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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Fórum cudzích jazykov, politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov rešpektuje duševné vlastníctvo. Rukopisy, ktoré porušujú etické pravidlá nebudú prijaté na publikovanie.

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Forum of foreign languages, politology and International Relations respects intellectual property. The contributions which disrespect the rules of publishing ethics will not be included for publication.

Edioriál   Editorial

Vážení čitatelia,

po ôsmych rokoch existencie časopisu **Fórum cudzích jazykov** (vznikol v roku 2009) nastal čas na zmenu. Nový ročník otvárame nie len zmenou názvu časopisu, ale aj rozšírením o novú sekciu.

Dovoľte mi, aby som Vás niekoľkými slovami oboznámila s novým zameraním časopisu VŠD pod názvom **Fórum cudzích jazykov, politológie a medzinárodných vzťahov.** Publikuje štúdie, odborné príspevky, diskusné príspevky a recenzie. Ide o vedecký recenzovaný časopis, ktorý je zaradený do zoznamu publikácií ERIH Plus. **(European Reference Index for the Humanities)**

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. PaedDr. Alica Harajová, PhD.
prorektorka VŠD
šéfredaktorka časopisu

Dear colleagues and readers,

The time for change has come after the eight years the Forum of Foreign Languages exists (the journal was establieshed in 2009). New volume will introduce the journal with a new title and new sextion.

Let me introduce the new title of the journal **Forum of Foreign Languages, Politology and International Relations**. The journal publishes research, scholary articles, discussions and reviews. The platform is based on peer to peer reviews. The journal is included into the list of publications ERIH Plus (**European Reference Index for the Humanities**).

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

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

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

doc. PaedDr. Alica Harajová, PhD.
Vice-rector Danubius University
Editor in chief

Obsah / Contents

I. LINGUISTIC SECTION

VARIETÄTENREICHES DEUTSCH ALS UNTERRICHTSSPRACHE IN DER AUSLANDSGERMANISTIK

LÍVIA ADAMCOVÁ

Abstrakt
Der Beitrag soll – ausgehend von theoretischen Erwägungen und praktischen Beispielen auf die wesentlichen Probleme der Sprachvarietäten im Deutschen hinweisen. Er soll dokumentieren, welchen Aufgaben sich in den nächsten Jahren die Plurizentrizitätsforschung stellen soll, um ihren Stellenwert im Fremdsprachenunterricht auszubauen. In einem nächsten Schritt werden im Beitrag die kurz dargestellten Sprachvarietäten linguistisch charakterisiert. Die angesprochenen Desiderata der behandelten Phänomene sollen im Fremdsprachenunterricht Deutsch Möglichkeiten ihrer Anwendung aufzeigen.

Schlüsselwörter: Sprachvarietäten, Plurizentrizität, Austriazismen, linguistische Charakteristik der Sprachvarietäten, Anwendung der Sprachvarietäten im Deutschunterricht

Abstract
Based on theoretical considerations and practical examples, the article should point out the main problems of the language varieties in German. It should document which tasks the pluricentric research will face in the next few years in order to expand its position in foreign language teaching. In a next step, the article briefly describes the linguistic variants of German language. The mentioned desiderata of the treated phenomena should show possibilities of their application in foreign language teaching of German.

Key words
Language varieties, pluricentricity, linguistic characteristics of the language varieties, application of the language varieties in German lessons

UDC: 81-13

1 Themeneinstieg

Die Anzahl der empirischen Forschungsbeiträge zur Variation im heutigen Deutsch steigt seit den 90er Jahren kontinuierlich an. Gerade auch aus der Perspektive der Germanistiken im nicht deutschsprachigen Ausland wird die deutsche Sprache durch ihre mehrfache Variabilität, v.a. in regionaler Hinsicht, gekennzeichnet (vgl. Neuland 2006). Zahlreiche Linguisten bekräftigen die große Aktualität und Notwendigkeit der Forschungsfragen betreff Sprachvarietäten und skizzieren erfolgversprechende Wege für den Umgang mit (non-) standardsprachlicher Varianz im Deutschen (vgl. z.B. Ammon 2016, Studer 2003, Neuland 2006). Es geht um pragmatische und kognitive Aspekte des Gegenwartsdeutschen aus plurizentrischer Perspektive, um Vergleich der einzelnen Varietäten.

Die Unterrichtswirklichkeit geht in vielen Fällen, vor allem im Deutsch als Fremdsprache- Unterricht, immer noch von einer relativ homogenen deutschen Standard-und Schriftsprache aus, die von der gesprochenen Alltagswirklichkeit bekanntlich sehr weit entfernt ist. *„Das Germanistikstudium im Inland und Ausland sollte den Studierenden daher fundierte Kenntnisse zur Variation im heutigen Deutsch vermitteln. Die neuen Studiengänge eröffnen europaweit die Chance der Implementation eines entsprechenden Moduls gerade auch für Deutsch als Fremdsprache und die Deutschlehrerausbildung"* (Neuland 2006:20). - Im Zentrum der Aufmerksamkeit der heutigen Linguisten steht die Frage, welche Probleme die unterschiedlichen Existenzformen des Deutschen den Auslandsgermanisten bereiten, wie weit die nationalen Varietäten im Deutschunterricht behandelt werden sollen. Selbst im deutschsprachigen Raum ist die Aufklärungsarbeit in diesem Bereich bei weitem nicht zufriedenstellend. Auslandsgermanisten und Lehrende des Deutschen stehen angesichts der sog. Plurizentrizität des Deutschen vor einer besonderen Herausforderung. Sie müssen entscheiden, wie sie mit der sprachlichen Vielfalt der deutschsprachigen Nationen umgehen, wie die nationalen Varietäten der deutschen Sprache im Unterricht berücksichtigt werden sollen. Die Plurizentrizität der deutschen Sprache und ihre Berücksichtigung im Deutschunterricht stellen jedoch nur einen von zahlreichen aktu-

ellen Forschungsschwerpunkten der Auslandsgermanistik dar. Der folgende Beitrag versucht zu zeigen, wie die Auslandsgermanistik auf die sprachlichen Unterschiede im Deutschen reagiert bzw. wie sie damit umgeht.

2 Theoretische Hintergründe

Die multilinguale Gesellschaft in der Gegenwart wird immer mehr internationalisiert, Grenzen (auch sprachliche) zwischen Staaten werden aufgehoben. Deutsch ist bekanntlich nationale Amtssprache in Deutschland, in der Schweiz (mit Liechtenstein) und in Österreich. Innerhalb dieses Bereichs liegen daher auch die drei sogenannten Zentren der deutschen Sprache, d.h. eine Nation oder ein Staat mit einer spezifisch ausgeformten Standardvarietät. Das Deutsche ist also eine „plurizentrische Sprache" (Ammon 1997). Diese staatliche Gliederung des Deutschen ist jedoch nicht identisch mit der dialektalen Gliederung. Hier kann man von Norden nach Süden das Niederdeutsche, das Mitteldeutsche und das Oberdeutsche unterscheiden, wobei zum Oberdeutschen das Bairische und das Alemannische gehören. Österreich liegt in der oberdeutschen Region, und hier (zum Großteil) im bairischen sowie (mit dem westlichsten Bundesland Vorarlberg) im alemannischen Dialektraum. Aus dieser Dialektraumgliederung resultiert, dass es zum Teil erhebliche Unterschiede zwischen dem in Deutschland und dem in Österreich verwendeten Deutsch gibt. Es ist ersichtlich, dass Wörter wie *Samstag, Erdäpfel, Paradeiser, Heuriger, Karfiol, Fiaker, Kukuruz, Obers* in Österreich verwendet werden. Trotzdem kann man nicht alle diese Wörter einfach als „Austriazismen" bezeichnen. Eine strenge Definition von Austriazismen besagt, dass es sich dabei um *„alle linguistischen und pragmatischen Erscheinungsformen auf dem Gebiet der Republik Österreich (handelt), die in den beiden anderen Vollvarietäten (gemeint ist: das Deutsche in Deutschland und in der Schweiz) nicht vorkommen"* (Muhr 1996: 38). Ein Bespiel dafür ist *Marille*, für die es sowohl in Deutschland als auch in der Schweiz nur eine andere Variante, nämlich *Aprikose* gibt. Nach Ammon (1995) handelt es sich dabei um einen sog. spezifischen Austriazismus. Ähnliche Beispiele sind: *Ribisel, Topfen, Faschiertes, Stiege, Melanzani, Vogerlsalat, Fisolen, Grammeln, Paradeiser, Tischler* – die nur in Österreich verwendet werden.

2.1 Sprachschichten und – Stile in der Sprachverwendung

Die Verwendung der unterschiedlichen Sprachschichten ist einerseits mit der Verteilung der Sprecher auf ländliche und städtische Siedlungsgebiete sowie mit der Zugehörigkeit zu sozialen Schichten verbunden, andererseits mit der Gesprächssituation (formell/ informell) bzw. mit dem Gesprächspartner. Eine besonders wichtige Konsequenz dieser vielschichtigen Sprachverwendung ist die Tatsache, dass die Umgangssprache eine vermittelnde Stellung zwischen (Verkehrs-) Dialekt und Standardsprache einnimmt, sie wird gewissermaßen zum Bindeglied zwischen diesen beiden Sprachschichten. Eine Reihe von standardsprachlichen Eigenheiten des österreichischen Deutsch beruht darauf, dass sie aus den Verkehrsdialekten über die Umgangssprache in die Schrift- und Standardsprache entlehnt wurden sind und damit allgemein verständlich und gebräuchlich geworden sind.

Zwei Beispiele dazu aus dem lexikalischen Bereich: *Pickerl* und *Hacklerregelung*:
das Pickerl: (früher Dialektwort zum Verb picken für kleben mit typischem süddeutschen Diminutivsuffix –erl) als heute allgemeine Bezeichnung für „Klebeetikett", und als Spezialbedeutung - Kfz-Prüfplakette (entsprechend der deutschen TÜV-Plakette =Technischer Überwachungsverein).
die Hacklerregelung: Im ostösterr. Slang hat Hacke in der Form Häcken die Bedeutung „Arbeit", „Beschäftigung", dazu das Verbum hackeln „arbeiten" und daraus wieder das Nomen Hackler (Schwer-) Arbeiter. Daraus die Hacklerregelung (vorzeitige Alterspension wegen langer Versicherungsdauer). Dazu frei assoziiert ein Beispiel für Wort-Neubildungen aus dem bundesdeutschen Bereich. Arbeitslose bekommen dort eine staatliche finanzielle Unterstützung, die nach dem Schöpfer dieser Regelung, Herrn N. Hartz, als Hartz IV benannt wird. Daraus gibt es das Wort „Hartzer" (für Menschen, die diese Unterstützung beziehen) und nunmehr auch schon das neu gebildete Zeitwort *hartzen* (oder gar *rumhartzen*), mit dem jugendliche Arbeitslose ihre aktuelle Beschäftigung (bzw. Arbeitslosigkeit) benennen.

2.2 Definition der Austriazismen

Die praktische Definition von Austriazismen kann folgendermaßen aussehen: „Austriazismen" sind solche sprachlichen (und pragmatischen) Erscheinungsformen, die man in Österreich begegnen kann - unabhängig davon, ob sie nur in Österreich gelten

(spezifische Austriazismen) oder auch in einer anderen Varietäten (unspezifische Austriazismen) vorkommen die entweder zur kodifizierten Standardsprache oder zum „Nonstandard" (auch zur Umgangssprache) gehören.

Austriazismen gibt es auf allen sprachlichen Ebenen, d.h. also im lautlichen (phonetischen) Bereich, im Wortschatz (lexikalischer Bereich), im Bereich der Grammatik. Wir beschränken uns im Beitrag auf die beiden (ergiebigeren) Bereiche der Phonetik und des Lexikons und können auch hier nur einige besonders markante sprachliche Erscheinungen herausgreifen.

2.3 Austriazismen in der Phonetik und Lexik

Lautliche Realisierungen sind sehr stark abhängig von der landschaftlichen Herkunft des Sprechers – und diese Herkunft ist auch erkennbar, wenn Standarddeutsch gesprochen wird – das liegt an der (kleinräumigen) Gliederung der Basisdialekte und den darin festgelegten Aussprachegewohnheiten. Die dialektale Gliederung Österreichs kann folgendermaßen dargestellt werden:

- mittelbairisch - Oberösterreich, Niederösterreich
- Übergangsgebiet - Salzburg, Steiermark, Burgenland
- südbairisch - Tirol, Kärnten
- alemannisch - Vorarlberg

Es gibt eine Reihe phonetischer Merkmale, die unabhängig von den einzelnen Basisdialekten für das österreichische Deutsch gelten, und die daher als phonetische Austriazismen zu verstehen sind. Vorauszuschicken ist, dass die nun darzustellenden phonetischen Merkmale des Österreichischen keine spezifischen Austriazismen (also auf Österreich beschränkt) sind, sondern unspezifische Austriazismen, da sie vielfach auch in Bayern, z.T. auch im gesamten süddeutschen Raum, gelten, und sich so vom sogenannten Binnendeutschen (also der Aussprache im mittel- und norddeutschen Raum) unterscheiden. Das einzig spezifisch Österreichische scheint zu sein, dass diese phonetischen Merkmale in Österreich bis in weitaus höheren sprachlichen Ebenen vorkommen, und sogar in Rundfunknachrichten und in den künstlerischen Textsorten Geltung haben. Beispiel dazu [z] vs. [s] im Anlaut: *so, sieben, Sonne, Salzburg, Sache.* Phonetische Austriazismen gibt es sowohl bei der Aussprache von Konsonanten und Vokalen als auch in der Wortbetonung (Akzent). An dieser Stelle werden einige Besonderheiten in der Aussprache der Konsonanten im österr. Deutsch erörtert:

a) < b, d, g und s > werden auch im Silbenanlaut stimmlos gesprochen < p, t, k > (wenig aspiriert).

Dadurch entstehen die Unterschiede zur deutschen Standardaussprache (*Kaffee, Kuchen, Kipferl, Kakao, Plakat*). Gerade die Realisierung von anlautendem < s > ist ein schönes Beispiel für stilabhängige Varianten. Während stimmhaftes [z] im gesamten deutschen Sprachgebiet (also auch in Österreich) normgerecht ist, wenn es sich um „künstlerische Texte" (Kunstgesang, klassisches Drama, Rezitation von Lyrik) handelt, so ist es in anderen Situationen (wie Unterrichtsgespräch von Lehrern, Politikerreden oder gar privater Sprachgebrauch) in Österreich eine Normabweichung (also ein ausgesprochener Teutonismus).

b) Nachsilbe < -ig > immer mit [IK] statt mit [IG]: *wenig, ledig, zwanzig, wichtig, ruhig*

c) Realisierung von anlautendem < ch > in Lehnwörtern oder Ländernamen: *Chemie, China*

d) r-Realisierungen: Nicht jedes geschriebene < r > ist als Konsonant zu realisieren.

Postvokalisches < r > wird im österreichischen Deutsch zu [a] vokalisiert und zwar nach Lang- und Kurzvokal, z.B. *Berg, Burg, Gebirge, Wirt, durch, abwärts, Werk.*

Die Differenzen im Wortschatz sind weitaus komplexer. Dabei geht es prinzipiell darum, ob - für den gleichen Inhalt in den nationalen Varietäten verschiedene Ausdrücke verwendet werden oder ob der in den nationalen Varietäten verwendete gleiche Ausdruck für verschiedene Inhalte steht.

Je nachdem unterscheiden wir in der Lexik echte (*Brathendl, Mistkübel, Nachtmahl, Matura, Spital*) oder unechte Parallelformen (*Melange, Golatsche, Sackerl, Palatschinke, Kukuruz, Kredenz, Sachertorte, Germknödel, Heuriger*). Bei den unechten Parallelformen handelt es sich um landestypische Gegenstände/Einrichtungen/Lebensmittel ohne direkte sprachliche Entsprechung in einer anderen Varietät, wie z.B. *Trafik, Verlängerter, Einspänner, Fiaker.*

Neuerdings konzentrieren sich nicht nur immer mehr Arbeiten von Soziolinguisten in Bezug auf die Plurizentrizität des Deutschen (vgl. z. B. Ammon 2016; 1995, Neuland 2006, Muhr 1997, Studer 2003, Eichinger 2005, de Cilia 1995, Takahashi 2000), sondern immer mehr Angaben zu nationalen Varietäten werden in Wörterbüchern und Lehrbüchern berücksichtigt. Laut dieser modernen Sprachauffassung gibt es seit 1994 neben den vom Goethe-Institut ausgestellten Sprachdiplomen Deutsch auch das Österreichische Sprachdiplom Deutsch (ÖSD), das ein staatlich unterstütztes Prüfungssystem für Deutsch als Fremdsprache ist. Aufgrund dieser Divergenzen der Sprachnormen ist es gut, dass man die Problematik

der Sprachvarietäten diskutiert und die Folgen für den Unterricht DaF und für die Sprachkodifizierung in deutschsprachigen Ländern erörtert.

„In jüngster Zeit wird die Soziolekt-/Sprachvarietätsforschung wieder aktiv aufgenommen. Das hat vielerlei Ursachen. So scheint sich zunehmend eine regionale Emanzipation anzubahnen, die der allzu glatt ausgerichteten Medienwelt entgegensteht und die sich ihren Platz in den sich vergrößernden politischen und ökonomischen Räumen schafft. Zu den Ursachen mag auch die Betonung des Individuellen, des Psychischen und des Differenten in vielen Lebensbereichen gehören. Schließlich ist ganz Europa durch große ethnische Wanderungen vielfältiger geworden – zur ´inneren Mehrsprachigkeit` gesellt sich die `äußere` im sprachlichen Binnenraum selbst" (Klotz/Sieber 1998:7).

Damit wird es notwendig, Einstellungen aufzubauen und Diskussionen aufzunehmen, die ein funktionales kommunikatives Nebeneinander von Standardsprache, Norm und Sprachvarietäten ermöglichen. Angesichts solcher Tendenzen genügt es nicht mehr, den Weg zur Standardsprache in ihrer geschriebenen und gesprochenen Form zu ebnen und ihnen die jeweiligen soziolektalen Sprachformen zuzuordnen. Dies führt zum Bewusstsein, dass „Deutsch" vielfältig ist. Gerade die Auslandsgermanistik sollte die Gelegenheit bieten, Einstellungen gegenüber dem Vielerlei des Deutschen dadurch zu entwickeln, dass Varianten angeboten, erprobt, diskutiert und verändert werden (vgl. dazu z. Baßler/Spiekermann 2001/20012).

Es ist allgemein bekannt, dass im deutschsprachigen Raum unterschiedliches Deutsch gesprochen wird. Was richtiges Deutsch ist, wird seit über 100 Jahren von Theodor Siebs (1898) und Konrad Duden (1880) in ihren Orthographie- und Orthoepie-Normierungen festgesetzt. Die Variante, die dabei ausgewählt wurde, wird vermutlich irgendwo nördlich des Mains gesprochen, die Menschen, die in anderen Regionen des deutschsprachigen Raums geboren wurden, müssen diese Variante erlernen, wenn sie allgemein anerkanntes, richtiges Deutsch sprechen wollen. Lange gab es die Ansicht, dass in deutschsprachigen Ländern ein gemeinsamer Standard des Deutschen existiere und Deutschland als deren Sprachzentrum gelte. Moser (1962:5) sprach von *„regionalen Besonderheiten der deutschen Standardsprache"* und Ebner (1987:149) benutzte den Terminus „Binnendeutsch" und „Außendeutsch" mit den Randgebieten wie Österreich und die Schweiz. Der Begriff „Binnendeutsch" gilt für die Nachfolgestaaten des Bismarckschen Deutschland und gilt als

Vorbild für das Erlernen der deutschen Sprache in fremdsprachigen Ländern. Muhr (1997: 44) behauptet, dass die öfter verwendeten Bezeichnungen *„österreichische oder schweizerische Besonderheiten"* im Sinne der Abweichungen allerdings abzulehnen sind, weil sie die Deklassierung der österreichischen und schweizerischen Standardvarietäten beinhalten. In der Schweiz ist z. B. in den letzten Jahren der zunehmende Gebrauch der Dialekte zu beobachten, wobei die Mundarten in der Schweiz als Umgangssprachen unter Deutschschweizern fungieren. *„Offizielle Amtssprache ist in der Schweiz immer noch Deutsch, obgleich es inoffiziell längst entthront ist. (.....) Früher wechselten die Schweizer aus der Mundart automatisch in die Hochsprache, wenn mit Ausländern kommuniziert wurde. Heute wird das immer öfter entweder vergessen oder absichtlich aus einer Art Trotz nicht mehr getan"* (Rheinische Post, 19. 6. 1993).

In Österreich und in der Schweiz löste in der Vergangenheit die Dominanz des deutschen „Deutsch" Unbehagen aus (Clyne 1992:23 spricht in dieser Hinsicht über *„linguistic imperialism"*). Die Minderwertigkeitsgefühle den Deutschen gegenüber wurden noch durch die Tatsache verstärkt, dass sie sogar darüber nicht entscheiden konnten, ob sie ihre Muttersprache richtig oder falsch sprechen. Als ein Ausweg wurde nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg das "Österreichische Wörterbuch" (1951) und „Die Aussprache des Hochdeutschen in der Schweiz" (1957) geschaffen, um sich auch sprachlich von Deutschland zu distanzieren. Diese Wörterbücher sind Wörterbücher der Standardsprache in ihrer Varietät. Mit ihrer Hilfe können Deutschlehrer an Schulen, aber auch Mitglieder anderer Berufe festlegen, was richtig und falsch ist. Zu Beginn der 90er Jahre wurde dieser allgemein akzeptierte Zustand plötzlich ein Problem. Die österreichische Sprache wurde zu einem integralen Bestandteil der österreichischen Identität erklärt. Es gab aber auch andere Ursachen für die Befreiung von sog. *„herrschenden Teutonismen"*:

ein verstärktes Interesse an Fragen der Identität
ein verstärktes Selbstbewusstsein
Ängste vor der Aufgabe nationaler Souveränität.

Wichtig sind in dieser Zeit die Arbeiten von Wolfgang Pollak (wie z. B. „Was halten die Österreicher von ihrem Deutsch?" Wien 1992), aber auch die Arbeiten von Rudolf Muhr (1995), Ulrich Ammon (2004) und Günter Lipold (1987). Als Resümee dieser Bemühungen kann konstatiert werden, dass gegenwärtig von vielen akzeptiert wird, dass Deutsch eine plurizentrische Sprache mit nationalen Varietäten sei. Man kann also zwischen Teutonismen, Helve-

tismen und Austriazismen unterscheiden (vgl. Ammon 1995:6), wobei die bundesdeutsche Variante in den Wörterbüchern meist als unmarkiert, die anderen als markiert angesehen werden. In gemäßigter Form finden wir diesen plurizentrischen Ansatz auch in neuen – in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland produzierten – Lehrwerken wie „Memo" (1995). Die Präsentation von Lebensrealitäten aus den verschiedenen deutschsprachigen Ländern ist in diesen Büchern sehr positiv; - gerade im Bereich der Gastronomie zeigt sich deutlich, dass Essen in erster Linie eine regionale und keine nationale Angelegenheit ist und also neben *Kartoffeln, Tomaten* und *Brötchen* auch *Erdäpfel, Paradeiser* und *Semmeln* existieren. Sinnvoll ist aber die nationale Dreiteilung bei der Behandlung nationaler Institutionen, wo wirklich klare Grenzen gezogen werden müssen: Ministerpräsidenten gibt es in Österreich keine, Volksschulen aber schon (vgl. dazu Woi 1998).

In diesem Zusammenhang entsteht die Frage, wer überhaupt bestimmt, was „richtiges Deutsch" ist? Im Allgemeinen entscheiden mehrere gesellschaftliche Instanzen über die Richtigkeit und Verwendbarkeit bzw. der Kodifizierung einer Sprache. Auf ihrer Grundlage können sich nationale Varietäten entwickeln, erhalten und offiziell einsetzen. Zu beachten ist, dass nicht jede linguistische Beschreibung (bzw. ihre Teilbereiche) einer nationalen Varietät Bestandteil ihres Kodexes ist. Voraussetzung dafür ist die amtliche Gültigkeit des betreffenden Werkes, z. B. des Österreichischen Wörterbuchs, das seit 1951 im Auftrag des Unterrichtsministeriums erscheint (39. Aufl., 2001). Anhand der Wörterbücher können sich Menschen auf einen Kodex berufen und die sprachlichen Vorschriften verlangen. Die wichtigsten Instanzen im Prozess der Festlegung und Kodifizierung einer Standardsprache sind:

a. im Falle Österreichs sind die Kodifizierer die Autoren des Österreichischen Wörterbuchs, in Deutschland ist es die Dudenredaktion (die Dudenbücher bilden den Kern des Sprachkodexes für Deutschland und symbolisieren „das richtige Deutsch")

b. die wichtigsten Sprachnormautoritäten sind die Lehrer und Vorgesetzte auf Ämtern, die verpflichtet sind, die Sprachbenutzung zu korrigieren

c. Modellsprecher und –schreiber sind professionelle Sprachbenutzer, Sprecher in den Medien, Schauspieler, Textautoren, Journalisten – sie alle produzieren die Modelltexte, an denen sich die Kodifizierer orientieren

d. Sprachexperten sind vor allem die Linguisten, die

Urteile fällen können, was richtiges Deutsch ist. Alle diese Instanzen beeinflussen auf verschiedene Weise die Bevölkerungsmehrheit und deren Sprachgebrauch (vgl. Ammon 2001).

3 Österreichisches Deutsch

Unter den Varietäten der deutschen Sprache nimmt das österreichische Deutsch eine besondere Stellung ein. Weil Deutsch in mehreren Staaten Europas gesprochen wird, wirft es die Frage auf, ob es auf Grund der staatlichen Verteilungen bloß eine einzige deutsche Sprache gibt oder ob man statt einer deutschen Sprache bereits von mehreren Nationalsprachen reden kann. Diese Frage bezieht sich nur auf die Schriftsprache und ihre mündliche Realisierung als Standardsprache, denn es ist lange bekannt, dass die nur mündlich gebrauchten Sprachschichten der Umgangssprache und des Dialektes eine Vielfalt regionaler Varietäten aufweisen. Außer dieser Fragestellung gibt es ein terminologisches Problem: Aus kulturhistorischer Sicht werden die drei Hauptvarietäten der deutschen Sprache als Bundesdeutsch (Binnendeutsch, BRD-Deutsch), österreichisches Deutsch, Schweizerdeutsch (vor 1989 auch eine vierte Varietät – das DDR-Deutsch) bezeichnet, während aus nationalpolitischer Sicht für Österreich und die Schweiz die Bezeichnung „Deutsch" zu unterlassen und statt dessen von „Österreichisch" und „Schweizerisch" zu sprechen wäre. *„Wie irreführend die nationalpolitische Einstellung gegenüber Sprache sein kann, lässt sich am besten an der Weltsprache Englisch mit ihren Varietäten vor allem in Großbritannien, den USA, in Kanada, Indien, Australien, Neuseeland usw. demonstrieren, von denen wohl niemand ernsthaft behaupten wird, sie seien jeweils als Britisch, Amerikanisch, Kanadisch, Indisch, Australisch, Neuseeländisch usw. selbständige Sprachen"* (Wiesinger 1988:11). Die meisten renommierten Sprachwissenschaftler in Österreich sprechen also aus sachlichen Gründen stets von einem „Österreichischen Deutsch" und wir stimmen dieser Meinung zu. Die gegenwärtige sprachliche Situation Österreichs ist die, dass jeder Österreicher je nach Herkunft, Alter, Geschlecht, Stand, Bildung, Hobbys, Gesprächspartner und Situation unterschiedliche Formen der gesprochenen deutschen Sprache gebraucht. Trotz Vielfalt regulieren gesellschaftliche Konventionen, welche Sprachformen in bestimmten Kreisen und Situationen angemessen sind. Für die Beschreibung der komplizierten österreichischen Sprachverhältnisse eignet sich ein fünfstufiges Modell mit der Unterscheidung von:

Basisdialekt (Landdialekt älterer Dorfbevölkerung)
Verkehrsdialekt (jüngere Generation der Landbevölkerung, die nach auswärts Stadtkontakte hat)
Umgangssprache (höher gestellte Stadtpersönlichkeiten)
Standardsprache (verbindliche Sprache der Öffentlichkeit mit Beibehaltung der regionalen Sprachfärbung)
Hochsprache – Hochlautung (geschulte Berufssprecher der Bühne und der Medien).
Zur besseren Vorstellung wird ein Beispielsatz angeführt:

Hochsprache:	Hochsprache: Heute abend kommt mein Bruder nach Hause.
Standardsprache:	Heut åb´nd kommt mein Bruder nåch Haus.
Umgangssprache:	Heit åb´nd kommt mein Bruder z´Haus.
Verkehrsdialekt:	Heit auf d´Nocht kummt mein Bruader ham.
Basisdialekt:	Heint af d´Nocht kimmt mein Bruider hoam.

(Wiesinger 1987:18).

Austriazismen kann man aus heutiger Sicht folgendermaßen charakterisieren. Sie sind sprachliche und pragmatische Erscheinungsformen, die
nur in Österreich gelten (spezifische Austriazismen) oder auch in einer anderen Varietät (unspezifische Austriazismen) vorkommen können und
entweder zur kodifizierten Standardsprache oder zur unkodifizierten Gebrauchsnorm gehören.

Die Differenzen im Wortschatz sind weitaus komplexer als in anderen Bereichen. Dabei geht es prinzipiell darum, ob -
für den gleichen Inhalt in den nationalen Varietäten verschiedene Ausdrücke verwendet werden oder ob der in den nationalen Varietäten verwendete gleiche Ausdruck für verschiedene Inhalte steht.

Je nachdem unterscheiden wir in der Lexik echte (*Brathendl, Mistkübel, Nachtmahl, Matura, Spital*) oder unechte Parallelformen (*Melange, Golatsche, Sackerl, Palatschinke, Kukuruz, Kredenz, Sachertorte, Germknödel, Heuriger*). Bei den unechten Parallelformen handelt es sich um landestypische Gegenstände/Einrichtungen ohne direkte sprachliche Entsprechung in einer anderen Varietät, wie z.B. *Trafik, Verlängerter, Einspänner, Fiaker.*

4 Beschäftigung mit den Sprachvarietäten im DaF-Unterricht

Muhr (1987/90) und König (1989) weisen völlig zu Recht darauf hin, dass es keine einheitliche Begrifflichkeit gibt in Bezug auf Hochsprache (Hochdeutsch), Norm, Standard, Umgangs-, Regionalsprache, Dialekt. Einfache Beobachtungen im Sprachalltag ergeben, dass eine gesprochene regionale Umgangssprache sowie die Dialekte zu den häufigsten Varietäten des Alltags gehören; dabei kommt es auf die Verwendungssituation an. Fremdsprachenunterricht, besonders im Ausland, kann auf Orientierung an Normen nicht verzichten. In den Ländern, in denen Deutsch gelehrt und gelernt wird, orientiert man sich an verschiedenen Standards. In der Vergangenheit war es entweder die bundesdeutsche oder die DDR-Norm, je nach politischem „Einfluss". Deutschlerner werden sich unter pragmatischen Gesichtspunkten natürlich fragen, mit welchem „Deutsch" sie am weitesten kommen. Für die Beschäftigung mit nationalen Varianten des Deutschen im DaF-Unterricht lassen sich vor allem zwei Argumente anführen:
Überlegungen im Umkreis von Mehrsprachigkeitskonzeptionen und interkulturellen Lernzielen die Bedürfnisse der Deutschlernenden, die auf Grund der intensiven weltwirtschaftlichen Verflechtung die Vermittlung einer gebrauchsfähigen Sprache erwarten.

Dass die nationalen Varietäten heute auch im DaF-Unterricht ein Thema sind, wurde durch die Diskussionen um das Deutsche als „plurizentrische Sprache" wesentlich begünstigt, wenn nicht sogar ausgelöst (vgl. Eichinger 2005, Studer 2003, Neuland 2006). Diese Diskussionen haben wesentlich zur Aufwertung der österreichischen und schweizerischen Nationalvarietäten beigetragen und sie finden ihren Ausdruck nicht nur in einigen wenigen plurizentrisch orientierten Lehrwerken (Beispiel: „Memo" 1995), sondern auch in standardisierten, international bekannten Sprachprüfungen (Beispiel: Österreichisches Sprachdiplom). Dennoch spielt bis heute in der Mehrzahl der Lehrwerke für den DaF-Unterricht deutschländisches Deutsch nach wie vor die Hauptrolle, besonders auch in den Hörtexten und das oft in Form eines „neutralen" Standards bzw. einer „unauthentischen Standardleseaussprache" (Baßler/Spiekermann, 2001). Daran ist, insofern es um die Vermittlung und das Lernen produktiver Sprachkompetenzen geht, nichts auszusetzen. Problematisch wird es aber, wenn im engeren Sinn monozentrische Lehrbuchkonzeptionen und Unterrichtsrealitäten auch den Rahmen für die Entwicklung und das Training rezeptiver Kompetenzen bilden. Unter solchen

Bedingungen stellt sich ein asymmetrisches Verhältnis zwischen dem Sprechen und dem Verstehen ein, was die kommunikative Reichweite der Lernervarietäten angeht: Beim Sprechen ist der Kommunikationsradius groß (Lernende können sich im gesamten deutschen Sprachraum verständlich machen, wenn sie eine nationale Standardvarietät beherrschen), beim Verstehen hingegen ist er deutlich kleiner (die Fixierung auf nur eine Standardvarietät kann zur Irritation führen, wenn Lernende mit einer anderen als der gelernten Varietät konfrontiert sind – vgl. Takahashi 1994). Auf das Bedürfnis der konsequenten Umsetzung des plurizentrischen Ansatzes im DaF-Unterricht haben bereits mehrere Linguisten und Theoretiker des Fremdsprachenunterrichts hingewiesen (vgl. Ammon, 1995; Muhr 1996). Einer Klärung bedarf der Begriff der „Standardvarietät" bei der Einbeziehung der Sprachvarietäten in den Deutschunterricht des Auslandes, der schwierig zu definieren ist. Was ist denn „Standarddeutsch" - früher sprach man auch vom „Hochdeutsch"? Man kann folgende Merkmale nennen:

Diese Varietät gilt für eine ganze Nation.

Sie bildet eine Norm (sie ist kodifiziert) und wird von den Sprachbenutzern des jeweiligen Landes als normativ angesehen.

Sie ist Gegenstand und Unterrichtssprache in Schulen.

In didaktischen Kreisen (vornehmlich im Ausland) wird weiterhin der Frage nachgegangen, wie die sprachlichen Unterschiede zwischen den Varietäten der deutschen Sprache im Deutschunterricht zu bewältigen sind. *„Der plurizentrische Ansatz ist für den Deutschunterricht im Ausland eine große Herausforderung, der wir uns aber unbedingt stellen müssen, denn er bedeutet einen wichtigen Schritt zur Überwindung der seit eh und je bestehenden Diskrepanz zwischen Deutschstunde in der Schulklasse oder Kursraum im Ausland und der sprachlichen Wirklichkeit der deutschsprachigen Länder"* (Károlyi 1996:45). Auf richtige Proportionen achtend, sollten alle Zentren des Deutschen mit ihren Eigenheiten im Unterricht vertreten sein. Es geht dabei aber nicht nur um die Auswahl der Varianten, sondern auch um ihre Aneignung und ihre Praxisrelevanz. Dies erfordert Rücksichtnahme bei der Erstellung der Curricula, bei der Materialauswahl und Zeitplanung. *„Die plurizentrische Sprachauffassung wirkt sich auf den ganzen Unterrichtsprozess, auf Lehrinhalte und Lehrwerke, auf das didaktisch–methodische Herangehen in den Lehrwerken und im Unterricht selbst, aber auch auf die Lehrerausbildung selbst aus "* (Nagy 1996:49).

Ihre konsequente Durchsetzung erfordert Mehrarbeit

und zusätzliche Leistungen sowohl von den Lehrenden als auch von den Lernern. Die Lehrenden dürfen diese Arbeit nicht scheuen, denn sie schulden dies ihren Lernern. Die Lerner müssen verstehen, dass in ihrem eigenen Interesse mehr von ihnen verlangt wird, weil für sie die praktische Anwendbarkeit der Deutschkenntnisse und die Akzeptanz durch die Sprachgemeinschaft auf dem Spiel steht.

Im Prozess des Fremdsprachenerwerbs soll die sprachliche Realität der Regionen einbezogen werden. Wer in Österreich studiert, muss den österreichischen „Standard" erwerben, um zu überleben. Gleiches gilt für die Lebenssituation in der Schweiz, im süd- und im mitteldeutschen Sprachraum. Ein weiteres Problem ist das der Norm für Nationalitätensprachen, etwa des Letzeburgerischen, des Deutschen in Belgien, in Ungarn, Rumänien oder Namibia. Regionale Varianten und der fremde Akzent spielen weiterhin eine große Rolle. Die Akzeptanz deutscher, österreichischer, schweizerischer (liechtensteinischer, letzeburgerischer) Akzente ist unterschiedlich. Wird der Ausländer ohne jeden Akzent akzeptiert? Wird der Amerikaner mit Schweizer, der Türke mit Münchner, der Spanier mit schwäbischem Akzent akzeptiert? Der Unterricht im Ausland durch ausländische Lehrer wird sich an eine kodifizierte Norm halten, die von den Lernern aktiv aufgenommen wird. *„Will der DaF-Unterricht nicht an der sprachlichen Realität im deutschsprachigen Raum vorbeigehen, ist die systematische Berücksichtigung der sprachlichen Unterschiede der deutschsprachigen Länder unbedingt notwendig. Die Lernenden sollten auf die Existenz mehrerer nationaler Varietäten als Teilsysteme des Deutschen vorbereitet werden, die sich durch ihre einzelnen Varianten - Helvetismen, Austriazismen und Deutschlandismen voneinander unterscheiden. Diese Varianten sind auf allen sprachlichen Ebenen - der lexikalischen, phonetisch-phonologischen, grammatischen, graphischen, semantischen und pragmatischen Ebene zu finden"* (Štefaňáková 2003:247). Angesichts der Existenz mehrerer Standardvarietäten tritt die Frage auf, mit welchen Varietäten Lerner im DaF-Unterricht vertraut gemacht werden sollten. Typologisch gesehen gibt es mehrere Möglichkeiten: nur Deutschlands Standardvarietät

gleichberechtigt verschiedene Standardvarietäten

die dem Wunsch der Lerner entsprechende Varietät (vgl. dazu Woi 1998:9).

