 5.2% in 2020. We also saw a 4.8% drop in gross national product (GDP) and an increase in the unemployment rate to 6.7%, with around 50,000 people out of a job. At the same time, Slovakia must solve the long-term challenge of preventing the stagnation of living standards, as well as the environment and employment. Systemic shortcomings of the Slovak economy are also a reaction to the immediate consequences of the crisis. By operating on all three pillars, the Recovery and Resilience Plan can significantly contribute to restarting rapid and sustainable economic growth and quality of life in Slovakia (Government Office of the Slovak Republic, 2021).

2 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RECOVERY AND RESILIENCE PLAN IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

The Recovery and Resilience plan of the Slovak Republic focuses on five main priorities: green economy (EUR 2,301 million); education (892 million EUR); science, research and innovation (EUR 739 million); health (1,533 million EUR) and efficient public administration (1,110 million EUR). It is divided into 18 parts, the so-called components, which include reforms and investments with a total value of approximately EUR 6 billion. It emphasizes sustainability, a healthy environment, inclusion in education, modern health care, high-quality social care, improvement of the business environment as well as healthy public finances (Ministry of Finance of the Slovak Republic, 2021).

In June 2021, the Recovery Plan was evaluated extremely positively by the European Commission, according to which it contains strong reform potential. Subsequently, the

implementation decision of the Council for Economic and Financial Affairs on the approval of the assessment of the recovery and resilience plan of Slovakia from July 13, 2021 was adopted, by which the Recovery Plan was approved and at the same time the financial contribution that the European Union will provide to the Slovak Republic as a recipient for the purpose of achieving milestones was determined and objectives specified in the Recovery Plan. In order to implement these adopted measures in practice, a mechanism was established for the implementation of the Recovery Plan at the national level.

The implementation system of the Recovery Plan regulates the common rules for the implementation of the investments and reforms involved in the Recovery Plan and creates a basic implementation framework, while respecting valid EU and Slovak legislation and agreements concluded between the Slovak Republic and the EU, as well as the particularities of the implementation of individual measures.

In order to more closely define the processes and procedures that ensure the application of the basic rules in the implementation of the Recovery Plan and in the provision and use of the means of the mechanism, the Government Office of the Slovak Republic determined by resolution the National Implementation and Coordination Authority (NIKA) for the performance of these activities within the Slovak Republic.

The implementation system of the Recovery Plan is approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic by resolution. The update of the Recovery Plan Implementation System is carried out by NIKA. NIKA is authorized to update the Recovery Plan implementation system, models, methodological instructions and methodological guidelines as necessary.

In addition to NIKA, other implementation levels responsible for individual processes were determined in the Implementation system of the Recovery Plan. The implementation system of the Recovery Plan is binding for NIKA and the executors. The executor is a central state administration body designated by the government. The executor is responsible for the implementation of specific investments and reforms that are included in the Recovery Plan and for the fulfillment of set milestones and goals. The executor is entitled, after the prior consent of NIKA, to entrust in writing the execution of part of his tasks as an intermediary. This authorization must be in writing, while the executor specifies exactly which tasks and obligations according to the Mechanism Act, the Recovery Plan Implementation System and other relevant legal regulations will be provided by the intermediary. An intermediary is a central body of state administration, a state budget organization, a state contribution organization, a higher territorial unit, municipality or other legal entity that performs part of the tasks of the executor, namely on behalf of the executor and on his account. A person executing

financial instruments is a legal entity that has the professional, personnel and material prerequisites for executing a financial instrument and with which the executor concluded a contract on the financing of the financial instrument. A financial intermediary is a legal entity entrusted by the person implementing financial instruments with part of the implementation of financial instruments on the basis of a contract with a financial intermediary. A person implementing financial instruments can thus entrust the financial intermediary with the execution of the entire financial instrument or only its part and the execution of all activities or only some activities in the execution of the financial instrument.

All the above levels of implementation system of the Recovery Plan are determined at the national level. Other persons involved in the implementation of the Recovery Plan at lower levels are the Applicant, the Recipient, the Supplier, the Subcontractor, the End User of the benefits, the User. The Ministry of Finance of the Slovak Republic was designated as the authority providing audits.

CONCLUSION

The Recovery and Resilience plan of the Slovak Republic is part of the joint response of EU countries to the sharp economic downturn due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The Recovery and Resilience plan of the Slovak Republic contains reforms and public investment projects that will be implemented during the duration of the Recovery and Resilience Support Mechanism (RRF), i.e., in the years 2021-2026. The combination of investments, reforms and effective public policy will enable the country to return the standard of living to the EU average and achieve improvement in key areas affecting the quality of life in Slovakia. The goal of the recovery plan is to build a modern economy, which should ensure long-term financial and social sustainability of Slovakia. In order to implement these adopted measures in practice in Slovakia, a mechanism was established for the implementation of the Recovery Plan at the national level. The implementation system of the Recovery Plan regulates the common rules for the implementation of the investments and reforms involved in the Recovery Plan and creates a basic implementation framework, while respecting valid EU and Slovak legislation and agreements concluded between the Slovak Republic and the EU, as well as the particularities of the implementation of individual measures. To implement the Recovery and Resilience plan of the Slovak Republic, the Slovak government has set up a dedicated structure. This structure contains bodies of the national and others levels. The implementation system of the Recovery Plan is approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic by resolution.

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Contact:

PhDr. Vladimír Kováčik, PhD.

University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava

Faculty of Social Sciences

kovacikv@gmail.com

POLITICIANS AND THE MORAL ASPECT OF POLITICS IN THE CONTEXT OF POLITICAL ETHICS

Simona KOVÁČOVÁ

Abstract

The article examines the ethical aspects of political engagement and its impact on the character of politicians, drawing on the concept of Max Weber. Weber views politics as an autonomous sphere focused on power and resource distribution, distinguishing between the ethics of conviction and the ethics of responsibility. The ethics of conviction is based on personal moral principles without regard to consequences, whereas the ethics of responsibility emphasizes anticipating and accepting the consequences of decisions, particularly in relation to future generations. Furthermore, Weber defines that a true politician should possess passion, responsibility, and judgment. Political wisdom, as an ethical tool, is rooted in historical memory, adaptability, and foresight. Political courage is another essential aspect, requiring the ability to defend public interests despite personal losses. The main challenge is to establish an ethical framework that fosters responsible decision-making by politicians and enhances public trust in political processes.