Was die deutsche Sprache betrifft, ist gegenwärtig die Standardvarietät Deutschlands vorherrschend und für die Ausländer ausschlaggebend. Sie wird durch umfangreiche Sprachkodizes aus Deutschland

unterstützt. Es wäre didaktisch realitätsfern, mehrere Standardvarietäten gleichberechtigt im DaF-Unterricht zu behandeln: auch viele Muttersprachler vermögen kaum, Varianten anderer Sprachzentren zu identifizieren. Es wäre auch aus Zeitgründen nicht realisierbar.

Die von Muhr (1997) formulierten Prinzipien, die auf eine Trennung zwischen produktiven und rezeptiven Fertigkeiten hinweisen und die die geo-

graphische Nähe zum jeweiligen deutschsprachigen Land berücksichtigen, kann man generell akzeptieren. Für die Slowakei bedeutet dies konkret, dass in den an Österreich grenzenden Regionen der Westslowakei die österreichische oder süddeutsche Variante als erste Form eingeführt werden sollte. Der Einsatz des österreichischen Deutsch in geographisch weiter entfernten Gebieten ist eher problematisch.

Sprachvarianten zum Vergleich			
slowakisch	schweizerisch	österreichisch	bundesdeutsch
automobilista	Automobilist	Autofahrer	Autofahrer
volant	Volant	Volant/Lenkrad	Lenkrad
kamión	Camion	Lastwagen	Lastwagen
advokát	Advokat	Rechtsanwalt	Rechtsanwalt
gól	Goal	Goal/Tor	Tor

Tab. 1: Ausgewählte Sprachvarianten des Deutschen im Vergleich

5 Sprachdidaktischer Ausblick

Die Lehrwerke und Materialien für die Auslandsgermanistik, die weltweit verbreitet sind, basieren jedoch meistens auf Kodizes, das heißt überwiegend auf der Standardvarietät Deutschlands. Da eine Sprache nicht nur als Kommunikationsmittel dient, sondern auch als ein Teil der Kultur und Geschichte betrachtet wird, wird durch konkrete Varianten auch die Identität und Mentalität eines Volkes ausgedrückt. *„Für eine Förderung interkultureller Kommunikation wäre es jedenfalls wichtig, Lernende auf die Heterogenität des Deutschen sowie der deutschsprachigen Ländern im Unterricht aufmerksam zu machen, das oft nicht der Fall ist. Es gibt sogar noch Lernende und Muttersprachler, die glauben, dass Österreicher und Schweizer nur Dialekte sprächen."* (Takahashi 1996: 215). Unsere Lehrende behaupten aber, dass für Lernende eine vertraute Bekanntschaft mit verschiedenen Sprachvarietäten weniger wichtig ist, als das gründliche Erlernen der deutschen Standardsprache. Besonders für Lernende, deren Muttersprache sprachtypologisch vom Deutschen entfernt ist (z. B. Slowakisch, Ungarisch, Russisch, Rumänisch), bereitet das Erlernen des Deutschen große Schwierigkeiten. Angesichts der Existenz mehrerer Sprachvarietäten diskutiert man also die Frage, mit welchen Varietäten Lernende im Deutschunterricht vertraut gemacht werden sollten. Ammon (2004) vertritt in dieser Hinsicht die folgende Auffassung:

„Allerdings darf daraus nicht geschlossen werden, dass die nationalen Varietäten des Deutschen in den Lehrmaterialien für Deutsch als Fremd-

sprache regelmäßig berücksichtigt werden. Die breitere Berücksichtigung der nationalen Variation eignet sich ohnehin nur für den Unterricht bei fortgeschrittenen Lernern. Dies mag bisweilen der Grund dafür sein, warum zwar vielfach darauf hingewiesen wird, dass Deutsch Amtssprache mehrerer Länder ist, warum aber die nationalen Varietäten dennoch keine Berücksichtigung finden " (Ammon 2004:47). Durch die Analyse von Einführungen in das Fach DaF und von Lehrmaterialien für den Unterricht konnte gezeigt werden, dass die sprachlichen Varietäten viel zu wenig behandelt werden. Dies liegt daran, dass in den Lehrwerken in der Regel eine nicht authentische Aussprache vorgegeben wird und nur wenige oder keine dialektsprachlichen Situationen aufgenommen sind. Diese Feststellungen würden auch auf die Behandlung anderer wichtiger sprachlicher Varietäten in der DaF-Praxis, wie Jugendsprache, Frauen- und Männersprache zutreffen (vgl. Baßler/Spiekermann 2002).

Wir vertreten die Meinung, dass das Germanistikstudium im In- und Ausland den Studierenden fundierte Kenntnisse zur Variation im heutigen Deutsch vermitteln sollte. Wie Untersuchungen zeigen, spielen das Normbewusstsein und die Einstellung der Lehrenden gegenüber Varietäten eine bedeutsame Rolle im Sprachunterricht. Sie sollten größere Normtoleranz zeigen und bereit sein, die österreichische und schweizerische Varietät als gleichrangig anzuerkennen. Das alles bildet die Grundlage eines Wissens, das an den Universitäten häufig nicht vermittelt wird.

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SPRACHE ALS KOMPLEXES PHÄNOMEN IM INTERAKTIVEN KOMMUNIKATIONSPROZESS

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Abstrakt

Im Beitrag wird der Frage nachgegangen, welche theoretischen und praktischen Ansätze die Sprache im Bereich der linguistischen, interkulturellen und angewandten Kompetenz einnimmt. Das Hauptziel besteht in der Erarbeitung der Funktionen der Sprache in der Gesellschaft und in der Optimierung sprachlichen Handelns im Allgemeinen. Dabei wird folgender Forschungsertrag angestrebt: Hauptlinien und zentrale Positionen der Sprachkompetenz im Bereich der angewandten Linguistik zur Diskussion zu stellen.

Schlüsselwörter

Funktionen der Sprache, Sprachkompetenz, Dimensionen der Sprache, Grundprobleme der Grammatik, Angewandte Linguistik

Abstract

The following paper aims to answer the question which theoretical and practical skills are needed in the linguistic and intercultural competences. The main objective is to develop the functions of language in society and to optimize linguistic competence in general. The following research results are aimed at the central positions of linguistic competence in the field of applied linguistics.

Key words

functions of language, language competence, dimensions of language, main problems of grammar, applied linguistics

I. Themenaufriss

Bis zu den 60er Jahren dominierte in der Sprachforschung der Strukturalismus. Aber schon früher, seit den 50er Jahren, war es möglich, Entwicklungen anderer Sprachwissenschaften zu beobachten, die die linguistischen Methoden mit den Methoden anderer Wissenschaften (Psychologie, Soziologie, Mathematik u.a.) verflochten. Diese Wende hing mit der Umorientierung der Interessen nicht mehr für die internen Eigenschaften des Sprachsystems zusammen, sondern man konzentrierte sich auf die Funktion der sprachlichen Mittel bei der Kommunikation und Interaktion. Die Sprache charakterisierten vor allem äußerliche Umstände vollkommen. Dies hat entsprechende Reflexe in den nächsten Theorien wie Text-, Psycho-, Soziolinguistik, kontrastive, kognitive Sprachtheorie u. v. a. hervorgerufen.

Basis der Anfänge der linguistischen Pragmatik in Deutschland war die *Sprachtheorie* (1965) von Karl Bühler. Es ging ihm nämlich auch um die Erforschung der Sprache als das *konkrete Sprechereignis*. Er knüpfte an die platonische Idee von Sprache als einem *organon* (Werkzeug) an und entfaltete ein Kommunikationsmodell von Sprache.

II . Sprache als textlinguistisches Segment

Die Textlinguistik bildete sich in Deutschland zu Beginn der 70er Jahre aus, angefangen mit Harweg (1968), Weinrich (1993) und Brinker (1992). Sie schließt im Wesentlichen an das Kommunikationsmodell von Bühler an. Die Textlinguistik umfasst die Gesamtheit von Textsemantik, -pragmatik, -syntax und –phonetik, mit Hilfe von denen sich die sprachliche Kommunikation vollzieht.

Impulse zum Begründen der Textlinguistik kamen nicht nur von der modernen Linguistik, sondern auch viele praxisbezogene Bereiche verlangten die ganze sprachliche Einheit. Strukturell gesehen steht der Text an der Spitze der sprachlichen Teilsysteme und wird von meisten Linguisten als Produkt kommunikativer Handlung angesehen.

Das Verdienst der Texttheorie bestand in der Erforschung solcher sprachlicher Erscheinungen, die vorher im Rahmen anderer Sprachschulen kein Gegenstand der Untersuchung wurden. So war es z. B. nur im Kontext eines Textes möglich, Satzakzent oder Satzgliedstellung zu erklären. Außerhalb der Linguistik nutzte man die Textlinguistik vor allem bei Arbeit mit dem Text aus: im Sprachunterricht, bei Verarbeitung von Dokumenten, Übersetzungen usw.

Ihre Kritiker sind jedoch der Meinung, dass die Textlinguistik bloß Verbindung von Stilistik und Syntax darstellt, und dass sie keine neuen Kenntnisse mitbringt (vgl. Černý 1996).

In den letzten Jahren richtet sich die Textlinguistik auf die Wege des Gewinnes von Informationen aus Texten. Nach einem lange dominierenden Interesse an der Textproduktion fand die Textrezeption eine zunehmende Beachtung. Die Textrezeption hängt meines Wissens außer Lesen besonders mit dem Hören und Hörverstehen im Fremdsprachenunterricht zusammen, wo man bei Ausfall der Ausspracheschulung eine Fehlinterpretation von lautlichen Strukturen merken kann.

III. Sprache als mentales Lexikon

Die Psycholinguistik sucht die ganze sprachliche Situation aus dem psychologischen Aspekt zu erklären. Diese mit der Sprache verbundene psychologische Erforschung hat eine lange Geschichte, was von ihrer Wichtigkeit beim Behandeln der Sprache zeugt.

Schon im Altertum hat man sich Fragen nach Zusammenhang von Sprache und Psyche gestellt (z. B. die Rolle des Gehirns, Denken und Gedächtnis, Verhalten usw.). Mit den mentalen Prozessen beschäftigte sich als Erste die behavioristische Psychologie, die jedoch nur auf bedingte Reflexe begrenzt war und beim Spracherwerb (z. B. beim Lernen) war sie nur an den von außen sichtbaren Kenntnissen und Fertigkeiten orientiert (an menschlichem Verhalten, Reaktionen). Im 19. Jahrhundert wurde die Psycholinguistik in Europa unter dem Terminus „Sprachpsychologie" bekannt, während sie erst Anfang 50er Jahre in den USA als „Psycholinguistik" bezeichnet wurde. Sie wurde aus der behavioristischen Psychologie, deskriptivistischen Linguistik und mathematischen Informationstheorie gegründet. Unter dem Einfluss Chomskys hat sich die Psycholinguistik von Deskriptivismus und Behaviorismus getrennt, und ihr Forschungsschwerpunkt richtete sich auf die angeborene Fähigkeit des Menschen, die Sprache zu beherrschen und kreativ zu nutzen.

Diese Sprachkonzeption hat hauptsächlich im Schulunterricht ihre Bedeutung gefunden. Erklärt werden die Fragen nach dem Sprach- und Fremdsprachenerwerb, nach der Entwicklung der Kindersprache, Rolle des Gedächtnisses, Denkens, Verhaltens, Fragen des Sprachverlusts u. ä.

IV. Sprache als kognitive Fähigkeit

Der Psycholinguistik steht die kognitive Richtung sehr nahe, die sich in den 70er Jahren durchsetzte, und deren Untersuchungsgegenstand heute die Sprachkenntnis – Sprache, ihre Aneignung und ihr Gebrauch als Leistung des menschlichen Geistes ist. Die Sprache wird als *spezifische kognitive Fähigkeit* betrachtet und Ziel der kognitiven Linguistik ist *„myšlienkové zobrazenie jazyka v jeho prirodzenej reálnej existencii"* (Dolník 1999: 121). Heutzutage wird sie auch metakognitive Sprachtheorie genannt.

Sie interessiert sich aber nicht nur für konkrete sprachliche Äußerungen, sondern vielmehr für mentale Dispositionen, die es dem Menschen ermöglichen, sprachliche Äußerungen zu produzieren und zu rezipieren. Sie übernahm von der generativen Grammatik die Unterscheidung zwischen Sprachkompetenz und Sprachperformanz und die Beschreibung des impliziten Wissens als mentale Realität, die dem aktuellen sprachlichen Verhalten zugrunde liegt.

Die kognitive Linguistik war Bestandteil auch anderer Theorien und Konzeptionen, z. B. der frühe-

ren stratifikativen Theorie (in den 60er Jahren in den USA), die kennen und ermitteln wollte, was im Gehirn des Sprechers bzw. Hörers abläuft. Die Sprache bestand nach dieser Theorie im komplexen Sinne aus mehreren Schichten und war als *Kode* charakterisiert, der es ermöglicht, Beziehungen zwischen Bedeutungen und Klängen zu bilden.

Die kognitive Linguistik ist relativ spät in die Mitte der Aufmerksamkeit getreten, obwohl sie in der Praxis von großer Wichtigkeit sein darf. Ihr Forschungsgegenstand öffnet Grenzen für alle Wissenschaften, die innerhalb der einzelnen Übergangsphasen oftmals ausgeschlossen werden mussten, z. B. Philosophie, Psychologie und Logik. Sie bezieht sich auch auf alle Ebenen der Sprache (z. B. phonetische, syntaktische, textuelle), die sowohl strukturell als auch prozedural definiert werden können. Sie schließt nicht nur formale, sondern auch inhaltliche Komponente ein, die im Gedächtnis gespeichert und verarbeitet werden.

V. Sprache als situationsabhängige, individuell steuerbare Variationsmöglichkeit des Ausdrucks

Die Sprachbetrachtung im sozialen Kontext erfasst, kann man der neueren Soziolinguistik zuordnen. In einer frühen vorsoziolinguistischen Periode (schon im Altertum, im späteren 19. Jh. durch W. v. Humboldt und im 20. Jh. durch N. S. Trubetzkoy) wurden zwar viele Aspekte aus dem Bereich Sprechen – Sprache – Gesellschaft wissenschaftlich angesehen, trotzdem hat dies zur Entstehung keiner eigentlichen linguistischen Disziplin geführt.

Die Quellen der Soziolinguistik stellen neuere Disziplinen dar, z. B. die anthropologische Linguistik, Ethnolinguistik, Dialektologie und Dialektgeographie. Die Soziolinguistik brachte eine neue Art der Sprachbetrachtung: Sie geht von der Heterogenität der Redeweisen aus, während in der Saussureschen Systemlinguistik nur die homogene Sprachgemeinschaft untersucht wurde.

Dank dieser Richtung werden die gesellschaftlichen Varietäten der Sprache (Idiolekte, Dialekte, Soziolekte) beschrieben, gegliedert und ihre wechselseitigen Beziehungen erklärt. Bis heute stellt sich Soziolinguistik die Frage, auf welche Weise diese Varietäten entstehen.

Die Soziolinguistik steht zurzeit im Zentrum der linguistischen Untersuchungen in mehreren Ländern (Frankreich, Italien, Polen usw.). Auf Grund der europäischen Sprachenvielfalt widmet man sich den Fragen des Bilingualismus, der Sprachbarrieren und vor allem der Sprachenpolitik.

„Der Sprachenpolitik der EU liegt der sich aus dem Prinzip der Freiheit und Demokratie ergebende Grundsatz der kulturellen und sprachlichen Vielfalt zugrunde. [...] Es stellt sich die Frage, wie sich die Sprachenpolitik der EU entwickeln soll, um für das Verhältnis zwischen dem Recht der Völker auf den freien Gebrauch ihrer Sprache und dem Bedürfnis, im Bereich des öffentlichen Verkehrs innerhalb des Integrationsgebildes möglichst effektiv zu kommunizieren, das optimale Maß zu finden." (Dolník 2004: 38) Es geht um die Fragen des Standards und Nonstandards.

Die Stellung, Entwicklung und Rolle der deutschen Sprache im Kontext der europäischen Sprachenpolitik hat sich politisch und sozial auch viel verändert. R. Muhr (2004: 60) fasst Daten über die Position des Deutschen in Europa folgenderweise zusammen:

„1. Das Deutsche ist zweifelsohne eine große europäische Regionalsprache. Hinter ist steht eine große Wirtschaftsmacht, aber nur eine geringe politische Macht.

Das Deutsche hat in vielen Bereichen an Einfluss verloren, behauptet sich aber nach wie vor als Nachbarsprache, teilweise als Schulfremdsprache, jedoch nur bedingt als Sprache internationaler Organisationen und im Rahmen der EU-Organe.

Das Deutsche leidet teilweise unter mangelnder Sprachloyalität seiner Sprecher, der Sprachpraxis mancher staatlicher Einrichtungen und der zunehmenden Tendenz von Firmen, wonach Deutsch zugunsten Englisch als Konzernsprache aufgegeben wird.

Das Deutsche steht unter starkem Druck des Englischen, was vor allem auf das Wirken der USA als Leitkultur zurückgeführt werden kann, die in vieler Hinsicht direkt oder indirekt Vorbildwirkung hat. Das Deutsche hat sich also von einer Gebersprache zu einer Aufnahmesprache verändert."

VI. Funktionale Einsichten über die Sprache

Vor allem innerhalb der ehemaligen DDR war die *funktionale Grammatik* verbreitet, weil die theoretische sowie praktische Grammatik (im Schulunterricht) in eine Krise geraten ist. Zu ihrem Wortführer hat sich W. Schmidt gemacht. Sie erforschte und stellte sprachliche Sachverhalte dar. Damit unterscheidet sie sich von der strukturellen aber auch inhaltbezogenen Grammatik und ist sowohl für Theorie als auch Praxis bestimmt.

Der Hauptbegriff der funktionalen Grammatik, die ´Funktion´, erschien auch in der Prager Schu-

le, jedoch als innersprachliche Gegebenheit und wird in Beziehung Phonem-Bedeutung behandelt. Der Hauptverdienst der funktionalen Sprachtheorie besteht darin, dass der Begriff der Funktion auf außersprachliche Faktoren verbreitet wurde und war von Schmidt (1965: 23) als *„Kommunikationseffekt"* definiert. Sie ist *„sachbezogen"* (vgl. auch Helbig 2002: 348).

Die funktionale Sprachtheorie brachte neue Sprachausführung. Sie interessiert sich für das Funktionieren der Sprache bei der Kommunikation, für die Wirkung der Sprache auf den Empfänger, wobei außer objektiver Realität auch die Sprachgeschichte miteinbezogen wird.

Nach dem Krieg entstand noch eine funktionale Grammatik. Zu ihren Vertretern gehören die deutschen Linguisten G. Helbig, J. Buscha und U. Engel, die an die von L. Tesniere (1893-1954) stammende *Dependenz- (Valenz-)grammatik* angeknüpft haben. Sie distanziert sich allerdings von der außersprachlichen Realität und befasst sich mit der Zuordnung zwischen Laut- und Bedeutungsstrukturen und mit der Abhängigkeit innerhalb der Satzglieder, ähnlich wie die generative Grammatik. Der Begriff „Funktion" wird hier also eher im mathematischen Sinne des Abhängig-Seins verstanden.

Schlussfolgerungen und bedeutende Beiträge zur Charakteristik und Verwendungsmöglichkeiten der Sprache

Hier wird bewiesen, ob und wie die Sprache seit ihrer Entstehung theoretisch und praktisch wahrgenommen wurde. Es ist sichtbar, dass die Menschheit zu allen Zeiten über die Sprache nachgedacht und dazu entsprechende Sprachtheorien entwickelt hat.

Die unterschiedlichen Gesichtspunkte (philosophische, psychologische, physiologische, soziale u.a.) und Zielsetzungen der Sprachforschung (Formen, Bedeutungen, Sachverhalte) hängen mit der historischen Entwicklung zusammen. Die Sprachbetrachtung unterlag ganz natürlichen Prozessen. Z. B. Philosophie war früher fast in jeder Wissenschaft dominant, so wurde sie zum zentralen Aspekt auch beim ersten Streben nach der Sprachtheorie. Im Altertum, als es über Sprachentstehung und Sprechen noch keine überzeugenden Kenntnisse gab, war für die altindischen Grammatiker phonetische Sprachbeschreibung interessant.

In nachkommenden Epochen wurden sehr prägnant Dynamik und Struktur der Sprache erwiesen, die nicht so ganz gegensätzliche Wesensbestimmungen, sondern einander bedingende Aspekte der

Sprache sind. Diese Ergebnisse finden in der gegenwärtigen Linguistik neue Aufmerksamkeit:

Mit der Suche nach der Ursprache aller Sprachen und den Sprachfamilien hat sich im 19. Jahrhundert der historisch-vergleichende Aspekt in der Sprachforschung durchgesetzt. Die Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen – auf der Lautebene, in der Morphologie und der Lexik – sind heute in den meisten Sprachen ausreichend erforscht. Das Hauptziel der sprachwissenschaftlichen Arbeiten war die Entdeckung von Lautgesetzen, die Erstellung von historischen Grammatiken und etymologischen Wörterbüchern (Lančarič, 2016). Es wurde die Unbeständigkeit, die Entwicklung der jeweiligen Sprachsysteme erst aus historischer Perspektive sichtbar. Man könnte diese Konzeptionen und ihre Untersuchungsmethoden in unser Zeitalter übertragen, wenn sich die Sprache und Gesellschaft ständig noch in Entwicklung befinden. Aber Ergebnisse früherer Sprachkonzeptionen bleiben offensichtlich bloß ein interessantes Material zum Lesen.

Maßgebende Kenntnisse für unser sozusagen technisches Zeitalter brachten linguistische Erforschungen des 20. Jahrhunderts (F. de Saussure und Strukturalismus). Ihre Konzentration auf die isolierten Strukturen der Sprache (das interne Zeichensystem), auf den Zusammenhang ihrer Teile (Laut, Phonem, Satz, Text) unter synchronischem Aspekt zeigen Sprache als ein laufendes Mechanismus, das vor allem in unserem Computerzeitalter (in der Kunstsprache) anerkannt wurde. Es entstanden wissenschaftliche Unterdisziplinen, wie z. B. die mathematische Linguistik, die nicht nur zur linguistischen Datenverarbeitung, sondern auch zur neuen linguistischen Theoriebildung verwendet wird. Die moderne Sprachwissenschaft spielt eine relevante Rolle in der Fernmeldetechnik, bei neueren Wissenschaften der Kommunikationsforschung und der Kybernetik. In den letzten Jahren strebt man z. B. nach Übersetzungsmaschinen (für elektronische Datenverarbeitung), die nur mechanisch, mit Hilfe der Sprachanalyse, funktionieren können. Man sollte beachten, dass mit Hilfe der modernen Massenmedien die Sprache heute mit größerer Kraft auf das Individuum einwirkt.

In den letzten zwei oder drei Jahrzehnten wandelten sich *„Sprachen im Zuge der gesamtgesellschaftlichen Entwicklungen sehr stark."* (Rohr 1999: 1). Die in abstrahierter, analytischer Weise durchgeführten Sprachuntersuchungen wurden in die kommunikative Tätigkeit und gesellschaftliche Interaktion (auch mit kognitivem Kontext) eingebettet, und

dadurch wurde die sprachwissenschaftliche Beschäftigung mit der Sprache intensiver. Die pragmatische Orientierung in der Linguistik (in den 70er Jahren des 20. Jh.) war in dem Sinne bahnbrechend, dass sich die linguistischen Forschungen im 20. und 21. Jahrhundert enorm beeinflusst haben. Forschungen auf dem sozialen, psychologischen und textuellen Gebiet hatten wesentliche Wirkung auf den Schulunterricht. Die kognitive Sprachtheorie hat Aufschwung der Computertechnik sehr beeinflusst. Man hat die menschliche Tätigkeit des Wahrnehmens mit Hilfe des Computers beobachtet (Computeranalogie). Die Pragma-, Text- und Soziolinguistik zählen heutzutage zu bevorzugsten Forschungsobjekten in der Linguistik sowohl in Deutschland als auch im Ausland.

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USING "THE ECONOMIST" AS A DIDACTIC MATERIAL FOR TEACHING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Abstract
The article demonstrates the possibility to use periodicals written in English language for didactic purposes for students of both philological and non-philological study programs, aiming at the enhancement of the language for specific purposes. The author includes practical examples of the vocabulary regarding the field of economics. She argues that the knowledge of word-formation processes helps students understand and work with the word-stock better. Working with texts from periodicals such as The Economist offers an opportunity to improve students' language and professional competences at the same time.

Key words
English for specific purposes, periodicals, enhancement, didactics

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About the newspaper

The history of the British weekly The Economist traces back to the year 1843. With the first issue, its founder, businessman and banker James Wilson, demonstrated his campaign against the protectionist Corn Laws which restricted the import of grain in Great Britain and its price. The repeal that followed three years after was regarded as a triumph of the free trade and liberal political economy, i.e. traditional liberal principles which together with promoting minimal intervention of the state in the economy characterize The Economist until now. Nowadays, the name of this weekly corresponds to the term economic liberalism. However, the editorial staff has been advocating liberalism besides economy in other areas of life: supporting human rights, decolonization, homosexual marriages, and introduction of gun laws. This suggests a broad spectrum of topics which the news in the each issue of the newspaper cover. The pages of the newspaper are filled with articles dedicated to economic topics, finances, politics, science and technology, culture, but also ecology. As for the structure of the content, we can observe that it is divided to sections and that each of it represents one continent or a specific country. Final pages contain the overview of the conomic and financial indexes and an obituary. It is worth to mention essays which according to what they discuss carry an original name. Buttonwood, named after the buttonwood tree where early traders from the Wallstreet gathered, is about finances. In Schumpeter, using the name of the economist Joseph Alois Schumpeter, you could read about business; Charlemagne, on the other side, uses the name of Charles the Great and covers news from Europe etc. Ganres represented in The Economist are: report, analysis, commentary, review, blog, polemic, as well as glossa. They are written in comprehensive, clear and simple language. As the most significant editor of The Economits in the 19th century, Walter Bagahot said, we can characterize the style of the newspaper as conversational, close to the common language of the people. Besides colloquial expressions, we are able to find specialized terminology. Herewith, The Economist focuses on readers with higher education, aiming to persuade experts and catch the attention of laymen. Thanks to the variety of topics and colourfulness of language, it has readers in all six countries it has been published in. We can find well known personalities among its dedicated readers; after going online with its own website inluding the archive of articles since June 1997, it has gained even more favourers. Every Thursday, issues spread from the head office in London to the whole world with a circulation of 1.5m, more than for-fifths of it outside Britain, and half of all the issues get sold in the United States of America. According to data the newspaper provides itself, the print and online version is read by more than 5 million people every day. Although the weekly is called a newspaper, the print format and design is of a glosy magazine. What is interesting is that the authors do not sign their columns. The exceptions are host writers and foreign contributors. As far as the attitude of this magazine-like newspaper towards various topics – judging from the view of general processing and language used - is self-evident, editors do not regard it decisive to publish their names. Graphics processing of the Economist is of high quality, together with

the layout and font making the newspaper comprendious; added visual materials, photographs, illustrations and caricatures enrich pages abundant in information appropriately.

Didactic use of The Economist

We regard the newspaper The Economist and similar periodicals to be interesting didactic material with versatile use, or more precisely application in different areas of praxis in which graduates of our study programmes can possibly employ.

Nowadays, internationalization of the economy increases demands on institutions preparing the future experts. Accordingly, demands on graduates increase as well – they are expected to dispose of complex knowledge from various disciplines and prompt adaptability to rapidly changing circumstances of the economic environment undergoing globalization processes. The internationalization mentioned above – as one of the aspects of globalization – influences functioning of economic relations, the course of business communication and intercultural interactions between users of the English language of business. Individual branches of economy and companies are parts of international economic relations, success of which relies on smooth oral and written communication in a foreign language. Our graduate steps in exactly that complex of relations and situations, therefore we have to ask ourselves how to prepare him or her for that the best.

Studying at the Faculty of Applied Languages at the University of Economics in Bratislava provides an opportunity for us to follow our goals and prepare students for requirements they would have to meet in praxis. We follow the belief that command of a foreign language for general purpose is not sufficient; that is the reason why we consider our task to be the enhancement of the terminology of the specific professional field of economy. In this sense, interdisciplinary study connecting theoretical knowledge from linguistics and economics is clearly reflected on seminars we conduct, and on which we use selected texts from The Economist the weekly. We focus on topics such as politics, economy, finances and international business relations. We percieve articles published in correspondent columns from two sides which we consider to be starting points for a teaching process, i.e. we work with them as with a didactic helping tool during teaching particular courses. From the linguistic side, they have served as a source of vocabulary and from the theoretical side, they make students familiar with phenomena of the world of economics

and finances. The added value of them is their timeliness – each new issue reflects the dynamics of the business language and their content is being a source of news which is up to date[1] . For the illustration, we mention specific examples of academic courses during which not only theory and praxis has been visibly interconnected, but on basis of our experience, they have been thankful because they make students an active part of an educational process.

The first is Translation seminar, at which texts from periodicals are key didactic materials and a teacher together with students work with them in an unchanged form. The first phase of the course is comprised of reading with understanding. Understanding is a dynamic action combining the analysis and synthesis of different levels of a text (Gavora, 1990) and irreplaceable for further work because the text read serves as a base for the text(s) that follow[2]. Students make themselves familiar with the content of a text in the original version, acquire information about the latest situation in the field and – under conditions of the globalizing society – percieve their broader impact. In the second phase, students work with a dictionary and texts that are in the target language and are topically equivalent or close in meaning with the original one and look for the translation of the unknown specialized lexis. That means that students reinfroce their language and professional competences at the same time. In the last, third phase, students process the vocabulary by creating a bilingual glossary which will find its use on other courses of language and economic character.

We see the activity itself – translation as a process – as an excellent opportunity to learn a foreign language for specific purposes, as well as improve students' mother tongue in terms of specific lexis. Moreover, students learn to understand economic phenomena, communication between economic subjects etc. in broader context. Besides context, the knowledge of word formation processes helps students decode the meaning of a word. It is necessary to devote enough time to the explanation of the problematics as far as the experience proves that students who are good at identifying word-formation processes understand the text better than those who do not have such knowledge (Nemčoková, 2004).

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1   *FOR THE PURPOSE OF THIS ARTICLE, WE ANALYZED AND ABSTRACTED THE VOCABULARY OF THE ECONOMIST ISSUE FROM JULY 15TH-21ST 2017*
2   *e.g. text of a translation, text that is further read etc.*

The periodical can be also used for teaching Creative or Academic writing, Business correspondence or English for specific purposes. The emphasis is put on reading with understanding, however in this case aiming at creation of a new text, not translation. We draw the students' attention to syntax and stylistics of texts, formatting articles and structure, we teach them ways of using various writing methods to help them use expert terminology and compose texts that are clear and comprehensible. We use belletristic articles of a popular science character, highly represented in The Economist, as templates. Written at the border between scientific and artistic texts, they serve as practical samples particularly for beginners in writing during the first term of the course taught. Students write texts with informative or explanatory functios initially, later on, thanks to the knowledge of the most common word-formation processes as e.g. derivatives, abbreviations, blends and other, they are able to include them in their written works and write persuasive texts. In expert texts written in English, they identify multi-word expressions, polysemantic terminology and more frequented nominal expressions. Using them, students learn to build plausible texts on expert level regarding the content, as well as the format. Spectrum of tasks is broad – starting with writing business correspondence, continuing with an essay and commentary and finishing with a final thesis. We remind students that the skill of writing expert and academic texts, in contrast with artistic text, is a question of exercise and acquiring a skill, not talent.

Curiosity, to which we turn students' attention, is occurrence of phraseology, metaphors and idioms in expert texts. They add colourfulness to the expert language that is traditionally viewed as terse and monotonous. Print media that are dedicated to expert issues in politics and economy and provide information from these fields reflect the language, but also trends influencing the economic sphere. Therefore we consider The Economist and similar periodicals to be useful tools for teaching. Students at seminars of Language of Business Communication, Language of Economy and Economics, Business English and familiar courses get the education not only in linguistics and theory of trade, but they get to know the specifics of commercial activities in English speaking countries, nuances of business English in expert communication – with respect to the users of this language and their culture (including the business culture), and different communication environment in which the business activity (negotiation, trade)

has been pursued as well. Working with these texts, students of non-philological study programs, economics, intercultural communication etc. (generally said programs combining the language knowledge with that of economic theory) engage in area studies as well. Interdisciplinary character of the study helps graduates to orientate in foreign language environment in which the trade takes place faster, and moreover, anticipates pursuing successful expert and general communication in other fields. Some realities are objects of a young scientific discipline – linguistic area studies – examining a linguistic aspect of realities of a country, i.e. language units naming the specifics of a culture of a given nation (Dulebová, 2012). The example is *Orwellian*, meaning antiutopical, destructive with regard to the future, source of which is a novel 1984 written by Orwell or *Trump's (Twitter) fingers* which a person who impulsively and rudely comments on different topics on social networks, in particular microblogging site Twitter, is having. The term was coined due to statements of the current president of the United States, Donald Trump, on Twitter. The process of conversion created the word *tweet* that in the function of a substantive denotes a message, a picture or a file published on Twitter and in the form of a verb – *to tweet* – means *to publish on Twitter*. Another example is a slang expression for a dollar – greenback – named after the green colour of an American banknote. Originally being a negative term, today it is a part of jargon of people working in the economic field.

Naming the reality by a native speaker indirectly and figuratively can cause problems for a communication partner for whom the language is foreign. By enriching the word-stock with such units of language, students learn to identify cultural differences and specific of a language, on a higher level – by using them – graduates prove their expert level of knowledge and qualification. Choosing texts and exercises filled with phraseological units, phrases and expressions concerning business and economy topics, we narrow the vocabulary and identify the field it is common for, therefore helping students use it appropriately according to the situation and context.

From the excerpted periodical, we can group a great number of lexical units into idioms that have been used mostly, but not only, in business communication. English phrase *by the rule of thumb* means a practical and approximate way of measuring something, a rule based on experience, a practical approach. Whereas in English we measure with a "thumb", in Slovak it is "od oka" (literally "by eye"). In

agreements and contracts, there is a great likelihood an idiomatic expression *be in force* meaning "exist and be used, be in effect" is used. Slovak translation "byť v platnosti" is not idiomatic. Before an agreement comes in force, parties have to reach an agreement – *to strike a deal*. If one of the parties violates the agreement, the other can get angry and protest – *be up in arms*.

Analysing articles referring to economic competition, as well as the course of the American presidential elections, we observed the use of the idiom neck and neck. What was meant by that in the following sentence was a close fight, in which competitors had equal chances to win – *The polls suggest the race is neck and neck.* Below, we list few others English idioms abstracted from the articles and explain their meaning:

heated debate	passionate discussion, conversation full of excitement
earn one's corn	put a lot of effort in work for your wages, work hard and receive well deserved reward for that
cherrypick	to select the best from the best. In Slovak, we pick raisins out of a pie ("vyberať hrozienka z koláča")
kill (one) with kindness	1. React on ill behaviour and bad manners kindly. Close to the Slovak phraseologism "Kto do teba kameňom, ty do neho chlebom." 2. To bother or harm someone by treating them with enormous favour and excessive goodwill. Depending on the context, we could translate the text into Slovak as "opičia láska" (literally "monkey love") meaning "excessive care".

We pay special attention to the idiom *go rogue*. *Rogue* as a noun meaning a scoundrel has been used since the 15th century. As an adjective it refers to being solitary and dangerous. It was originally used particularly referring to wild elephants acting violently because of an injury or separation from a herd. Now-adays, one of the meanings has been "act independently, do not follow rules and act on one's own": *To stop the keepers from going roque, and catch them if they do, society has come to rely on all sorts of tools, from audits to supervisory boards.* However, *go rogue* has not been used exclusively in the negative meaning. Former Alaska governor, Sarah Palin, contributed to the spread of the new meaning with her autobiography published in 2009 titled Going Rogue: An American Life. In her book, she writes about how she escaped the influence of manipulators and did not follow the prescribed script, did not act as was expected from her and refuses to lose control of her situation. In Slovak tranlation, we would suggest to use "ísť svojou cestou", "proti prúdu", "na vlastnú päsť".

What caught our attention were figurative terms which, on the basis of external resemblance, name new phenomena appearing in the 21st century in the sphere of economy, as well as persons or subjects that are not new, but the language reacted on them dynamically to bring the meaning closer to the broader public. Note the following metaphors:

unicorn company	small private company, startup with a valuation of more than 1 million dollars. The term was coined in 2013 by venture capitalist Aileen Lee who had chosen a mythical animal, a unicorn, as a symbol of rarity with which such companies appear on the market
corporate zombie, zombie firm/company, corporate undead	If you touch base with someone, you make contact or renew communication with them. E.g. I'll try to touch base with you next week in London
financial lunacy	literally financial madness, insanity; condition of financial crisis, lack of finances
deep learning – or **deep structured learning**	Iis a machine learning method that allows a computer to think, to learn and – on the ground of acquired knowledge – to decide without the necessity of being directly programmed for a specific task
smart contract	computer protocol or software that facilitates, verifies or enforces the negotiation or performance of an agreement or a contract
floating currency	a currency whose value is determined by the free market; to dent (profits) - to reduce profit, cut revenues

As for the current enourmous amount of information, authors try to economize expressions in their texts. To be as brief as possible and make texts more dense, they use shortened words, acronyms and abbreviations. In the selected texts we are able to see that some of them are used so commonly that authors do not find it necessary to include the explanation of their meaning or full name. Therefore, students should learn them and know their translation equivalents in Slovak.

Great number of acronyms we came across refer to organizations, companies, institutions, e.g. *FBI* (Federal Bureau of Investigation), *FARC* (Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia – peoples army, from Spanish Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia), *G20* (Group of Twenty, international group of twenty major economies), *RBS* (Royal Bank of Scotland), *OECD* (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development; in case of this acronym we mention to students that the acronym in Slovak does not change, however, the full version of it has to be translated – "Organizácia pre ekonomickú spoluprácu a rozvoj", whereas *IMF* - International Monetary Fund - uses the acronym "MMF" formed from the Slovak translation of the full text "Medzinárodný menový fond", therefore it is inevitable to verify the official version of both the full name and the acronym). What follows are names of companies having their branches in Slovakia, e.g. *IBM* and *KPMG*, full names of which – International Business Machines Corporation and Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler - are not known that much. Acronyms as *CEO* (Chief Executive Officer = in Slovak "výkonný riaditel"), *GDP* (Gross Domestic Product = „HDP"), *MP* (Member of Parliament = "poslanec") should be translated automatically and used without hesitation by students, they are part of general knowledge of the English language. We would like to note the acronym *ATM* meaning Automated Teller Machine. Using another type of word process that decreases the number of lexical units, i.e. composition, the translation equivalent "bankomat" does not have a form of an acronym in Slovak. One-word expressions are not as common as multi-word expressions in a language for specific purposes, but in such cases, we do not avoid them. Some acronyms have a form of calque or loan translation in Slovak: *AI* (Artificial Intelligence = "umelá inteligencia"), *NHS* (National Health Service = "Národná zdravotná služba").

Blending is another means used for shortening texts and contributing toward their conciseness. Below, we list a number of blends from texts focused on economic topics:

downfall	bankruptcy
counter-bid	counter offer, e.g. launch a counter-bid = give a counter offer
stockmarket	stock exchange
sharebuy-backs	repurchase of shares (in context: Apple, forexample, issues bonds at home to pay for its share buy-back, rather than tapping the $240bn it has stashed abroad.)
low-risk bonds	bonds that are safe to invest in
venture-capital fund	funds used for high-risk, high-reward investments

The following examples illustrate how multi-word expressions as products of blending change into one-word expressions in the process of translation into Slovak:

double-entry	
book-keeping	"podvojné účtovníctvo"
record-keeping	"evidencia"
decision-making	"rozhodovanie"

It is not an exception that for the sake of the economization of a text, multi-word expression is replaced by a loan word. That is the reason why find *crowdfunding* in Slovak texts more often than "kolektívne financovanie".

From experience we know that because students do not work with dictionaries and do not take polysemy of a word into account, they are not able to translate certain expressions correctly. A term can have particular meaning in one scientific discipline and completely different one in other. The English *policy* refers not only to political strategy, but in insurance business, it means *an insurance contract*. Hence, missold policy denotes deceptive sale of insurance contracts to people who can not afford them. An example of usage in the context: *This makes sense for mortgages, but much less for credit-card debts; in the end, the industry has paid back £27bn to consumers to reflect mis-sold policies.*To help students avoid shift in meaning and subsequently, incorrect translation, we have always been accentuating the role of a dictionary as a primary helping tool for working with texts.

On courses dedicated to the exchange market, future economists can come across the blend *burgernomics* (made up of two words – burger and economics) referring to the purchasing power parity between nations, using the cost of a Big Mac in different countries as the benchmark.

Number of blend words which are borrowed either without any changes, or as calques, become part of the Slovak language. The content of such words reflects changes in the economy that happen under the influence of phenomena of the digital era we live in the 21st century:

startup	the term was literally borrowed from English and has been used in the original form to refer to a new company, just starting to function
bitcoin	crypto-currency
crypto-currency	digital or virtual currency, in Slovak "kryptomena"
bitnation or **cryptonation**	virtual community using bitcoin
blockchain	continually growing file of records – "blocks" that are

connected – "chained" and protected by the means of cryptography. The most common utilization of the blockchain technology is the cryptocurrency book of record.

Basic blends students should command and first of all, understand are the following:

watchdog	an administration performing supervision; in combination of two blends anti-trust watchdog it refers to an administration that acts against monopoly
landlord	owner, administrator of an estate
supervisor	examiner, inspector
chairman	chairperson

We have chosen word combinations comprised of a modifier (that was created in the crossprocess of a prefix and a substantive tax) and a substantive income which expands the modifier. Examples we list show how blending contributes to the formation of a specialized terminology.

post-tax income	clear profit, income net
pre-tax income	profit before tax, gross earnings

We also mention

tax-bill	having a form of a blend, but at the same time substantive "tax" takes over a function of an adjective because of conversion (in Slovak translation „výmer",

and

value-added tax, VAT	this time, tax has the function of a noun (in Slovak "daň z pridanej hodnoty", "DPH")

Another word-formation process we identified in the periodical The Economist and the knowledge of

which improves both the language and professional competence of students is conversion. It is very frequent and productive in English. This type of word-formation process makes the number of lexical units grow and therefore enrich the language quantitatively, but also makes it easier for language users to name objects and phenomena as accurately as possible, therefore elevating the language qualitatively. Accuracy, concreteness and exactness have been typical features of a formal style, terminology of which we try to explain the easiest possible way. For that purpose, in the introductory lessons of the study of the language for specific purposes, we choose examples of conversion that are the most representative with respect to the process itself and to the specialized terminolog as well. Depending on the focus of the study, teachers can narrow the selected group of words into those which are used in one field of science the most, e.g. law, medicine (legal English, medicine terminology) etc. In our case, we include words and expressions that originated thanks to the process of conversion and are used in Business English. We include their translation into Slovak:

investment advice	"investičné poradenstvo"
household debt	"dlh domácností"
bankruptcy-protection programme	"program na ochranu pred konkurzom, bankrotom"
savings rates	"miera úspor"
savings income payment protection	"príjem z úspor"
insurance	"poistenie schopnosti splácať, poistenie platobnej ochrany, poistenie splátok úveru"

We are adding examples of denominal verbs occurred in analyzed articles, the first three set in context and all of them with equivalent Slovak translation:

to broker	"sprostredkovať", "dohodnúť" (...to broker a solution to thecrisis...)
to temper	"zmierniť" (Higher rate could temper a sharp rise in housing prices and in household debt.)
to doctor	"zmeniť obsah alebo vzhľad dokumentu za účelom falšovania, podvodu" (Administrators hold the power. They can doctor corporate accounts, delete titles from land registries or add names to party rolls.)
to economise	"šetriť"
to service (bonds)	"uhradiť, splatiť obligácie, cenné papiere".

Conclusion

The material we feature as an appropriate didactic helping tool in this article demonstrates our method of enhancing the students' language competence as well as the professional one – particularly in economics which selected vocabulary describes. Moreover, the knowledge of word-formation processes cross the borders of lexicology and allows students to not only understand the terminology they learn and come across during their non-philological courses during their study, but also in praxis working in fields in which professional jargon is commonly used. We are convinced that by narrowing the terminology to the one used in economic sphere they would not be deprived of knowledge from other scientific disciplines. We agree with Heyd (2000) who states that scientific text does not exist; we only work with variants which share certain specific features, but could at the same time differ notably. Features that are common and typical for each and every language for specific purposes are: accuracy, exactness, pragmatism, comprehensibility, economy in expression, anonymousness. Difference shows in specialized vocabulary, most of all scientific – in our case economic – terminology. Language for specific purposes has been having variants, but the base of each one is built on one single platform – they all have been using common lexical, syntactic and textual means. What stems from it is another goal we strive to achieve in the teaching process, and that is improving the language skill at the general level.

Current intense development of information technologies facilitates simple and fast access to information of all kind. However, the level of informedness does not correspond to the level of language that should be used for providing information, and particularly that of scientific character.The language and speech of recipients then, understandably, de-

forms. We have been observing that at the university among students who are not using specialized terminology adequately and fail to use language for specific purposes correctly. They sometimes lack knowledge of basic language and grammar rules. Working with texts from periodicals written in English, they learn syntax and grammar rules, enhance their lexical word-stock and with the help of a teacher, they also gain relevant information on the discipline.

We increase the level of students' qualification and enhance the language they use when discussing specific scope of the discipline they study. We have been assured that the analysed texts are appropriate didactic materials for accomplishing above mentioned objectives with application on courses of philological, as well as non-philological focus.

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МЕТАМЕТАФОРИЗМ» И «МЕТАМЕТАФОРИСТЫ

ANDREA GROMINOVÁ

Абстракт

В настоящей статье приводятся результаты исследований на предмет определения понятий «метаметафоризм» и «метаметафористы» в русском, а также чешском и словацком литературоведческом контекстах. Кроме нескольких попыток определения понятия «метаметафоризм», особое внимание также уделяется отдельным представителям этого направления, поэтам-метаметафористам: Ивану Жданову, Алексею Парщикову, Александру Еременко, Константину Кедрову и другим авторам, типичным приемам и особенностям их поэтики, общим и отличным чертам их поэзии.

Ключевые слова

метаметафоризм, метаметафористы, И. Жданов, А. Парщиков, А. Еременко.

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Вопрос выбора терминологии для обозначения нового явления в любой области, в том числе и в литературе, зачастую бывает проблемным. Представителей одного и того же литературного явления, к которому обычно относят И. Жданова, А. Парщикова, А. Еременко (и других), исследователи предлагают называть «метареалистами» (М. Эпштейн), «метатропистами» или «транссемиотиками» (И. Кукулин) или представителями «необарокко» (М. Липовецкий), а также «метаметафористами». В данной статье мы попытаемся сосредоточить внимание только на определении понятия «метаметафоризм» (или же «метаметафористы») в русской, чешской и словацкой литературно-культурных средах.
В литературоведческих статьях, как правило, понятие «метаметафоризм» стоит рядом с понятием «метареализм». В русской литературе оба этих понятия часто употребляются для обозначения одного и того же явления и вносят терминологическую путаницу. Некоторые исследователи считают эти понятия синонимами (например, И.С. Скоропанова в своей работе «Русская постмодернистская литература»[1]), другие чувствуют границу между ними. Так, например, Е.А. Князева в своем диссертационном исследовании «Метареализм как направление: эстетические принципы и поэтика» определяет метаметафоризм как школу и метареализм как поэтическое течение. На основе этого она приходит к выводу, что метареализм – это «сложно структурированное»[2] литературное направление, имеющее своим истоком метаметафорическую школу. Она делает заключение: «в постмодернистскую эпоху, когда она еще зарождается в России, оказалось возможным существование позднемодернистского историко-литературного явления, выросшего из авангардной школы»[3].
По мнению Е.А. Князевой, метаметафоризм как школа близок традициям авангардного поэтического искусства XX века (абсолютизация метаметафоры как «принципиальной *языковой* новизны, недостижимой в какую-либо другую эпоху, вера в *преобразовательные возможности собственного творчества*»)[4], но не совпадает с ними полностью. В связи с этим она разграничивает метаметафору и метаболу, полагая, что данные термины «отражают одни и те же принципы подхода к реальности, понимаемой как метафизическая»[5], но варьируют способы мышления.
Метаметафору как ключевую составную часть метаметафоризма попытался разъяснить философ и теоретик литературы К. Кедров в короткой заметке «Рождение метаметафоры»: «*Метаметафора – это метафора, где каждая вещь – все-*

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5   КНЯЗЕВА, Е.А.: О метаметафоре К. Кедрова In: Метареализм как направление: эстетические принципы и поэтика : дис. … канд. филолог. наук : 10.01.08. Екатеринбург, 2000. [Дата обращения: 2017-10-2]. Доступно в Интернете: http://www.litmir.me/br/?b=194537.

ленная. Такой метафоры раньше не было. Раньше все сравнивали. Поэт как солнце, или как река, или как трамвай. Человек и есть все то, о чем пишет. Здесь нет дерева отдельно от земли, земли отдельно от неба, неба отдельно от космоса, космоса отдельно

от человека. Это зрение человека вселенной. Это – метаметафора».[6] Поэму К. Кедрова «Компьютер любви» С.Б. Джимбинов предлагает считать художественным манифестом метаметафоризма. Русский литературный критик С.И. Чупринин добавляет, что понятие «метаметафора» первый раз использовал К. Кедров в послесловии к поэме А. Парщикова «Новогодние строчки» (опубликованном в журнале *Литературная учеба,* 1984, № 1); примерно тогда же М. Эпштейн запустил в обращение (сначала устное) понятие «метареализм» и представил его как ключ к пониманию поэтики А. Еременко, И. Жданова, а также А. Парщикова.[7] По мнению многих исследователей, причисление к этому кругу поэтов И. Кутика, Е. Кацюбы, Л. Ходынской, С. Соловьева, Т. Щербины, М. Шатуновского и самого К. Кедрова привело к размытию строгих границ школы.

С.И. Чупринин далее объясняет, что понятие «метаметафоризм» возникло почти одновременно с термином «метареализм» для обозначения одного и того же явления, и это явление с самого начала было представлено как школа с четким списком участников и совокупностью предварительно определенных задач. Автор добавляет, что после создания альтернативного литературного клуба «Поэзия» в 1987 году появились первые публикации членов школы, после чего стали упоминать об их произведениях как о поэзии «сложности», или затемненности смысла, достигавшейся заменой логики на ассоциативность и соединение в пределах одного стихотворения, а часто и одной строки, демонстративно «далековатых понятий».[8]

Кроме прочего, С.И. Чупринин в своем сочинении «Русская литература сегодня: Жизнь по понятиям» (2007), как и другие литературные критики, освещает название «метаметафоризм», созданное на основе греческого «meta», что обозначает «после, за, через», и «metaphora» – «перенос».

Чупрининское определение термина «метаметафоризм» дополняет Е. Степанов в статье «Метаметафористы: Иван Жданов, Константин Кедров, Алексей Парщиков, Александр Ерёменко»,[9] в которой он уделяет внимание прежде всего основным стилистическим (фигурно-троповым) приемам, используемым отдельными поэтами. По мнению автора, И. Жданов стремится доказать, что смысл в поэзии необязателен. Смысл речи для него – речь, смысл красоты – красота. Метафоры в поэзии И. Жданова свободно интуитивны и спонтанны, а музыка является единственным приемом.

Основным стилистическим приемом номинанта на Нобелевскую премию, поэта К. Кедрова, с точки зрения Е. Степанова, является анаграмма. Поэт раскладывает слова на слоги, точно на атомы, и показывает, что каждый версификационный атом самоценен, он часть поэтической вселенной. Е. Степанов демонстрирует это на стихе:

Я не вынесу
Я не вы
Я несу

Он констатирует, что на этом приеме построены многие стихи К. Кедрова. Самым сложным для восприятия среди поэтов-метаметафористов Е. Степанов считает А. Парщикова. Автор статьи уточняет, что К. Кедров относит Парщикова к одному из создателей метаметафоры, а ключевой стилистический прием Парщикова – литота. (Сравнения Парщикова построены по принципу, обратному гиперболе. Поэт пытается увидеть в большом малое и тем самым это малое возвеличить.) Задумываясь над фундаментальной стилистической фигурой в избранных стихах А. Ерёменко, Е. Степанов «говорит» об иронии, а в остальных стихах поэта (в чем он перекликается с И. Ждановым) – о сложной метафорической системе, а также новых эпитетах, отражающих представления о мире человека XX–XXI веков. Так как поэзия метаметафоризма, с точки зрения Е. Степанова, является синтезом искусств и наук, воплощенных в каждом поэтическом слове, то этот синтез в своих стихах, по его мнению, лучше других выразил именно А. Ерёменко.[10]

Пытаясь понять феномен метаметафористов, Е. Степанов приходит к выводу, что в основе общего метода этих трех поэтов (И. Жданова, А. Парщикова и А. Еременко) лежит синтез эвфонии, метафоры, анаграммы, литоты и иронии (самоиронии). Можно констатировать, что эти тропы и фигуры являются для выше указанных поэтов-метаметафористов основополагающими.[11]

Кроме Е. Степанова очень откровенно к поэтике метаметафористов подходит Н. Дали, заявляя: «Сразу оговорюсь, что поэзия метаметафористов кажется мне надуманной, придуманной. Это именно тот случай, когда действительно начинаешь понимать слова А.С. Пушкина о том, что *поэзия должна быть глуповатой.* Однако имена Александра Еременко, Ивана Жданова и Алексея Парщикова были широко известны в 70-е и 80-е годы уже прошлого века. И хотя, можно сказать, поэзия их скоро отзвучала (в современной литературе остался, пожалуй, один Иван Жданов), они своим неожиданным явлением взбудоражили общественное мнение, пробудили у читателя интерес к отечественной поэзии. Их главной литературной позицией и был, вероятно, эпатаж. Лирический герой в таких произведениях исчезает, расплывается в разных точках зрения, зачастую произвольных. Установка на уход от своего я есть уход от личности, а значит и от собственного Слова. Хотя иногда это сделано достаточно остроумно (у А. Еременко), но это именно *сделано,* сложено как конструктор. Мне как читателю неинтересно разматывать клубки ассоциаций в таких текстах. Метаметафористы, на мой взгляд, только тогда становятся интересны, когда забывают, что они *метаметафористы* (у И. Жданова). ... Ведь вспоминаем же мы до сих пор эксперименты начала того же века типа *дыр бул щил* и подобные, которые ознаменовали собой взгляд на поэтическую речь как на шаманство, язык богов, доступный лишь избранным».[12] Она также отмечает, что к поэтам-метаметафористам (А. Еременко, И. Жданов и А. Парщиков) можно отнести также А. Чернова, имя которого почему-то не упоминают часто, но даже сам Кедров в предисловии к его книге «Глазомир» говорит на первых порах про четырех представителей метаметафоризма.[13]

Кроме собрания основных сведений о метамета-

форизме, Н. Дали в своей статье «Метаметафористы» (2010) попыталась, подобно Е. Степанову, дать меткое определение поэзии отдельных метаметафористов. Относительно А. Чернова она приходит к следующему выводу: «Чернов семидесятых – *супермодный антиквариат,* обживающий в поэзии полотна примитивистов, роющийся в резиново-надувном Пегасе и разбирающий вселенское гипертело уборщицы, как часовой механизм, на колесики и пружинки. Чернов девяностых – усталый странник, стоящий в стоптанных кроссовках на берегу Черного моря и под шепот вечернего бриза чуть слышно рассказывающий свою бесконечную повесть, успокоившийся и переболевший, нашедший себя нового, но, по сути – оставшийся самим собой».[14] По ее мнению, язык И. Жданова не похож на обиходный: «И. Жданова нельзя поставить рядом с нынешними поэтами-метаметафористами, которые, сколько бы ни нагромождали метафор, всегда знают результат, по возможности скрываемый ими. Жданов никогда не знает результата заранее. Иван Жданов – поэт-сомнамбула, вслух пересказывающий свои сны. К нему неприменимо блоковское *чувство пути,* предполагающее и чувство времени, истории. У него нет начала, середины, конца».[15]

Важнейшую проблему поэзии А. Парщикова Н. Дали замечает на формальном уровне – «это проблема зрения, визуальности. Парщикову нравится ощущать себя Гулливером. Играя масштабами, он попадает попеременно то в страну карликов, а то – великанов. Зачастую – в пределах одной строфы. Сам Парщиков часто говорит о напряжении, рождающемся из замедления, минус-движения, затухания».[16] С точки зрения формы она созерцает и поэзию А. Еременко и суммирует: «хотя А. Еременко формально и примыкает к группе метареалистов, он занимает промежуточное положение между метареалистами и концептуалистами: словами он создает особую предметную реальность и одновременно иронически разрушает ее... Еременко первым входит в воду (моду) постмодерна, растворяется в цитатах и обыгрывании готовых блоков. Его стихотворения симулируют жизнь».[17]

Как вытекает из вышесказанного, проблематике метаметафоризма и метаметафористов в русскоязычной среде уделяется немало внимания. Но если взглянуть в чешский литературно-

6   ДАЛИ, Н.: Метаметафористы. [Дата обращения: 2017-10-2]. Доступно в Интернете: http://www. proza.ru/2010/-06/13/885
7   ЧУПРИНИН, С.И: Метаметафоризм, метареализм. In: Русская литература сегодня: Жизнь по понятиям. Москва: Время, 2007, с. 352. ISBN 5-9691-0129-X
8   Там же.

9   СТЕПАНОВ, Е.: Метаметафористы: Иван Жданов, Константин Кедров, Алексей Парщиков, Александр Ерёменко. In: Жанровые, стилистические и профетические особенности русской поэзии середины XX — начала XXI веков. Организация современного поэтического процесса. Москва: «Комментарии», 2014, 400 с. ISBN 978-5-85677-073-0
10   Там же.

11   Там же.
12   ДАЛИ, Н.: Метаметафористы. [Дата обращения: 2017-10-2]. Доступно в Интернете: http://www.pro-za.ru/2010/-06/13/885
13   Там же.

14   Там же.
15   Там же.
16   Там же.
17   Там же.

культурный контекст, то можно подчеркнуть определения понятий «метаметафоризм» и «метаметафористы», дающихся чешскими исследователями Т. Гланца и Я. Кленьговой, составителями «Лексикона русского авангарда XX века» (2005). Метаметафористы, по их мнению, представляют собой группу, в 1980-ых годах сформировавшуюся вокруг поэта и теоретика К. Кедрова, считающегося ее основоположником. Понятие «метаметафора» не было точно определено. Они отмечают, что К. Кедров описывает его как психическое состояние, когда вселенная кажется собственным телом и тело простирается в космосе. Вероятнее всего, такое переживание он отметил впервые в 1958 году, позже его назвал русско-английским выражением «инсайдаут» и объявил, что именно это является метаметафорой (термин он относит к 1982 году, ему предшествовало выражение «мистериальная метафора», а на официальных местах использовалось также описание «метафора периода теории относительности Эйнштейна»)[18].

К следующим представителям поэзии метаметафоризма составители «Лексикона» относят Александра Еременко, Ивана Жданова и Алексея Парщикова. Они также подчеркивают, что наиболее яркое определение метаметафоры нашел К. Кедров в «Евангелии от Фомы», рассказывающем о том, кто сделает единственное многим и многое единственным, верх низом и низ верхом, внутреннее внешним и внешнее внутренним и войдет в Царство небесное.[19]

Насколько нам известно, определение «метаметафоризма» в словацком литературном контексте пока отсутствует. Но стоит отметить, что авторы первого словацкого издания истории Русской литературы XVIII – XXI вв. (*Ruská literatúra 18. – 21. storočia,* 2013) в связи с поэзией Ивана Жданова выбирают термин «необарокко», что

сигнализирует даже само название статьи в этой книге: «Возвращение модернизма в стиле необарокко». Определение современного литературного течения «необарокко» здесь дается на фоне сравнения с концептуализмом следующим образом: пока концептуализм исходит в первую очередь из традиции ОБЭРИУ[20], необарокко тяготеет к новой эстетической реальности, т. е. к эстетике В. Набокова. Авторы уточняют, что для концептуализма типична деконструкция и устранение мифа культурных знаков и языка, а необарокко старается, скорее всего, «воскресить» культурные руины и фрагменты. На основе таких оппозиций они отмечают, что концептуализм в большей степени тяготеет к авангарду, необарокко – к модернизму. По мнению исследователей, их общей чертой является факт, что обе тенденции начали формироваться приблизительно в одно и то же время в андерграунде и самиздате как оппозиция официальной литературы.[21]

На основе вышеизложенного можно сделать вывод, что понятия «метаметафоризм» и «метаметафористы» представляют собой актуальный предмет литературоведческого исследования, который в наших условиях нуждается в более детальном наблюдении. Мы поддерживаем мнение М. Шатуновского о том, что метаметафористы породили «нечто, запомнившееся своей сложностью, граничащей с непроницаемостью, которая в чём-то компенсировалась фееричностью генерируемых метафор»[22]. Можно утверждать, что именно из-за сложности и разнообразия этой метаметафористской поэзии движение «метаметафористов» (или же «метареалистов») явилось значительным этапом в развитии современной русской поэзии.

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18 GLANC, T. – KLEŇHOVÁ, J.: *Lexikon ruských avantgard 20. století.* Praha: Libri, 2005, с. 196. ISBN 80-7277-259-7.
19 Там же.

20 Стоит отметить, что В. Брусницин в своей книге «Практика» тоже назвал так называемых метаметафористов последователями «обэриутов». БРУСНИЦИН, В.: Практика. [Дата обращения: 2017-10-2]. Доступно в Интернете: https://books.goo-gle.sk/books

21 LORKOVÁ, Z. – POSOKHIN, I.: Návrat modernizmu v neobarokovom štýle. In: *Ruská literatúra 18. – 21. storočia.* Bratislava: VEDA – Ústav svetovej literatúry SAV – Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Komenského, 2013, s. 209–210. ISBN 978-80-224-1344-2

22 ШАТУНОВСКИЙ, М.А.: АБСОЛЮТИЗАЦИЯ КАРТ И ПАЗЛ РЕАЛЬНОСТИ. IN: ВОЗДУХ. 2010, № 2. [ДАТА ОБРАЩЕНИЯ: 2017-10-2]. ДОСТУПНО В ИНТЕРНЕТЕ: HTTP://WWW.LITKARTA.RU/PROJECTS/VOZDUKH/ISSUES/2010-2/SHATU-NOVSKY/

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LINGUISTISCHE ASPEKTE DER DEUTSCHEN SPRACHE ALS VERHANDLUNGSSPRACHE

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Abstrakt

Über den Charakter der deutschen Verhandlungssprache ist nicht viel geschrieben worden, obwohl es einen Bereich mit einem wachsendem Potenzial darstellt. Die Sprache der Verhandlungen wird bei solchen Begegnungen gebraucht, wo Sachverhalte geäußert werden, wobei sie sich in ihrem heutigen Gebrauch nicht nur auf Gerichtsverhandlungen abgrenzt. Die Verhandlungssprache weist auf einige Funktionsbereiche hin, wobei ihr schwerwiegender Anwendungsbereich im Wirtschafts- und Geschäftsleben zu finden ist. Unter der Berücksichtigung eines interkulturellen Umfeldes geht es um eine Sprache der internationalen Geschäftstätigkeit. Der Artikel beschäftigt sich mit der Entwicklung der deutschen Verhandlungssprache, wobei er die Entstehung der gegenwärtigen Form in den Mittelpunkt stellt. Die Verhandlungssprache wird einer ausführlichen Analyse mit Bezug auf Fachsprache und Standardsprache unterzogen. Um den fachsprachlichen Charakter der Verhandlungssprache begründen zu können, wird mit der Einführung in die Problematik, mit der Feststellung der Beziehungen zwischen der Fach- und Verhandlungssprache begonnen. Anschließend werden einige Bestimmungsfaktoren der Fachsprache überprüft, wobei die Aufmerksamkeit auf die Funktionen der Fachsprache und die Analyse der morphologischen und syntaktischen Aspekte gelenkt wird. Schließlich wird der standardsprachliche Zug der gesamten deutschen Sprache in Betracht gezogen, weil nicht alle Varietäten der gesamten deutschen Sprache über standardsprachliche Besonderheiten verfügen müssen. Es wird der Frage nachgegangen, ob die einzelnen Formen der deutschen Sprache, also die Fachsprache, die Gemeinsprache und die Standardsprache, einen Einfluss, und welchen, auf die Verhandlungssprache haben.

Schlüsselworte:
Standardsprache, Gemeinsprache, Fachsprache, Verhandlungssprache

Einleitung

Die Anfänge der gegenwärtigen Verhandlungssprache Deutsch fallen in das 16. Jahrhundert, wo sich die Sprache der Verhandlungen auf die Sprache des Gerichtes abgrenzte. Es ist bekannt, dass die allerersten Erscheinungsformen der Sprache des Handels sich mit der Gründung deutscher Hansestädte im Nord- und Ostseeraum entwickelten. Unsere Aufmerksamkeit wird auf die schriftlichen Beweise in dem Entwicklungsprozess von (Ver-) Handlungen gelenkt. Es steht fest, dass die von uns betrachtete Verhandlungssprache als Mittel geschäftlicher Kommunikation dient, die jedoch derzeit mehrere Bereiche des Geschäfts- und Wirtschaftslebens umfasste. Die ersten Formen der deutschen Verhandlungssprache entstanden durch die Wiedergabe von Personenreden, indem die Schreiber jedem Sprecher eine andere Schreibweise zuwiesen. Besonders wichtige Stellen dieser Redewiedergaben waren die Kanzleiorte, wo die Protokollanten einen entsprechenden Wechsel der Sprache mit der Änderung der Person vornahmen. Zum Vertreter der Redewiedergaben wurde der Lübecker Sekretär Johann Engelstede, der in den Gerichtsprotokollen die Aussprachen vom Mittelniederdeutschen zu einer hochdeutschen Ausgleichsprache umwandelte. Sein Amtsnachfolger Pöpping setzte dieses Verfahren über weitere zehn Jahre fort. Einen auf die Entwicklung der gesprochenen Sprache Bezug nehmenden Beleg der Redewiedergaben stellte zu dieser Zeit auch das Duisburger Gerichtsbuch dar. Das Duisburger Gerichtsbuch wies nach, dass die Texte der Mündlichkeit entsprachen und die Sprache im Gebrauch auf zwei Schichten innerhalb der Stadt aufgeteilt wurden. Der Staatssekretär aus Duisburg erfasste eine Protokollierung von Verhandlungen auf über 1000 Seiten und zwei Instanzen. Es handelte sich um das städtische Hochgericht und das Vogtgericht, wo verschiedene Schichten der Gesellschaft auftraten (Berthele et al, 2003). Auf dem Hochgericht erschien die oberste Schicht und vor dem Vogtgericht trat die Mittelschicht vor, wo sich Hausbesitzer und Ratsdörfer zusammenschlossen. Die Eintragung der Verhandlungssprache erfolgte in den nächsten 30 Jahren unverändert und wies auf die Vielfältigkeit der Verhandlungssprachen beider Schichten hin. Es konnte im ersten Jahrzehnt festgestellt werden, dass sich die Sprachen besonders ähnelten. Dieses Phänomen ist dadurch zu erklären, dass die damaligen Textauswertungen darauf hinwiesen, dass das Hochgericht bei der Protokollierung Entlehnungen in einem großen Ausmaß aus dem südlichen Wortschatz verwendete. Seit dieser Zeit kam es zu einer Entwicklung der deutschen Verhandlungssprache, die nicht mehr durch die Annäherung beider Sprachnormen, sondern mit dem Prozess der Anreicherung durch Entlehnungen charakterisiert werden kann. Diese Entwicklung bezieht sich auf die Sprache des Hochgerichts, wobei ein Übergang von den süddeutschen Varianten zu den westmitteldeutschen zu betrachten ist. In der Mitte des 19. Jahrhunderts wurden sprachwissenschaftliche Untersuchungen in dem deutschsprachigen Raum durchgeführt, die sich mit der Sprache der Gewerbe, der Betriebe und der Wirtschaft befassten.

Wissenschaftliche Ansätze zum Wirtschaftsdeutschen

Die nach dem Ersten Weltkrieg entstandene linguistische Disziplin, die Wirtschaftslinguistik, beschäftigte sich mit der Herkunft der aus der wirtschaftlichen Umgebung stammenden Wörter. Die Forschungen umfassten überwiegend Bereiche des Handels, des Verkehrs und des Geldwesens. Mittels mittelalterlicher deutschsprachiger Quellen wurde die Entwicklungsgeschichte der Wörter, der Sprache des Rechtes und Gewerbes, bis hin zur Sprache der Gegenwart wiederhergestellt. Nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg widmete sich die Linguistik der Erforschung von Berufssprachen nur gelegentlich. Im Rahmen der vereinzelten Untersuchungen wurden überwiegend die Ausdrucksstrukturen in den Vordergrund gebracht. Artikel aus der wirtschaftlichen Presse wurden mit den Texten aus dem alltäglichen Leben verglichen. Das Ziel bestand in der Feststellung grammatischer Besonderheiten der Sprache des Berufes. Der Begriff Wirtschaftslinguistik bzw. Wirtschaftskommunikation kommt nach der Definition von G. Brünner sehr umfassend vor, da seiner Meinung nach die wirtschaftliche Kommunikation einen hohen Prozentsatz dessen ausmachen dürfte, was überhaupt an Kommunikation in der Gesellschaft stattfindet (Habschied, 2011, S. 491). Definitionsgemäß wird es bedeuten, dass die Wirtschaftskommunikation alle Arten der institutionellen Kommunikation, den Kontakt zwischen Organisationen, Unternehmen, Behörden, Bildungsstätten und Berufen zusammenfassen sollte. Heutzutage wird die Bezeichnung Wirtschaftskommunikation mit dem Begriff Unternehmenskommunikation immer öfter synonymisch verwendet. Auf der anderen Seite wird der Zusammenhang zwischen der Wirtschaftssprache und der Fachsprache und deren synonymischer Anwendung nicht ausgeschlossen. Eine große Rolle bei der internationalen Wirtschaftskommunikation spielen Fremdsprachenkenntnisse und - Kompetenzen der Handelspartner. Es steht fest, dass die kommunikativen Fähigkeiten und Kompetenzen zur Erreichung der wirtschaftlichen Ziele von immenser Bedeutung sind. Ein Anspruch an die internationale und somit interkulturelle Wirtschaftskommunikation in der Globalisierungsepoche und der Bildung einer multikulturellen Gesellschaft stellt wechselseitige Kulturkenntnis dar, verbunden mit Verständnis und Wertschätzung der anderen Kultur. Nach Ax (1997) muss interkulturelles Verständnis gesichert werden, weil jede Kultur spezifische Eigenheiten sprachlicher und kommunikativer Art aufweist. Hinsichtlich dieser Tatsache steht hier seine Forderung nach einer sogenannten Interkulturkunde. Wie er weiter beschreibt, „(...) *muss das Ziel der Interkulturkunde die Herausarbeitung kulturell signifikanter Erscheinungen in der Praxis internationaler Beziehungen sein, die das Verstehen und die Verständigung über kulturelle Grenzen hinweg ermöglichen* (Ax, 1997, S. 29). Mit der Globalisierung hängt das Problem des Produktabsatzes auf dem Weltwirtschaftsmarkt zusammen. Wer für seine Produkte in fremden Kulturen einen absatzfähigen Markt schaffen will, ist auf deren sprachliche Kenntnisse angewiesen. Im Bereich der Unternehmenskultur zeigen sich Forderungen der interkulturellen Wirtschaftskommunikation im Bereich der Wettbewerbsfähigkeit. Wie jede menschliche Kultur spezifische, auch spezifisch sprachliche, Charakteristika besitzt, so weist auch jedes Unternehmen sprachliche Eigen- und Besonderheiten auf. *„Für jede Gesellschaft (...) ist die Kommunikation eine maßgebliche Grundlage innerhalb ihres sozialen Umfeldes (...). Diese Kommunikationsprozesse sind kulturgebunden, d.h., immer auch Ausdruck der charakteristischen Kultur. Genauso ist auch ein Unternehmen eingebettet in das kulturelle Gefüge einer Gesellschaft (...). Es ist selbst ein soziokulturelles Gebilde, das durch sein sprachliches und kommunikatives Verhalten soziale und kulturelle Beziehungen zu seiner Umkultur herstellt"* (Hansen, 1997, S. 107).

Der Forschungszeitraum von Wirtschaftslinguistik reicht etwa von 1920 bis 1939. Es bestehen drei Ausprägungen (Richtungen), die sich mit der Wechselwirkung zwischen Sprachwandel und Wirtschaftsentwicklung sowie der Kulturverständigung (historisierende Wirtschaftslinguistik), der Erschei-

nungsform der Wirtschaftssprache in spezifischen Ausprägungen der kaufmännischen Sprache *(Wirtschaftsgermanistik)* als auch der *Gesamtsprache* (strukturell-funktionale *Wirtschaftslinguistik*) beschäftigen.

Historisierende *Wirtschaftslinguistik* entstand um 1850 und ist vor allem mit dem Namen Ewald Eberhard Johannes Messing verbunden. Sie entwickelte sich weniger aus sprachwissenschaftlichem Interesse, sondern aus den gegebenen politischen, wirtschaftlichen und soziokulturellen Gegebenheiten. Im 19. Jahrhundert nahm der Welthandel zu und stieg die Notwendigkeit von Fremdsprachenkenntnissen zu dessen Abwicklung. Nach Auffassung der Wirtschaftslinguisten dieser Richtung gestattet die intime Kenntnis der Sprache des jeweiligen Handelspartners Einblick in dessen Denkweise und kulturelle Charakteristika, da die Sprache die Vorstellungen der Menschen in Worte fasst und ihre Denkart auf diese Weise widerspiegelt. (vgl. Messing (Hg.), 1932, 6). Wirtschaftslinguisten wollen spezifische Spracherscheinungen in Verknüpfung mit wirtschaftlichen Entwicklungen untersuchen. Außerdem ist für sie von Bedeutung, dass unterschiedliche Kommunikationssituationen unterschiedliche Spracherscheinungen hervorrufen. Sie thematisieren einzelne Sprachfunktionen und die soziale Schichtung der Sprache, was die Terminologielehre beschäftigt.

Der Zweig *Wirtschaftsgermanistik* wurde von dem Prager Germanistik-Professor Hugo Siebenschein in den 1930er Jahren gegründet. Er untersucht in seinen Werken die gegenseitige Beeinflussung von Literatur- und Wirtschaftssprache und die Ausprägungen des kaufmännischen Wortschatzes. Nach Krzysztof Nycz stellt die Wirtschaftsgermanistik eine Forschungsrichtung dar, die die Erkenntnisse einer konkreten geisteswissenschaftlichen (linguistischen) Disziplin – der Germanistik – mit einem praktischen Tätigkeitsbereich – der Wirtschaft – verknüpft (2009, 24). Die Vorgehensweise Siebenscheins ist hauptsächlich etymologisch und historisch bestimmt. In seinen *Abhandlungen zur Wirtschaftsgermanistik* beschäftigt er sich unter anderem auch mit spezifischen Formumgebungen der Spracherscheinungen kaufmännischen Inhalts (1936).

Die strukturell-funktionale *Wirtschaftslinguistik*, die sich seit Anfang der 1930er Jahre in Prag entwickelte, und vor allem durch Čada, Vančura und Kopeckij repräsentiert wird, versteht Sprache als funktionierendes Kommunikationsmittel. Bußmann ergänzt dazu, dass sie mit der wissenschaftlichen Methode des Funktionalismus beschrieben wird (2002).

In diesem Zusammenhang ist Wirtschaftssprache eine Funktionssprache, die zweckgebunden ist und der Erfüllung spezieller Sprachbedürfnisse dient.

Die Wirtschaftslinguistik und – germanistik erfuhren mit dem Zweiten Weltkrieg einen Abbruch und wurden danach nicht fortgesetzt. Erst zu Beginn der 1970er Jahre setzten wieder Untersuchungen zur Wirtschaftssprache ein, diese sind jedoch ganz anders ausgerichtet als Wirtschaftslinguistik und – germanistik und zeigen eine Menge unterschiedlicher Interessen und Tendenzen. Der Fokus liegt auf den Untersuchungen zu Syntax und Morphologie, zur Sprachdidaktik, besonders Arbeiten zum Wirtschaftsdeutschen als Fremdsprache, sowie zur Betriebslinguistik (unternehmensinterne und – externe Kommunikation), wie Hundt (1995) unterstreicht. Die neueren Arbeiten knüpfen nicht an diejenigen aus der Zeit vor dem Zweiten Weltkrieg an, obwohl die zweite Forschungsperiode zur Wirtschaftssprache immer wieder als Fortführung der ersten gesehen wird, was z. B. Heribert Picht tut, indem er sagt: *„Durchaus lässt sich ein Einfluss zahlreicher grundlegender Gedanken der Wirtschaftslinguistik auf die heutige Fachkommunikations-, Fachsprachen- und Terminologieforschung feststellen"* (Picht, 1998, 340).