Key words: politician, Weber, political wisdom, political courage

The Politician in M. Weber's Concept

The ethical problem related to the effect of politics on the character of a politically active person is answered by the German sociologist **M. Weber**, who understands politics as a certain type of action that seeks to participate in power and influence the distribution of power. *"Politics and power thus appear as autonomous phenomena that are not 'derived' from other social phenomena"* (Weber, 1990, p. 6). In the context of considerations about ethics in politics, he was based on two opposing ethical maxims - the ethics of thinking and the ethics of responsibility. The ethics of thinking does not follow any higher principles or standards in decision-making, and therefore the individual is guided by his moral convictions, without considering the effects and consequences of his actions. But this does not apply to the ethics of responsibility, which is based on the necessity of realizing the consequences of an individual's decision for which he is ready to bear responsibility. *"Through the ethics of responsibility, the actor of the action is in some way forced to take a stand and then be responsible for the consequences of his actions. It follows that these are the opinions of people who take into*

account the consequences of their actions, which can be expected" (Machalová, 2008, p. 682). Simply put, while the ethics of thinking emphasizes the strict respect of ethical norms, without taking into account the consequences, the ethics of responsibility is oriented towards the foreseeable consequences of one's actions.

Weber clearly includes the relationship between means and ends in the series of ethical problems of politics. According to **Weber**, it is impossible to ignore the fact that achieving some "good" goals does not exclude morally dubious or dangerous means, or means with undesirable effects and side effects. Ethics is not capable of guaranteeing when and to what extent an ethically good goal "sanctifies" such action (Weber, 1990, pp. 67-68).

In connection with the search for an answer to the question of what is the mission of politics in a moral way of life, how does politics work from a moral point of view and where does ethics even begin, it comes across the problem of the past and the future. The focus of ethics on the past is based on the argumentation about the fateful role of ethics, in the sense of justifying an individual's actions in the past, with purposefully created ethical argumentation. On the other hand, from a political aspect, ethics should focus on the future and on responsibility towards the future, which means that it should not be marked by a past orientation, since past guilt is almost intractable. When solving the conflict of taking power and the moral character of politicians, he defines 3 necessary integral features, or the qualities of a true politician: passion in the sense of devotion, responsibility for those he governs and estimation, which can be defined as the ability to accept the outside world with calmness, i.e. the ability to maintain distance (Weber, 1990).

Weber approaches power, which is one of the central categories of political science, as a natural aspect in the sphere of politics, clearly alienating its abuse for personal gain. The exercise of power that exceeds moral boundaries is reprehensible. *"There is no more hideous distortion of political power than the haughty boasting of power and vain self-admiration in the feeling of power, or any idolization of power as such"* (Weber, 1990, p. 61). The rejection of the connection of the exercise of political power with the aspiration for individual interest can also be demonstrated through his classic categorization of politicians, because in addition to politicians "from politics" he also recognizes politicians "for politics," for whom politics is a life mission to act for the common good. The primary disparity between the mentioned categories of politicians lies in the economic aspect of their activity, because while the main motive of interest in politics for "politicians from politics" is securing income, in the case of "politicians for politics" it is an inner feeling of self-satisfaction, caused by the possibility of contributing to the general welfare. At the same time, the status of "politicians for politics" is

conditioned by the status of financial security, which means that a real politician for politics can only be someone who is financially independent from politics, because he has another sufficient source of income, but this does not negate the fact that financial means from the performance of the function of a politician does not accept. In all political communities with regular elections, political activity is the business of the persons involved. In the process of the genesis of politics into an "enterprise" with a complex structure and hierarchy of functions, professional and political officials are gradually profiled as categories of public officials. While the position of professional officials is more stable from a long-term perspective, political officials can be removed from office at any time. The aspect of freedom from politics should be a common feature for both types of officials, as **Weber** emphasizes that the goal of a real official is to manage public affairs within the limits of the specified competence framework, without being tied to the political sphere. Objectivity, political disinterestedness and impartiality are the most important advantages of a true official who stands in opposition to a politician with his own responsibility. So who is a politician, or what should a politician be in accordance with **Weber's** conception of ethics of responsibility?

- 1) A person whose activity is the intersection of the moral and legal dimensions, through the ability to combine the ethics of thinking and the ethics of responsibility.
- 2) A politician must be aware of the values, norms, principles and principles in relation to the power aspect (legal dimension) and must anticipate what may happen, calculate with it in his actions and thus not forget the consequences of his behavior and actions, especially in the relationship to the next generations (moral dimension).
- 3) A politician professing the ethics of responsibility claims to be the cause of the consequences and calls for their imputation to his actions.
- 4) In the decision-making process, priority should be given to the principle of justice, compliance with valid moral standards of society and think about the future.
- 5) A politician should be committed to some ideal.
- 6) Passion, sense of responsibility and judgment should be the key qualities of a politician.
- 7) A prerequisite for his correct actions and decision-making is the interest in acquiring the ethics of virtues.
- 8) A politician should approach power responsibly and exercise it within moral boundaries.

Interpretative definition of politicians from the perspective of political ethics

From the 20th century comes to the fore the term "professional politicians," which was first used by **E. Millen**, a member of the Australian legislature, in 1907. The establishment of

professional politicians was from the very beginning accompanied by distrust of society in relation to the real intention and mission of the said category of politicians, because their orientation towards parliamentary profits as the main source of income. In the professional literature, they are characterized differently, but most often they are politicians who carry out their activities with an emphasis on developing and supporting their careers for their own financial security, regardless of the collective interest. They are often referred to as obscure subjects of the political scene, distancing themselves from those they should be closest to and whose interests they should represent. **A. King** also contributed to the terminological plurality of types of politicians in the study "The Rise of the Career Politician in Britain - and its Consequences, in which, among other things, he analyzes the members of the House of Commons of the British Parliament, with the adjective "career politicians." This is a category of "*people, whose lives would be meaningless without politics*" (King, 1981, p. 262).