Verhandlungssprache mit fachsprachlichen Zügen

Bei der Erarbeitung der Problematik der deutschen Verhandlungssprache wird auf die Faktoren hingedeutet, die die Sprache der Verhandlungen bestimmen. Um das Thema bearbeiten zu können, wird mit der Bestimmung des Begriffs begonnen, wovon der Bezug auf die Fach-, Gemein- und Standardsprache abgeleitet wird. Die mündlichen und schriftlichen Aspekte der Kommunikation werden im Rahmen des Geschäftsablaufs ebenfalls berücksichtigt, wobei auf ihre Geltungsbereiche hingedeutet wird.

In Verhandlungen werden Gespräche über verschiedene Sachverhalte geführt, die dem Partner mittels sprachlicher und nichtsprachlicher Zeichen übermittelt werden. Solchermaßen stellt Verhandlungssprache eine Art Kommunikation dar, die vor allem im Geschäftsleben zum Ausdruck kommt. Sie wird durch sprachliche Zeichen und durch kulturell bedingte nonverbale Übertragungen demonstriert. Daraus ergibt sich die Hypothese, ob die Verhandlungssprache eine bestimmte Fachsprache darstellt, oder sie sich einer allgemein im Gebrauch geltenden Gemeinsprache und der gehobenen Standardsprache angleicht. Sowie im Beruf werden auch in Verhandlungen Informationen vermittelt, Vorschläge

gemacht oder eigene Einstellungen durch Anreden beeinflusst. Es kommt den Umständen entsprechend zu Ablehnungen, zur Modifikation eigener oder fremder Wünsche und Vorstellungen. Berufliche Kommunikation ist sachgebunden und anlassbezogen, d. h., sie benötigt bestimmte Verhaltensformen, die gelernt und geübt werden können. Wenn es mit der schriftlichen Kommunikation im Beruf fortgesetzt wird, kann entnommen werden, dass sie spezieller Ausdrucksmuster bedarf, die in der Gemeinsprache vermieden werden. Darüber hinaus unterscheidet sich die Sprache im Beruf und die Verhandlungssprache von der Gemeinsprache in dem Grad der Formalität. Die außersprachlichen Realitäten, die Weise des geteilten Inhalts, die jeweilige Situation (schriftlich oder mündlich) und der Status des Geschäftspartners beeinflussen die Sprache des beruflichen Kontexts (Forner/Habschied, 2006). Alle diese Komponenten sind mit dem Zusammenspiel von sprachlichen Elementen beim Geschäft mitentscheidend. Wenn sprachliche Merkmale über den Geschäftsabschluss mitentscheiden sollen, ist deren Beherrschung für eine Führungskraft besonders wichtig, da sie eine fachliche Wirkung ausüben können, behauptet Forner. Somit hat die mündliche Kommunikation einen hohen Stellenwert im Beruf, überwiegend in Führungspositionen. Es geht vor allem um die Führung der Verhandlungen, Präsentationen, Höflichkeitsformen und Konversation. Was die schriftliche Kommunikation angeht, sind Textverständnis und Redigieren von Bedeutung. Forner deutet auch darauf hin, dass die Kontaktpflege zwischen den Geschäftspartnern, Rücksichtnahme und angemessene Äußerung persönlicher Interessen und Wünsche die Grundlagen für eine erfolgreiche Partnerschaft und zukünftiges Geschäft sind. Diese Umgangsformen erfolgen nach Forner in der beruflichen Kommunikation tatsächlich in der Umgangssprache. Hiermit kommt die Gemeinsprache eines bestimmten Volkes, einer bestimmten Kultur in den Vordergrund. Nach Duden wird die Gemeinsprache als *„allgemein verwendete und allen Mitgliedern einer Sprachgemeinschaft verständliche Sprache"* charakterisiert, wobei Mundarten und Fachsprachen ausgeschlossen worden sind. Auch Patočka nimmt an, dass es keinen fachsprachlichen Text ohne die Verwendung der Gemeinsprache geben kann (Patočka, 2011/2012). Als Erklärung fügt er hinzu, dass zwar Fachsprachen zu der Anwendung von Terminologien neigen, sie wären jedoch ohne die gemeinsprachlichen Ausdrucksmittel kaum zu verstehen. Die Sichtweise Forners ist zwar nachvollziehbar, trotzdem vertreten wir die Meinung, dass umgangs-

sprachliche Formulierungen im Berufsleben, und vor allem beim Kontakt mit einem Geschäftspartner oder während Besprechungen, nicht die richtige Sprachform darstellen.

Morphologische und syntaktische Aspekte der Fachsprache in Bezug auf die Verhandlungssprache

Im Folgenden wird die Verhandlungssprache mit der Fachsprache aus der morphologischen und syntaktischen Sicht verglichen. Es wird auf weitere Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen der Fach- und Verhandlungssprache hingedeutet, wobei mit der Analyse der Morphologie begonnen wird, indem die Wortbildungsmethoden überprüft werden. Schließlich werden einige syntaktische Aspekte der Fachsprache in Betracht gezogen, um die gemeinsamen Merkmale festzustellen. Bei Fachsprachen kommen bei dem Prozess der Wortbildung überwiegend die Methoden der *Komposition, Konversion, Wortkürzung, Derivation* zum Einsatz (Patočka). Bei der *Komposition* handelt es sich um die Zusammensetzung von zwei sprachlichen Elementen, die überwiegend durch Substantive repräsentiert werden. Die an der ersten Stelle in der Verhandlungssprache vorkommenden Komposita sind Determinativkomposita, welche dadurch charakterisiert werden, dass ein Grundwort mittels eines Bestimmungswortes näher beschrieben wird, z. B. Steuererklärung, Geldübertragung, Terminänderung, Vertragsabschluss, Schadenersatz, Preisnachlass, Mengenrabat. Wortbildungen, die von Adjektiven gebildet werden, oder die Adjektive in der zweiten Reihenstelle des Wortes enthalten, kommen in der Verhandlungssprache weniger vor. Sie können jedoch, vor allem bei Produktvorstellungen, zur Geltung kommen, wie etwa schwarzrote Verpackung, hochempfindliche Produktionstechnologie, reibungslose Anwendung. Komposita mit Partizipien sind ebenfalls in der Verhandlungssprache anwesend, wobei Verbkomposita wesentlich geringer auftreten, z. B. kennenlernen. Das Vorkommen von Partizipien in zusammengesetzten Wörtern ist Normalität hauptsächlich in der schriftlichen Korrespondenz und während der Präsentationen, z. B. umsatzorientiert, erfolgsorientiert, gewinnbringend, umsatzsteigend oder marktorientiert. Die häufigsten Formen der *Derivation* im Deutschen sind Präfigierung und Suffigierung, indem neue Wörter mittels Vorsilben und Nachsilben gebildet werden. Derivation stellt einen wichtigen Teil bei der Bildung fachsprachlichen Wortschatzes dar, die bei Bedarf an Ausdrucksmitteln in Verhandlungen zum Einsatz kommt. Die meist

gebrauchten Suffixe sind: -ung, -er, -heit, -keit, die im Wesentlichen zu den am häufigsten verwendeten Suffixen der deutschen Sprache gehören. Als Beispiel werden einige Wörter aus dem umfassenden Wortschatz von Verhandlungen angeführt: Preisänderung, Gegenleistung, Lieferfristveränderung, Auftraggeber, Manager, Transportmöglichkeit, Leistungsfähigkeit, Zentraleinheit. Aus den vorliegenden Beispielen wird ersichtlich, dass eine Menge der in der Verhandlungslexik auftretenden Ausdrücke auch im Bereich der Gemein- und Standardsprache Gültigkeit finden. Daraus ergibt sich, dass eine Verbindlichkeit zwischen Fach- und Gemeinsprache auch in der Konstellation Verhandlungssprache – Gemeinsprache zu erkennen ist. Was die Präfigierung anbelangt, treten folgende Präfixe mit Bezug auf Fachsprachen auf: *un-, in-, a-, ver-, nicht-, be-, schein-, pseudo-, quasi-*. Von den genannten Präfixen, ausgenommen nicht-, schein-, pseudo- und quasi-, sind alle auch in der Verhandlungssprache ersichtlich. Bei manchen ist ihr fachsprachlicher Ursprung gut erkennbar: Inkorporation, asymmetrisch, Unkosten, unwiderruflich, unlogisch, unerfüllt, Verabredung, Verzögerung, Verhandlung, Bestellung, Beleg. Zu den weiteren Merkmalen der Morphologie der Fachsprachen gehören *Konversion und Abkürzungen*. Unter Konversion wird die Übertragung in eine andere Wortart (betrifft Substantivierung des Infinitivs oder der Partizipien) verstanden, wobei keine Wortbildungsmittel genutzt werden, z. B. Beteiligte, Vorsitzende, das Verfahren, aus Versehen, beim Arbeiten. Patočka nimmt an, dass diese Art der Wortbildungsmöglichkeiten in den Fachsprachen sehr populär ist. Abkürzungen im Rahmen von Verhandlungen betreffen vor allem die schriftliche Kommunikation zwischen den beteiligten Kommunikationspartnern und die Handelskorrespondenz, wie z. B. i. A. (im Auftrag), i. V. (in Vertretung), a. D. (außer Dienst), IHK (Industrie- und Handelskammer), EU-Kommission, Lfg. (Lieferung), zzgl (zuzüglich), b.w. (bitte wenden), f. d. r. (für die Richtigkeit). Die wissenschaftliche Disziplin der Syntax beinhaltet nach Hahn drei Spezifika der Fachsprachen: *Anonymisierung, explizite Spezifizierung und Kondensierung* (Patočka). Von den drei erwähnten Merkmalen sind für die Verhandlungssprache nur zwei relevant, da explizite Spezifizierung im Feld der Verhandlungssprache nur mangelnden Beweis erbringen kann. Ganz im Gegenteil macht sich die Kondensierung durch einige ihre Mittel erkennbar. In Anbetracht der Kondensierung können Beispiele für Nominalisierung und Funktionsverbgefüge in der Verhandlungssprache entdeckt werden. Bei der Nominalisierung handelt es sich um

die Einführung neuer Wörter, indem Verben zu Nomen umgewandelt werden, z. B. die Produkte abnehmen – die Produktabnahme, den Preis ändern – die Preisänderung oder den Vertrag schließen – der Vertragsabschluss. Das andere in der Sprache der Verhandlungen vorkommende Mittel der Kondensierung ist durch zahlreiche Funktionsverbgefüge vertreten, z. B. Ansprüche stellen, etwas zur Verfügung stellen, mit jemandem in Verbindung stehen, in Gang setzen, Gespräche führen, in Kauf nehmen oder Entscheidung treffen. Im Rahmen der Anonymisierung wird die Entpersönlichung des Subjekts ausgedrückt, wobei der Gebrauch von Passivformen, Nominalisierungen und Formulierungen mit „man" im Vordergrund steht. Die Verwendung *des Vorgangs- und Zustandspassivs ist in der Verhandlungssprache ebenfalls zum Gebrauch* gemacht worden. Laut Buscha und Linthout finden Anonymisierungen ihren Verwendungszweck in Produktbeschreibungen, wo das Ziel darin besteht, eine sachbezogene und unpersönliche Ausdrucksweise behalten zu können (2000). Forner argumentiert, dass es sich bei den Fachsprachen um einen bestimmten Sprachstil oder um eine Sprachvariante handelt, wobei er der Fachsprache eine fachliche Funktion zuschreibt, die in der Verwendung besonderer fachsprachlichen Merkmale besteht. Er führt die folgenden Merkmale der Fachsprache an: die Verwendung von Relationsverben und Analytismen, Nominalisierung und Adjektivierung, wobei das Phänomen der Adjektivierung überwiegend in der Mathematik oder in Naturwissenschaften vorkommt.

Pragmatische Funktionen der Fachsprache mit Bezug auf die Verhandlungssprache

Ausgehend aus den pragmatischen Funktionen der Fachsprachen wird im Weiteren auf den Grad der Verwandtschaft der Fach- und Verhandlungssprache hingedeutet. Es gibt nach Möhn und Pelka (Patocka) sieben pragmatische Funktionen der Fachsprachen. *Die deskriptive Funktion* besteht in der Übermittlung des Sachverhaltes. Dieses Merkmal ist leicht auch im Falle der Verhandlungssprache anwendbar. Ein Protokoll berichtet über das Verhandelte, wobei keine subjektiven Einstellungen des Verfassers zum Ausdruck kommen. Im Protokoll darf nur das zusammengefasst werden, was während der Verhandlung entschieden wurde. Bei *der direktiven Funktion* handelt es sich um eine Reihe von Aufforderungen, die zu befolgen sind. Sie können als Richtlinien für Individuen verstanden werden. Aus fachsprachlicher Sicht

geht es z. B. um Gesetzestexte, militärische Befehle, wobei die Funktion des Vertrages in Verhandlungen prinzipiell gleich ist. In einem Vertrag werden „Befehle" in Form von Bestimmungen festgestellt, die von den Verhandlungspartnern einzuhalten sind, andernfalls werden die Kooperationsmaßnahmen verletzt und das Geschäft nicht abgewickelt. *Die instruktive Funktion* bezieht sich auf die Einhaltung bestimmter Handlungsweisen, die die menschliche Handlung erleichtern können, z. B. Anleitungen oder Gebrauchsanweisungen. Die instruktive Funktion lässt sich im Rahmen der Verhandlungssprache als Verhaltensbefehle des Partners verstehen. Diese Anordnungen kommen in einer Menge von ungeschriebenen Regeln des richtigen Verhaltens zum Ausdruck, z. B. die Regeln des menschlichen Umgangs, Etikette, kulturspezifische Gegebenheiten oder Entschlüsselung nonverbaler Signale. *Die kontaktive Funktion* der Fachsprache wird dadurch erklärt, dass gemäß dieser Funktion soziale Kontakte (Beziehungen) zustande kommen. Dem zufolge werden Small Talk oder Postkarte als Beispiele angeführt. Diese Funktion kommt zweifelsohne auch bei den Verhandlungen zum Ausdruck. Der Small Talk stellt einen undenkbaren Bestandteil der Aufwärmphase dar, womit das „Eis" zwischen den Partnern gebrochen wird. Ebenfalls kann der Visitenkartenaustausch ein angenehmes Klima am Anfang der Verhandlung schaffen, indem sich die Partner gegenseitig Respekt und Interesse zeigen. *Die metalinguale Funktion* der Fachsprachen umfasst Wörterbücher und sprachliche Kodexe, die in der Verhandlungssprache nicht zu finden sind. Die letzten zwei Funktionen, *die expressive und die isolative Funktion*, stellen Funktionsbereiche dar, die bei der Sprache der Verhandlungen nicht offenbar zu erkennen sind. Bei der expressiven Funktion wird der Sachverhalt mittels subjektiver Einstellungen erfasst, wobei die isolative Funktion eine gruppenbezogene Verständlichkeit vermutet. Expressive Ausdrucksweisen sind sowohl in der schriftlichen als auch in der mündlichen Form aus der Seite des Partners nicht auszuschließen, jedoch ist das Anliegen einer Verhandlung, Sachverhalte zugunsten des Geschäfts zu besprechen und individuelle Sichtweisen beiseite zu legen. Die von den Partnern gehandelten Sachverhalte betreffen die ganze Belegschaft eines Unternehmens, deshalb sollten auch dessen Mitarbeiter über den möglichen zukünftigen Änderungsbedarf benachrichtigt werden. Ausgehend aus der Aussage ist die isolative Funktion der Fachsprachen im Verhandlungsbereich auch nicht zu empfehlen.

Verhandlungssprache mit Bezug auf die Standardsprache

Die Erforschung standardsprachlicher Varietäten der deutschen Sprache stützt sich auf die Erfassung, dass die Anwendung der Verhandlungssprache einen richtigen und korrekten Sprachgebrauch voraussetzt. Aus diesem Grund spielen die nationalen Varietäten des Deutschen bei der Untersuchung der deutschen Verhandlungssprache eine ausschlaggebende Rolle. Das Hauptaugenmerk wird der Bestimmung der Standardsprache gewidmet, und dient als Grundlage für die ankommenden Analysen des deutschen, österreichischen und schweizerischen Standarddeutschen. Sprache wird in der Linguistik auch als ein gesellschaftliches Sprachsystem bezeichnet. Außerdem verkörpert Sprache ein kodifiziertes Gebilde einer Nation, deren Funktion in der Erfüllung der kommunikativen Ansprüche einer Sprachgemeinschaft besteht. Ammon erwähnt, dass aus dieser Betrachtungsweise die deutsche Sprache in zwei Formen erfasst werden kann: Sprache als eine Standardvarietät, wobei alle nicht standardisierten Varietäten der deutschen Gesamtsprache ausgeschlossen sind oder als Standardvarietät inbegriffen allen nicht standardisierten Varietäten der deutschen Gesamtsprache (1995). Bei einem „Standard" handelt es sich um eine Art der Sprache, deren Einzigartigkeiten in Wörterbüchern und Grammatiken als Norm aufgezeichnet werden und die bewusst gelernt werden können. Dieses sprachliche Konstrukt wird in dem gängigen Kontakt von einer Mehrheit der Sprachbenutzer zwar weniger verwendet, jedoch stellt sie bei einer Reihe von alltäglichen Situationen den Bestandteil der Kommunikation dar. Der Standardisierungsprozess wird in vier Schritten durchgeführt. Zuerst müssen Texte gestaltet werden, die dann unter der Sprachgemeinschaft verbreitet werden. Die Voraussetzung bei den entstandenen Texten ist, dass sie wissenschaftlich von Linguisten untersucht und anerkannt werden. Letztlich werden die entwickelten Texte in Schulen unterrichtet. Nach Arning dient Standardsprache als *„überregionale Verkehrssprache (...) zur Verständigung zwischen Angehörigen verschiedener sozialer Gruppen (...), die ihrerseits die Standardsprache um Fach- oder Milieusprachen erweitern"* (2011 online). Aus dieser Aussage wird die Beziehung zwischen der Standard- und Fachsprache ersichtlich. Die Beherrschung standardsprachlicher Normen stellt in dem Wirtschaftsleben eine Tatsache dar. Der grenzübergreifende Handels- und Geschäftsverkehr zwischen den deutschsprachigen Ländern bedarf des Kennens der Hochsprache, da sie eine gehobene Art der Kommunikation verdeutlicht und die

tatsächliche Gesprächsführung zwischen den Angehörigen des Raumes erleichtert. Darüber hinaus deutet die Verwendung der Standardsprachen nicht nur auf die Seriosität des Partners hin, sondern sie kann auch die potentiellen aus der gegenseitigen Kommunikation resultierenden Missverständnisse vermindern. Geschäftsbegegnungen und Verhandlungen kommen aus dem Grunde zustande, damit Ideen auf beiden Seiten mit der Absicht, gegenseitigen Nutzen und das vorausgesetzte Ziel bestmöglich umzusetzen, besprochen und implementiert werden können. Die Besprechung von Geschäftsbedingungen sollte keinesfalls in der Umgangssprache stattfinden. Wichtig ist vor allem der Gebrauch von lexikalischen Varianten, die für die fachliche Atmosphäre der Verhandlungen geeignet sind. Allerdings müssen auch die bestehenden Verträge in der angemessenen Schriftsprache gefasst werden. Auch die eventuelle Protokollierung der laufenden Verhandlung muss in einer der Standardsprache entsprechenden Form erfolgen.

Fazit

In dem Artikel wird Einiges, was charakteristische Merkmale der deutschen Verhandlungssprache betrifft, ersichtlich. Durch die Entwicklungsgeschichte der deutschen Verhandlungssprache wurden bereits Bemühungen um die Standardisierung der deutschen Sprache gemacht, weil die Sprache der Gerichte von den gesellschaftlichen Schichten abhängte. Über die Entwicklung der im heutigen Sinne gebrauchten Verhandlungssprache ist erst seit dem 19. Jahrhundert zu sprechen. Die ersten Andeutungen auf Fachsprachen hinsichtlich der Verhandlungssprache sind bereits in dem 19. Jahrhundert bei der Erforschung der Berufssprache gemacht worden. Es konnte der Zusammenhang zwischen der Fach- und Verhandlungssprache entdeckt werden. Bezüglich der spezifischen Merkmale der Fachsprache konnte festgestellt werden, dass Fachsprachen ohne die Existenz und den Einfluss der Standardsprache nicht existieren können. Der fachsprachliche Charakter der Verhandlungssprache ist mittels der Zusammenhänge hinsichtlich der pragmatischen Funktion, der Morphologie und Syntax deutlich gemacht worden. Es ist gelungen, die Hypothese über die Existenz gegenseitiger Gemeinsamkeiten zu bewähren. Aus den sieben angeführten pragmatischen Funktionen der Fachsprachen sind vier auf die Sprache der Verhandlungen anwendbar. Die deskriptive und direktive Funktion lassen sich in den schriftlichen Darstellungen erkennen, dagegen werden die instruktive und kontaktive Funktion in der mündlichen Kommunikation zum Ausdruck gebracht. Der Untersuchung von morphologischen Aspekten der Fach- und Verhandlungssprache kann entnommen werden, dass die Gleichartigkeit der zwei Sprachformen auch in den gemeinsamen Wortbildungsformen zu entdecken ist. In der Verhandlungssprache werden die gleichen Wortbildungsmethoden, die in der Fachsprache üblich sind, genutzt. Diese betreffen Komposita, Derivation, Konversion und Wortkürzung. Aus der syntaktischen Sicht sind Anonymisierung, Kondensierung, Analytismen und Relationsverben üblich. Zu den Mitteln der Kondensierung gehört der Gebrauch von Funktionsverbgefügen und Nominalisierungen. Deshalb kann angenommen werden, dass die oben angeführten Argumente eine Reihe von Faktoren darstellen, worauf sich die Überlegungen von dem fachlichen Charakter der Sprache der Verhandlungen stützen können.

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THE TYPES OF ERRORS AND THEIR CAUSES IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS

JÁN KERESTY

Abstract

The object of this paper is to make a brief insight into the field of language learning process from the point of view of errors. We draw attention to the errors that foreign language learners commit in general. We point out the distinction between an error and a mistake. Further, we concentrate on the causes that lead a learner to commit an error and we enumerate several different types of errors committed in the language learning process.

Key words:
error, mistake, language learning, causes of errors, types of errors

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Introduction

In learning a foreign language the errors a learner makes indicate both the state of his/her knowledge, and the ways in which the foreign language is learnt. They serve as "tools" through which the learner discovers the rules of the target language.

Throughout the years, the importance attributed to errors followed the evolution of trends and theories on foreign language teaching and learning. In the 1950s, errors were viewed as an important factor of the learning process, yet it was the negative transfer that was mostly highlighted. According to Kesharvaz (1994), errors in language learning were severely criticised by prominent linguists of that time and it was strictly emphasized that errors in second or foreign language learning should be avoided or, if that was not possible, corrected at all costs. In the 1960s, newer approaches regarded errors as perfectly acceptable and treated them as part of a creative process on the way to the achievement of linguistic perfection and communicative meaning. In the following era, in relation to the communicative approach in language learning, a more balanced perspective has emerged according to which the errors in language learning are considered as important elements that can't be avoided nor criticised. In the present days, errors are no longer seen as signs of failure that have to be prevented, avoided and eradicated, but are rather considered as signs of developmental processes that are a part of the language learning process.

Corder (1967) argues that: "Errors are significant in three different ways. First, to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has for testing his hypotheses about the nature of the language he is learning."

Differences between Errors and Mistakes

Not all the errors are of the same kind. Distinction has to be done between the learner's mistakes, i.e. the errors of performance which are random, and the true errors which systematically appear with all the learners at approximately the same stages of the foreign language development.

Not every mistake can be considered to be an error. When speaking or writing in our first language, we make such mistakes as well. These are caused by various factors such as our tiredness, physical and mental states, tongue slips, twists and lapses and various psychological conditions such as stress, strong emotion, fear, joy, busyness, non-concentration, etc. They are random errors and do not mean that we are unable to speak our language correctly. As well as if they appear in a foreign language, in the first language too, we are immediately aware of them when they occur and can correct them. But we do not always do that, for we are not forced to. It would not be quite right to expect the learner of a second language not to make such mistakes, moreover, if we consider that, apart from the external factors mentioned above, the learners usually get themselves under some kind of more pressure just because they try to speak with no mistakes.

In an opposition to mistakes stand the true errors. These are the ones that mark the rules, though incorrect, that learners are obeying, the hypotheses they are testing or the strategies they are using to understand and apply those rules of the new language they are familiar with at every certain period of the second language learning and acquisition. The true errors should not be considered as problems which must be overcome, but as indicators of the learner's way of thinking. They reveal a certain system the learner is using at a particular point in the learning process and provide evidence of that system.

From what was said above it follows, that mistakes are the errors of performance and are unsystematic and whereas the true errors are the errors of competence and are systematic. This opposition of the systematic and non-systematic errors is important. As Corder (1967) puts it: "Mistakes are of no significance to the process of language learning. However, the problem of determining what is a learner's mistake and what a learner's error is one of some difficulty and involves a much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than is usually accorded them."

Corder's theory is based on the estimate that a large number of the learner's errors are related to the systems of his/her mother tongue. He underlines this by saying that "these errors are ascribed to interference from the habits of the mother tongue" but he adds that they may as well be (or rather, are) the signs of the investigation of the new language's systems (Corder 1967).

Causes of Errors

Mackey (1976, p.112) states that: "One cannot predict a person's use of language in the same way as an astronomer predicts an eclipse. If mistakes are made in a language learning one may indeed discover their causes; but one cannot say with certainty which mistakes will be made and when they will be made."

The reasons which lead to errors may be of different origin. Probably the most common reason why a learner commits an error is transferring the pattern of his/her mother tongue into the second language. Yet, the first language itself is not the only influence on second language learning. The errors can be caused by many other reasons.

Some errors result from the learner's speculations on the rules of the target language, his/her effort to use the rules of the language correctly in the stage where the volume of his/her knowledge does not allow him/her to do so. Many times, the error is due to incomplete or incorrect understanding and mastering of a certain rule. Moreover, we have to remember the fact that it is natural for the human brain to forget. And so, a certain amount of errors is due to a knowledge which was once retained but partially or completely forgotten. More courageous learners try to make use of analogy. They tend to apply the rules they are familiar with and the ones of whose usage they are sure about because they have been following them without problems, in the new contexts and situations which seem similar by their character to them. However, this sometimes works and sometimes does not.

Other errors arise from the effort to express one's ideas in a sentence which uses a "complicated" grammar (i.e. the upper level of it). The learner usually loses himself/herself in his/her sentence already in the process of uttering it and is unable to proceed. That is why he/she simply decides to finish his/her utterance "anyhow" but the most quickly possible. Such utterances usually are full of errors which are due to some of the factors mentioned above (incomplete understanding of the rules, lower level of knowledge reached etc.).

One of the very usual causes of errors is the incomplete learning. As Mackey puts it, "the learner may have "covered" the foreign pattern only in so far as he/she responds to the stimulus "different" from that of his/her language. But he/she cannot remember how it is different. So rather than halt the flow of speech he/she simply makes a wild guess, making sure not to say something similar to his/her native language" (Mackey, 1976, p.111).

Another common cause of errors in learning a foreign language is the extension by analogy of patterns one has already learned in that language. When a foreign learner of English says: *"I will have a couple of childs"*, he/she may simply be extending by analogy the regular endings of English plurals which he/she has used in the same grouping of words, *"couple of kids"*.

A very usual cause is confusion. When a Slovak learner of English says: *"on September"*, he/she is not imitating the pattern of his/her native language, since it happens to be the same as in English: *"v septembri"*, preposition *"v"* meaning, in general, *"in"*. The learner is probably simply being confused by the related struc-

tures used with the preposition *"on"* asi in *"on Monday"* or, even more probably, *"on September 15"*.

What definitely never is considered an error, a mistake or a kind of speculation about a rule is guessing of a student examined by the teacher in a class. The hesitating answers are always attributed to the student's unpreparedness or insufficient studying. It is many times true, mostly in case of children learners. But neither an adult learner can always reply to questions correctly and immediately and still, no one would suspect him/her of being unprepared. Same as an adult, a child as well can just be trying to put all the rules of the target language together exactly at the time of being examined, too. And this leads to his/her hesitating answer.

Types of Errors

There exist tens of divisions of errors that have been brought by different authors in different researches and studies. Most of them, though, usually contain the following categories: language transfer, transfer of training, learning strategy of the second language, communication strategies of the second language, overgeneralization of rules, spelling, pronunciation. We will shortly focus on each of the listed.

1. Transfer (in general) is a psychological term that is used to describe a situation where one learnt event influences the learning of a subsequent learning event. Transfer can be positive or negative. That is, a previously learnt event can either facilitate (positive transfer) or inhibit (negative transfer) the learning of a second event.

   Analogously, a language transfer refers to a situation where the learning of a skill in one language transfers to a second language. For example, learning to read in Slovak will facilitate the ability to learn to read in English with a learner who speaks Slovak and is learning English.

   On the other hand, the transfer is one of the most common reasons (if not the most common one) why a learner commits an error in the language he/she learns. It is the main source of interference of mother tongue in foreign language learning. Items and rules in the learner's version of the new language are directly traceable to the native language. In the sentence *"On the table is a book"* the structure of a Slovak sentence *"Na stole je kniha"* is used. The sentence *"I will do it even if the axes were falling down"* bears an error which is due to Slovak as the native language: the word-by-word translation of the idiomatic meaning of the Slovak saying *"Urobím to, aj keby sekery padali"* ("I will do it,

regardless of the obstacles"), which in this English form is meaningless in the context of English. Apart from that, the sentence contains a second error which is the incorrect translation of the Slovak verb *"padať"*, by the English verb *"to fall down"*. In this context, a more proper English translation would be *"to fall from the sky"*. This error, though, is not caused by the language transfer and is rather an error of incomplete learning (i.e. incomplete understanding of all the possible translations of the Slovak verb *"padať"*).

2. Transfer of training. For a learner who begins to study a language in the country of his/her origin, where the language is not currently used in everyday communication, the first foreign language interlocutor is usually his/her language teacher. The learner accepts his/her manner of speaking and tries to imitate it as he/she considers it his/her aim to speak like his/her teacher does. The errors caused by the transfer of training are directly traceable to some element in the teaching received. Thus, if the teacher permanently commits an error he/she is unaware of, the learner, who is ignorant of it, absorbs it as a norm which is used in the language. The teacher may not be realising his/her error from many reasons, the most common be that he/she himself/herself has learnt the language in this way from his/her teacher or that he/she masters the language only theoretically and has never used it in the country where it is spoken or he/she might be even a native speaker of the language who is unaware of an error which is due to his/her regional or social dialect etc.

   This type of error is very often represented by pronunciation errors which the learners make as a result of the pronunciation they received from their teachers. Such errors are usually very difficult to wean off. In the case of Slovak as the second language, for example, the voiced pronunciation of the preposition *"s"* (meaning *"with"*) when combined with the personal pronouns *"ním", "ňou", "nami", "nimi"* (him, her, us, them), i.e., *[zɲimi]*, *[znami]* etc. instead of voiceless pronunciation [sɲimi] [snami], is traceable to having been taught by a teacher who originally comes from a region of East Slovakia where this pronunciation is typical. On the other hand, the non-pronunciation of palatal sounds [ʎ] and [ɲ] and their replacement by the non-palatal sounds [l] and [n] in words like *"ľad", "ľudia", "neviem", "dnes"* etc. (ice, people, I don't know, today) can be due to having been taught by a teacher who comes from the Western Slovak regions.

3. Learning strategy of the second language. Whether

a person learns the language in a class or in the environment, he/she encounters the same problem: how to give a form to the content he/she wants to express. This is many times the biggest barrier in communication. Hence the learner tries to put his ideas using the level of the target language he masters. He/she bypasses and evades the rules he/she is not sure about and only uses the ones he is completely familiar with. Thus, the learner simplifies the target language. His/her utterances are correct but when taken as a whole text, whether spoken or written, they sound rather unnatural.

4. Communication strategies of the second language. Selinker (1972) quotes an unpublished M. A. thesis by Coulter (1968) who reports systematic errors occurring due to a tendency on the part of second language learners to avoid grammatical formatives such as articles, plural forms and past tense forms. Selinker states that this tendency could be the result of a learning strategy of simplification, but brings the opinion of Coulter who "attributes it to a communication strategy due to the past experience of the speaker which has shown him that if he thinks about grammatical processes while attempting to express in English meanings which he already has, then his speech will be hesitant and disconnected, leading native speakers to be impatient with him" (Selinker, 1972). Selinker adds that this strategy, according to Coulter, seems to dictate to the speaker "that a form such as the English plural 'is not necessary for the kind of communicating they use'" (Coulter, 1968, in Selinker, 1972).

5. Overgeneralization of rules. This is the process of extending the application of a rule to items that are excluded from it in the language norm, i.e. in cases where it doesn't apply, as when a child uses the regular past tense verb ending -*ed* of forms like *I walked* to produce forms like **I goed* or **I rided*. Another example is the overgeneralization of the *"–s plural"* where *"-s"* is either simply added with no modification of the root where it should happen, or is used instead of the irregular forms in cases like *factory – *factorys, child – *childs, tooth – *tooths*. Similarly to a child who learns the first language, a language learner also has to fight with regularisation and overgeneralization.

6. Spelling, pronunciation. The errors of pronunciation represent a great number of errors many of which lie the number of times in the grounds of misunderstanding. Their causes are numerous beginning with the language transfer, the differences in character of sounds between the mother tongue and

the target language, personal ability to pronounce certain sounds, i.e. physical predisposition and so on. In accordance with the high number of causes there is a great variety of pronunciation errors. The analogy of pronunciation errors in spoken communication are the spelling errors in the written one. These as well have all kinds of causes and types that would require a more profound study. Moreover, we cannot forget that this kind of errors is very frequent even for the native language speakers.

Conclusion

To avoid errors is impossible, to tolerate them may be unproductive but to predict and diagnose an error may be all-important. One fairly concrete result to be expected from such a prediction and diagnostics could be the promotion of the efficiency of both, teaching and learning a foreign language.

In summary, it may be argued that learners' errors should not necessarily be considered significant problems and obstacles in the context of learning a second language. Rather they can be viewed as natural elements to be dealt with through appropriate processes. In light of recent communicative approaches to language learning, errors are tolerated if communicative goals are achieved and the central points of communication are not altered.

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FEEDBACK AS AN EFFECTIVE AND USEFUL STRATEGY OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

KRZYSZTOF POLOK, KATARZYNA ROMAŃCZYK-IMIELSKA

Abstract

The study focuses on the feedback being one of the most popular motivation-enhancing strategies of formative assessment. The obtained data analysis suggests that it is an effective and useful strategy considering written forms of expression. The paper is divided into three parts. The first one presents the selected literature overview connected with formative assessment and feedback. The second one describes the research procedures, including the definition of the research, the participants and the applied methodology. Subsequently, in the final part of the paper, the data analysis and the results are presented.

Key words
formative assessment, feedback, written assignment

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1. Problem assessment

Different forms of assessment are observed to be involved in the educational sector of school environment. Although assessment activities perform a significant function in teaching and learning processes, current research in this area suggests that the traditional way of assessment should be improved[1].
The observed researches divide the phenomenon into three main categories. The first one clearly stresses effective learning. Teachers often create tests which are expected to encourage[2] students to learn new material by heart; this form of assessment activity has been found to be practically unable to develop their thinking and understanding abilities. Furthermore, many educators are unwilling to cooperate in possible discussions and/or sharing the testing methods (cf. Gondová, 2014).
The second category is focused upon the problem of negative influence of assessment. According to the research cf., marks are thought to be playing a more significant role than the very process of learning. In this way, it is thought students usually learn to get good marks rather than achieve particular skills. Moreover, they tend to compare the achieved grades among themselves all the time whereby the problem of competition appears and bad marks demotivate them (cf. Douglas, 2010, McNamara 2014).
Finally, the third group of researchers concentrates upon the function of assessment. According to the research found here, the majority of teachers do not make an attempt to analyze the marks their students have been given so as to diagnose the students' actual needs.
Following the research carried out by M. Żytko (2015), it is indicated that students are evaluated at each stage of education not only in the context of their knowledge and achievements, but also in terms of their social and emotional development. Although the assessment criteria are precise and clear, the evaluation system is often criticized. Żytko emphasizes that students are usually seen in the light of their grades and thus divided into the weak and good ones. In this way, learners are commonly associated with numbers which often do not indicate their real abilities. What is more, Żytko has noticed that a particular grade and the position in the class hierarchy may influence negatively onto the educational future of students.
Along similar lines, Laura Greenstain (2010) argues that traditionally, information about learners is gathered through summative assessment. Different types of tests are used in order to measure the researched students' achievements so as to assign a particular grade. Greenstain compares this process to a runner's race. She claims that what the grades mostly tell us about are the students' places in the competition; no information for either the learners or the teachers how to improve the learning and/or teaching practice has been provided.

2. Formative assessment

In order to enhance the quality of learners' evaluation, alternative forms of assessment are often implemented. On this account the term forma-tive assessment becomes highly popular in the recent years. M. Cauley and J. Mcmillan (2010) propose the application of formative assessment understood as an ongoing process, additionally implemented by the observations of the students as well as question-asking procedures carried out during every single lesson. They claim that effective teachers ought to make use of formative assessment during the whole teaching process not only to diagnose errors and/or other misuses of individual learners but also to provide useful feedback.
M. Cauley and H. Mcmillan describe formative assessment as a cycle. In such a process the ongoing assessment produces an ongoing feedback. The feedback is followed by instructional correctives which aim to improve the students' learning activities. Such processes are thought to enhance learners' motivation, engagement and achievements.