S. Cohen approaches politicians as subjects of moral panic, the intensity of which increases under the influence of the media sphere. Simply put, moral panic is initiated by the media, which, in response to a certain moral cause, serve as an information source clarifying the conditions for the emergence of this cause with an emphasis on the person concerned, or groups of persons directly affected by the case (Cohen, 1972).

Quite controversial thoughts about politics without politicians are presented by **M. Canovan**, whose argumentation is based on professional politicians deprived of moral status, who have always been and will be an ordinary element of politics, desiring only power, profit, influence and prestige. But this has nothing to do with the assumption of the implementation of the function in such a way that the power decisions incorporate the needs and interests of the citizens. Therefore, it is sharply defined against professional politicians, for whom politics as an effort for the common good is distant. At the same time, he notes that the best politician seems to be an amateur politician. Political parties, structures and politicians are only residues, ambivalent in relation to people's interests and thus represent a threat to social values and interests (Canovan, 1981). The reality of the growth of politicians with the absence of any commitment to the holders of power, i.e. of political agents in accordance with the characteristics of professional politicians (individual actors with a distance from people whose interests are foreign to them, because they are oriented towards their own career and profiting from it) is reflected in the growing tendency of populist moral panic. The term professional politician is thus accompanied by negative connotations, due to an egoistic orientation to personal gain as well as a deficit of ideological union, in the sense of a lack of acceptance of the ideology, program or values of the political spectrum that it represents. The effects of public

and media concern about this category of politicians are manifested in the alienation of the electorate, which denigrates the essence of politics as such and reinforces populist moral panic.

Political wisdom

In response to the above, political ethics emphasizes the need for political wisdom as a situational conscience, the mission of which is the rational solution of practical problems in politics. Wise is the one:

- *"who is oriented towards unquestionable principles and good goals, but does not cling to them,*
- *who tries to understand and influence complex situations, but does not put things above people,*
- *who can understand and assess complex situations and manage them, but will not become an opportunist"* (Sutor, 1996, p. 81).

Political wisdom is manifested in the context of means, mechanisms, methods, strategies or in general, ways to achieve the set goals. Competing clashes of opinion and conflicts between the wise are not shaped by disagreement about general goals (freedom, peace, justice), but rather the tools to achieve them. Wisdom as a political virtue is the most fundamental rejection of politicization based on ethical thinking. While the ethical dimension of politics is expressed by success achieved in accordance with the values of the common good, the determinant of wisdom is the degree of rationality in political decision-making.

In wisdom, knowledge and action are reciprocally connected through three primary steps, which can be expressed at the political level in terms of execution:

- 1) situation analysis, which is desirable, despite the fact that it does not bring any conclusion, due to the impossibility of capturing all aspects, factors of the given constellation or clarifying all reactions on the part of other actors, or the consequences of their actions. *"The judgment of true wisdom cannot be concluded either theoretically or scientifically, it is rather a judgment of practical reason, in which experience and assumptions participate"* (Sutor, 1996, p. 82).
- 2) Assessment, consideration of possibilities: if we start from the perception of politics as the art of the possible, then it is important to think about a more precise formulation, since the desire to enforce what, depending on specific conditions, is not likely or possible is politically incorrect and doomed to failure. At the same time, however, it is not correct to accept and accept the existing conditions, which could realistically be modified or completely changed, just because of indecision. In the sense of political wisdom, politics is the art of making possible

what can be realistically desired from the point of view of certain goals, while the individual ways of realizing the goals must be sought with a certain amount of perseverance.

3) Decision-making and decision-making: decision-making is "*a choice among alternatives...it is a structured, complex and complicated process associated with the activities of individual subjects in a specific situation*" (Prorok, 2012, p. 9-10). Its output is the implementation of decisions into practice, without which it is impossible to implement and fulfill the essence of the policy. It is necessary to avoid constant hesitation, indecisiveness, egoistic or intuitive decision-making without rationality and, on the contrary, implement decisions as the results of a rational decision-making process preceded by public discussion. It is essential to present justifiable decisions based on relevant argumentation, for which individual entities are qualified to bear responsibility.

Wisdom includes 3 basic aspects relating to the past (memory), the present (dexterity) and the future (foresight).

1) Memory is a prerequisite for the perception and acceptance of the past in the form of historical experience, which cannot be abstracted from in politics, as it is still applied in it. Therefore, political wisdom emphasizes the protection of history from falsification, with the aspiration of preventing the emergence of self-deception of the nation and historical lies that can have fatal political consequences.

2) Dexterity is another aspect by which political wisdom approaches certain tactics to achieve goals depending on changing conditions. The aforementioned aspect includes the politician's ability to be objective, to rationally evaluate situations, to keep a "cool head" and to be flexible in the sense of adapting to new situations. A wise politician should have the ability to put up with circumstances that do not suit the fulfillment of his intention, wait for a more suitable moment, make concessions and not be strictly defined towards the opposition just because it is expected of him.

3) The ability to anticipate future developments: foresight should be subsumed as a necessary attribute in every decision-making process, the outputs of which should be oriented towards improving the current state with a future perspective. Thus, a politician cannot act without abstracting from the genesis of the future state, he must be able to predict and consider the consequences of his actions, which is emphasized by the ethics of responsibility.

Political courage

In addition to political wisdom, political courage should also be a part of political activity, which requires sobriety, rational judgment, objectivity and the ability to accept and

reconcile with personal harm at the expense of higher values. When applying the negative definition, we must emphasize that bravery certainly does not mean risking one's life at any cost, deliberately seeking danger, deliberate heroism, but on the contrary, it is about doing good at the cost of personal profit. The activity of every politician who, in addition to particular interests, focuses on the public interest of society should therefore show signs of political bravery. It proves itself in 2 basic forms, namely in the passive form, which, by manifesting itself as tenacity, endurance, patience or resistance, creates the basis for the formation of the active form. Within the active form of political bravery, the following manifestations can be identified:

1. Civic courage: i.e. the courage to freely present one's opinion, to criticize, the right to have a different position, to insist on one's argumentative opinion, the ability to resist the pressure of the opinions of others, which, however, can lead to conflict situations.
2. Entering into conflict: in the given sense of the word, it is not about the necessary search for and provoking conflicts, but about the wrongness of retreating from a conflict, as a politician must be capable of handling conflict resolution. **A. F. Bentley** and **D. Truman** emphasized that conflict is not a cause or an expression of political system instability, it is a constructive element of the political process and a natural part of a healthy competitive system. (Müller et al., 2010).
3. Assertiveness: is an expression of the courage to undertake something, the ability to prove something, or to handle. A politician must know how to mobilize people, unite them and lead them in order to move towards the common good. Weighing the arguments for and against must not take on the character of anxious hesitation, but must lead to a decision that requires consistent argumentative skill so as not to succumb to harsh criticism. The state of the common good, or moving towards it is a demanding process that cannot abstract from the adoption of unpopular measures. In this case, the politician cannot lack the courage to resort to the implementation of measures of the given type. If a politician associates his activity with managing or directing relations between individual social entities, instead of defining the direction himself, or if he relies on public opinion polls, instead of forming the majority himself with his active approach, then these are political actors who misunderstand either the essence of the political process, the political struggle or democratic institutions. Political ethics draws attention to the negative consequences for the entire society that occur if politicians strictly oriented only to political power assert themselves in the political sphere. Such a politician does not feel the need for bravery, or personal sacrifice of certain values for higher values. If the aforementioned situation is to be prevented, it is necessary to emphasize the need for higher

citizen participation, because citizens must also show a certain degree of political bravery in the form of courage, the ability to enter into conflicts and participate in public life.

Conclusion

The current trends in social and political life are significantly marked by the decline of moral values, particularly in the political sphere, which reflects a broader value crisis not only in politics but also throughout society. In the public's perception, politics is increasingly associated with the pursuit of power, viewed as a means to satisfy personal needs and interests. This perception distances politics from the holders of power, ultimately reinforcing citizens' apathy and their passive stance toward public participation.

In this context, **H. Hrehová** asserts that "*politically involved individuals hold power delegated to them by citizens, yet they seem to bear no responsibility for the state's prosperity and the common good. They show no concern for reasonable or moral order. They focus primarily on securing as much for themselves as possible during their term in office*" (Hrehová, 2011, p. 32). This represents a serious and persistent problem rooted in the absence or neglect of morality and ethics in politics.

Emphasizing the importance of ethics in politics and restoring the relevance of morality to the political sphere is no simple task. Modern practical politics, evaluated through behavioral categories, indicates that political actions, decision-making by political actors, and overall political culture are engulfed in a breakdown of moral values. Expecting absolute ethical behavior from politically active individuals that invariably adheres to moral norms under all circumstances is unrealistic and overly utopian. The core issue is not so much the rejection of the need for moral politics but rather its actual implementation in practice.

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Contact:

Mgr. Simona Kováčová, PhD.

Faculty of Political Science and International Relations,
Matej Bel University Banská Bystrica
simona.kovacova@umb.sk

III. SECTION OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

CLIMATE PROTECTION AND GERMAN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW: THE ROLE OF THE STATE IN TACKLING THE CLIMATE CRISIS

Franz STEINAU

Abstract

The climate crisis is one of the most pressing challenges of the 21st century and requires comprehensive and far-reaching measures at national and international level. The effects of climate change are omnipresent: from extreme weather events and rising sea levels to the loss of biodiversity. In this context, the question of the role of constitutional law in dealing with this crisis and the extent to which the state is constitutionally obliged to ensure effective climate protection is increasingly coming to the fore.

At the heart of this debate is the constitutional obligation to protect fundamental rights such as the right to life and physical integrity, which are endangered by progressive global warming. In its landmark ruling of March 2021 on the Climate Protection Act, the Federal Constitutional Court made it clear that the state must ensure intergenerational justice in order to avoid placing an unreasonable burden on future generations. This decision highlights the state's increasingly embedded responsibility to protect both current and future generations through appropriate climate protection measures.

In addition to national obligations, international agreements such as the Paris Agreement are of central importance, as they provide the legal framework for global climate protection measures and must be implemented at national level. The tension between international law, national legislation and the political and economic interests of the various stakeholders creates a complex context that needs to be navigated.

This paper will address the constitutional dimension of climate protection and examine how the legal system can meet the challenges of climate change. It will analyze the role of constitutional law and state institutions in the implementation and enforcement of climate protection measures, as well as the political and legal implications of effective climate protection.

Keywords: *Climate, Climate Protection, Paris Agreement, Climate Protection in the German Constitution, BVerfG, GG, German Constitution*

2. Climate Protection in the German Constitution

The Federal Constitutional Court clarified this in a landmark ruling in 2021: There is a fundamental right to climate protection. However, this fundamental right is not enshrined in the Basic Law.

The court argues that climate protection secures the freedom of future generations. It is therefore clear that there is a fundamental right to climate protection. In order to do justice to this, there are calls for climate and environmental protection to be written much more clearly into the Basic Law. For example, clear ecological barriers for the freedoms of large commercial enterprises.

But constitutional experts have their doubts. Some experts believe that the law cannot solve major challenges such as the climate crisis on its own. There is too much trust in the power of the law to find solutions, even though political decisions based on existing law are necessary. In order to drive forward climate protection on this basis, a corresponding majority would be required in parliament. Generally speaking, politicians could already decide on more climate protection without amending the Basic Law, without a so-called green Basic Law.

The judiciary - especially Germany's highest administrative court, the Federal Administrative Court - could apply the existing laws more consistently. According to one expert, the background to this inadequate utilization of the existing possibilities is the paradigm of grandfathering: everything should continue as it was. According to the expert, the fact that the climate protection requirement, which has constitutional status, requires and presupposes a transformation path and thus also radical transformations, has not yet gotten around to the courts at all.

Another starting point for more climate protection through the Foundation Act would be the expansion of the ability to act as a legal entity in court.

At the end of the 1980s, there was an environmental disaster in the North Sea in which a lot of seals died. Some chemical companies had dumped dirt into the sea and schoolchildren, with the support of environmental associations, turned to the courts to sue for the seals' rights to a clean sea. However, this lawsuit was unsuccessful, because in Germany you need a legal entity that can sue in court.

Under German law, the seals did not have the ability to appear in court as a separate legal entity. One expert sees this as a loophole, a problem with German law.