2.1. The role of the formative assessment

In 1998, two researchers, Paul Black and Dylan William carried out a meta-analysis of 250 studies connected with the notion of formative assessment.
As stated in the findings, P. Black and D. William (1998) emphasize the importance of formative assessment in the process of improvement of the learning standards. They claim that this form of evaluation is the heart of the teaching process. The two researchers describe the results of the studies reviewed by them, many of them conducted among different age groups and across various school subjects in several countries. According to the outcomes of the mentioned research, several conclusions were stated. First of all, it was found that the amplification of the formative assessment significantly influenced the learning improvement activities. Secondly, certain studies provided evidence that formative assessment is a helpful and effective strategy when weak students are taken into consideration. In line with the presented research it reduced the variety of learners' achievements, at the same time effectively raising their education level. Moreover, it was important to remember that the teachers' practices were found to have had an impact on the ultimate success of formative assessment. Not only did it shape the proposed forms of teaching effective learning depended on, but also – mostly due to the existing feedback – it appeared to become the essential element which was generally thought to be responsible for the improved students' results.
The analysis conducted by Black and William ap-peared to be a huge step towards the development of the formative assessment. According to the researchers, it became a stimulus allowing them to start an another project which was conducted in several schools and which was carried out with the help of forty-eight teachers of Mathematics, Natural Science and English..
The procedure and the results of the mentioned project were described in the book titled "Assessment for learning. Putting it into practice" published in 2003. The main goals of the study were to elaborate possible rules for the introduction of formative assessment in the daily teaching practice /1/ and to analyze the benefits of such an introduction /2/. Firstly, teachers participating in the study had to program and implement strategies of formative assessment in their classrooms.; secondly, they should be ready to help in the evaluation procedures connected with these operations. As far as the outcomes of the study were concerned, the research showed that the effective enhancement of formative assessment improved the results of state exams.
The researcher already mentioned by us, M. Żytko (2015) states that due to this kind of evaluation students turn themselves into more aware and active learners. Moreover, they become co-responsible for the learning process. Żytko claims that formative assessment is an essential element of conscious and efficient learning because it makes possible for learners to determine their level of achievements and the areas of knowledge that should be improved[2].
Also Greenstein (2010) compares formative assessment to a runner's training. While practicing running, a coach tries to assess the runner's abilities such as: speed and stride so as to apply necessary adjustments and workout which may help them improve the oncoming competitor's results. A similar situation can be observed in respect to the attentive application of formative assessment by the teacher; while observing the whole process of formative assessment teachers are able to assess their students' progress and decide on the necessary steps/exercises/activities which should help students' achieve the planned learning goals.
Basing on these grounds, it can be argued that formative assessment is a useful tool in the process of education (FL education included) not only for the learners but also for the teachers.

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[1] For example, the findings of P. Black, C. Harrison, C. Lee, B. Marshall and D. Wiliams (2003) lend support to the claim that many schools in Great Britain and other countries struggled with the problem of efficient assessment.

[2] Apart for the research carried out by M. Żytko, relative (and – up to a point - similar) results can be found in the researches carried out by Douglas (2010), or McNamara (2014).

In their research M. Cauley and H. Mcmillan (2010) listed down the most obvious characteristics which make formative assessment an effective tool.

First of all, formative assessment is an ongoing process which helps teachers understand various needs of their students. Secondly, formative assessment is a clear and explicit procedure that makes students aware of the current learning goals and success-aimed criteria. Additionally, the students are knowledgeable about the ways to achieve the particular and earlier-specified targets. What is more, formative assessment affords different forms of information, what evidently helps teachers enhance the learning processing regularly. Apart from that, formative assessment highly promotes students' autonomy. There are plenty of educational techniques which allow learners to use self- and/or peer- assessment; while actively practicing the procedures of formative assessment, they are highly involved in their own learning. Moreover, it provides useful, descriptive feedback which is found to become far more beneficial when compared to popular grades and/or percentages. Finally, formative assessment effectively helps discover possible weak points of the teaching process what often results in the introduction of various creative and innovate methods and techniques in their oncoming educational practice.

2.2 Elements and strategies of formative assessment

One of Polish researchers, Ewa Piotrowska (2015) describes seven elements of formative assessment which are worth mentioning here: lesson aims, success criteria, feedback, peer assessment, self assessment, key (crucial) questions and cooperation with parents.

Piotrowska compares formative assessment to a journey. During a journey, a guide's job is to monitor the trail. Thus, s/he informs the participants whether they move in the right direction, how far they are from the destination and which way to go forward. Such information are expected not only to help tourists proceed, but also to motivate them appropriately to continue their journey which may appear demanding sometimes. Similarly to the guide, the teacher gives feedback to his students. Piotrowka (2015) states that feedback is not only an essential element of formative assessment but also of the students' motivation. She claims that in the process of learning a foreign language students should be allowed to make mistakes, but also given adequate help to correct them.

Another researcher, Sterna (2014) emphasizes that effective feedback should inform learners about the good sides of their tests/written assignments. Stressing on the issues of students' motivation she claims that is it much better and much more important to recognize the students' effort rather than constantly inform them about the errors they have made, as the latter behavior may effectively discourage them from learning. Such appreciation has been generally recognized as one of the key factors which not only motivate students to develop language skills but also help them accept possible mistakes better. Thus, on the one hand feedback gives an opportunity to emphasize strong points of the students' work but, on the other one, it gives students detailed directions how to correct (and, possibly, get rid of) their errors. J. Hattie (2012) indicates that feedback remains a crucial strategy in different teaching and learning processes. According to the research carried out by him, feedback belongs to this group of factors which significantly influence students' educational achievements.

As mentioned before, positive feedback should provide information about strong and weak sides of a test and/or written assignment. However, Hattie (2012) claims that it is especially effective when the mistakes' correction activities are being performed. Mistakes should not be recognized as an evidence of a student's failure or a reason for their embarrassment. Instead of that they should be perceived as an opportunity to improve students' knowledge and reasonably create their achievements.

As it seems, following Piotrowska's and Sterna's analyses among others, an important question concerning commonly observed teachers' practice combining written test-based feedback with the pupils' numerical grades should be answered. In her research Sterna (2014) mentions an examination conducted in Israel which shows that combining the two forms of assessment does not appear to be a good solution. According to the specified research, the students who received numerical grades were not concerned with the written feedback; they started to compare their results with these obtained by other students what resulted in generally observed practice of learning for grades mostly and not in order to achieve knowledge.

In this way, anything assessed, when recognizing the numerical grade as final and impossible to change by the learners, clearly lowers its multiple positive features of formative assessment feedback in the learners' eyes. They do not consider any future work as worth getting involved in because they mostly recognize the received grades as task involvement concluding. Thus, their general level of pro-lingual motivation is generally getting down, even if they have been informed what it is to be corrected to improve their general level of FL proficiency. It is in this moment that any whatsoever (written or oral) feedback the learners can receive appears to be fully unproductive.

As FL teacher's care about their learners' pro-language motivation must remain one of the most important (and most demanding) spheres of their professional activity, it seems of interest to discover these feedback-related steps that would not only help the teacher organize appropriately the whole process of FL education, but also invite FL learners themselves to recognize these self-motivating forms of behavior that would make their own pro-language activities as fully joining these forms of FL educational proposals that have been offered by the learners. Following the planned research grounds, it is Dweck's (2003, p. 118) establishments (among others), that stress the salient function performed by (FL, among others) teachers in the whole process of FL education, when she states that it is mostly the individual internal level of the students' material internalization that is directly dependent on the teacher's relationship to the student's internalization of the said material. Knowing about one's current level of FL proficiency is one thing; quite a different one is being informed on how to get rid of the exciting inadequacies, so as to help oneself being promoted to a one-step higher FL proficiency level. However, in order to help a learner do that, a teacher must know how to organize the feedback procedures, so as to be able to help the learners let them discover the genuine FL proficiency upgrading possibility that has been opened before them. In other words, it is, appropriately designed, formative assessment-belonging feedback, that is mostly recognized (and accepted} to perform a key function, generally responsible for the whole process of pro-language target language (TL) motivation.

3. The research

The main aim of the present study is to check whether (generally understood) feedback is not only an teacher/learner effective, but also useful and motivation-enhancing strategy of formative assessment. Thus, as our study basically concentrates on the students' written and pro-language providing (and basic motivation-enhancing) involvement, the following research procedures have been established: /1/ the students can be requested to write a number of short paragraphs on the topics earlier agreed upon with the teacher; /2/ before writing the paragraphs, they are to be informed that their works will be assessed and the grades inserted into the roll-call; /3/ next, they will receive their written works corrected in a formative way; /4/ every student can be able to read the teacher's feedback, improve mistakes and rewrite the paragraphs; /5/ finally, their works can be re-collected and checked one more time.

The study has been planned to be conducted within the frames of the action research (AR) procedures, Mixed method researches, i.e. both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (observation) forms of research are expected to be used.

3.1. Participants and testing

The research has been planned to be carried out among 18 students (10 girls and 8 boys) from the third grade of the state-governed junior high school. All students are Polish and they learn English as a second language. As far as the participants are concerned, non- probability sampling was chosen. We have chosen this group of students because we were able to observe them during the obligatory six-week long students' internship. When it comes to the testing procedures, both observation and questionnaire procedures will be applied.

3.2. Procedure

The first part of the research concerns observations of twenty lessons carried out by the regular teacher, who is to implement her conventional written task assessment procedures. We are planning to complete the observational sheets of every single lesson the teacher is to deliver to the group under research. In the second part of the research i.e. when we are supposed to each, we are going to introduce the above-mentioned research procedures, as well as implement the selected strategies of formative assessment that entail the lesson aims, the success criteria and the written feedback.

The students will be informed about the lesson aims at the beginning of each classes delivered to them. Moreover, during the study, the learners are expected to write the paragraphs which will be corrected in the formative way, according to the pre-determined success criteria.

As far as the third part of the research is concerned, a Likert-scale questionnaire is planned to be carried out at the end of the research procedure in to order to compare the obtained results.

3.3. Data analysis

According to the notes collected during the observation, the regular teacher narrowly followed the selected assumptions of formative assessment while teaching English to this particular group of students. However, as far as feedback is concerned, the observation revealed that the students did not receive positive feedback from the regular teacher.

Taking into consideration the final purpose of the study, we focused on the way the written assignments were handed to the students. When it comes to the evaluation method of the assignments, the regular teacher always corrected students' mistakes and highlighted them in red. Thereupon, the students received the assessed paragraphs without any additional comments. What is more, the learners got their written papers at the end of the lesson; therefore, in most cases they were not even able to familiarize themselves with mistakes. Additionally, it is important to emphasize that during the whole observation period the regular teacher set and corrected three different pieces of written assignments as we also wanted to introduce the same number of assignments during the second part of the research i.e. when we were supposed to tech, this time however with the introduction of the formative assessment procedures..

3.4. Quantitative data analysis

The following research question formulated before the research was to find whether feedback could be a useful and effective, motivation-enhancing strategy of formative assessment when considering the written forms of expressions.

According to this research question, the following hypothesis was given: *Feedback is a useful and effective, motivation-enhancing strategy of formative assessment considering the written forms of expressions.*

In order to examine the abovementioned question, both closed and open questions from the survey were analyzed. Students had to respond to three problems we were interested in that were given 1-5 Likert scale form. The first one related to grades; we wanted to know whether students were aware of the reasons for receiving a particular grade or not. When it comes to the second question, we wondered if the learners knew what they should improve in the case they had got a bad mark. And finally, we wanted to check whether students paid (and if yes, how much) their attention to the mistakes corrected by the teacher.

The learners responded to the questions before and after the introduction of positive feedback on their written assignments. As mentioned earlier, before the implementation of formative assessment (FA) procedures, the students received only the grades (for their written assignments) without any additional feedback.

Tables 1, 2 and 3 below present the data collected at the beginning of the study, before the implementation of positive feedback procedures.

Likert-based form of assessment	No of Ss	%
1 - strongly disagree	0	0%
2 - disagree	7	39%
3 - neutral	4	22%
4 - agree	7	39%
5 - strongly agree	0	0%

Table 1. Distribution of answers before the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

Table 1 shows that 39 % of the participants agreed with the following statement: *Receiving a written assignment corrected by a teacher, I know why I have got a particular grade.* The other 39% of respondents disagreed with the claim and 22% of students were neutral.

When it comes to the second claim: *I know what I need to improve in the case of getting a bad mark,* the results are presented in Table 2. In this instance, 56% of the students disagreed with the abovementioned statement, 39% of them agreed and 5% were neutral. Due to the results, it can be said that only 39% of learners declare they know how to improve a bad mark. It follows that 56% of them do not realize how to improve their level of currently possessed knowledge. Thus, the main function of such numerical grade is categorization.

Likert-based form of assessment	No of Ss	%
1 - strongly disagree	0	0%
2 - disagree	10	56%
3 - neutral	1	5%
4 - agree	7	39%
5 - strongly agree	0	0%

Table 2. Distribution of answers before the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

As for the third statement: *After receiving a written assignment corrected by a teacher, I pay attention to the mistakes,* its outcomes are presented in Table 3. On the one hand, 5 % of the participants strongly agreed and 28% of them agreed with the claim. On the other hand, however, 56% of the learners stated that they did not pay attention to the mistakes corrected by the teacher.

Likert-based form of assessment	No of Ss	%
1 - strongly disagree	0	0%
2 - disagree	10	56%
3 - neutral	2	11%
4 - agree	5	28%
5 - strongly agree	1	5%

Table 3. Distribution of answers before the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

The same questionnaires were filled by the researched group once again, after the formative assessment procedures had been implemented. During the second part of the research, i.e. when the research participants were taught by us, they also received three paragraphs corrected by us; this time, each corrected paragraph followed the philosophy of formative assessment. The mistakes made by the students were commented upon and useful remarks on how to study to cover the existing problems were given. Each of the paragraphs re-written by the students was analyzed again (so as to discover how far they had followed the information given to them) and new grades were offered.

Tables 4, 5 and 6 illustrate the answers to the same 1-5 Likert scale the learners had answered previously. After the implementation of positive feedback, the following results were obtained. Table 4 presents the findings connected with the statement: *Receiving a written assignment corrected by a teacher, I know why I have got a particular grade.* In this case the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the claim. It is important to notice that before the introduction of formative feedback 39% of learners did not know the reason of having received a particular grade. It appears that due to the offered feedback the learners have become aware of the strong and weak sides of their written works and are able to understand the background of obtained results.

Likert-based form of assessment	No of Ss	%
1 - strongly disagree	0	0%
2 - disagree	0	0%
3 - neutral	0	0%
4 - agree	17	95%
5 - strongly agree	1	5%

Table 4. Distribution of answers after the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

Table 5. presents findings related to the claim: *I know what I need to improve in the case of getting a bad mark.* In this instance, the students also responded differently after the introduction of the feedback. 95% of learners, to a greater or lesser extent, realized how to improve the current skills, knowledge and/or grade. Such a result points out to the fact that feedback gives them the opportunity to understand their mistakes and to learn what should be improved.

Likert-based form of assessment	No of Ss	%
1- strongly disagree	0	0%
2- disagree	0	0%
3- neutral	0	0%
4- agree	15	83%
5- strongly agree	3	17%

Table 5. Distribution of answers after the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

The findings for the next statement: *After receiving a written assignment corrected by a teacher, I pay attention to the mistakes,* are presented in Table 6. As we can see, due to the application of the feedback large majority of the students started to pay their attention to the mistakes and comments written by the teacher. It is worth remembering that before the feedback implementation, 56% of the students did not pay attention to the corrected mistakes at all.

Likert-based form f assessment	No of Ss	%
1- strongly disagree	0	0%
2- disagree	0	0%
3- neutral	4	23%
4- agree	13	72%
5- strongly agree	1	5%

Table 6. Distribution of answers after the implementation of FA (own elaboration)

As for the second grading of each of the paragraphs written by the researched students, the above results clearly indicate that the final grades were generally much better and gave the students much more topical knowledge when writing them.

In order to check the statistical significance of the collected data, the paired- samples T test was conducted. Table 7 and 8 present the attained results. One can find that the mean at the beginning of the study was *2,8* and after the implementation of the feedback it was *3,9* (Table 7).

Table 8 shows that the mean difference between the variables was *-1,08*. It means that the mean increased on average *1,08* points at the end of the study. As far as the T-test outcomes are concerned, the difference between the results gathered at the beginning of the study and after the introduction of the feedback are significantly important (t = -6,193, p = ,000).

A brief questionnaire we conducted at the end of the research included an open question related to feedback and its subsequent influence upon the growth of motivation of the researched learners.. Our key idea was to examine the students' attitude towards this particular strategy of formative assessment.

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	St. Error Mean
Before the feedback implementation	2,8722	18	,80645	,19008
After the feedback implementation	3,9556	18	,30141	,07104

Table 7. Paired Samples Statistics- feedback (own elaboration)

Thus the learners were asked about their opinions and beliefs connected with the received feedback and the suggested ways of error correction. In this part of the paper we are going to discuss the students' answers.

Following the answers we received from the researched participants feedback was found to become an extremely useful strategy in respect to the assessment of written forms of assignments. Many of the students claimed that feedback gave them a chance to understand mistakes corrected by the teacher. Below are presented sample answers of some of the researched students:

Q 3: *"In my opinion feedback is great. I was able to understand all the mistakes.."*

Q 7: *"The teacher wrote me a comment and explained the rules of using different forms of greetings.",*

Q 16: *"It was easier for me to correct mistakes because the teacher did not only underline them, but also explained in the comment why I should use a different word or phrase."*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Before & After the feedback implementation	-1,08333	,74221	,17494	-1,45243	-,71424	-6,193	17	,000

Table 8. Paired Samples Test- feedback (own elaboration)

According to the philosophy of motivation-enhancing formative assessment procedures the teacher should emphasize strong sides of the students' work. It turned out, that learners also appreciated this idea:

Q 17: *"The teacher underlined errorless sentences, it was great. I had only three mistakes!"*

Q 10: *"I had some mistakes in my e-mail but many sentences were errorless"*

Q 4: *"It was great that the teacher wrote what she liked in my e-mail."*

What is more, the learners stated that teachers should use green pen to check their written assignments because they associate the red with mistakes and failures:

Q 8: *" I'm afraid of the red pen."*

Q 11: *" I associate red color with the bad grades.."*

Q 13: *" I love green color, it's better than the red one.."*

Concluding the general tenor of the info possible to be found in the analyzed questionnaires it can be stated that:

1. Due to feedback the students are aware of the strong and weak sides of their written works;
2. If necessary, learners know how to improve their skills or grades.;
3. Students pay more attention to the mistakes stressed upon by the teacher;
4. Learners reveal a highly positive attitude towards feedback;
5. The general level of learners' motivation can be found to be evidently higher; their general attitude to English has changed; they not only want to participate in the whole process, but also try to individually analyze the reasons of some of the mistakes made by them;

4. Limitations of the study

Taking into consideration the results we got, it can be stated that feedback is a useful and effective strategy of formative assessment. Not only does it give students a possibility to correct and understand mistakes, but also – mostly because of providing more topic directed knowledge – evidently help rise their attitude and internal motivation for learning English. Feedback informs learners about strong and good sides of their written assignments and emphasizes the students' small successes. We have to remember that such an appreciation is extremely important in the respect to students' motivation.

Although all the presented results are statistically significant, we have to remember that the study was conducted in the frames of the Action Research. That is why our findings cannot be generalized. It is significant to notice that the above-mentioned applied strategies turned out to be effective among a particular group of students which participated in the study.

Another limitation can be that the research was conducted by the teacher who does not usually work with this group of the students; that is why the influence of the teacher cannot be excluded as well. Furthermore, the study was carried out in a relatively small group of 18 students who mostly knew one another; such a small sample as well as the fact that they were psychically close to one another may have an impact on the results of the study.

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ENGLISH PROVERBS AND SAYINGS

ĽUBICA KURDELOVÁ

Abstract

In the English language, there are several areas that are rather difficult for students of English to master. Proverbs are often one of the constant sources of confusion and frustration.
Proverbs are a collection of clever expressions or sayings which generally exist in every language. Throughout the ages, proverbs have expressed well-known wisdom and admonition. They contain perceptive observations of everyday life, formulate/compose popular philosophy of life, and provide an insight into human behaviour and character. They survived thanks to their brevity, rhyme and rhythm which delighted human ear and helped to improve the memory. Proverbs can offer an interesting discernment into the way a culture looks at the world and the convictions people from that culture believe. The purpose of this paper is to describe and underscore the significance of proverbs in the English language.

Key words:
culture, English language, maxims, paremiology, proverbs, sayings

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Introduction

Proverbs are common phrases which express generally held beliefs or offer enlightment and mentoring about how to live. Oxford English Dictionary defines the proverbs as: "A short, traditional, and pithy saying; a concise sentence, typically metaphorical or alliterative in form, stating a general truth or piece of advice; an adage or maxim."

As many proverbs offer advisement and reflection, many of them are religious in origin.
Definig this term properly is not easy. We can mention Taylor´s (Archer) classical definition which is often quoted: The definition of a proverb is too difficult to repay the undertaking... An incommunicable quality tells us this sentence is proverbial and that one is not. Hence no definition will enable us to identify positively a sentence as proverbial". Another standard definition is from Mieder, W. (1993): „A proverb is a short, generally known sentence of the folk which contains wisdom, truth, morals, and traditional views in a metaphorical, fixed, and memorizable form and which is handed down from generation to generation".
The Concise Dictionary of Literary Terms defines this term as "popular ... found in most cultures, and are often very ancient" and Shipley describes it as a "form of folk literature". According to Cuddon, J. A. (1999) the proverb is "common to most nations and people" and Hornby, A. S. (2000) consideres it a "phrase or sentence".

Proverbs reflect problems and the attitudes of the society. Some of them are not valid anymore, because they had commented the situation at the given period (e.g. those concerning the politics), but certain themes are valid up to now. They concern mainly universal spheres - the world around us, the nature (animals, wheather, etc.), human qualities (faults, deeds) and the relationship between men and women (love, hatred). Some of the proverbs are similar or identical in several languages. This similarity stems in/from the fact that a lot of proverbs originated in Antique and Roman times, as well as plenty of proverbs can be found in The Book of Proverbs "which follows the Psalms in The Old Testament".

As for the English proverbs, they appeared mainly in English manuscripts. "The proverbial sayings ... can be found in religious manuscripts from the first half of the eight century onwards, with, occasionally; brief collections of proverbs inserted half in vernacular, the whole in Latin presumably to facilitate the teaching of Latin to a novice. But more important was the influence of the rhetoricians, who illustrated their dicta by proverbs, a fashion which spread from a narrow trickle to the wide channel of Chaucer, Gower, and Lydgate..."

English proverbs versus similar terms.

The term proverb can be often mixed with some similar expressions. Adage is "a well known phrase expressing a general truth about people or the world."or "a popular saying that has become acceptable as a truth through long use". Both of these two definitions fulfil the definition of the proverb, but the term advice is not mentioned.

- Dictum can be depicted as "a saying or utterance: sometimes used with emphasis upon the fact that it is a mere saying; but more often with the implication of a formal pronouncement claiming or carrying some authority." This term applies according to the definition to much more authoritative, official notion (probably a part of the law).

- Some people confuse proverbs with idioms but they are different. An idiom is "a form of expression, grammatical construction, phrase, etc., peculiar to a language; a peculiarity of phraseology approved by the usage of a language, and often having a signification other than its grammatical or logical one".The apparent thing is that the idiom is comprehensible only to a particular group of people. The meaning cannot be derived from the individual words themselves; there must be some particular knowledge shared by the particular group of people. That is why an idiom cannot stand instead of the general proverb. An idiom does not provide the listener with advice and sometimes is more difficult to understand when you first read or hear it.

- Maxim is an expression of a general truth or principle, especially an aphoristic or sententious one, (e. g. the maxims of La Rochefoucauld) . It can be also defined as " a saying, derived from practical experience that serves as a rule of conduct" or it is "a well known phrase that expresses something that is generally true or that people think is a rule for sensible behaviour". Maxim can also be an absolute moral statement; Kant stated that these had to be universalisable. For example: Do not murder. In spite of the fact that the maxim bears almost all the properties of the proverb, the definitions suggest that this statement is not embedded in the society as it could be.

Phrase
"A small group or collocation of words expressing a single notion, or entering with some degree of unity into the structure of a sentence; a common or idiomatic expression." The phrase can be according to the OED's /Oxford English Dictionary definition any peculiar expression. There is no reference to the given advice, tradition or generality.

Saying
"Well known phrase or statement that expresses sth about life that most people believe is wise and truth. [...] 'Accidents will happen." Again, the term saying fulfils almost all the properties of the proverb, but there is no mention about the piece of advice. The example states the general truth, but in the end tells us nothing useful.

A short history of proverbs
Proverbs have been described as the wisdom of many and the wit of one. They have been handed down by word of mouth from generation to generation until they were recorded and became a folklore works of art for future generations.

The first person who engaged systematically in the classification of proverbs was the Greek philosopher Aristoteles. He considered proverbs a persistence of an older wisdom: "Proverbs are ..... elements of old philosophy which survived thanks to their brevity and dexterity." Plutarch, the renowned essayist, made a collection of Laconic sayings in which a number of proverbs were presented.

During the Byzantine period the scholar Maximus Planudis (1255-1305) recorded proverbs; these proverbs were published by the German scholar E. Kurtz in Leipzig in 1886.

Throughout the Middle Ages, the use of proverbs in sermons, in homilies, and in didactic works made them popular and widely known throughout Europe and led to their preservation in manuscripts. In early Middle English there are two presentations of gnomic material, the Proverbs of Alfred, dating from c.1150-80, in four versions, and later, the Proverbs of Hendyng. The ascription of proverbial wisdom to King Alfred is as legendary as that to King Solomon's Proverbs in the Old Testament. These proverbs are often composed in alliterative lines, rhymed couplets, and reflect on the nature of life and human destiny. Both collections concentrate on religious and moral precepts.

About the year 1550, the earliest English collection, Proverbs or adagies with newe additions gathered out of the Chiliades of Erasmus by J. Taverner (London, 1539) appeared. This was followed by J. Hewood's Dialogue conteinyng the number in effect of all the proverbes in the englishe tongue (London, 1546), T.Draxe's A treasure of ancient adagies (London, 1616), and G.Herbert's Outlandish Proverbs (1640).

In English literature Geoffrey Chaucer (c.1340-1400), who is considered the father of English poetry, made use of many proverbs in his long poems. In particular, the use of proverbs was at its height during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Elizabethan playwrights, John Lyly (c.1554-1606) and Ben Jonson

(1572-1637) made abundant use of proverbs in their plays. Above all, the great dramatist, William Shakespeare (1564-1616), embellished his plays with proverbs. He used proverbs to form the titles of two of his comedies: All's Well that Ends Well and Measure for Measure. In his celebrated tragedies, Romeo and Juliet and particularly in Hamlet (Scene 5, Act I), he used a series of proverbs. His contemporary, Michael Drayton (1563-1631), under the title 'To Proverbe' wrote a sonnet in dialogue form into the text of which he incorporated ten proverbs.

During the early nineteenth century, after the revival of interest in folklore, which was brought about by the Romantic Movement, two renowned novelists, Sir Walter Scott (1771-1832) and Charles Dickens (1812-70), incorporated a considerable number of proverbs into their many and popular novels. Proverbs can be found also in Lewis Carroll's Alice in Wonderland (1865). Reflecting on folk culture, the more systematic study during the twentieth century shows renewed interest in the proverbs.

In the United States, the name of Benjamin Franklin (1706-90), inventor, scholar and politician, is closely linked to American proverbs. Over a period of 25 years (1733-58) he published the annual Poor Richard's Almanac, in which he included a number of old proverbs as well as many of his own. Two popular proverbs attributed to Franklin are: "Three removals are as bad as a fire „ and "A house without a woman and firelight is like a body without soule or sprite.".

The use of proverbs and sayings in literature is a long established scholarly feature. We can name some authors of international reputation such as Aristophanes, Euripides, Dante, Chaucher, Cervantes, Shakespeare, Rabelais and Goethe. These authors, among their other literary devices, have employed proverbs an maxims, especially proverbs, proverbial expressions and proverbial comparisons either integrating them into their texts or hinting at them.

Paremiology

Speaking about the proverbs, it is necessary to mention the paremiology which is "The study of proverb and of proverb mythos" (Oxford English Dictionary). There are a lot of proverbs that are both semantically and formally the same. Because of these similarities the branch of linguistics, the paremiology began to form. And there is also the paremiography which is defined in Oxford English Dictionary as "The writing or collecting of proverbs; a collection or book of proverbs."

From ancient times to the modern age, many have attempted to solve the problem of properly defining a proverb. The exasperating problem of proverb meaning continues to occupy semantic studies. Linguists and folklorists have repeatedly attempted to explain the semantic ambiguity of proverbs, which results to a large degree from their being used in various contexts with different functions. But proverbs also act as analogies, which adds to the complexity of understanding their precise meaning in a particular speech act.

Clearly the meaning and purpose of proverbs are best revealed by actual usage in social situations. Today it has almost become a platitude to point out that proverbs must be studied in context. Their strategic use in communication has been effectively analyzed by Kenneth Burke in his short essay "Literature as Equipment for Living". He stated there : "Proverbs convey various meanings of consolation, vengeance, fortelling, admonition, exhortation, morals, etc." Psychologists and psychiatrists have long been interested in proverbs for testing intelligence, attitudes, aptitudes, and various mental illnesses. Proverbs have also been utilized by social psychologists as slogans in therapeutic communities for alcohol ordrug addicts. Proverbs can be quite negative when they express stereotypes or slurs. Such negative proverbial texts appear in the earliest proverb collections, and they are still used today despite attempts to be open-minded towards ethnic, religious, sexual, national, and regional differences.

Religious proverbs are also used as a teaching tool, and so are proverbs in general. Comprehensive books have been written on the pedagogical and didactic value of this traditional wisdom. Modern paremiology is an absolutely open-ended phenomenon with many new challenges lying ahead. There is no doubt that proverbs help us in our everyday life and communication to cope with the complexities of the modern (human) society.

English proverbs

Proverbs are also known as sayings. Closely related to proverbs are maxims or sayings, which differ from proper proverbs, although the borderline between proverbs and maxims is not clearly discernible. A pure proverb has a metaphorical meaning. It says one thing and it means another. There has been much discussion, and disagreement, among modern paroemiographers on the subject, but Aristotle had already clarified the point by stating laconically: 'Some of the proverbs are also maxims.'

Proverbs give some form of life advice. Every language and culture has them, and many proverbs exist in more than one language. It is important not to miss any of the words in most proverbs because the meaning can be lost if even one word is changed or left out. Proverbs and sayings are used to make a language colourful and fascinating; they are commonly used in all types of language: formal, informal, spoken or written.

English proverbs have several aspects in common:

- They are short and concise
- They provide advice (which is usually gained from experience)
- Some are very popular and are very common in everyday speech.
- Some people confuse proverbs with idioms but they are different. An idiom does not provide the listener with advice and sometimes is more difficult to understand when you first read or hear it.

Proverbs are experiential truths passed down for generations. They serve as guidelines that are worth following. Unlike idioms, proverbs do make sense when taken literally but it is only when you apply them to wider situations that their true meaning becomes clear. The proverbs reflect problems and the attitudes of the society. Some of them are not valid anymore, because they had commented the situation at the given period (e.g. those concerning the politics: "King Harry robbed the church, and died a beggar."), but certain themes are valid up to now. They concern mainly universal spheres- the world around us, the nature (weather, animals, landscape, etc.), human qualities (imperfection, activities) and the relationship between men and women (loathing, love, hostility). Many authors and the storytellers use the proverbs quite often to emphasis their points and perceptions. The common history of humanity connects common things and phenomena such as: nature, war, animals, food, plants, etc. Proverbs have mostly been formulated and coined on the basis of these topics. Proverbs and sayings are used to make a language colourful and fascinating; they are commonly used in all types of language: formal, informal, spoken or written.

Proverbs may be classified in this way:
- a) Metonymic proverbs
- b) Hyperbolic proverbs
- c) Paradoxical proverbs
- d) Metaphoric proverbs
- e) Synecdoche proverbs

Metonymic proverbs are based on on association between something literally named and the thing intended. One example of a metonymic proverb is 'who has a fair wife needs more than two eyes'' in which the eye stands metonymically for the 'sight''.

Hyperbolic proverbs. - According to Norrick 'hyperbole has traditionally been considered a rhetorical figure along with, if not quite of the same importance of synecdoche, metaphor and metonymy''. In fact hyperbole counts as amplification. Amplification says more than necessary. For example the proverb 'faint heart never won fair lady'' is a hyperbolic proverb due to the existence of the word "never" in it.

Paradoxical proverbs are proverbs in which there is a contradiction or whose interpretation entails a logical contradiction are considered as paradoxical proverbs. In fact paradoxical proverbs have a „second interpretation". An example of paradoxical proverb is "fair is not fair, but that which please". The first clause of this proverb asserts a clear logical contradiction. The proverb „a man´s house is a heaven and hell as well" is a paradoxical proverb as well.

In metaphoric proverbs, a nominal becomes metaphoric due to its interaction with another proverb constituent, or the nominal symbolize some characteristic attribute. An example of the first is "Favour will as surely perish as life" and of the second, „Fair play is a jewel."

Synecdoche proverbs are the proverbs in which the literal reading and standard proverbial interpretation ,' stand in a relation of macrocosm to microcosm". These include examples such as „The early bird catches the worm", "Make hay while the sun shines", and "Fair words break no bones". In these proverbs, the literal meaning is quite different from the figurative meaning.

Many of the English proverbs can be traced back to the Bible from where they seem to have originated. Some examples of proverbs that have been taken from literary works are as follows:

One touch of nature makes the whole world kin. - Troilus and Cressida.

Sweet are the uses of adversity. - As You Like It.

A rose by any other name would smell as sweet. - Romeo and Juliet

It should be noted that the issue of proverbs and sayings is so complex that it is possible to mention only the limited examples of them. Proverbs and sayings can be classified by the topical units. Many proverbs cover such diverse topics as mind, wisdom, money and wealth, education, time, love, truth, friendship, horse, dogs, fire, sadness, world, fool, woman, man, God, nature, etc.

- Some examples of proverbs on wisdom: Experience is the mother of knowledge. - Doubt is the beginning, not the end of wisdom. - Action is the proper fruit of knowledge. - Zeal without knowledge is a runaway horse. - Almsgiving never impoverished, stealing never enriched, and prosperity never made wise. - Some men are wise, and some are otherwise.
- Proverbs on mind: The beauty of things lies in the mind that contemplates it. - The riches of the mind may make a man rich and happy. - Money spent on brain is never spent in vain. - All happiness is in the mind. - Brain is better than brawn.
- Proverbs on money and wealth: Pride in prosperity turns to misery in adversity. - The love of money and the love of learning rarely meet. - Rich folk have many friends. - The rich man spends his money, the poor man his strength. - Prosperity gets followers, but adversity distinguishes them. - Money makes the pot boil.
- Proverbs dealing with education: Education is a subversive activity. - Learning makes a man fit company for himself as well as for others. - Learning makes a good man better and a bad man worse. – He that nothing questions, nothing learns. - Learn weeping anf thou shalt gain laughing. - With great learning, a horse, and money, you may travel the world.
- Proverbs on truth: Truth has always a sure bottom. - Truth is spectre that scares many. - Fools and cildren tell the truth. - A lie can be halfway around the world before the truth gets its boots on. - The greater the truth, the greater the libel.
- Proverbs that cover time: An inch of gold will not buy an inch of time. - Time heals all wounds. - Time is the soul of business. - The crutch of time does more than the club of Hercules.
- Proverbs on world: When money speaks the world is silent. - Laugh, and the world laughs with you; weep, and you weep alone. Where every man is master the world goes wreck. – A man´s first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart, his next to escape the censures of the world.
- Proverbs dealing with fire: Kindle not a fire that you cannot estinuish. - Fire is love and water sorrow. - Don´t have too many irons in the fire. - Soft fire makes sweet malt.
- Proverbs depicting a fool: It takes great wisdom to play the fool. - Better to be thought a fool than to open your mouth and remove all doubt. - Fools build houses, and wise men buy them.
- Proverbs on love: The measure of our sacrifice is the measure opf our love. - Love is full of busy fear. - Love covers many infirmities. - Love your neighbor, yet pull not down your hedge. - A penny-weight of love is worth a pound of law. - Love lasts as long as money endures. - A man has a choice to begin love, but not to end it. - Don´t trudge mud into the house of love. - Love laughs at locksmiths.

Conclusion

A straight way to improve our understanding of the world culture, people and history is to study proverbs and sayings of different languages. Proverbs in English are more in common use today. By studying English proverbs, the learners can apply the truths of proverbs to their English language learning. It is useful to know at least the most common English proverbs as they may often appear in a conversation and it can be helpful to know what they mean and how they are related to the situation. Proverbs, because they are indirect, enable the speaker either to disagree or give advice in a way that may be less offensive. The learners of English will find it useful to memorise English proverbs so that they can recognise them and also use them in a conversation to sound more like a native speaker. Using proverbs well is a skill that is developed over the years, but it is worth it. English proverbs deserve to be taught as part of general education, and since they belong to the common knowledge of basically all native speakers, they are indeed very effective devices to commnunicate wisdom and knowledge about human nature and the world around us.

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ТЕСТОЛОГИЯ И ТЕСТИРОВАНИЕ

ROMAN KVAPIL

Абстракт

В настоящей статье автор размышляет о процессах теститования, тестах, о тестологии как науке и дисциплинах тестологии. Приводятся некоторые примеры из истории тестирования в т. н. донаучном периоде и даётся перечень тех, кто считает тестологию релятивно самостоятельной наукой. Целью данной работы являются также теоретические рассуждения о необходимости изучения основ тестологии, выявление и определение основных понятий и принципов этой науки.

Ключевые слова

тест, тестология, педагогика, психология, история, эвальвация

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Введение

Тесты в развитых странах стали важной составляющей жизнедеятельности современного общества. Их универсализм, широта применения (в промышленности, медицине, психологии, педагогике), высокая степень объективности получаемых результатов позволяют говорить о тестах как о феномене человеческой цивилизации. И как всякий феномен, тесты вызывают интерес в обществе, причем неоднозначный: от признания их в качестве единственного объективного инструмента оценки знаний в педагогике до их полного отрицания и даже тестофобии.

Исходя из вышесказанного, целью данной работы является ответить на вопрос что такое тест, привести некоторые примеры из истории тестирования в т. н. донаучном периоде и дать перечень тех, кто считает тестологию релятивно самостоятельной наукой. Изучение основ тестологии, выявление и определение основных понятий и принципов этой науки в словацкой тестологической среде принадлежит к актуальнейшим темам, так как тестологии как науке в научных трудах словацких учёных не уделяется почти ни какое внимание. Для достижения данной цели необходимо решить следующие задачи:

1. Изучить историю развития науки тестологии.
2. Рассмотреть основы конструирования тестов.
3. Проследить этапы разработки теста.
4. Разобрать основные критерии оценки эффективности тестов.

Что такое тест?

Слово «тест» вызывает у учителей самые различные представления. Сарафов полагает, что это вопросы или задачи с одним готовым ответом, который надо угадать (Safarov, 2010. с. 328 – 332). Другие, как например (Chelyškova, 2002, с. 150 – 220) считают тест формой игры или забавы. Третьи (Feškov, Jakobčuk, 2015) пытаются истолковать это как перевод с английского слова „test", (проба, испытание, проверка). В общем, по этому вопросу нет единства мнений. Тем более что в учебниках педагогики об этом не пишут. А если где и пишут, то нередко написанное трудно понять. Не случайно размах мнений о тестах оказывается слишком широким: он толкуется не только в русской тестологической школе,но и за рубежом России. В Словакии тоже уделяется внимание разработке педагогических тестов. С этой целью возник в Братиславе самостоятельный центр тестовых измерений. Главная деятельность его направляется на конструирование государственных, т. н. выпускных тестов для школьников и студентов.

В наши дни существует много видов тестов, поэтому дать универсальное определение для всех этих видов вряд ли можно. Традиционный тест представляет собой стандартизованный метод диагностики уровня и структуры подготовленности. В таком тесте все испытуемые отвечают на одни и те же задания, в одинаковое время, в одинаковых условиях и с одинаковыми правилами оценивания ответов. Главная цель применения традиционных тестов – установить уровень знаний. И на этой основе определить место (или рейтинг) каждого на заданном множестве тестируемых испытуемых. Для достижения этой цели можно создать бесчисленное количество тестов, и все они могут соответствовать достижению поставленной задачи. И тогда возникает один из главных вопросов теории тестов – вопрос не только выбора наилучшего теста из практически неограниченного множества всех возможных тестов, но и научно обосновать принципы релятивно самостоятельной науки – тестологии, поскольку мы говорим не только о простых тестовых заданиях, а о тестах в масштабном размере и на уровне государственного контроля. Сложность разработки таких тестов заключается и в том, что в этом процессе мы должны учесть широкие обстоятельства, которые могут более или менее повлиять на возникновение обьективного теста. Тест определяется не только как система заданий возрастающей трудности, позволяющая эффективно измерить уровень и качественно оценить структуру подготовленности учащихся, как обыкновенно толкуется (Nesterova, 2006, с. 73 – 85), это сложная система, которую надо изучать посредством науки – тестологии.

К вопросу истории тестирования – педагогического контроля

Контроль в обучении иностранным языкам предполагает прежде всего, контроль сформированности речевых навыков и умений. На современном этапе развития методики обучения главным становится не только контроль знаний языкового материала, но и разработка нового подхода к контролю овладения коммуникативной компетенцией, требующий определённых критериев. С этим непосредственно связан и вопрос рассмотрения истории педагогического контроля, возникновения тестирования и его развития с древних времён по настоящие дни.

Известно, что история любого предмета начинает рассматриваться только тогда, когда достаточно хорошо определен сам предмет изучения. В связи с этим, если тест определять как простой перевод английского слова «test» (проверка или испытание каких-либо качеств, способностей), то можно утверждать, что тесты появились в древние времена.

Всякая попытка определить точное время возникновения тестов напоминает стремление географов найти точное начало большой реки, вытекающей множеством ручейков из обширного болота. Примерно так же обстоит дело и с тестами. Для изучения истории тестов надо изучить предысторию – примерно, как и в других науках.

Корни тестирования уходят в древность. В Древнем Египте искусству жрецов обучали только тех, кто выдерживал систему определенных испытаний, подробнее об этом толкует Каплун в своей научной работе (Kaplun, 2008) (смотри также Kuzmišin, 2015). В начале кандидат проходил процедуру, которую можно было бы сейчас назвать собеседованием. При этом выясняли биографические данные, уровень образованности, оценивали внешность, умение вести беседу. Затем проверяли умения – трудиться, слушать, молчать. Проводили испытания огнем, водой и угрозой смерти. Тем, кто не уверен, что выдержит все тяготы длительного образования, предлагалось подумать – с какой стороны окончательно закрыть за собой дверь в храм – с внутренней или внешней?

В. С. Аванесов пишет (2005, с. 75), что можно найти примеры более раннего применения испытаний, в том числе и испытаний педагогического характера. В III тысячелетии до н. э. в Китае существовала должность правительственного чиновника. Соответственно, появились и первые элементы профотбора на эту должность. Отбору способствовала атмосфера торжественности и внимания к молодым людям, осмелившимся держать государственные экзамены на занятие по этой должности. В китайском обществе эти экзамены считали праздником. Тему экзамена нередко давал сам император, и он же проводил проверку знаний претендентов на работу.

Одной из самых распространенных форм диагностики способностей человека в те времена была физиогномика – искусство распознавания характера и способностей человека по его внешнему виду. Гиппократ, впервые употребивший это название, считал физиогномику наукой. Тогда же появились первые учебники и практические руководства по физиогномике, а также и первые специалисты.

В Афинах обсуждался вопрос о зависимости могущества государства от способностей лиц, им управляющих. В работе Платона «Государство» на вопрос о том, каких правителей нужно выбирать, Сократ отвечает: «*Надо отдавать предпочтение самым надежным, мужественным, и по возможности, самым благообразным; кроме того, надо отыскивать людей не только благородных и строгого нрава, но и обладающих также свойствами, подходящими для такого воспитания. У них... должна быть острая восприимчивость к наукам и быстрая сообразительность. Надо искать человека с хорошей памятью, несокрушимо твердого и во всех отношениях трудолюбивого*» (Platón, 2007).

Суровую систему испытаний и отбора успешно преодолел в молодые годы и Пифагор. Он

основал свою школу и принимал в эту школу только тех, кто прошёл серию различных испытаний, похожих на те, которые выдержал он сам. Пифагор подчеркивал важную роль интеллектуальных способностей, утверждая, что «не из каждого дерева можно выточить Меркурия». И потому придавал значение диагностике, в первую очередь, именно этих способностей.

Различные конкурсы и экзамены устраивались и в средневековом Вьетнаме. Всего за два года, в период с 1370 по 1372 г. удалось провести переаттестацию всех гражданских чиновников и военнослужащих, что позволило улучшить работу государственного аппарата. В результате этого Вьетнам стал сильным и жизнеспособным государством, где впервые были использованы письменные методы проверки готовности к профессиональной деятельности.

В 14 веке в Китае была введена в действие система проверки знаний и способностей кандидатов запоминать и интерпретировать произведения Конфуция. Кроме того, существовала трехступенчатая система отбора претендентов на ученое звание, построенная по территориальному признаку. После проведения конкурсного отбора в месте жительства победители приезжали на конкурс в провинциальный центр, победители которого могли принять участие в Пекине на заключительном этапе отбора претендентов.

Опыт развития цивилизации дает многочисленные примеры того, как человечество решало проблемы отбора конкретных людей для выполнения тех или иных конкретных функций по обеспечению нормальной жизнедеятельности общества. Если использование письменных контрольных работ и экзаменов в странах Востока уже в те годы считалось вполне нормальным и естественным процессом, то этого нельзя сказать о странах Запада. Там возникали трудности психологического характера, вызванные попытками заменить устные формы контроля письменными. Например, в консервативной Англии применение письменных контрольных работ в учебном процессе препятствовало приблизительно больше сто лет. Но существовали и исключения. Ценность письменных работ оценивал Орден Иезуитов, который в письменной форме экзаменов видел средство повышения мотивации учебной работы. Орден распространил практику применения письменных работ во многих других странах. Ответная реакция на это в первую очередь проявилась в Америке. В 1762 г. состоялось открытое выступление студен-

тов Йельского университета против использования письменной формы экзаменов. Письменная форма тестов по их мнению принуждает студентов только механически воспринимать факты без понимания отношений между существующими явлениями, процессами, понятиями. Таким образом исчезает естественное настроение хотеть что-нибудь новое узнать.

В 1884 г. в США вышла первая книга с тестовыми материалами, содержавшая задания и ответы к ним с оценкой по пятибалльной шкале (смотри подробнее Аванесов, 2005). В этой книге содержались задания по математике, истории, грамматике, навигации, давались примерные тексты сочинений вместе с методом количественной оценки сочинений. Это был первый в истории случай использования простейших статистических расчетов в педагогической работе. Такая форма контроля знаний имела не только сторонников, но и противников. Распространилось мнение, что никто лучше учителя не сможет оценить способности ученика, и потому экзамены и всякие другие формы контроля являются издевательством над здравым смыслом. Этим было положено начало общественному движению против какого-либо контроля в школе. Пик такого движения появился в США в конце XIX века.

Потребность в создании общественно-государственной системы контроля знаний была осознана в США в 1885 году. В Нью-Йорке начал действовать экзаменационный совет – один из немногих советов, которые смогли разработать методы объективного контроля знаний. Начало общегосударственной системы оценки знаний положило создание там в 1900 году комитета по проверке знаний абитуриентов колледжей в США. Важным вкладом в развитие профессиональной диагностики является оформление первой теории тестов, а именно определение трех основных принципов:

1. применение серии одинаковых испытаний к большому количеству испытуемых,
2. статистическая обработка результатов (графическое отображение полученных результатов на осях координат, сравнение двух рядов переменных),
3. выделение эталонов оценки (внешнего критерия независимого от эксперимента).

Эти принципы используются и в современности. Все современные тесты построены на основе статистической теории измерений. Таким образом появляется т. н. стандартизированный

тест, в основе которого лежит статистическая теория измерений. Нововведённым является в этом времени индекс совместного отношения, иначе названный коэффициентом корреляции.

В России конца XIX – начала XX века вопрос разработки тестов и их применения не ставился и не обсуждался. *«Проверка знаний представляется мне по опыту самым скучным, бесполезным и даже вредным занятием. Она терпима, как необходимое зло, только там, где от учителя требуют ежемесячных отметок как средства контроля не только над учениками, но и над учителем»* (Lazareva, 2009, s. 65 – 66). Однако с той поры в российской педагогике сформировались две противоречащие тенденции: одна за контроль знаний учащихся, другая – против.

Подробное описание истории тестирования и тестологии как науки представляет собой более сложный вопрос и целью этой статьи не является подробный анализ с древних времён до настоящих дней. Выше приведённые нами заметки по истории тестирования представляют собой наше убеждение в том, что тестологию принято считать релятивно самостоятельной наукой. У неё есть предмет исследования, терминолгический аппарат, научные субдисциплины (тестологическая история, тестологическая теория и тестологическая эвальвация). Одним из факторов, повлиявших на развитие тестового движения в сфере образования, стала политика правительств индустриальных стран, стремившихся выявить детей, способных к освоению общеобразовательных программ, и тех, кто отличается задержкой развития и не способен осваивать в полном объеме школьную программу в течение учебного года. Именно на этой основе в начале XX в. был достигнут такой крупный прорыв, который способствовал превращению тестологии в самостоятельное научное направление.

К вопросу понятий «тест» и «тестология»

Существует несколько дефиниций тестирования. На языке науки тестирование – это исследовательский метод, в основе которого лежат определенные правила.

К. Ингенкамп (1991, с. 50) определяет тестирование как «*метод педагогической диагностики, с помощью которого выборка поведения, репрезентирующая предпосылки или результаты учебного процесса, должна максимально отвечать принципам сопоставимости, объективности, надежности и валидности измерений, должна пройти обработку и интерпретацию и*

быть готовой к использованию в педагогической практике». И. П. Подласый (2004, с. 239) также определяет тестирование как аспект диагностики, где тесты обученности применяются на всех этапах дидактического процесса, эффективно обеспечивают различные виды контроля. Г. У. Матушанский (2002, с. 15 – 16) рассматривает тестирование как метод в контексте внедрения контролирующих технологий, одним из самых перспективных методов, по его мнению, является тестовый метод. В. С. Аванесов (2005, с. 7 – 8) считает тестирование эффективной технологической формой проведения автоматизированного контроля с параметрами качества. Тестирование в контексте контролирующих технологий рассматривает и С. И. Денисенко (2015, с. 122). Под тестированием понимает часть современных педагогических технологий и одно из направлений совершенствования системы контроля знаний, умений и навыков обучаемых, причём тестирование связывает с «формализацией учебного материала отдельных тем и разделов учебных дисциплин». А. Н. Майорова (1998, с. 25) рассматривает тестирование как инструмент, средство мониторинга эффективности работы образовательных систем, где в качестве тестового инструмента используются тесты учебных достижений (другие синонимичные названия – тесты школьных достижений, педагогические, дидактические и т. д.). П. И. Пидкасистый (1980, с. 115) рассматривает в качестве эффективного метода контроля в современной образовательной практике дидактические тесты (тесты достижений), называя их сравнительно новым методом (средством) проверки результатов обучения. К проблематике тестирования подходит Пидкасистый с точки зрения метода научного исследования педагогического процесса. Дефиниция тестирования В. А. Хлебникова (смотри Хлебников и др., 1999, с. 5 – 16) связана с процедурой оценки учебных достижений, являющейся важнейшим показателем качества образования, который важен как для всей системы, так и для каждого отдельного ученика.

На основе выше приведённых теоретических подходов под тестированием можно понимать процедуру предъявления теста, проведения тестирования, оценки и интерпретации результатов его выполнения. Это совокупность организационных и методических мероприятий, объединенных общей целью и требованиями к педагогическому тесту и предназначенных для подготовки и проведения формализованной процедуры предъявления этого теста тестируемым,

обработки, анализа, интерпретации и выдачи результатов педагогического тестирования. Таким образом, тестирование является педагогическим явлением, имеющим многоаспектное определение, несколько дефиниций, сущность которых сводится к пониманию тестирования как исследовательского метода, как наиболее эффективного и объективного средства контроля, как часть современных образовательных технологий и как понятие, существующее независимо от нас.

Сущность понятия тестирования тесно связана с понятием «тест» (от англ. Test – «проба, испытание, исследование»). Тесты рассматриваются как «стандартизированные задания, результат выполнения которых позволяет измерить психофизиологические и личностные характеристики, а также знания, умения и навыки испытуемого». По теории многих учёных тесты являются «... наиболее развитой в научном отношении частью методического арсенала, позволяющего адекватно скреплять теорию с эмпирией».

В работах исследователей (В. С. Аванесов, С. И. Григорьев, С. И. Денисенко, К. Ингенкамп, А. Н. Майоров, Г. У. Матушанский, П. И. Пидкасистый, И. П. Подласый, В. А. Хлебников и др.) признается, что тест – наиболее объективный инструмент, используемый для педагогических измерений, и современная научно обоснованная дидактика обречена на поражение, если она не опирается на богатый инструментарий максимально объективных методов педагогической диагностики.

Анализ научной педагогической и психологической литературы, практического опыта школ показал, что интерес образовательной общественности к достижениям классической и современной тестовой теории, к методам разработки высококачественных педагогических тестов, к оценке их надежности и валидности огромен. Не существует никаких сомнений в том, что процесс тестирования должен быть рассматриван с научной точки зрения, поэтому попытки выделять тестологию релятивно самостоятельной дисциплиной мы считаем вполне осмысленным и неизбежным.

Для понимания сущности тестов важно разобраться в системе понятий. Понятия вообще образуют основу любой науки, и в этом смысле деятельность по разработке и эффективному применению тестов не является исключением. В 30-х годах наука о тестах называлась буржуазной, все цели которой считались «реакционными». Такие суждения в современности уже считаются неадекватными. Надо отметить, что все-таки появляются также публикации, в которых от научного обоснования тестологии отказываюрся.

Педагогическая тестология занимается вопросами разработки тестов для объективного контроля подготовленности учащихся. В структуре подготовленности большое (но не исчерпывающее) место занимают знания, умения, навыки и представления. Сюда же следует добавить интеллектуальное и физическое и культурное развитие, творческие способности, воспитанность и уровень развития эмоционально-чувственной сферы. Педагогическая тестология – это прикладная методическая теория (смотри подробнее Balychina, 2009, 2011; Lazareva, 2013, 2011) научной педагогики. Ключевыми понятиями тестологии, как одна из методических теорий, являются измерение, тест, содержание и форма заданий, надежность и валидность результатов измерения. Кроме того, в тестологии используются такие понятия статистической науки, как выборочная и генеральная совокупность, средние показатели, вариация, корреляция, регрессия и др. Квапил (2015, с. 200 – 2012) более систематично подходит к вопросам современной науки о тестах и говорит о тестологии как о науке с собственной единицей – тестемой. В рамках тестологии выделяет три её субдисциплины: тестологическая история, тестологическая теория и тестологическая критика (эвальвация). Кроме обоснования субдисциплин Квапил говорит и о т. н. размерах (димензиях) тестологии как науки: теоретической, педагогической, психологической и культурологической (смотри подробнее Kvapil, 2017, с. 104 – 107).

Заключение

В ходе проведенных исследований нами установлено, что оценка уровня знаний обучаемых при помощи тестового контроля имеет важное образовательно-развивающее значение, поскольку она способствует всестороннему изучению дидактического контента предметной области образовательной дисциплины, расширению и углублению объемов знаний обучаемых, а также совершенствованию и развитию их познавательных интересов.

Тестовый контроль как один из универсальных инструментов педагогических измерений уровня знаний обучаемых создаёт предпосылки для формирования эффективной системы управления качеством образования. Развитая технологическая база обучения делает тестирование не только средством для контроля и оценки уровня знаний обучаемых, но и стимулирует их к самостоятельной образовательной деятельности. Эффективные системы тестов по разным предметным областям изучаемых образовательных дисциплин сегодня становятся неотъемлемой частью образовательного процесса

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CLASSIFICATION OF ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATION

EVA MAIEROVÁ

Abstract

The article focuses on electronic communication as a relatively new way of exchanging information online, specifically on the interactive written discourse. It describes individual factors of the faceted classification scheme outlined by S. Herring with an emphasis on those factors that contribute to abbreviation processes in digitally mediated communication. Both medium and situation factors are applied to the analysis of Facebook, Twitter, and Internet Relay Chat, and illustrated by examples from chats, namely ELTchat and ICQ chat. From the analysis it can be concluded that abbreviation processes in electronic communication are linked to synchronicity, size and format of messages, together with participant structure and characteristics, topic, tone and activities of chats.

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Communication using electronic media has become an inseparable part of our lives in spite of the fact that it is a relatively new phenomenon. Information communication technologies (ICT) have influenced the linguistic means used especially in its written form so much that some authors define it as "the fourth medium" (Crystal, 2001, p. 238). However, it has to be pointed out that electronic communication is heterogenious comprising "outputs" (Crystal, 2011, p. 10) or genres of electronic discourse such as e-mail, blogs, forums, chats, web pages, virtual worlds, instant messaging, SMS, posts on social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc. "It is clear that each of these outputs presents different communicative perspectives, properties, strategies, and expectations. It is difficult to find linguistic generalizations that apply comfortably to Internet language as a whole" (ibid.).

The heterogenity of digitally mediated communication is reflected in the choice of language means used in its various genres and therefore it is of interest what factors are decisive in this aspect. Traditionally, the main criterion used in its classification has been the opposition synchronicity – asynchronicity. Later on, N. Baron (2003) added to synchronicity also the number of participants (one-to-one dialogue, one-to-many dialogue, many-to-many dialogue) and relationships among them, as well as the product/process spectrum.

A more detailed classification of computer-mediated discourse was outlined by S. Herring (2007). The criteria of the faceted classification scheme were divided into two categories: medium factors and situation factors. The first category comprises ten different factors concerning technological features of computer-mediated communication systems: synchronicity, message transmission (one-way vs. two-way), persistence of transcript, size of message buffer, channels of communication, anonymous messaging, private messaging, filtering, quoting, and message format. In the second category, social factors linked to the communication situation or context in which the communication takes place are included: participation structure, participant characteristics, purpose, topic or theme, tone, activity, norms, and code.

The given criteria are neither definite nor unalterable because "as in traditional faceted classification, it is also possible to apply the scheme selectively, by assigning values only to those categories or facets that are relevant to the analysis" (Herring, 2007, p. 12). It is possible that more criteria will be added taking into consideration the development of ICT. The author also adds: "The classification scheme presented above, because it does not presume any necessary relationships among features of situational context or between medium and situation, allows unpredictable and unconventional associations to emerge as easily as more typical ones" (Herring, 2007, p. 23).

We would like to illustrate the importance of the classification of electronic communication on examples of Internet Relay Chat (IRC) and chats on social networking sites Facebook and Twitter. In all three cases, chats represent one output according to D. Crystal, i.e. the language means used in them should show similar characteristics, which is by far not the case.

According to Baron's classification, posts in Facebook represent process-oriented asynchronous communication with elements of synchronicity between one expedient and many percipients who are expedient's friends or who are followed by him. Chat on Facebook can be classified as process-oriented, mostly synchronous communication of one expedient with one or more percipients. However, in both cases different variations of these characteristics are possible.

Twitter, on the other hand, is a social networking site designed for information exchange using microblogs. Compared to Facebook, which is focused on contacts among friends whether real or virtual, Twitter is most of all an information network. Hence it represents an asynchronous way of electronically mediated communication, which is in many aspects very close to a synchronous one, between one expedient and many percipients and is product-oriented. While on Facebook friends must be accepted by the user, a Twitter user can be followed by anyone and what is possible to limit is the visibility of tweets for individual users. Chat on Twitter has to take place at a set time so that users can take part in it or be able to follow it online. It is a many-to-many dialogue about a certain topic focused on process.

Compared with the social-networking sites Facebook and Twitter, where chat was not a primary funcionality, IRC since its very beginning has facilitated synchronous internet communication, mainly group communication (many-to-many) in discussion forums, but it also enables almost solely process-oriented one-to-one communication.

Following this comparison it is clear that for a detailed differentiation of one genre or output, which is chat in this instance, four characteristics do not suffice.

Medium factors

In the category of medium factors as presented in S. Herring's classification scheme we will focus on those which may influence the abbreviation processes in the interactive written discourse, i.e. synchronous participation in chat, which makes it similar to speech, and the **size of message buffer**. While the length of Facebook posts was initially limited to 160 characters, it gradually increased to 420 (March 2009), 500 (July 2011), 5000 (September 2011) and reached as many as 63,206 characters in November 2014. Messages sent in chat on Facebook are not limited regarding their length, while the maximum number of participants is 25. The size of one tweet is 160 Roman characters, out of which 20 are assigned for a username and symbols connected with it, i.e. one tweet can have the maximum length of 140 characters including spaces similar to an SMS. Compared to this, the maximum size of a message in an IRC is 512 characters. In all three types of these chats, the messages longer than the defined limit are automatically shortened, which may cause the loss of information especially on Twitter and IRC as can be seen from the following examples of retweets.

(1) RT Improve your #English by using more descriptive verbs. For example, instead of "said", you could use: #ESL #ELTchat htt... (123 characters including spaces),

(2.1) #eltchat Q what extent if any do issues of what happens to student data when they sign up for various language tools enter into the mix? (136 characters including spaces).

(2.2) RT @xyzxyzxy: #eltchat Q what extent if any do issues of what happens to student data when they sign up for various language tools enter in... (after being automatically shortened 138 characters including spaces),

(ELTchat, Whats the best idea app tool that you learnt since our last chat, September 10, 2014).

To avoid potential misunderstandings that may occur when the message is cut automatically, senders tend to use abbreviations.

(3.1) RT @abababababab: I currently cater to 400+ online learners who can't 'get' a f2f teacher or classroom... #ELTChat

(3.2) RT @ abababababab: I currently cater to 400+ OL STs who can't 'get' a f2f T or clssrom... #ELTChat -> here's the access/option factor again!

(ELTchat Can online language teaching replace classroom instruction, September 22, 2010).

Besides the length of chat messages, certain limits have also been set for usernames: 50 characters on Facebook, and 15 characters on both Twitter and ICQ (the latter being a type of IRC). It is therefore common to omit spaces between words. Nevertheless, some nicknames in their full forms would still be longer than 15 characters so they have to be shortened, e.g. *CommonSenseEdu* ← CommonSenseEducation (20 characters), *esolcourses* ← englishforspeakersofother languagescourses (41 characters), *math-teacher-m* ← mathematics-teacher-male (24 characters). Other nicknames do not reach the set limit, that is why the motivation of abbreviating them may vary – using traditional abbreviations: NYCGuy ← NewYorkCityGuy, *civil_eng* ← civil_engineer; better „visibility" for a percipient: @prese1 ← Paula Resende, @BobK99 ← Bob Knowles, *DecentM* ← DecentMan; differentiation from similar or identical nicknames that are not allowed in IRC: *English-male* versus English_M; a hypocoristic form: *Mike* ← Michael, *Matt* ← Matthew;

playing with the meaning: *SecLife* may be deciphered as SecondLife or as SecretLife, etc.

Especially in the last case, the motivation behind the shortening of usernames may be abbreviation of taboo words that are forbidden in public chatrooms. This concerns mainly IRC, which is connected with the anonymity of messages and their filtering by operators. Chatters can be denied entrance to a chatroom when they choose improper nicknames or they break chat rules by using vulgarisms.

Message transmission on Facebook as well as on Twitter and IRC can be categorised as one-way message-by-message transmission, though chatters on Facebook can see when the partner is composing a message but its contents is shown only after it is sent. One-way or two-way transmission is reflected mainly in turn-taking and abbreviation is used to save time in order to prevent misunderstandings that could be caused by delayed reactions to messages received from one or more partners. Usernames preceded by an @ or key words preceded by a hashtag are used to make chats clearer and comprehensible, especially when there is a polylogue as in the following example from an ICQ chatroom.

<loftatsea> excyted2bhere
<excyted2bhere> yes?
<AjayM46> 22 is cusp ?
<loftatsea> fever passed
<fScorpio46> yes
<excyted2bhere> good stuff
sojourner-m has joined channel #40_something
<excyted2bhere> that e-soup helped I see
<loftatsea> hugss fScorpion46
<loftatsea> yess
<fScorpio46> hugs lofty
lullaby has quit (XMLSocket Connection closed)
<excyted2bhere> hugs himself...
JingleGranny has joined channel #40_something
<fScorpio46> hugs granny
<AjayM46> i dont know much about astro scorpio
Ev|l_Angel has left channel #40_something : "Reason filtered"
SingleF has quit (Connection closed)
<fScorpio46> ok ajay
rish72 has joined channel #40_something
<JingleGranny> Hugssssss fScorpio46...for a minute there I didn't think I could get in the room...it was showing full.
OutOf_Law has joined channel #40_something
<excyted2bhere> isnt he the dog on the Jetsons?
<AjayM46> most here are into it .. with the Indian system ..

<loftatsea> hugsss JingleGranny
<fScorpio46> seriously??? granny hmmmm
<JingleGranny> Hugssssss - loftatsea -
<fScorpio46> here where ajay
<AjayM46> India
<JingleGranny> yes, weird...I never had that happen before
<excyted2bhere> same thing happened to me earlier
<fearcry> bye
fearcry has left channel #40_something : "Reason filtered"
<excyted2bhere> bye fearcy
Guest_752 has left channel #40_something : "Reason filtered"
nicegurl has quit (XMLSocket Connection closed)
<excyted2bhere> poof
<Michael1958> Back
<fScorpio46> i c ajay
<excyted2bhere> wb
<xTwitchyx> wb
<Michael1958> patatoes are on
<loftatsea> wb Michael1958
<fScorpio46> hmmm granny idk
<fScorpio46> wb
t0m_2222 has joined channel #40_something
<JingleGranny> I guess everyone is liking the 40s room now...no longer a secret....hehehe!
<TexasMechanic> Ah, I wondered why it didn't log on

Dialogue 1
<loftatsea> excyted2bhere
<excyted2bhere> yes?
<loftatsea> fever passed
<excyted2bhere> good stuff
<excyted2bhere> that e-soup helped I see
<loftatsea> hugss fScorpion46
<loftatsea> yess
<fScorpio46> hugs lofty
<excyted2bhere> hugs himself...

Dialogue 2
JingleGranny has joined channel #40_something
<fScorpio46> hugs granny
<JingleGranny> Hugssssss fScorpio46...for a minute there I didn't think I could get in the room...it was showing full.
<loftatsea> hugsss JingleGranny
<fScorpio46> seriously??? granny hmmmm
<JingleGranny> Hugssssss - loftatsea -
<JingleGranny> yes, weird...I never had that happen before
<excyted2bhere> same thing happened to me earlier

<fScorpio46> hmmm granny idk
<JingleGranny> I guess everyone is liking the 40s room now...no longer a secret....hehehe!
<TexasMechanic> Ah, I wondered why it didn't log on

Dialogue 3
<AjayM46> 22 is cusp ?
<fScorpio46> yes
<AjayM46> i dont know much about astro scorpio
<fScorpio46> ok ajay
<AjayM46> most here are into it .. with the Indian system ..
<fScorpio46> here where ajay
<AjayM46> India
<fScorpio46> i c ajay

Dialogue 4
<fearcry> bye
fearcry has left channel #40_something : "Reason filtered"
<excyted2bhere> bye fearcy
<excyted2bhere> poof

Dialogue 5
<Michael1958> Back
<excyted2bhere> wb
<xTwitchyBunnyx> wb
<Michael1958> patatoes are on
<loftatsea> wb Michael1958
<fScorpio46> wb
(ICQ Chat, #40_something, Dec 17, 2013)

Persistence of transcript, i.e. the length of a text that can be seen online does not have a direct impact on using abbreviations. This factor can also be eliminated by publishing chats transcripts with an unlimited time access as it is in case of various chats dealing with professional interests or topics, e.g. ELTchat and Edchat.

Similarly to this, the **message format** – whether new messages appear above or below previous messages – does not influence the frequency of shortenings. Abbreviations are linked mostly to the length of messages, which is decreased by automatically added information.

Quoting is for the usage of abbreviations significant in connection with the length of messages especially on Twitter. Automantically added abbreviations are shown at the beginning of retweets: RT – retweet, MT – modified tweet, if the sender wants to accentuate that the original text was changed, PRT – partial retweet, together with a username of the author

of the original tweet. This is a common way how to ensure the continuity of conversation when there is a comment or an answer to a question included in a retweet. In order to make a retweet fit into 140 characters, various techniques of shortening texts are used:

(1) omitting part/s of a text
Google Plus would have potential if users took the time to write a bio line. #eltchat
RT @abcabca: @xyzxyzxyzxy: ... if users took the time to write a bio line. <bio lines VERY important in any SN I think!. YES!!
(ELTchat, Advantages and Disadvantages of Social Networks for Language Teachers. January 18, 2012);
(2) lexical abbreviations
A language course which combines F2F classroom component with an appropriate use of technology. (Sharma & Barrett 2007)
Thanks! RT @abcabcabc A language course which combines F2F classrm component w an appropriate use of tech (Sharma & Barrett 2007)
(ELTchat, Balance of f2f and online components in a blended learning course, April 25, 2012).

Herring's faceted classification scheme is open-ended and in our opinion, it is important to add one more medium factor, namely **emoticons**. Many chats have "ready-made" sets of emoticons, emojis and other graphical symbols included in their functionality, but in other chats it is necessary to type chosen emoticon on a keyboard manually when the user decides to include it in a statement. We can presume that the frequency of emoticons increases if it is sufficient to click on an icon and an emitent does not have to remember different key combinations to produce an emoticon.

Situation factors

Situation factors of the faceted classification are closely linked to medium factors and they may influence each other in many aspects. Although situation factors are applied to the written electronic discourse, S. Herring (2007, p. 17) took into account conditions determining speech. It has to be noted that while the identification of individual criteria in speech is relatively simple as it often happens face to face, in the electronic discourse the determination of their values is much less clear mainly due to certain anonymity of electronic communication.

The first situation factor – **participation structure** can be assessed rather precisely. Facebook provides private chat of one-to-one or many-to-many with a low level of anonymity and the size of the group

can vary between 2 and 25 participants. Twitter chat can be characterised as mainly public many-to-many communication with anonymity comparable with Facebook but the group size is unlimited. IRC is many-to-many communication when it takes place in a main room or one-to-one in private rooms. The degree of anonymity in this type of chat is very high because nicknames are not registered or bound to an e-mail address. The number of chatters in one common room is approximately 200 and when the maximum limit of chatters is reached, it is impossible for others to log in.

Individual elements of the second situation factor – **participant characteristics** (age, occupation, native vs. non-native speaker/s, etc.) – are in the online environment much harder to identify. The decisive role in using abbreviations is played by the user's attitude, experience in using them, and also comprehending not only abbreviations occurring frequently in general electronic communication but also those connected with a specific topic: haha, thanks! Looks like I'm familiar with chat lingo but not #ELTchat lingo (it looked like 'lol') :D (ELTchat, Using Wikis in ELT, November 9, 2011).

Purpose of chat, composed of purpose of group and goal of interaction, is closely related to the chat topic and it can vary from a purpose and topic set in advance up to momentous preferences emerging impulsively in a particular situation. For instance, there are many teachers' chats on Twitter focused on experience exchange in many areas of teaching and education – Twitter Education Chats, where the names denote the main focus, e.g. Social Media Ed Chat, Calculus Chat, Inside Online Learning, Educational Book Chat, etc. Topics of individual chats are picked beforehand and moderators start with the topic announcement.
Join us in 5 minutes for #ELLCHAT - Free professional dev. resources for teachers of ELLs (ELLchat, PD, July 16, 2012);
Tonight's #eltchat at 21GMT Research in the class – doing it and using it for improving your teaching - evening all (ELTchat, Research in the class, March 20, 2013).

While in ICQ chat the impulse for the beginning of a new topic can be anything, e.g. an announcement of a new chatter's entrance to the chatroom:
BlackCurlyHair has joined channel #40_something
<Pecheur> BlackCurlyHair is nice
<fSpunky67> i hv blue/black curly hair
<TeddyBear^> i got very little hair
*OleBoneyHag has red hair fSpunky67
<RuffRide> how do I change it...red for me here
(ICQ Chat, #40_something, June 3, 2014)

Tone of all chats is informal to a greater or lesser extent, which is connected with the medium factors, and the degree of informality also with the theme or topic of a particular chat. Tone and activities influence the occurrence of abbreviations, their types, functions, and distribution. While in professionally oriented chats, abbreviations typical for interactive electronic communication can be found (*every1* – everyone, *imo* – in my opinion, *lol* – laughing out loud, *ppl* – people, *thx* – thanks, *u* – you, etc.) alongside abbreviations of vocational terms from the education register (*DELTA* – Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults, *EFL* – English as a foreign language, *IATEFL* – International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, *YL* – young learners, etc.) and their distribution is relatively even in the whole discourse, in chats on ICQ whose purpose is entertainment with a prevailing playful tone and activities such as joking, flirting, but also flaming, abbreviations characteristic for digitally-mediated communication can be often found at the beginning or the end of a communication act serving as "interactional indicators" (Thurlow – Lengel – Tomic, 2004, p. 125).
ItalianWoman has joined channel #40_something
<Lawdawgx> brb gonna test the theory
<Muriel_F> hiya ItalianWoman
<ItalianWoman> gm Muriel
<JustPam> hugs IW
<ItalianWoman> gm JustPam
(ICQ Chat, #40_something, February 6, 2014)

<CdnSpecialist> Huggs jojo
<kiwiguy> back
<jojo2070> Wb
<no-nickme> wb
<kiwiguy> thks
<Onlooker> brb
<kiwiguy> thks
<no-nickme> CdnSpecialist now thats a nic from the past
<kiwiguy> brb
<no-nickme> hb
<kiwiguy> back
<Mr-Magoo> sits
<CdnSpecialist> ty
<no-nickme> wb
<kiwiguy> ty
<kiwiguy> vm
no-nickme looks at CdnSpecialist
(ICQ Chat, #40_something, October 26, 2014)

Norms are, according to Herring (2007, p. 21), rules how a croup is formed. In chats covering professional topics there are moderators who direct the conversation regarding its contents (example 1) but also its formal features (example 2).
Example 1
abcabcabcabc: RT @defdefde: Your moderators for this chat are going to be @abcabcabcabc @defdefde @ghighigh and @ijkijkijkij !!!! Get set!!! #ELTchat
cybraryman1: RT @ abcabcabcabc: Welcome to #ELTChat, folks. Our topic for next hour is 'How do you train students to use tech?'
esolcourses: RT @defdefde: If you are new to #ELTchat please @abcabcabcabc @defdefde @ghighigh or @ ijkijkijkij for help
Example 2
defdefde: #ELTchat - pls try to say within 140 characters as this may not be seen through the transcript (ELTchat, How to train students to use technology appropriately, February 9, 2011)

So that chat rules are not violated in IRC, there is an autobot, which is actually a set of scripts or an independent program that logs in as a client and performs automatic functions, and also operators ("ops") who can warn those who break the rules, operators can also disconnect them from the server or even ban them from entering the chatroom.

<Michael1958> ....,d88b.d88b,
<Michael1958> ..88888888888
<Michael1958> ....8888888Y'
<Michael1958> ....`Y888Y'.
<Michael1958> ....`Y'
<Michael1958> Happy Valentines Day
Michael1958 was kicked by Autobot (flood)
(ICQ Chat, #40_something, February 14, 2014)
<%MentalSoul> [CreamFilledMom] Your nick is inappropriate. Please change it by typing /nick newnick.
<%MentalSoul> [chuckyducky] Your behaviour is inappropriate. Please change it.
sandy1973 was kicked by MentalSoul (No automated messages.).
 (ICQ Chat, #40_something, October 13, 2014)
As a consequence of these organisational rules together with efforts to conform to netiquette and language norms specific for a particular groups, abbreviations (including substandard ortography and similarity between typographic signs and letters) are used as means of devulgarisation in nicknames: *12uthl4ss, so^effin^demure, St0rMy`EyEz, subg, VVild_Man*, and in messages:
i had a trainee who used tech and was still a cr*p teacher (ELTchat, Does learning a foreign language help teachers teach, October 3, 2012),
but goodness knows my SS have learnt a LOT of English from po.rn... #eltchat (ELTchat, Using corpora in our teaching: what is available and how can we best use it?, November 14, 2011),
evah n carmen stay out of my pms geesh ask first For F*ck Sakes (ICQ Chat, #40_something, December 17, 2013),
oh fook off (ICQ Chat, #40_something, October 27, 2014),
think of the phrase; you can't shine sh!t (excuse my French). I think that a good teacher is innate. (ELTchat, Tourist Teflers versus Career Teflers, July 27, 2011),
LoL * RuffRide *h0rny or hairy (ICQ Chat, #40_something, June 3, 2014).

The last of the situation factors is **code** – the language of communication and the language variety on one hand, and the font together with the character encoding, which is ASCII *(American Standard Code for Information Interchange)* for Roman characters. These can be considered given because the research dealt with electronic communication in English.

From all factors of the faceted classification scheme and following the quoted examples, it is clear that the most significant influence on abbreviation processes have the medium factors of synchronicity, the size and format of messages, the option of inserting emoticons, and also quoting (retweeting) on Twitter. Out of situation factors, lexical shortenings are conditioned by participation structure and participant characteristics but most of all by topic or theme together with tone and activities of chats.

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Twitter <https://twitter.com/>.

Twitter Education Chats <https://www.google.com/calendar/embed?src=jitcu20esh46acagg8cmn3ukjo@group.calendar.google.com>.