Rights of nature, separate rights for great apes or for rivers such as the Ganges, which is recognized as a legal entity in India, could also be written into the Basic Law. Ecological thinking actually means taking into account those who are not at the table and giving them a voice. The idea is to create better legal channels for this as well. A two-thirds majority is needed to amend the Basic Law in the Bundestag. Nature's own rights could be a first step towards a more ecological constitution.

3. The Role of German Courts

Many countries solve this issue differently. In Ecuador, for example, nature already has its own rights. For example, the constitution of Ecuador – the only one that explicitly recognizes the rights of nature – contains a [right to full respect for the existence of nature and to the preservation and regeneration of its life cycles](#). Any person or group of persons can legally enforce these rights. New Zealand legally recognizes the legal personality of two ecosystems. The Whanganui River and the former Te Urewera National Park therefore have all the rights granted to legal entities within the New Zealand legal system. The Klamath River in California has also been declared a legal entity, while the Indian river Ganges and its tributary Yamuna have been [declared living beings by an Indian court](#).

A similar approach would at least be conceivable in Germany. One expert suggested, for example, that a kind of guardian or trustee could assert the rights of the ecosystem.

A judge at the German regional court in Erfurt took a different approach at the beginning of 2024, daring to take a step forward. In a ruling, the Regional Court of Erfurt was the first German court to recognize the rights of nature, which are to be taken into account ex officio - i.e. even without the parties making a corresponding submission. In the specific case, the judge took these rights into account when assessing the amount of damages, which the court estimates at its own discretion in accordance with § 287 Abs. 1 S. 1 ZPO, and considered them to reinforce protection in this context.

The court believes that these inherent rights of nature can be derived from the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, in particular from the right to life under Art. 2 and the right to physical integrity under Art. 3 in conjunction with Art. 37. Art. 37, according to which a high level of environmental protection must be included in EU policy. The fundamental rights are by their nature applicable to nature or individual ecosystems - so-called ecological persons, according to the court.

According to the judge, it is irrelevant whether nature as such or individual damaged ecosystems require protection. According to the judge in the ruling, the Charter establishes the comprehensive right of ecological persons to have their existence, preservation and regeneration of their life cycles, structure, functions and development processes respected and protected. This interpretation of EU law is necessary due to global challenges such as climate change and the threat of irreversible damage. Persons within the meaning of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights are not only people, but also nature or ecosystems such as rivers or forests. Numerous language versions of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights do not use the term "human being" in the first title of the Charter of Fundamental Rights, but rather the open-ended term "person" or "personne" ([French version](#)) or "everyone" ([English version](#)).

The guarantee of human dignity in Art. 1 of the Charter does not stand in the way of recognizing the rights of nature, but - on the contrary - actually requires it. It helps to ensure that people can continue to lead a life in dignity in the future.

In summary, the Regional Court assumes that the rights of nature establish an objective set of values and have an impact on the legal relationship between private individuals.

The [International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea in Hamburg](#) has also strengthened global climate protection with a legal opinion. In the opinion read out on Tuesday, the court came to the conclusion that man-made greenhouse gas emissions contribute to global and ocean warming and therefore constitute pollution of the marine environment within the meaning of the [UN Convention on the Law of the Sea](#).

The almost 170 signatories to the convention, including Germany and the EU, are therefore obliged to take appropriate measures to protect the marine environment from the effects of climate change. In addition, the treaty requires them to restore marine habitats and ecosystems that have already been damaged. Furthermore, the signatory states must counter the effects of greenhouse gas emissions with measures based on the best scientific knowledge and in international cooperation. Developing countries - especially those that are particularly affected by climate change - must be supported financially and technologically.

The expert opinion was requested by a group of nine small island states in the Pacific and the Caribbean that believe their existence is threatened by rising sea levels due to global warming. The opinion of the Tribunal for the Law of the Sea is not binding, but could point the way for future decisions by international courts on climate issues.

4. The Climate Protection Ruling of the BVerfG

With its ruling, the BVerfG ultimately declares the 1.5 degree limit of the Paris Climate Agreement to be constitutionally binding. Freedom under fundamental rights and the state objective of environmental protection oblige the legislator to develop a forward-looking plan to deal carefully with the residual emissions that are still possible. This is not guaranteed if there is no concrete planning for the period after 2030 and, moreover, almost the entire budget under the current climate policy will be used up by 2030.

This is the first time that an environmental lawsuit has been successful before the Federal Constitutional Court. Politicians will have to make massive improvements and set much more ambitious targets and instruments. Politicians do have democratic scope for decision-making. However, under constitutional law, this does not allow the physical foundations of human existence to be put at risk, thereby undermining democracy. However, experts believe that the ruling is still not enough for the climate, despite all its positive aspects, because it does not demand prompt zero emissions with the necessary clarity.

This decision by the Federal Constitutional Court on the unconstitutionality of the 2019 Climate Protection Act can rightly be described as groundbreaking and pioneering for climate protection and the protection of the civil liberties of younger generations

The Climate Protection Act, which is intended to protect against the effects of global climate change (Section 1 sentence 1 KSG), had not previously provided for any reduction targets beyond 2030. Instead, the Federal Government was supposed to set annually decreasing emission levels by ordinance in 2025 for periods after 2030 (Section 4 (6) KSG). Several young people from Germany and abroad had lodged complaints against this vagueness in particular.

The BVerfG did not find that the provisions of the KSG violated the duty to protect fundamental rights or the climate protection requirement of Art. 20a GG. However, it considers the civil liberties of the young complainants to have been violated, as their existential future, which is protected by fundamental rights, is at risk. In this respect, the BVerfG speaks of an "intertemporal safeguarding of freedom" through fundamental rights.

However, one fly in the ointment remains: the BVerfG considers only natural persons to be authorized to lodge a constitutional complaint, but not the environmental associations that have significantly accompanied and supported the constitutional complaints. In this respect, it is stated that a right of appeal as "advocates of nature" is not provided for by the Basic Law and constitutional procedural law.

5. Fundamental Rights for Climate

The introduction of a fundamental right to climate protection has also been repeatedly discussed. Ultimately, however, the legislator decided against such a right and instead established Article 20a of the Basic Law as an environmental state objective. Article 20a of the Basic Law is an objective legal norm and therefore not individually enforceable. In addition, the BVerfG granted the legislator surprisingly broad leeway by limiting its review to evident violations (evidence review). The relevance of the norm was therefore limited for decades.