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RAISING CULTURAL AWARENESS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

JOLANA MEĽSITOVÁ

Abstract
Cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. It has become an important focus of modern language education, a shift that reflects a greater awareness of the inseparability of language and culture, and the need to prepare students for intercultural communication. It could be argued that an integral part of learning a foreign language is acquiring some familiarity with the culture associated with it. The paper reports on an ongoing study into the presence and status of cultural understanding in English as a foreign language teaching (EFL) and learning critically analyzed.

Key words
cultural awarenes, cultural values, intercultural communication, cultural understanding, elements of culture, acculturation.

UDC 81-13

I Introduction

Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in a different ways. What is considered an appropriate behavior in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one (Némethová, 2013). Misunderstandings arise when we use our meanings to make sense of their reality. As an ESL/EFL teacher, we want to promote a positive learning environment for our students. In order to do this, we must have some understanding of the culture and customs of our students. Cultural awareness begins with developing sensitivity and understanding of our students' beliefs, attitudes and values. We will need to familiarize ourselves with our students' cultural characteristics, history, values, belief systems, and behaviours. When teaching English in a foreign land, we should read up on the customs and culture of that country. We can often acquire knowledge about other cultures by reading books or watching movies, and attending cultural events and festivals. It is important to remember that someone's cultural background often affects the way they interact in the classroom and how they learn English. Also, try to be aware that differences also exist within cultures. We should find out what topics and actions are taboo. Speak to other teachers and try to get a better understanding of the cultural problems they face. Each culture is different and there will be certain actions or topics, which are off limits. Having respect for someone's culture breaks down barriers of communication and makes the students feel at ease. We don't want to embarrass or upset our students through ignorant actions. We may find that younger students are more used to western culture. However, this is no excuse to ignore theirs. If we are teaching ESL in our home country, we should make our students aware of our own culture. We can share information about which topics and actions are appropriate and which are not. This will help the students immensely in their daily lives (Stradiotová, 2015). Our students can also tell us about their customs and cultures. The students will probably be from many different countries, so this will help us as a teacher understand about a variety of customs from all over the world. Conversation plays a big part of the ESL/EFL classroom. However, there are some topics that we should generally avoid, so as not to offend our students. These are as follows: politics, wealth, religion, money, historical or on-going conflicts, stereotypes. Actions and gestures that we should also avoid as an ESL/EFL teachers: pointing, swearing, embarrassing students, touching students, chewing gum, holding eye contact, standing to close to a student. Give your students the respect they deserve. This acts as a great role-model for the students and creates harmony in the classroom.

II The self as cultural

All people are members of at least one culture. Whether or not we realize it, the culture we belong to affects how we think, interact, communicate, and transmit knowledge from one generation to another. The ability to ask and answer question based on our own culture facilitates the process of making

connections across cultures. English teachers can help students activate their "cultural antennas" by making them aware of important elements of their own culture and helping them understand how their culture has shaped them (Byran 1997, NSFLEP 1999, 9).

When people think of culture, they often think of artefacts such as food, clothing, music, art, or literature. Others may associate culture with convention patterns, values, ideas, and attitudes. Certainly there exist many definitions of culture, and teachers need to define what culture is before students can engage in interactive culture discussions. Teachers can guide students to think about what people "think, make, and do" in their own cultures by asking them to consider questions like these:

- What behaviours reflect our culture, and how are they learned and shared?
- What important factors /social, religious, and economic/ influence our culture?
- What are some important traditions that are unique to our country?
- What ideas and values bind our culture together?
- How does culture in our country function as a way for humans to live with one another?
- What symbols are prevalent on our culture?

Discussions based on these considerations can foster an atmosphere that encourages EFL students to think about their own culture and make connections across cultures while studying English. To create a "sphere of interculturality" in our classrooms, we can encourage students to construct their own notions of culture instead of simply feeding them preformed information about these topics.

III The elements of culture

Elements of refer to things like the beliefs, values, customs, products, and the communication styles of a given culture or society (Cohen et al. 2003). *The Standard for Foreign Language Learning.* (NSFLEP 1999) provides a framework for students to integrate "the philosophical perspectives, the behavioural practises, and the products – both tangible and intangible of a society" (47) . This has become known as the 3P model of culture:

- **Perspectives** /what members of a culture think, feel, and value/
- **Practises** /how members communicate and interact with one another/
- **Products** /technology, music, art, food, literature, etc., the things members of a group create, share, and transmit to the next generation

While products may be easy to identify because we can often see, touch, taste, or hear them, perspectives and practises are not as easily recognized because they tend to be ingrained in a society. Brooks (1968, 1997) makes a distinction between "formal culture" (literature, fine arts, history, etc.) and "deep culture" (patterns of social interactions, values, attitudes, etc). A tool that can help EFL students conceptualize elements of culture is Edward T. Hall´s (1976) "cultural iceberg analogy. Hall developed the analogy to illustrate differences between what we readily see when we enter a new culture and the embedded aspects of the culture not readily visible. The products of a culture would be examples of things we can readily see, while cultural practises and social perspectives – the deep culture – that underlie the behaviour of a specific culture are difficult to observe. Using the iceberg analogy can be a fun way for students to think about elements of culture and make distinctions between those that may be so ingrained that members of a culture are not aware of them.

IV Intercultural phenomena

Intercultural phenomena include culture shock, cultural adaptation, cultural adjustment, and the fact that people from other cultures may interpret similar situations differently (Cohen et al. 2003). When we teach EFL, part of our job should be to prepare students for challenges they may meet when they travel or move to a country where English is spoken. The process of adapting to a new culture is called "acculturation". Acculturation, according to Brown (1994), has four stages (1) excitements (about being in a new country), (2) cultural shock (feelings of frustration and hostility), (3) recovery (adjustment and emergent comfort in the new culture), (4) adaption (bridging cultural barriers and accepting the new culture). Stage One – all cultures have good and bad aspects. However, in a new environment, we tend to overlook the negative and see only the new, fresh, and exciting. Stage two – people may start to make unfair comparisons between their host culture and the culture of their own country. The tension of being in an unfamiliar culture can take its toll, and people may want to withdraw. The stage two is perhaps the most difficult stage of the acculturation process. Everybody who enters a new culture will encounter at least some challenges. An awareness of these stages can prepare travellers to understand that feelings of frustration and hostility they may experience during Stage Two are due to difficulties they are having adjusting, not deficiencies related ti

the host culture. As individuals become more familiar with their new environment, they gradually move into Stage Three. They make friends, feel more comfortable using the target language, and appreciate the differences between their own culture and the new one. Ultimately, in Stage Four, the newcomer will adapt and accept the new culture. If students understand and anticipate the stages of acculturation, they may be able to reduce the time they spend in less desirable stages.

V Particular cultures

When we define specific cultural communities, we focus on the elements of a particular culture. These elements can include history, geography, and political systems, but more importantly, an understanding of the particular characteristics of a society (Cohen et al.2003) Most native English-speaking countries are typically as low-context cultures, while many Asian, Middle Eastern, and Latin American cultures are classified as high-context cultures (Copeland, Griggs, 1985) While Americans tend to value independence, self-reliance and equality, Japanese often prefer group harmony, collectiveness and cooperation. In addition, Americans tend to be open and direct, while Japanese pay more attention to the context in which the communication is taking place than to the explicit message. Japanese speakers anticipate other´s needs through facial expressions, behaviour, and gestures rather than verbal messages. Japanese students of English wishing to live, study, or do business in the United States would be well served by understanding not only the language spoken by Americans but also the cultural characteristics associated with the country. People from different cultures might not only communicate in different ways but also experience a situation differently. By contrasting cultural values, we can examine how to successfully negotiate these differences and consider how people from different cultural backgrounds might respond in certain situations.

VI Acquiring strategies for culture learning

Strategies for cultural learning include having students learn about a culture from native informants, develop their cultural observation skills, and learn about the culture through authentic materials associated with the culture. Teachers need to provide students opportunities to explore and recognize cultural differences. That means raising their awareness not only of the target culture but of their own well (Hrivíková, 2014). English teachers hoping

to help their students become interculturally competent can build a "culturally friendly" classroom. One way to foster curiosity and openness to English-speaking cultures is to establish a "collection" of cultural information in a variety of formats. These could include popular movies, music, literature, online sites, and everyday items like stamps, currency, toys, musical instruments, menus, travel brochures, magazines, and newspapers from English-speaking countries – or from a specific country, depending on students´ needs and course goals. By offering students the chance to smell, touch, see, use, and listen to "real" things from a different culture, we can connect concepts beyond ideas and help students understand the realities of life in that culture. It is one thing to tell students how Halloween is celebrated in the United States – but just imagine how excited they will be dress up in ghoulish costumers while bobbing for apples and carving jack-o-lanterns. Authentic materials are rich sources for a wide range of assignments and activities that that heighten awareness of the target culture (Seresová, 2014). Another strategy is to invite native speakers or proficient non-native speakers of English to come to class and speak on a specific aspect of their own culture. Ideally there would be a variety of informants to avoid getting the viewpoints of just one social class, ethnic group, or gender. It is also important that speakers be able to distinguish between their personal experiences and what is true of their culture in general.

VII Conclusion

Cultural learning can be difficult to address in the English language classroom. Students cannot be considered to have mastered a foreign language until they understand contexts in which the target language is spoken (NSFLEP 1996, 27). While the idea of teaching culture in the EFL classroom is not new, teachers need to be beyond introducing traditional holidays, food, and folk songs of the target culture and incorporate a framework that enables students to understand the social aspects of the culture as well. Students who may never travel outside their country or even meet an English language speaker might question why they need to study culture. However, as the world becomes more interconnected, we must help our students understand that it is more important than ever for them to be able to activate their "cultural antennas" to understand not only other cultures, but their own as well. In doing so, they will be better prepared to participate more fully in the global community – of which their local

community is a part (Némethová, 2012). We must also stress that culture is just one of the many aspects of human behaviour. Certainly cultural groups share common characteristics, but we need to remind students that within each group there is a wide range of individual differences. Incorporating the activities discussed in this article is a strong start to helping our students become more culturally aware.

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ARGUMENTATION ET DISPOSITIF DE FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS PRIMAIRES
ARGUMENTATION AND TRAINING FRAMEWORK FOR PRIMARY TEACHERS

MAURO MERCOLLI, SÉVERINE CERF ET SLAVKA POGRANOVA

Résumé
Aujourd'hui la grande partie des programmes scolaires souligne l'importance de promouvoir des enseignements qui visent des compétences communicationnelles et argumentatives des élèves. Ainsi, l'utilisation de dispositifs qui font appel aux pratiques argumentatives est pour tout enseignant, une évidence. Le présent article propose de traiter de l'argumentation telle que vue dans la littérature, puis de la formation des enseignants primaires, et ce à partir d'une proposition de soutien pédagogique pour l'implémentation de tels dispositifs.

Nowadays the most school curricula highlight the importance of promoting teaching where the aim is to develop pupils' communicative and argumentative skills. Therefore, the use of structuring teaching practices providing pupils with competencies in argumentative skills is for each teacher, obvious. The present article provides an concise overview of this issue, as presented in the literature, and offers a proposal of a training framework for primary teachers wishing to implement such practices in their classroom.

Mots-clés : *formation continue des enseignants, compétences argumentatives des élèves*
Keywords : *further teacher education, pupils' argumentative skills*

Introduction

Aujourd'hui la grande partie des programmes scolaires souligne l'importance de promouvoir des enseignements qui visent des compétences communicationnelles et argumentatives. La dominance de cette volonté institutionnelle de développer chez les élèves une capacité communicationnelle dès le début de la scolarité fait que l'utilisation de dispositifs qui font appel aux pratiques argumentatives est pour tout enseignant, une évidence. Ce mouvement est d'ailleurs bien souligné par Muller Mirza et Buty (2015) qui parlent d'une « préoccupation renouvelée et grandissante depuis quelques années pour les pratiques argumentatives dans l'école » (p. 13). Ce mouvement est à articuler avec l'idée émergente qui considère l'école comme le creuset principal, voire exclusif, pour la constitution d'une posture critique et citoyenne. Dans une certaine mesure l'école doit donc, en sus des connaissances usuelles comme les langues et les sciences, éduquer l'élève à la fonction de citoyen actif par un programme axé sur des compétences communicationnelles, réflexives et interactionnelles indispensables à l'entrée dans la vie active.

C'est dans cette perspective que nous inscrivons le présent article. Nous y proposons de traiter de

la formation des enseignants au développement de compétences argumentatives chez leurs élèves, et ce à partir d'un soutien pédagogique pour l'implémentation dans des classes primaires (élèves âgés de 11-12 ans) d'un dispositif d'argumentation. Nous allons donc, dans un premier temps, décrire et analyser la nature et les enjeux de l'argumentation et de son utilité pédagogique en milieu scolaire. Plus particulièrement, nous expliciterons quels sont les possibilités, les avantages et les tensions auxquelles les enseignants doivent rester attentifs, voire se confronter, lors de la mise en œuvre d'un dispositif d'argumentation en classe. Cette démarche nous permettra d'illustrer la complexité et la richesse d'un tel dispositif didactique. Dans un second temps, nous décrirons une proposition de démarche pour accompagner des enseignants à l'implémentation des activités argumentatives en classe.

1. L'argumentation : nature, interactions et enjeux
Selon le Plan d'études romand (PER, 2010) cinq capacités transversales sont à développer chez les élèves : la collaboration, la communication, les stratégies d'apprentissage, la pensée créatrice et réflexive. La littérature scientifique montre que l'intérêt pour l'argumentation est lié à la volonté de consolider la posture réflexive de l'élève mais aussi aux modifications

cognitives développées par le sujet durant un processus argumentatif en groupe (Grossen et Salazar-Orvig, 2011 ; Mazzoleni, Miazza, Zanetti et Galimberti, 2009 ; Muller Mirza, 2012). Donc, interagir en groupe et plus particulièrement argumenter en présence d'autrui est plus qu'un fait social abstrait. Argumenter en contexte est une co-construction située, source d'apprentissage et de transformation pour les élèves, qui leur permet d'intégrer les connaissances acquises en classe et de reconfigurer leur propre construction du monde. Dans une certaine mesure l'intérêt de l'argumentation réside dans le fait qu'elle propose aux participants une expérience communicationnelle, institutionnelle, socioculturelle et cognitive complexe (Grossen, 2009 ; Muller Mirza et Perret-Clermont, 2008 ; Muller et Buty, 2015), à fort potentiel de transformation.

Comme nous l'avons signalé précédemment, les dispositifs argumentatifs ont une place de relief dans les programmes scolaires car ils permettent de stimuler plusieurs compétences chez les élèves. Toutefois ce qui a priori se présente comme un outil extrêmement performant, le débat argumentatif, est souvent vécu par les professionnels de l'éducation comme un instrument difficile à manipuler et couramment source d'échec et d'insatisfactions. En effet, comme le signalent Golder et Favart (2006), ce type de production demande la capacité d'intégrer diverses opérations qui dépassent la "simple" production orale et demande donc à l'individu de gérer de manière simultanée plusieurs opérations mentales, affectives et contextuelles. Selon les auteures « [p]roduire un discours, quel qu'en soit le genre, nécessite la gestion d'un ensemble intégré d'opérations, et on peut d'ores et déjà envisager les problèmes de charge cognitive posés par cette gestion. Dans le cas de la production du discours argumentatif, il convient d'insister sur le caractère intégré de ces opérations. De surcroît, leur mise en œuvre est d'autant plus difficile que le discours argumentatif fait intervenir des opérations linguistiques et cognitives complexes » (ibid., pp. 187-188).

L'argumentation en situation est « orientée vers un objectif collectif, celui d'accroître les connaissances » (Muller Mirza, 2012, p. 169). Pour cela, l'enseignant est en même temps acteur du dispositif et son spectateur. Ce processus interactionnel s'organise donc autour d'une idée ou d'une thématique mais aussi de relations sociales qui se développent lors de sa mise en œuvre. Cette dynamique sociocognitive fait que les matériaux premiers de l'apprentissage sont les tensions et les émotions qui se créent, dans l'ici et maintenant de la classe, lors du processus communicationnel. Pour cette raison, la prise en compte

du contexte est essentielle pour l'enseignant afin de pouvoir comprendre les tensions, les crises et les blocages non pas comme des obstacles mais bien comme d'éléments constitutifs de son dispositif et qui permettrons l'émergence de nouveaux apprentissages chez les élèves.

Dans une certaine mesure, vouloir travailler avec un dispositif argumentatif implique de se pencher sur un objet unique et « vivant » qui se structure en fonction du contexte et vice versa. Le fait d'être dans une logique communicationnelle implique que les divers acteurs en contexte se trouvent impliqués dans un processus d'interprétation intersubjective qui favorise « le développement de la pensée chez l'enfant » (Muller Mirza, 2012, p. 170).

Aussi, penser un dispositif argumentatif signifie porter une attention particulière à l'objet en discussion, mais aussi de réfléchir aux interactions que les enseignants vont stimuler et/ou (ré)activer chez les élèves. L'argumentation doit donc être pensée de sorte à provoquer un conflit sociocognitif par « une « confrontation » de points de vue entre partenaires, les amenant à chercher des solutions différentes et leur permettant ainsi d'élaborer de nouvelles structurations intrapsychiques » (Muller Mirza, 2012, p. 171). Etant donné que ces structurations intrapsychiques sont dépendantes du sens que l'élève donne au contexte dans lequel l'activité est proposée, il est important de clarifier le sens et les buts que l'enseignant donne à la tâche demandée afin d'éviter les malentendus sur les finalités.

2. L'argumentation : question du sens et des finalités
À ce propos, il est utile de rappeler la distinction que Darnon et al. (2006) font entre buts de performance et buts de maîtrise. Cette distinction souligne que la dynamique argumentative s'inscrit dans une logique d'interaction sociale ; elle mobilise des représentations personnelles et affectives qui portent sur l'objet discuté et sur les relations entre élèves. Mais ces représentations affectent également l'estime de soi au travers des possibles divergences de la discussion et de la volonté du sujet d'atteinte la compétence de réussite. La notion de la réussite peut avoir une fonction de progression personnelle (développer des savoirs pour soi), mais aussi comme facteur de reconnaissance sociale (être reconnu par les autres) : « si pour l'étudiant en question, « réussir » signifie « progresser », celui-ci va opérer une comparaison intra-individuelle, c'est-à-dire qu'il évaluera l'état de ses connaissances à la fin de l'année et le comparera à l'état des connaissances qu'il avait en arrivant à l'université. [...] Il se peut en

effet que pour cet étudiant, « réussir » signifie « être reconnu compétent ». [...] La solution la plus informative, dans ce cas, est de comparer sa réussite à celle des autres étudiants. La comparaison est alors inter individuelle et normative, c'est-à-dire socialement référée » (Darnon et al., 2006, p. 36). La référence sociale est un enjeu majeur d'un dispositif d'argumentation en classe en particulier pour des élèves du cycle obligatoire (élèves âgés de 12-15 ans) qui souvent sont dans une dynamique de comparaison sociale.

La présence d'autrui est donc indispensable dans un dispositif d'argumentation car elle permet de créer la rupture et le conflit sociocognitif indispensables pour favoriser « l'étayage (la justification) et la négociation interlocutoire » (Golder et Favart, 2006, p. 188). Toutefois, ce tiers qui stimule l'interaction et l'apprentissage influence considérablement, par ses attentes et sa présence, la dynamique et l'échange communicationnel du groupe. Pour cela, il est essentiel que l'enseignant tienne compte que la capacité d'un élève à jouer un rôle actif dans un dispositif d'argumentation est intimement liée à l'interprétation que ce dernier fait des finalités explicites et implicites induites par le contexte et par sa présence. Pour pallier à cela, il est indispensable de recourir à des artefacts qui permettent de médiatiser la relation entre les élèves et l'environnement. Ces « entités matérielles et idéelles » (Muller Mirza et Perret-Clermont, 2008, p. 238) vont ainsi préparer, circonscrire et médiatiser l'activité et favoriser l'implication active de l'élève. A noter que l'introduction de ces outils de médiatisation, comme par exemple des logiciels informatiques, implique de modifier la conception et le rôle d'enseignant : « [l]a mise en place de dispositifs pédagogiques faisant intervenir des débats et des pratiques argumentatives implique souvent une transformation des contrats en vigueur dans les classes. Le partage des responsabilités dans les transactions didactiques, en particulier le rôle de l'enseignant, est modifié : celui-ci n'est plus uniquement le pourvoyeur d'informations, mais se présente dans un rôle d'animateur des débats, de concepteur et de gardien du dispositif, ou d'orchestrateur des dynamiques de groupes dans un rôle parfois plus distant » (Muller Mirza et Buty, 2015, pp. 18-19).

Le rôle de l'enseignant est donc celui de permettre la régulation des échanges et l'émergence d'un espace rhétorique qui favorise la résolution des désaccords pour permettre l'émergence d'apprentissages ; même si la relation entre argumentation et connaissance soit des plus complexes. Dans une certaine mesure les enseignants doivent être les « vecteurs de

la médiation » (Buysse, 2009, p. 593) et favoriser le processus d'intégration des connaissances des élèves avant, durant et après l'activité.

3. L'activité argumentative : espace de contenu et de rhétoriques
L'articulation entre l'argumentation et l'apprentissage demande donc de se pencher sur la capacité de co-construire des espaces de régulation des conflits qui sont inhérents à la controverse. L'activité argumentative est extrêmement complexe, déterminée par des facteurs cognitifs, structurels, sociaux et émotionnels. Elle dépend en grand partie de la capacité de construire des espaces d'échange qui permettent de concilier l'impératif du contenu (savoir quoi dire) avec celui de la manière de le dire (la rhétorique). Ces deux dimensions sont intimement liées et constamment en tension.

La posture de l'enseignant est celle de pouvoir préparer et stimuler l'activité de sorte que les élèves soient dans une constate articulation entre le contenu, c'est-à-dire la capacité de collecter de l'information, de choisir des idées, etc. et la manière de les transmettre et dire ces idées en contexte de sorte que le conflit, qui se développe entre les diverses parties, soit constamment régulé sur la tâche, c'est-à-dire de manière épistémique (Darnon et al., 2006). En effet, si la modulation entre les buts et les conflits n'est pas constamment modulée par l'enseignant avec un rappel constant des règles et des attentes, il est possible que les enjeux se focalisent sur la comparaison sociale des compétences et dans ce cas, l'activité perd de son utilité transformative. L'argumentation par définition pose des obstacles et c'est la manière de les surmonter qui permet de modifier sa propre pensée et de développer de nouvelles connaissances : « [l]'argumentation nécessite donc la présence d'un autre, d'un Alter, qui vient, physiquement ou virtuellement, par l'intermédiaire d'une personne, de sa parole ou de ses écrits, faire obstacle à la compréhension d'un objet ou d'une situation, et qui oblige à l'étayer, à proposer des arguments, pour soutenir sa réponse à la « question ». Argumenter peut ainsi être défini comme une activité dialogique qui met en scène une polyphonie de voix » (Muller Mirza et Perret-Clermont, 2008, p. 235). L'aspect dialogique illustre bien que l'argumentation est située dans un contexte et qu'elle se développe dans un espace temporel.

4. L'argumentation et les questions de temporalité
« Argumenter, c'est difficile » disaient Golder et Favart (2006) parce que cela demande du temps. Lors de la

mise en œuvre d'un dispositif d'argumentation dans des contextes d'enseignement, la tension pour l'enseignant, entre suivre le programme et développer des savoirs et asseoir une posture (capacité à argumenter), est forte d'autant plus que la temporalité de ces deux processus n'est pas la même : « [a]rgumenter prend du temps, apprendre à argumenter prend du temps aussi (mais non à la même échelle temporelle). Le temps consacré à argumenter, à débattre, on ne le consacrera pas à apprendre (des contenus) ; il faut que le jeu en vaille la chandelle, qu'on apprenne mieux à défaut d'apprendre plus ; et ce n'est jamais garanti à l'avance » (Muller Mirza et Buty, 2015, p. 21).

Cette tension entre temps accordé pour apprendre à argumenter et suivre le programme est évalué et calibré par l'enseignant pour que son dispositif soit profitable à la transformation et qu'il trouve du sens aux yeux des élèves. Pour ces raisons, il est important de relever qu'un dispositif d'argumentation ne peut pas être conçu comme un exercice solitaire ou récréatif ; il doit être pensé et organisé sur un laps de temps long et en complément (voire en substitution) d'une partie du programme scolaire. Cette manière de concevoir le processus d'argumentation escamote la dimension temporelle de l'échange dialogique, qui est un facteur indispensable au bon processus d'évolution et de transformation de l'élève et génère souvent de la frustration chez les enseignants. En effet, l'argumentation doit s'inscrire dans une continuité clairement définie afin de permettre aux élèves de faire les ajustements cognitifs, relationnels et affectifs indispensables à la cohésion du groupe. Ces ajustements sont uniques et co-construits, au sens qu'ils sont contextualisés et peu prévisibles, la recherche d'équilibre en est une constante. C'est cet aspect d'équilibration homéostatique des interactions et des dynamiques identitaires qui fait que la parole sera accueillie et source de transformation pour l'ensemble du groupe.

Après cette partie consacrée aux avantages et tensions des situations argumentatives, tournons à présent notre regard sur la mise en place d'un soutien pédagogique qui pourrait être apporté à des enseignants souhaitant se former dans le domaine de l'argumentation.

5. Le dispositif de formation des enseignants
Etant donné que les dispositifs d'argumentation sont des processus situés, il est indispensable de les inscrire dans un contexte afin de saisir les contours, les tensions et les contraintes qui déterminerons leur type. Voici donc le contexte que nous pourrions imaginer

et dans lequel notre proposition de dispositif s'inscrit : des enseignants primaires se demandent comment et à quelles conditions il serait possible de mettre en place des activités d'argumentation dans leurs classes. Leur école se trouve dans un quartier populaire, avec un milieu social défavorisé et une population hétérogène. Les enseignants sont peu expérimentés (2-3 ans d'expérience) et enseignent à des élèves âgés de 11-12 ans. Ils souhaitent inscrire le projet dans la discipline de français et de manière plus générale dans le PER (2010), stipulant le développement des compétences transversales comme la collaboration ou l'argumentation. Les préoccupations des enseignants dans un tel contexte sont les suivantes :

- Quelles conditions sont à réunir dans de telles activités ?
- Quels sujets seraient-ils convenables pour un débat ?
- Comment soutenir les élèves lors d'un travail autonome ?
- Comment leur expliquer ce que c'est l'argumentation et les faire argumenter ?
- Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients de différentes démarches ?

Afin de répondre à leurs préoccupations, nous leur proposons un dispositif de formation, ayant pour objectif le développement de leurs compétences permettant la réflexion, la maîtrise d'outils pédagogiques et didactiques et la conception collective de telles activités.

Le dispositif de formation proposé se base sur les apports provenant de la littérature (cf. partie théorique), notamment les apports sur les interactions sociales, leur rôle dans l'apprentissage et l'argumentation. Comme dit précédemment, la littérature montre que l'argumentation peut être considérée comme un objet d'apprentissage mais également comme une compétence transversale (PER, 2010) au service du développement d'une conscience citoyenne (Audigier, 2011 ; Rojas-Drummond et Peon Zapata, 2004).

Le dispositif que nous proposons s'articule autour du développement de compétences des enseignants permettant la conception, le pilotage et l'évaluation des activités et permettant aux élèves d'acquérir des compétences argumentatives dans le respect du contexte de leurs classes. Notre intention est de permettre aux enseignants de faire l'expérience eux-mêmes d'un dispositif argumentatif pour en appréhender l'impact réel. Ainsi, il leur sera proposé de mener un débat sur les apports et limites de

l'argumentation pour un autre public que le leur ; ceci leur permettra de s'approprier les éléments conceptuels issus de la littérature, sans être entravées par les difficultés déjà rencontrées sur leurs terrains propres (dans des classes de niveau inférieur/supérieur pour ne pas s'éloigner trop de leurs cadres de référence). Les enseignants seront invitées à transférer leurs compétences sur leurs classes respectives. Les dimensions interactionnelles sont potentialisées lors de la présentation argumentée des activités conçues et la recherche commune de failles potentielles et d'améliorations s'ensuit.

Voici les objectifs du dispositif visant à permettre de :
- S'approprier les résultats de recherches récentes dans le domaine ;
- Appréhender la complexité de l'argumentation, comme objet d'apprentissage et comme tâche complexe (en prenant la mesure des dimensions affectives, identitaires, contextuelles, cognitives et relationnelles de l'argumentation) ;
- Développer des capacités à reconnaître les apports et limites de dispositifs d'argumentation, en lien avec le profil des publics cibles ;
- Concevoir et mettre en œuvre un dispositif dans sa propre classe (avec des étapes successives en lien avec les différentes dimensions concernées), d'en évaluer les effets et limites et d'y remédier.

Les dispositifs articulent les apports théoriques, les échanges et les discussions. Ils impliquent d'effectuer des lectures individuelles et se déploient concrètement comme suit :
- Introduction au thème de l'argumentation. Présentations théoriques des formateurs sur les dimensions affectives, relationnelles, identitaires et culturelles de l'apprentissage, en étayage des notions constructivistes et socio-constructivistes ;
- Conférence sur les aspects sociaux et affectifs de l'argumentation. La présentation des dispositifs pédagogiques permet de prendre la mesure des dimensions socio-affectives liées à la construction d'une argumentation. L'analyse de données empiriques (extraits vidéo) mettra en relief les dimensions comportementales et non verbales. Introduction aux méthodes d'analyse d'interactions argumentatives à partir de ces données ;
- Organisation d'un débat « Enseigner l'argumentation dans des classes de niveau inférieur/supérieur ». Sur la base de la littérature mise à disposition, les enseignants préparent une discussion sur les avantages et inconvénients de l'enseignement de

l'argumentation respectivement à des élèves âgés de 10-11 ans et 12-13 ans. Devront être prises en considération les spécificités des publics et du contexte ; une recherche bibliographique au service du soutien des enseignants sera proposée. Chaque enseignant se verra attribuer un rôle pour ce débat : adopter une perspective « favorable », « défavorable » ou garantir la question posée ;
- Débat aura lieu, suivi d'échanges et de discussions sur les apports de la littérature à la question de l'argumentation pour les publics cibles. Les avantages et inconvénients, les apports et limites seront identifiés et explicités ;
- Enseignants élaborent une ou deux activités applicables à leurs classes respectives et à leur terrain. Ils se les présentent mutuellement, en argumentant et étayant au mieux leurs propositions ; chaque projet (dont l'ingénierie sera également présentée, ainsi que les modalités d'application concrète) fera l'objet d'un échange critique, visant à en éprouver la solidité, la faisabilité et la validité. L'objectif sera de mettre en évidence les apports et limites des activités et d'y chercher des remédiations ;
- Date de cette journée de clôture et de bilan sera posée d'entente avec les enseignants : elle consistera en une revue de l'expérience de chacun, sur la base d'un document écrit de bilan de l'expérience envoyé aux formateurs et à chaque participant. La mise en place, le déroulement et l'évaluation de leurs activités seront au cœur de cette dernière journée.

Conclusion
Les apports de ce dispositif de formation résident principalement dans le fait qu'il met en œuvre les principes qu'il apporte, dans une forme de mise en abîme : les enseignants seront mobilisées activement au travers des échanges, du débat et de la construction des activités destinées à leurs classes. Ils feront l'expérience de l'argumentation comme compétence transversale au service d'autres apprentissages (ici l'enseignement de l'argumentation à leurs classes), dans une socio-construction des compétences. Par ailleurs, la posture des formateurs est volontairement directive sur le cadre (exigeant quant aux lectures et à la participation actives au dispositif) et non directive sur le contenu (le plus loin possible de position normative ou dogmatique, les participants sont laissées libres de s'approprier les concepts et apports mis à leur disposition par la littérature). Une appropriation autonome est ainsi visée par ce dispositif,

dans le respect des compétences professionnelles de chaque enseignant. Les limites de ce dispositif se situent dans les inconnues de cette équation, c'est-à-dire les enseignants (leurs attentes, ressources et relations) : ainsi le choix de littérature pourrait ne pas s'avérer judicieux pour les participants ; la dynamique relationnelle pourrait nuire aux apprentissages et au bon déroulement de la formation ; la forme du dispositif pourrait faire émerger certaines résistances, empêcher l'engagement et nuire à la réalisation de ses objectifs. Les formateurs veilleront à porter attention aux enseignants, à évaluer le dispositif en continu, à échanger entre eux et à procéder à des régulations. Le dispositif restera souple, en s'adaptant au rythme des personnes et du collectif.

Dans le présent article, nous avons tenté de mettre en avant les enjeux de l'argumentation tels qu'amenés par la littérature et d'esquisser un dispositif de formation pour les enseignantes primaires. En guise de conclusion, il nous semble important de souligner qu'un argument n'existe pas en soi, qu'un énoncé devient un argument par rapport à une thèse à défendre, un problème à débattre. L'argumentation est ainsi vue comme une confrontation discursive où les réponses antagonistes à un problème sont construites (Plantin, 1996, cité dans Muller Mirza, 2015, p. 19). Comme Golder et Favart (2006) le disent, « argumenter, c'est accepter que les choses ne vont pas de soi, qu'on est dans le domaine du contestable » (p. 188). Préparer les élèves à cela représente pour les enseignants, peu importe le degré, un véritable défi. De la même manière, du point de vue des formateurs, préparer des enseignants à concevoir l'enseignement qui développerait les compétences argumentatives des élèves de manière plus large que l'enseignement disciplinaire, est une gageure.

Néamoins, quelques ingrédients d'un dispositif argumentatif ''réussi'' restent à souligner : l'organisation temporelle et séquentielle des activités proposées, l'explicitation des objectifs d'apprentissage (clarification du contrat didactique : ce n'est pas l'enseignant qui détient la meilleure réponse mais ce sont les élèves qui ont défendu des avis opposés et co-construit de nouvelles connaissances), le choix judicieux des sujets à débattre ne provoquant pas des effets non-souhaitables (qui pourraient par ex. toucher le contexte familial difficile des élèves) ou une attention particulière portée à « la légitimation de thèses non valides scientifiquement et éthiquement » (Muller Mirza, 2015, p. 17). Comme des pistes de prolongement de ce travail, nous proposons de mettre en place un groupe d'intervision entre les enseignants et des soirées de débat et d'informations avec les parents pour qu'ils soient associés à de tels dispositifs. L'enseignement de l'argumentation requiert la prise en compte d'une multitude d'éléments, au niveau primaire qu'au secondaire, mais donnant au final plus de sens aux apprentissages.

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MÖGLICHKEITEN DER PROBLEMLÖSUNG BEI DER ÜBERSETZUNG VON KULTURSPEZIFIKA

KATARÍNA SERESOVÁ

Abstract

In vorliegendem Artikel wendet sich das Hauptinteresse der möglichen Probleme, die bei der Übersetzung von Kulturspezifika entstehen können. In dem ersten Teil des Artikels wird die Aufmerksamkeit den Problemen der Äquivalenz bei der Übersetzung gewidmet, im zweiten Teil wird die Übersicht den häufigsten Methoden, die bei der Übersetzung von Kulturspezifika angewendet werden, vorgestellt und erklärt.

Schlüsselwörter
Übersetzung, Kulturspezifikum, Probleme bei der Übersetzung, Äquivalenz,

UDC 81-13

Einleitung

Der Übersetzer begegnet während seiner Arbeit verschiedenen Übersetzungsproblemen, die er irgendwie lösen muss. Kulturspezifische Bezeichnungen sind bestimmt einige von diesen Problemen. Interpretation interkultureller Situation zielt auf Erschließung von Bedeutungen ab, die auf die Sprache bezogen semantischer Natur sind. Bei der Überwindung von Hürden stehen den Übersetzern zahlreiche Strategien zur Verfügung. Die grundlegende Frage bei der Übersetzung von Kulturspezifika ist von daher nicht das „ob", sondern das „wie". Übersetzer müssen bei jedem einzelnen Übersetzungsproblem die Entscheidung treffen, auf welche Art und Weise sie sich mit ihm auseinandersetzen werden. Wird das Kulturspezifikum ausgelassen, übernommen, paraphrasiert oder vielleicht ersetzt? Die spezifischen Beschränkungen der Untertitelung, die bereits erläutert wurden, sind selbstverständlich zu beachten, doch in erster Reihenfolge müssen andere Aspekte in Betracht gezogen werden.

Übersetzungsverfahren

Je fremder der Ausgangtext für die Zielkultur ist, desto häufiger kommen die kulturspezifischen Markierungen vor. Das national und historisch Spezifische stellt in diesem Fall auch Übersetzungsschwierigkeiten dar, denn das literarische Werk ist „ein historisch bedingtes Faktum, das nicht wiederholt werden kann" (Levý 1969: 93). Daraus ergibt sich die Tatsache, dass es nicht immer die Möglichkeit gibt, eine Äquivalenz zwischen einem Ausgangstext und einem Zieltext herzustellen, weil die Ausgangs- und Zielkultur sich stark voneinander unterscheiden können. Meistens in dem Fall, wenn die Distanz zwischen den Kulturen größer ist. In dieser Hinsicht ist auf Namen, Anredeformen, Maße und Gewichte, Anspielungen und Dialekte zu verweisen, die im neuen Kontext beim Leser andere Wirkungen und Vorstellungen hervorrufen können, wenn sie nicht, soweit möglich, angepasst (verdeckte Übersetzung) bzw. erläutert (offene Übersetzung) werden.

Äquivalenz beim Übersetzen

Die Äquivalenz ist ein wichtiger Term im Bereich der Übersetzungswissenschaften. Der Begriff wurde in die Übersetzungswissenschaft aus der formalen Logik und Mathematik übernommen und bezeichnet die umkehrbar eindeutige Zuordnung von Elementen in einer Gleichung (Stolz 1997). Daraus ergibt sich, dass ein Ausdruck einem anderen dann äquivalent ist, wenn die Ersetzung des Einen durch den Anderen nichts an dem Wahrheitsgehalt der Aussage ändert. Beim Übersetzen bedeutet es, dass in der Zielsprache ein Begriff gefunden werden muss, der die gleiche Bedeutung inne hat wie das ausgangssprachliche Wort. Dafür muss der Übersetzer sich mit der Kultur, aus der er und in die er übersetzt, sehr gut auskennen. Äquivalenz bedeutet eine Aussage gleichwertig auszudrücken, jedoch ist diese Gleichwertigkeit nicht mit Gleichheit gleichzusetzen. Als Äquivalenz wird in der Übersetzungswissenschaft die Beziehung zwischen dem Ausgangstext und dem Zieltext (Translat) bezeichnet (Seresová 2010).