However, in view of the scientifically substantiated recognition of planetary boundaries, which has gained political and legal relevance in climate protection through the 1.5 to 2 degree target enshrined in the international Paris Agreement, Article 20a of the Basic Law then received renewed attention. By enacting a climate protection law, the legislator has in principle fulfilled its obligations under Article 20a of the Basic Law to enact a binding, effective and coherent protection concept.

Nevertheless, with its [climate decision of March 2021](#), the Federal Constitutional Court has concretized the constitutional obligations of politics arising from the state objective. By way of a new fundamental right construct, the "intertemporal safeguarding of freedom", it has [made](#) these [individually enforceable](#) in the sense of a "climate action". But is there a need for a separate fundamental climate right?

Advocates of a fundamental right to environmental and climate protection and the associated climate lawsuits have good reasons on their side. With regard to the separation of powers in a democratic constitutional state, these are particularly convincing insofar as they are concerned with concrete implementation and enforcement deficits in the law and not with abstract political action.

In addition, analogous to the established case law of the Federal Constitutional Court on the social minimum subsistence level, Art. 1 para. 1 in conjunction with Art. 20a GG. Art. 20a GG, a claim to the ecological minimum subsistence level can be derived. This results in a duty on the part of the state to guarantee individuals a minimum level of natural resources.

It shows once again how adaptable the existing system of fundamental rights protection in Germany and Europe is. As the Federal Constitutional Court's climate decision shows, the understanding of the protection of freedom is expanding. Environmental protection is also to

be understood as an expression of freedom. Freedom is intertemporal and must therefore be distributed fairly over time by the legislator. This does not require a new fundamental right.

This applies in any case under two conditions: The Bundestag must fulfill its responsibility under Article 20a of the Basic Law with a view to safeguarding the future of the environment. [Institutional monitoring of the protection concept adopted by the legislature](#) can [help](#) here if it uncovers implementation deficits at an early stage, while the political process is still ongoing. And if this does not succeed, then the BVerfG must consistently fulfill its monitoring responsibility in this regard on the basis of fundamental rights.

6 The Role of the ECtHR

The ECtHR has also already had to decide on the relationship of states to the requirements of the Paris Climate Protection Agreement. In doing so, it chose the "classic" [path](#), prepared by case law and science, [via the duties to protect under fundamental rights](#). In its [landmark decision "Swiss Climate Seniors" of April 9, 2024](#), it reviewed Switzerland's protection concept with regard to the requirements of the Paris Agreement. As a result, it assumed an obligation on the part of Switzerland under Art. 8 ECHR to take more effective measures to reduce greenhouse gases. The famous climate action brought by the non-governmental organization Urgenda against the Dutch state [was](#) already [successful before the Hoge Raad in The Hague in 2019](#), which also accepted such a duty to protect under Art. 8 ECHR.

Switzerland must therefore take more effective measures to slow down the rise in global temperatures. Switzerland's current climate policy violates the right to private and family life of the complainants, an association of senior citizens.

The fact that their complaints were unsuccessful in the national courts also constitutes a violation of the right to a fair trial. The complainant association was entitled to bring an action as it represents the rights and interests of direct victims of climate change and there were also special considerations in favour of granting it victim status within the meaning of the European Convention on Human Rights. In two other parallel decisions, however, climate claims were rejected. For example, a group of Portuguese young people who sued 32 Council of Europe member states would first have had to exhaust national legal channels. The complaint of a former mayor of a French coastal town failed because he now lives in Brussels as a Member of the European Parliament.

The complicated construction of an "intertemporal safeguarding of freedom" would therefore not have been necessary in German constitutional law either: This is because the legislator's duty to adopt an effective and coherent protection concept already arises from Art. 2 para. 2 sentence 1 GG and Art. 20a GG. However, this path would have required the BVerfG to intensify its control density in environmental constitutional law compared to the evidence control practiced to date - similar to the ECtHR. As in its decisions on the protection of *unborn* life, for example, it could also have consistently carried out a review of justifiability with regard to the protection of *born* life, using the prohibition of undue harm as a yardstick. It could also have reviewed the proportionate distribution of freedom over the period up to 2050 by weighing this up against the potentially affected freedoms of the emitters - in a similar way to the climate decision. This approach would have [restricted the legislator neither more nor less in its freedom of design](#).

Another important decision of the ECtHR is the case "Budayeva v. Russia", in which the Court ruled that the Russian government had violated its duty to protect life by not taking sufficient measures to protect the population from the known dangers of landslides. This judgment also makes it clear that states are obliged to take preventive measures to prevent the negative impact of environmental hazards on human rights.

The ECtHR has also made it clear that climate change can be considered a form of environmental threat that has a significant impact on human rights. In the case "Urgenda v. Netherlands", the Court argued that the Dutch government was obliged to take measures to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in order to protect the population from the dangers of climate change. This shows that the ECtHR is prepared to hold states accountable if they fail to fulfill their obligations to combat climate change.

Overall, the case law of the ECtHR shows that climate protection is increasingly regarded as a human rights concern. The Court has repeatedly emphasized that states are obliged to take preventive and effective measures to prevent the negative impacts of climate change on human rights. This underlines the importance of climate change mitigation as an essential component of human rights protection and the need for a robust legal framework to enforce these obligations.

7. Conclusion

All of the rulings discussed in this article send a clear signal. There seems to be a consensus across national borders about the urgency of action by states and their obligation to take more stringent measures to mitigate the consequences of climate change.

What can unfortunately also be observed across borders, however, is a widespread lack of action or insufficient action on the part of governments. The signal from the courts does not seem to be getting through to politicians.

We can only hope that many associations and environmental organizations will follow the example of the plaintiffs in the judgments in question - and try to use legal action to persuade states to take more ambitious climate protection measures. Both at European and national level.

Judges cannot and should not make climate policy. The states themselves are responsible for this and also have a large margin of discretion. However, courts can review whether their efforts are sufficient. And they must do so - it is high time.

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Contact:

Franz Steinau, LL.M.
external doctoral student
Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration
Danubius University
PhDr. Andrea Cajkova PhD

GERMAN EXTRADITION LAW AND CURRENT POLITICAL ISSUES

Franz STEINAU

Abstract

In Germany, there are increasing calls for the introduction of a specific legal remedy against extradition decisions. The background to this discussion lies in the fundamental legal principles of the protection of basic rights and the effective guarantee of legal protection.

The current calls for a specific legal remedy against extradition from Germany have gained new urgency in the context of the case of Maja T.

Maja T., a non-binary person, was extradited to Hungary in June 2024, although an urgent appeal to the Federal Constitutional Court (BVerfG) was still pending. This case has raised considerable concerns about legal certainty in German extradition proceedings.

Before going into the current discussion in more detail, however, the legal background to extradition from Germany must be examined.

Keywords: *Legal remedy against extradition decisions, Extradition Germany, Maja T. case, Fundamental rights protection extradition, Urgent appeal to the Federal Constitutional Court*

1. Constitutional Background

Extradition from Germany is a complex area that is closely interwoven with the constitutional principles of the Federal Republic of Germany. In particular, fundamental rights and the principle of the rule of law are of decisive importance here.

a. Prerequisites for Extradition Art. 16 Abs. 2 S. 1 GG

Extradition from Germany is legally regulated by various standards and international agreements. The most important regulations can be found in the GG, in the Act on International Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (IRG) as well as in international agreements and European law. These legal bases define the conditions and procedures under which a person can be extradited from Germany to another country.

Art. 16 Abs. 2 S. 1 GG protects German citizens from extradition. This provision was modified in 2000 as part of the adaptation to European law, in particular to enable extradition within the European Union. The norm of Art. 16 Abs. 2 S. 1 GG reads:

“No German may be extradited to a foreign country. A different provision may be made by law for extradition to a Member State of the European Union or to an international court of justice, provided that the principles of the rule of law are upheld.”

This provision has two central aspects:

Firstly, an absolute ban on extradition for Germans: German citizens within the meaning of Art. 116 Abs. 1 GG may not be extradited to a foreign country.

And secondly, an exception for the EU and international courts: An exception exists for extradition within the EU and to international courts, but only on condition that the principles of the rule of law are observed.

This is where the principle of the rule of law enshrined in Art. 20 Abs. 3 GG and the protection of human dignity under Art. 1 Abs. 1 GG come into play. These two constitutional principles play a central role in the design and application of extradition regulations in the context of compliance with the principles of the rule of law.

A brief explanation:

The protection of human dignity dictates that no one may be extradited to a state in which they are threatened with inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

The principle of the rule of law combines a large number of fundamental legislative decisions and, in connection with extradition, requires, for example, that it can be ensured that the person concerned can expect a fair trial in the extraditing state

b. The Act on International Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (IRG)

The IRG regulates in detail the requirements and procedure for extradition from Germany.

The admissibility of extradition is governed by §§ 2-29 IRG. Accordingly, the admissibility of extradition is examined by the competent higher regional court. This court determines whether the legal requirements for extradition are met.

However, according to § 74 IRG, extradition is ultimately dependent on an executive decision. Even if the court confirms admissibility, the final decision on extradition lies with the executive, usually the Federal Office of Justice or the responsible state ministry. This decision is largely at the discretion of the authority and can be politically motivated.

c. Influence of EU Law on Constitutional Requirements

The constitutional regulations on extradition are strongly influenced by international obligations and EU law. For example, Germany and other EU states are obliged to extradite each other under the European Arrest Warrant.

In certain cases, EU law takes precedence over national law, which can also affect the extradition of German citizens within the EU.

This means that the extradited person can expect a fair trial in the extraditing country.

Germany is also obliged under international law to extradite criminals to international courts, provided this does not conflict with constitutional requirements.

Germany is also bound by various international treaties that regulate extradition. These include the European Convention on Extradition and various United Nations conventions.

However, it must always be checked whether the fundamental rights of the person concerned are safeguarded. In this way, the national provisions maintain their effectiveness.

d. European Arrest Warrant

The European Arrest Warrant (EAW) also plays a central role within the European Union. The EAW is an agreement based on mutual trust in the judicial systems of the Member States and is intended to facilitate extradition between EU countries.

The EAW allows for faster and less complicated extradition of persons within the EU, while respecting the principle of proportionality.

Despite the simplified procedure, extradition may not take place if there are serious concerns regarding the protection of fundamental rights, for example with regard to the conditions in the destination country. Here, too, the national rule of law requirement is therefore respected, at least in principle

e. Rule of Law as a Barrier

In several decisions, the Federal Constitutional Court has emphasized that the fundamental rights of the persons concerned must always be safeguarded in the event of extradition.

The BVerfG decision 2 BvR 2236/04 on the European arrest warrant is groundbreaking in this regard: In this ruling, the Federal Constitutional Court stated that the European arrest warrant is only compatible with the GG if it respects the constitutional rights of the persons concerned, in particular the right to be heard and to a fair trial.

2. Current Legal Situation

Currently, there are only limited possibilities in Germany to defend oneself against an extradition that has been issued on the basis of the above provisions.

According to § 29 of the Act on International Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (IRG), an appeal against a judicial decision that declares an extradition admissible can only be lodged under certain conditions. However, this is associated with considerable hurdles in practice. In addition a decision by the executive on actual extradition (§ 74 IRG) is essentially not subject to judicial review, as there is no automatic review of the executive's decision. In particularly serious cases, a constitutional complaint can be lodged with the Federal Constitutional Court to challenge violations of fundamental rights.

This current legal situation is sometimes criticized, in particular the lack of opportunity to have the executive decision on extradition reviewed by the courts. There are calls for the introduction of a specific legal remedy that would enable a comprehensive review of both judicial and executive decisions.

3. Calls for a Specific Legal Remedy

Legal scholars and practitioners argue that there should be an independent, fully-fledged legal remedy against extradition decisions. Such a legal remedy should make it possible to have both the judicial decision on the admissibility of extradition and the executive decision comprehensively and effectively reviewed.

a. Arguments in Favor of a Specific Legal Remedy

The core of the criticism is the lack of a proper legal remedy against extradition decisions. Under current law, it is only possible to lodge a constitutional complaint directly with the Federal Constitutional Court, but this does not provide sufficient protection against the immediate execution of an extradition. Experts are therefore calling for the introduction of a regular legal remedy that would have a suspensive effect in order to avoid such situations.

One proposal that has emerged in the discussions is the introduction of an appeal option with devolutive effect to the Federal Supreme Court.

First of all, the principle of the rule of law and fundamental rights discussed above speak in favor of this: effective legal protection is a central component of the principle of the rule of law. Without a specific legal remedy, there is a risk that fundamental rights, such as the right to a fair trial (Art. 6 ECHR) or the prohibition of inhuman or degrading treatment (Art. 3 ECHR), are not adequately protected. Effective legal protection must therefore be provided. However, the standards do not specify how this is to be achieved.

Furthermore, in current practice, persons affected by an extradition decision cannot effectively challenge it before the extradition is carried out. Even if a constitutional complaint is lodged, this does not automatically have a suspensive effect. This means that those affected may be extradited before the Federal Constitutional Court (BVerfG) has the opportunity to decide on the legality of the extradition. The case of Maja T. illustrated this problem, as she was extradited to Hungary even though an urgent appeal had been submitted to the BVerfG.

A specific legal remedy would ensure that the fundamental rights of those affected are better protected. Especially in cases where there is a risk that the person concerned will be subjected to inhuman or degrading treatment in the requesting state, effective legal protection is essential.

It is also emphasized at European level, in particular by the case law of the European Court of Human Rights (EGMR), that decisions on extradition must be subject to strict judicial review. A lack of legal protection could therefore also lead to conflicts with international obligations.

Accordingly, the case law of the European Court of Human Rights (EGMR) also emphasizes the need for such extraditions to be thoroughly examined in order to prevent possible human rights violations.

The introduction of a specific legal remedy could also reduce the risk of politically motivated decisions. Currently, the decision on extradition is ultimately in the hands of the executive,

which carries the risk of political considerations playing a greater role than constitutional principles. A specific legal remedy would enable a judicial review of the extradition decision and thus control the executive.

Another argument is that the introduction of a specific legal remedy would make legal protection more efficient overall. Currently, those affected often have to submit an urgent application to the Federal Constitutional Court, which not only burdens the highest court, but can also lead to delays. A specific legal remedy could simplify and speed up this process, which would benefit both those affected and the judicial system

Finally, such an appeal could also have a preventive effect and improve the quality of extradition decisions, as authorities would be aware of the subsequent judicial review.

However, this idea has met with resistance due to the additional workload and organizational consequences.

b. Arguments Against a Specific Legal Remedy

Critics of the introduction of a new legal remedy argue that this could lead to a delay and make international legal assistance more difficult. It is also pointed out that the existing control mechanisms, such as the constitutional complaint to the Federal Constitutional Court, could already offer sufficient protection.

A frequently cited argument against the introduction of a specific legal remedy is the concern about overloading the courts. Critics fear that an additional legal remedy could lead to a considerable additional burden for the courts, in particular for the Federal Court of Justice, which would potentially be responsible for these new proceedings. This could increase the overall duration of proceedings and place an unnecessary burden on the judicial system.

Another argument is that an additional appeal could significantly delay extradition proceedings. This could be problematic, particularly if speedy extradition is in the interests of international criminal prosecution. Delays could lead to suspects escaping prosecution or to international relations being strained.

Opponents also argue that the introduction of such an appeal could lead to a further bureaucratization of the extradition process. This would reduce the efficiency of the entire process, as additional review bodies would be introduced without this necessarily leading to an improvement in legal protection.

Ultimately, some critics consider the existing legal protection mechanisms to be sufficient. They argue that the possibility of lodging a constitutional complaint and seeking interim legal protection from the Federal Constitutional Court already offers sufficient protection. They see no need for a further legal remedy that could potentially be redundant

4. Conclusion

These points of criticism make it clear that the introduction of a specific legal remedy against extradition decisions is not uncontroversial. While supporters emphasize the need for stronger legal protection, critics see the danger of delays, overburdening of the judiciary and an unnecessary complication of the procedure.

The debate on the introduction of a specific legal remedy against extradition decisions in Germany has gained considerable momentum in recent years, particularly as a result of high-profile cases such as that of Maja T. These cases have exposed the weaknesses of the current legal situation, in particular the lack of an effective opportunity to challenge an extradition before it is carried out. The central problem here is the lack of suspensive effect of the current legal remedies, such as the constitutional complaint to the Federal Constitutional Court (BVerfG). This gap in protection could lead

This could result in affected individuals potentially being extradited before a judicial review can take place. Proponents of introducing a specific legal remedy argue that such a step is necessary to strengthen the protection of fundamental rights and ensure that extraditions only occur when all legal concerns have been addressed. However, these demands are also criticized, particularly with regard to the potential negative impact on the efficiency of the judicial system. Critics fear that an additional legal remedy could overload the courts and lead to delays in extradition proceedings.

Despite these concerns, there are concrete considerations and initial steps being taken to introduce such a legal remedy. The Federal Ministry of Justice (BMJ) is working on a draft law to reform the Law on International Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters (IRG), which may also include the introduction of a specific legal remedy. Discussions are ongoing about which authority should be responsible for reviewing such legal remedies and how to find a balance between effective legal protection and procedural efficiency.

In the future, the introduction of a specific legal remedy could significantly strengthen legal protection in extradition proceedings. This would be an important step to ensure that extraditions are carried out in accordance with the principles of the rule of law and that the fundamental rights of those affected are upheld. At the same time, the potential drawbacks, such as the overburdening of courts and delays in proceedings, must be carefully weighed. It remains to be seen whether and in what form these reforms will be implemented and what impact they will have on the practice of extradition law in Germany.

The introduction of a specific legal remedy against extradition would enhance the legal protection of those affected and could help prevent violations of fundamental rights. Given the central importance of the rule of law and fundamental rights, which stand in opposition to mere efficiency considerations, the establishment of a special legal remedy should ultimately be supported. Now, we must await the outcome of the legislative process.

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Contact:

Franz Steinau, LL.M.
external doctoral student
Faculty of Public Policy and Public Administration
Danubius University
PhDr. Andrea Cajkova PhD