Laut Neubert ist Äquivalenz textbezogen sowie kontext- und zeitgebunden. Die Äquivalenz kommt sogar erst durch die Textbezogenheit zustande. Erst der Text bzw. der Kontext verleiht dem Segment Äquivalenzqualität, erst die Struktur eines bestimmten Ausdrucks kontextualisiert die Bedeutung (Neubert 1988). Sie ist immer kontextgebunden, denn es gibt keine Bedeutung an sich. Deshalb lassen sich auch in guten Wörterbüchern Äquivalenzangebote nur auf Phrasen- oder Satzebene finden.

Koller hebt die Bedeutung von Äquivalenz beim Übersetzen hervor und betont, dass im Zieltext Qualitäten inhaltlicher, funktioneller und stilistischer Art gewahrt werden müssen. Diese Qualitäten gehören zu der Äquivalenzforderung (Koller 2011). Äquivalenz kann mit kommentierenden Übersetzungsverfahren erreicht werden. Koller unterscheidet zwischen fünf Entsprechungstypen (AS - Ausgangssprache, ZS - Zielsprache):

1. Eins-zu-eins-Entsprechung: ein AS-Ausdruck -> ein ZS-Ausdruck.
2. Eins-zu-viele-Entsprechung (Diversifikation): ein AS-Ausdruck -> viele ZS-Ausdrücke.

Koller unterscheidet drei mögliche Fälle:

a. man kann aus dem Textzusammenhang (Kontext) oder durch Allgemeinwissen auf die richtige Entsprechung schließen,
b. im konkreten Textzusammenhang ist es irrelevant,
c. es entsteht ein Übersetzungsproblem wenn ein unspezifizierter Ausdruck (Oberbegriff) gefordert ist (dabei handelt es sich um eine sog. unechte Lücke, weil sie rein textbedingt ist).

3. Viele-zu-eins-Entsprechung (Neutralisation): viele AS-Ausdrücke -> ein ZS-Ausdruck. Die durch die Neutralisation verloren gegangene Entsprechung in der Zielsprache kann eventuell „durch adjektivische und Genitiv-Attribute, Zusammensetzungen, adverbiale Zusätze etc. ausgedrückt werden".

4. Eins-zu-Null-Entsprechung (Lücke): ein AS-Ausdruck -> ZS-Fehlstelle.

Es handelt sich um echte Lücken im lexikalischen System der Zielsprache, bezüglich des Übersetzungsauftrags sind es nur vorläufige Lücken, d. h. der Übersetzer muss die Lücke schließen. Diese gibt es besonders bei Realien-Bezeichnungen (landeskonventionelle, kulturspezifische Elemente).

5. Eins-zu-Teil-Entsprechung: ein AS-Ausdruck -> Teil des ZS-Ausdrucks.

Typische Beispiele sind Farbbezeichnungen, wenn die Farbenspektren in der Ausgangsprache und Zielsprache unterschiedlich aufgeteilt werden (Koller 1992: 232).

Neben dem Begriff Äquivalenz wird in der auf die Übersetzungswissenschaft bezogenen Werken oft auch der Begriff Adaptation erwähnt. Bei der Adaptation bei der Übersetzung des Ausgangstexts handelt es sich um eine Angleichung einer nächstmöglichen Situation im Zieltext. In der Zielsprache muss dabei ein fehlendes, als solches nicht existierendes Element „erfunden" bzw. „sehr frei" übersetzt oder umschrieben werden. Aus diesem Grund ist die Abgrenzung und explizite Unterscheidung zwischen Adaptation und Äquivalenz oftmals nur sehr schwer möglich.

Modelle des Übersetzungsverfahrens

Im Anschluss an das Obenerwähnte sollte die Tatsache hervorgehoben werden, dass es zwischen der sogenannten Übersetzungsmethode und dem jeweiligen Übersetzungsverfahren einen bedeutenden Unterschied gibt. Diese Unterschiedlichkeit beruht auf der terminologischen und oft auch konzeptuellen Nichtübereinstimmung vieler Autoren im Bereich der Translatologie. Die Übersetzungsmethode, d.h. das „Wie wird übersetzt", bezieht sich auf den gesamten Text. Sie hängt vom Texttyp und Übersetzungszweck ab, die Übersetzungsverfahren beziehen sich hingegen auf kleinere Textabschnitte und hängen von der Übersetzungsmethode und vom Sprachenpaar ab. Der Entschluss zu der einen oder anderen Übersetzungsmethode hängt sowohl vom Texttyp als auch vom Übersetzungszweck ab (Snell-Hornby 2006). In der Fachliteratur wird es auch oftmals zwischen der „wörtlichen" bzw. der sogenannten „freien Übersetzung" unterschieden. Im Gegensatz zur Übersetzungsmethode steht das sogenannte Übersetzungsverfahren, das im folgenden Teil des Beitrags näher eingegangen wird.

Die translatologische Analyse spielt bei der Vorbereitungsphase des Übersetzens eine nicht unterschätzende Rolle und kann im bedeutenden Ausmaß die Qualität der Übersetzung beeinflussen. Die Analyse kann dem Übersetzer helfen, den Ausgangstext gründlich und aus verschiedenen Blickwinkeln zu analysieren. Auf der Grundlage der Analyse entscheidet sich der Übersetzer für die jeweiligen Übersetzungsverfahren. Als der erste hat sich im deutschsprachigen Raum mit dem Problem der Kulturspezifika L. R. Politzer auseinandergesetzt. Schon im Jahre 1966 hat er zwei Vorgehensweisen der Übersetzung von Kulturspezifika vorgeschlagen: Entweder man verzichtet auf die Übersetzung und gebraucht das Wort der Fremdsprache (vielleicht mit einer erklärenden Anmerkung), oder man versucht, den Begriff der fremden Kultur durch einen ähnlichen Begriff der eigenen Sprache zu ersetzen. In manchen Situationen, in denen Beibehaltung des fremden Ausdrucks unmöglich ist (Übersetzung eines Schauspiels, Fernsehprogramm usw.), führt dieser zweite Ausweg zur Verfälschung des Originals (Politzer 1966).

In den letzten Jahrzehnten wurden unterschiedliche Konzepte der Übersetzungsverfahren zwischen der Ausgangsprache und der Zielsprache entwickelt, die die Kategorisierung des Translationsprozesses ermöglichen. Im Jahre 1958 präsentierten die Vertreter der Stylistique Comparée J. P. Vinay und J. Darbelnet das System der Übersetzungsverfahren, wobei sie zwei Hauptübersetzungsmethoden unterschieden: direkte und indirekte (Gibová 2010). Dieses System hat die nächste Behandlung dieses Themas stark beeinflusst. Von den Übersetzungsverfahren des Modells von Vinay-Darbelnet überwiegen zwei grundlegende Übersetzungsstrategien: Exotisierung und Adaptierung. Diese Begriffe entsprechen im Deutschen den Begriffen „verfremdende und einbürgernde Übersetzung". Das Prinzip der Exotisierung ist ein Beibehaltungsprinzip gegenüber dem Zieltext, wobei die Elemente des Originals überwiegen. Das Prinzip der Adaptierung kann man auch als ein Ersatzprinzip bezeichnen, wobei die Elemente der Zielsprache im Vordergrund stehen. Gerken unterscheidet sechs Beziehungsmöglichkeiten für diese Kulturbezüge zwischen dem Ausgangstext (AT) und dem Zieltext (ZT) (Gerken 1999: 112):

1. „Entsprechung": Das AT-Element und das ZT-Element haben den gleichen Bezeichnungsinhalt.
2. „Erweiterung": Das AT-Element hat einen spezifischeren Bezeichnungsinhalt als das ZT-Element.
3. „Einengung": Das ZT-Element hat einen spezifischeren Bezeichnungsinhalt als das AT-Element.
4. „Ersetzung": Das AT-Element und das ZT-Element haben unterschiedliche Bezeichnungsinhalte, aber sie lassen sich einander vom Sinn her zuordnen.
5. „Auslassung": Einem AT-Element lässt sich weder von der Bezeichnung noch vom Sinn her ein ZT-Element zuordnen.
6. „Hinzufügung": Einem ZT-Element lässt sich weder von der Bezeichnung noch vom Sinn her ein AT-Element zuordnen.

Etwas spezifischer auf diese Problematik eingehend, bezeichnet Koller die „soziokulturellen Bedeutungen" in einem Text als „spezifisch für Kulturen, Länder, soziale Gruppen oder Religionsgemeinschaften" (Koller 2004: 290). Diese sind nämlich mitgemeint und ihre Kenntnis wird beim Leser vorausgesetzt. Sie sind zu sehen im Zusammenhang mit der Kulturspezifik der Übersetzung bzw. der Verankerung von Texten in einem bestimmten kommunikativen Zusammenhang. Die Vermittlung von solchen soziokulturellen Bedeutungen ist z. B. oft nur in der Form von Kommentaren möglich (Koller 2004). Weiterhin spricht Koller im Zusammenhang mit Uneinigkeiten der Ausgangs- und Zielsprache von „echten Lücken im lexikalischen Sys-

tem der Zielsprache" (Koller 2004: 232). Es handelt sich um Inhalte von „Realien-Bezeichnungen (sog. landeskonventionellen, kulturspezifischen Elementen), d. h. Ausdrücken und Namen für Sachverhalte politischer, institutioneller, sozio-kultureller, geographischer Art, die eigenartig sind für bestimmte Länder" (Koller 2004: 232). Koller führt dann „Übersetzungsverfahren" an, mit denen der Übersetzer diese Lücken schließen kann. Von diesen Verfahren sind folgende für literarische Übersetzungen von Interesse (Koller 2004: 232):

1. Übernahme des Ausdrucks aus der Ausgangsprache in die Zielsprache (ggf. in Anführungszeichen) als Zitatwort (Fremdwort) oder als Anpassung an die phonetischen Normen der Zielsprache (Lehnwort),
2. Lehnübersetzung (wörtliche Übersetzung),
3. Explikation (Kommentare, definitorische Umschreibung)
4. Adaptation (der Ausdruck aus der Ausgangsprache wird durch einen solchen zielsprachigen Ausdruck ersetzt, der im kommunikativen Zusammenhang der Zielsprache eine ähnliche Funktion oder Stellenwert hat).

Nach Schreiber umfasst die Entlehnung als solche eine „weitgehend unveränderte Übernahme eines graphisch angepassten Ausdrucks" (Schreiber 2006: 41). Die ausgangssprachliche Referenz findet dabei unübersetzt direkten Eingang in die Zielsprache. Pedersen beschreibt, dass sie dann, wenn komplett übernommen, auf eine gewisse Art und Weise hervorgehoben werden kann, meistens durch Anführungszeichen oder Kursivschrift (Pedersen 2005). Zudem kann sie minimal an zielsprachige Normen und Konventionen angepasst werden, indem orthographische (z. B. Transkription) oder grammatikalische (z. B. Auslassung des Artikels) Veränderungen vorgenommen werden. Bei der Entlehnung ist der Grad der Nähe zum ausgangssprachlichen Segment am größten, weil ein oder mehrere zusammenhängende lexikalische Elemente unverändert aus dem Ausgangstext in den Zieltext übertragen werden. Nach Erich Prunč dienen die Entlehnungen oder Direktentlehnungen dazu, lexikalische Lücken im Zieltext aufzufüllen. Dabei werden graphisch oder phonetisch ausgangssprachliche Elemente bzw. Lexeme oder Lexemkombinationen in die Zielsprache mehr oder weniger unverändert übernommen (Prunč 2007). Nachdem diese Elemente graphemisch und inhaltlich unverändert übernommen worden sind, werden sie eingebürgert bzw. orthographisch und lautlich der zielsprachlichen Schreib- und

Sprechweise angepasst und somit zu Lehnwörtern. Dabei muss die Tatsache betont werden, dass Ausdrücke oder Bezeichnungen der Ausgangsprache gibt, die nicht immer eins zu eins in die Zielsprache übernommen werden können. Dann handelt es um eine passende Paraphrasierung und man kann nicht mehr von Entlehnung sprechen. Hierzu zählen insbesondere Landesspezifika als auch Varietäten einer Sprache (z.B. die Besonderheiten des österreichischen oder schweizerischen Deutsch, die eben nirgendwo sonst in dieser Weise auch nicht in anderen deutschsprachigen Ländern vorkommen). Die Entlehnung ist also nicht so sehr ein Problem der Übersetzung, da Übernahme und Einbürgerung eines Fremdworts in der Zielsprache eben eher in den Problembereich der Lexik gehören.

Die Lehnübersetzung ist nicht unbedingt als eine „wörtliche" Übersetzung anzusehen, sondern vielmehr als eine Glied-für-Glied-Übersetzung (Schreiber 2006). Der Grund, weshalb der Übersetzer zur Lehnübersetzung greifen kann, kann zum Beispiel das Fehlen einer identischen Wortstruktur in der Zielsprache sein. Bei einer wörtlichen Übersetzung wird die ausgangssprachliche Referenz „wortwörtlich" in die Zielsprache übersetzt. Dadurch wird das zielsprachige Publikum meistens mit einem ausgangssprachigen, aus dem ausgangskulturellen Begriffssystem stammenden Begriff in der Zielsprache konfrontiert, was verwirrend und unverständlich sein kann. Diese Strategie kann sich somit als inadäquat erweisen, doch dies hängt, wie auch bei anderen Kulturspezifika, immer von der jeweiligen Situation ab. Nedergaard-Larsen unterscheidet hierbei zwischen Imitation (wenn das Wort in der Zielsprache eigentlich nicht funktioniert) und direkter Übersetzung (wenn das Wort in der Zielsprache existiert) (Nedergaard-Larsen 1993).

Bei Übersetzung von Kulturspezifika kann es manchmal auch zur Spezifizierung oder Generalisierung kommen. Bei Spezifizierung wird die ausgangssprachliche Referenz in der Zielsprache konkretisiert, indem ein Unterbegriff eingeführt wird. So könnte beispielsweise engl. dog mit Chihuahua übersetzt werden. Umgekehrt wird generalisiert, wenn die ausgangssprachliche Referenz in der Zielsprache mit einer verallgemeinernden Bezeichnung, einem Oberbegriff, ersetzt wird. Den Unterschied zwischen der Generalisierung und Ergänzung (s. Beibehaltung) sieht Pedersen hauptsächlich darin, dass im ersten Falle ein zielsprachiges Element entsteht, das weniger präzise ist als das ausgangssprachliche. Bei der Ergänzung dagegen verläuft es andersrum, da wir es mit Meronymen zu tun haben – es wird nur eine, hierbei relevante Eigenschaft hervorgehoben (Pedersen 2005).

Eine andere Möglichkeit stellt Substitution dar. Dann wird das Kulturspezifikum entweder ersetzt oder paraphrasiert. Nedergaard-Larsen und Pedersen definieren Paraphrase als Ersetzung des Kulturspezifikums mit einem Element, das „neutral" ist, doch deren Sinn und die möglichen Konnotationen wiedergibt (Pedersen 2005). Sie fügen hinzu, dass die Referenz dem Zielpublikum nicht unbekannt sein muss, doch auf Grund räumlicher Beschränkungen auf eine Alternative ausgewichen wird. Die Ersetzung einer ausgangssprachlichen Referenz, die für das Zielpublikum höchstwahrscheinlich unverständlich wäre, mit einer anderen zielsprachigen Referenz, wird von Nedergaard-Larsen (1993) als kulturelle Anpassung, von Pedersen (2005) als kulturelle Substitution bezeichnet.

Übersetzer haben auch die Möglichkeit ein Kulturspezifikum in der Übersetzung auszulassen. Das Wort wird hierbei im Zieltext bewusst ausgelassen, weil keine andere Strategie zufriedenstellend ist und/oder es auf Grund von medienspezifischen Beschränkungen nicht möglich ist, die Referenz wiederzugeben. In einigen Fällen kann die Erwähnung des Wortes auch irrelevant werden. Die Auslassung stellt eine nachvollziehbare Strategie dar – keinen einfachen Weg, ein Übersetzungsproblem umzugehen, indem man es

VERFAHREN	ERKLÄRUNG	BEISPIEL
L1: lexikalische Entlehnung	Übernahme einer bezeichnung aus der AS	Jeep – Jeep
L2: lexikalische Ersetzung	Trivialfall: Ersetzung eines Lexems durch ein anderes	convertible – Cabriolet
L3: lexikalische Strukturwechsel	Änderung im Bereich der Wortbildung	Injustice – Ungerechtigkeit
G1: grammatische Wort-für-Wort-Übersetzung	Beibehaltung von Wortzahl, -art, -stellung	Where is it? – Wo is est?
G2: grammatische Permutation	Umstellung von Konstituenten	I have seen the advert – Ich habe die Werbung gesehen.
G3/4: grammatische Expansion / Reduktion	Erhöhung bzw. Verringerung der Wortzahl	I would often come down here – Ich kam oft hierunter.
G5: grammatische Intrakategorialer Wechsel	wortinterne Änderung der grammtischen Funktion	Man is evil. Der Mensch ist böse.
G6: grammatische Transposition	Änderung der Wortart	He is departing from the point of view that... – Er geht davon aus Do not sit on the grass – Das Lagern auf dem Rasen ist verboten.
G7: grammatische Transformation	Änderung der syntaktischen Konstruktion	the tears shed in vain – die Tränen, die umsonst vergossen wurden
S1: semantische Entlehnung	Verbalisierung der gleichen Inhaltsmerkmale, z.B. bei vollständig äquivalenten Entsprechungen von Redewendungen	he's got a screw loose – er hat eine Schraube locker
S2: semantische Modulation	Änderung der Perspektive durch Verbalisierung anderer Inhaltsmerkmale	I didn't have much time to spare – Meine Zeit war knapp.
S3/4: semantische Explikation / Implikation	Erhöhung bzw. Verringerung des Explikationsgrades	non-western natives – Eingeborene innerhalb des westlichen Kulturkreises, until the referee blew the final whistle – bis der Schiedsrichter abpfiff
S5: semantische Mutation	Änderung des denotativen Inhalts zugunsten eines andern Invarianten, z.B. bei Reimzwang in 'formbetonten' Gedichtübersetzungen	Ein Wiesel saß auf einem Kiesel inmitten Bachgeriesel – a weasel perched on an easel within a patch of teasel (Ch. Morgenstern)
Hilfsverfahren	Anmerkungen zu Explikationen, Zusätze, Kommentare	I.R.B. Irisch-Republikanische Brigade

einfach ignoriert. In einer ganz konkreten Situation, in einem bestimmten Kontext und unter Betrachtung der bereits besprochenen Einflussfaktoren kann die

Auslassung eines Kulturspezifikums die bestmögliche Strategie bilden, eine konkrete Hürde zu überwinden. Snell-Hornby fasst die Verfahrensmöglichkeiten mit deren Erklärungen in der folgenden

Tabelle zusammen:

Übersetzungsverfahren / Techniken der Textübersetzung nach Snell-Hornby 1998, S. 152

Anhand dieser breiten Möglichkeiten, wie bei einer Übersetzung die Probleme umzugehen, unterscheidet Reinart zwischen zwei Hauptrichtungen der Übersetzungen. Es handelt sich um sprachlich und kulturell einbürgernde Übersetzung und sprachlich und kulturell verfremdende Übersetzung. Bei der ersten bewegt sich Übersetzer im Rahmen der sprachlich-stilistischen Normen der Zielsprache, die zum Zeitpunkt der Übersetzung gelten und der Ausgangstext wird in die Welt des zielsprachlichen Rezipienten überführt. Bei der zweiten orientiert Übersetzer die sprachliche Normen und kulturelle Gegebenheiten auf die Ausgangkultur (Reinart 2009).

Schlusswort

Aus diesen Annahmen ergibt sich eine positive Wirkung, die die übersetzten Texte in der fremden Kultur haben können. Gute Übersetzungen bieten eine Grundlage für das bessere Verständnis von anderen Völkern und ermöglichen einen weit gefassten Austausch. Hierbei sollten die Unterschiede, die es zwischen den Kulturen gibt, beim Übersetzungsprozess beachtet werden sollten. Weiterhin müssen sie erkannt und richtig interpretiert werden, wofür man das entsprechende Wissen und die hierfür nötige Sensibilisierung benötigt.

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CARACTERÍSTICAS DEL LENGUAJE ECONÓMICO ESPAÑOL ACTUAL

MÁRIA SPIŠIAKOVÁ

Resumen

A base del análisis de los textos económicos en la revista Alternativas Económicas, el presente artículo caracteriza el lenguaje económico español actual centrándose en la formación de palabras (morfológica y semántica), el uso de los préstamos, sobre todo los anglicismos, y el uso de las metáforas (lexicalizadas y ocasionales), locuciones y otros fraseologismos.

Palabras clave
lenguaje económico, formación de palabras, préstamo, metafora

Características generales de lenguas de especialidad

La lengua es un organismo vivo que no para de evolucionar, desarrollarse y cambiar. En los últimos años podemos observar cambios en el lengujae causados por el desarrollo de las tecnologías, rápidas y directas formas de la comunicación, la creciente influencia del inglés, etc.

Gracias a las nuevas formas de comunicación como es el Internet, redes sociales o televisión nos llegan las informaciones en un tiempo récord y sobre todos los temas. Este ritmo del desarrollo se refleja en el idioma de la manera que, por ejemplo, disminuyen los límites entre los diferentes estilos y registros, es decir, en el lenguaje coloquial entra el vocabulario especializado (*balanza, crédito, bolsa, banca, bono, déficit, rentabilidad del lenguaje económico; acreedor, finiquito, estafa* del campo de Derecho)[1] y al revés. Y por otro lado, el lenguaje especializado se ve afectado por las formas coloquiales o literarias (metáforas, fraseologismos, locuciones, voces coloqiales).

Las lenguas de especialidad, lenguas especializadas, lenguajes especializados, lenguas, lengua o lenguaje con fines específicos son algunos de los nombres que recibe este lenguaje que usan los profesionales de diferentes sectores. Podemos hablar del lenguaje jurídico, administrativo, economista, periodístico, militar, informático, médico, etc. Desde el punto de vista de la estratificación vertical o diastrática de la lengua se trata de uno de los registros lingüísticos y dentro de este registro de lenguajes especializados podemos hablar de diferentes jergas profesionales. Otaola Olano habla de la jerga o argot de la siguiente manera: „Hoy día se habla indistintamnete de la jerga o argot estudiantil, de la jerga o argot de los toreros, de la jerga o argot

de los médicos, [...] por tanto, siguiendo a F. Lázaro Carreter, el término jerga se puede entender en sentido lato, como vocabulario especial de una profesión u oficio, es decir, una lengua especial usada por diversos colectivos. [...] se diferencian los lenguajes marginales y los lenguajes especiales (profesionales, del mundo de deporte, etc..“ (Otaola Olano, 2004:34). Cabré y Gómez de Enterría conciben los lenguajes especializados o de especialidad como „el conjunto de recursos de una lengua, complementados con los procedentes de otros sistemas, utilizados en una situación específica“. (2006: 11).

Las lenguas para fines específicos se caracterizan por el uso de recursos específicos. Utilizan, como comenta Moreno Fernández (1999) en términos generales, la gramática de la lengua común, con ciertas fórmulas o usos matizados, por ejemplo, en el lenguaje jurídico aparecen formas de tratamiento específicas (*señoría* o *letrado*) o el uso específico de ciertas formas verbales (el futuro de subjuntivo o el gerundio) y como frecuente puede ser el uso de procedimientos específicos de formación de palabras.

Es el ámbito del léxico donde se presentan numerosos elementos específicos, muchas veces exclusivos, de las diferentes variedades de especialidad. Esos elementos específicos suelen manifestarse en forma de terminologías. Según Moreno Fernández „La significación de los vocablos científicos es denotativa. Estos lenguajes, que por definición son unívocos y objetivos, evitan las equivalencias laterales de valor estilístico y expresivo.“ (1999:5).

Mateo Martínez caracteriza los textos técnicos o científicos como textos que „no son lugar apropiado para los significados ocultos, implícitos o sugeridos y su objetivo final es alcanzar el ideal: una palabra, un concepto. Lo que se lee es aquello que el autor del texto ha querido decir y nada más.“ (2007:192)

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1   *Ejemplos tomados de Gómez-Pablos (2016)*

El español económico

El lenguaje económico es uno de los lenguajes más dinámicos y creativos de los últimos años. Es un lenguaje que no es tan estrictamente técnico, veremos más adelante que tampoco es tan exacto y denominativo, ya que gusta del uso de las metáforas, juegos de palabras, fraseología, es decir, los recursos utilizados en el lenguaje literario o coloquial.

El español económico de hoy día se caracteriza sobre todo por la influencia del inglés a todos los niveles. Las palabras inglesas se adoptan por el español sin traducir (*manager, start up, login*, etc.). Los sustantivos ingleses en -ty son adaptados al español mediante el sufijo -idad (*portabilidad, comparatibilidad, operatibilidad,* etc.). A menudo se calca el término inglés (*comercio justo, bancarización, financiarizar*); se forman sustantivos y adjetivos prefijados (*desaprendizaje, autoempleado, interoperable*) o se crean verbos a partir de sustantivos y adjetivos (*fidelizar, posicionar, externalizar*). Aparecen compuestos a la manera del inglés (*plataforma de colaboración, tienda de descuento duro, consultor de negocios)* e incluso los híbridos, es decir, un término en inglés más término en español *(lobby de presión, mercado online, broker financiero)* o término en inglés adaptado morfológicamente al español *(customizar,esponsorizar, marketizar)*[2].

La prensa económica quiere acercarse al lector semiexperto mediante una serie de estrategias léxicas y comunicativas como el uso de términos más generales o incluso coloquiales, metáforas, locuciones, frases explicativas y aclarativas, etc.

Como hemos mencionado y como veremos en nuestro análisis, las metáforas son uno de los fenómenos más característicos en este tipo de lenguaje. Sirven como recurso estilístico del autor para acercarse al receptor, para hacer el texto más atractivo e interesante y también para hacerlo más comprensible para un público menos experto. Nos hemos encontrado tanto con las metáforas lexicalizadas como con las metáforas ocasionales o contextuales. Muchos términos económicos son metaforucos (*números rojos, burbuja inmobiliaria, cláusulas suelo*).

Otros rasgo característico del lenguaje económico es el uso frecuente de las colocaciones que pueden ser, igualmente, que las metáforas las colocaciones usuales, corrientes, pero también se forman colocaciones nuevas, combinaciones interesantes, no usuales y muchas veces metafóricas *(el aluvión de demandas, un país exhausto, el gobierno maniatado, la deuda desbocada, la austeridad extrema, un porcentaje escandaloso, indicador brutal).*

Objeto y métodos del estudio

El objetivo de nuestro estudio es hacer el análisis del texto económico para poder caracterizar el español económico actual. Hemos analizado la revista Alternativas Económicas núm. 49, julio-agosto 2017. En el análisis nos hemos centrado en los puntos que mencionamos a continuación fijándonos en las nuevas tendencias y fenómenos que vienen apareciendo en el lenguaje en los últimos años relacionados con las nuevas tendencias en la sociedad como es la influencia del inglés, las nuevas tecnologías, rápidas e inmediatas posibilidades de comunicación, etc. Hemos elaborado un corpuus de 1870 unidades léxicas, las cuales hemos caracterizado según su formación o procedencia siguiendo los puntos:

- Formación de palabras (abreviaturas, siglas, palabras prefijadas, derivadas, compuestas, parasintéticas)
- Anglicismos (adaptados, no adaptados, híbridos, calcos)
- Otros préstamos
- Términos creados a base de la metáfora, metonimia, sinecdoque, etc.
- Otros elementos diferenciadores (gerundios, participios, adverbios, colocaciones)
- Uso de las metáforas, locuciones, fraseologismos

Mateo Martínez (2007) ha presentado el siguiente gráfico en el que ha colocado diferentes tipos de lenguajes especializados según el grado de especialización, desde el de las ciencias puras (descriptivo, normativo, prescriptivo, que suele ser escrito; claramente denotativo, de sintaxis menos compleja, muy transparente) hasta el menos especializado (el lenguaje natural en su doble faceta coloquial y literaria).

Tomando de referencia este gráfico podríamos colocar el objeto de nuestra investigación en la mitad del eje o incluso en la parte de los lenguajes menos especializados, ya que se trata del análisis de los textos de una revista económica. Nos movemos entre el lenguaje semitécnico y divulgativo.

Alternativas Económicas se define a sí misma como una revista que explica la economía y sus efectos en la vida de las personas.

Existe desde el marzo de 2013 y es una cooperativa de trabajo asociado (Alternativas Económicas SCCL). El director, periodista Andreu Missé, había trabajado en los periódicos *El Periódico y El País*. La revista sale en la edición impresa y en versión digital de pago (www.alternativaseconomicas.coop) una vez al mes en una tirada de 10000 ejemplares. Utiliza un estilo didáctico y divulgativo pero manteniendo el máximo rigor. Cada ejemplar consta de 68 páginas de varios bloques informativos con artículos, reportajes, entrevistas y opiniones de especialistas.

Formación de palabras en español

La lengua es un sistema vivo que se va desarrollando y cambiando continuamente ya que una de sus funciones básicas es representar el mundo que nos rodea. El español se enriquece con la incorporación de nuevos vocablos de diferente índole (préstamos de otras lenguas o formación de nuevas palabras de las ya existentes). La sociedad y la situación actual favorecen la creación de palabras, ya que siempre aparece algo nuevo que denominar en lo que se refiere a tecnologías, materiales, inventos, objetos, etc. Según Otaola (2004) hay tres tipos de neología:

- neología formal
- neología semántica
- neología del préstamo

Dentro de la neología formal entendemos la formación de nuevas palabras por medio de la:

- derivación (prefijación, sufijación): austeridad, comunitario
- composición: hipoteca basura, sobreproteger
- parasíntesis: sudamericano, desfiscalización
- abreviación:
- → siglas: UE, BOE, OCDE

- → acrónimos: ciberespacio
- → acortamiento: profe, peli

La neología semántica se basa en la creación de un sentido nuevo o ampliación del sentido de una voz existente ya. Aquí hablamos de:

- antonomasia (uso del nombre propio como genérico): *rambo*
- metáfora (creación a base de la analogía, de la semejanza): *anillo verde*
- metonimia (creación a base de una relación de contigüidad): tomar *una copa*
- sinécdoque (tipo de metonimia, creación a base de la relación la parte por todo y todo por parte): *cascos azules*
- elipsis (supresión de un elemento): *unas* (zapatillas) *deportivas*
- homonimia (la ampliación del sentido de una palabra): alunizar (robar rompiendo el escaparate con el coche)
- Neología de préstamo se basa en la incorporación de voces extranjeras. Distinguimos dos tipos de préstamos:
- préstamos (pueden tener diversos grados de adaptación):
- → sin alteración: *flash, piercing*
- → adaptado a la estructura fónica: *estandin, marquetin*
- → adaptado morfológicamente, pueden formar derivaciones: *tuit – tuitear, escaner - escanear, chat - chatear, chateando*
- → integrado completamente a todos los niveles: *esponzor, grafitero, efecto boomerang*
- calcos: traducción literal del otro idioma: *fin de semana* (de *weekend*), baloncesto (de *básquetbol*)

El procediemitno menos extendidio de la creación de nuevas palabras es la creación onomatopéyica (*tictac, zigzag, chupachup, frufrú, pimpampúm*).

A continuación ofrecemos el análisis de nuestro corpus que está formado por las palabras y construcciones encontradas en la revista Alterantivas Económicas, num. 49, julio-agosto 2017.

Creación léxica mediante la morfología derivativa

Aquí incluimos la formación de palabras que tradicionalmente se estudian dentro de la morfología derivativa, como derivación, composición, parasíntesis, abreviación.

Sufijación

Los sufijos más productivos son:
Adjetivales:
- al: *patrimonial, coyuntural, judicial, accionarial, institucional, laboral, estructural, diferencial*

+especializado				-especializado
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
lenguaje técnico (ciencias puras)	lenguaje técnico (ciencias sociales y humanas)	lenguaje semitécnico	lenguaje divulgativo	lenguaje natural
↓	↓	↓	↓	
Matemáticas Biología Física Medicina	Economía Derecho Lingüística, etc.	Negocios (Comercio y Finanzas), Turismo, Ocio, etc.	Prensa económica Documentales Científicos, etc.	

2   Ejemplos tomados de Mateo Martínez, J. (2007)

- -ble: *favorable, apoyable, contable, increíble, equiparable, imprescindible, imposible, perceptible, sostenible, accesible, descriptible, rentable, sensible, visible, comparable, favorable, perceptible, alcanzable, estimable, innumerable, inacabable, renovable*
- -ado: *vinculado*
- -ante: *vinculante, montante, contaminante, radiante, abundante*
- -ario: *comunitario, bancario*
- -ativo: *significativo*
- -ente: *vigente, contribuyente, insuficiente, eficiente*

Sustantivos:
- -ada: *oleada, riada*
- -aje: *porcentaje, peaje, peregrinaje*
- -azo: *frenazo, batacazo*
- -ción: *renovación, información, contradicción, precipitación, operación, prestación, recaudación, reactivación, aceptación, capitulación, obligación, abstención, predisposición, resignación, aproximación, adjudicación, indignación, aprobación, recuperación, reducción, reestructuración, universalización, protección, movilización, intervención, cotización, ampliación, presentación, preparación, apropiación, participación, capitalización, estigmatización, financiación, sensibilización, visibilización, creación, elaboración, bonificación, inflación, ralentización, depreciación, aceleración, exportación, posición, separación, aspiración, deslocalización, restricción, reconsideración, redefinición, reunificación, cualificación, revisión, previsión, desregulación, reglamentación, indemnización, conciliación, protección, compensación, desfiscalización, repatriación, optimización, inmigración, globalización, inserción, fidelización, destrucción, extracción, fracturación, creación, gestión, investigación, especulación, reinvidicación, especulación, mediación, recuperación, conversión, divulgación, industrialización, reconstrucción, extracción, distribución, comercialización, producción, fijación, regulación, aprobación*
- -dad: *falsedad, entidad, contabilidad, autoridad, inestabilidad, austeridad, severidad, ansiedad, capacidad, debilidad, popularidad, productividad, veleidad, prioridad, paridad, propiedad, habilidad, actividad, rentabilidad, arbitrariedad, generosidad, discrecionalidad, opacidad*
- -ez: *liquidez, vejez*
- -ía: *consultoría, cuantía, mejoría, abogacía, asesoría*
- -iento: *vencimiento, endeudamiento, empecinamiento, hundimiento, requerimiento, crecimiento, procedimiento, emprendimiento, razonamiento, envejecimiento, encarecimiento*

- -ismo: *espejismo, anarquismo, activismo, tacticismo, cooperativismo, franquismo*
- -ista: *accionista, izquierdista, realista, activista, preferentista, bonista, bajista, idealista, unionista, laborista, nacionalista, castrista, cooperativista, rentista*
- -or/a: *ahorrador, auditor, inversor, indicador, coordinador, cofundador, acreedor, negociador, gobernador, operador, empleador, fundador, consumidor, legislador*
- -sión: *conclusión, adhesión, fusión, progresión*

Verbales:
- -izar: *computarizar, cubanizar, capitalizar, universalizar, autorizar, penalizar, automatizar, valorizar, fidelizar, financiarizar, comercializar*
- -ear: *resetear, sanear*
- -ar: *abanderar, negociar*

Prefijación

- a-: *asumir, abanderar, aproximarse, acreedor, agravar, afiliar, afrontar, aplazar, asalariado, adeudar, abaratar*
- anti-: *antieuropeo, antiausteridad, antieuro, antisistema*
- auto-: *autogestionar, autoemprender, autogestión, autoconsumo, autocrítico, autodestruir, autocumplido, autoorganizar*
- con-: *contribuir, consenso*
- coo-: *coordinador, cooperar*
- co-: *cofundador, correlación, coautor, cocreación, colaborar, coconstrucción, covivienda*
- contra-: *contradicción, controvertido, contracorriente*
- de-/des-: *desmoralizado, desprenderse, desbloquear, descartarse, desplomarse, desbocado, desempleo, descomunal, desgaste, desvanecerse, desanimado, descontento, desahucio, desencanto, descarnado, desincentivar, desmentir, depreciación, deslocalizaciones, desventaja, desinversión, desregular, deshacerse, desbloquear, desfiscalización, desigualdad, depauperación, desestacionalización, desindustrialización, desequilibrio, desmantelar*
- dis-: *disminuir*
- en-/em-: *encaramar, endeudamiento, empeorar, encadenar, empapelar, emprendedor, envejecer, encarecer*
- euro-: *Eurobanco, eurobono, eurozona, Eurogrupo, eurodiputado*
- ex-: *ex ministro, ex coordinadora, ex propiación, exterior, excedentario, ex presidente, extraer, excluir[3]*

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[3] Según las nuevas reglas ortográficas el prefijo ex- se escribe junto con la palabra si es monoverbal y separado si es pluriverbal. Hemos dejado los ejemplos como estaban escritos en la revista.

- extra-: *extraordinario, extrajudicial, extractivismo*
- i/in-: *irrelevante, inversor inestabilidad, incapacidad, impuesto, imposible, incapaz, indignación, insostenible, implementar, indescriptible, inmobiliario, incremento, insuficiencia, ineficaz, inextricable, indemnización, inalcanzable, inmigración, inequidad, inestimable, innumerable, imprescindible, inacabable, intacto, ineficiencia, inmemorial, inesperado, ineficiente*
- infra-: *infravalorado, infraestructura, infraempleo*
- inter-: *intervención, intergeneracional, intercambio, inteponer*
- macro-: *macroeconómico*
- micro-: *microred*
- mono-: *monoproducto, monovolúmen*
- multi-: *multinacional, multiuso, multiplicar, multimillonario*
- neo-: *neonazis, neoliberal*
- pre-: *presupuestario, preponderancia*
- re-: *recorte, recuperación, reinvertir, retomar, reducción, reestructuración, reactivar, reconducir, recapitalizar, renovar, reconocer, requerir, recuperar, reequilibrio, reconsideración, redefinición, renegociar, reunificación, recolocar, reaparecer, rescindir, repatriación, retribución, redistribuir, revalorizar, repensar, reinvertir, recaudar, regulación, reinvidicación, reconstrucción, recopilar, renovar, reorientarse, retribución, reconsiderar, reavivar, reagrupar*
- sub-: *subordinado, subgobernador, subsidio, subcontrata*
- super-: *supervisión*
- vice-: *vicepresidente*

Composición

La composición es uno de los procesos frecuentes de la formación de palabras en español. Las palabras compuestas se escriben juntas o separadas: *sin papeles, empleo ecológico, política basura, cultura basura, hipoteca basura, edificio inteligente, seguridad inteligente, empresa virtual, malvivir, socialdemócrata, justiprecio, malestar, retroactivo, portavoz, antemano, sobresaltos, aeroespacial, maniobra, trimestre, entredicho, telecomunicaciones, sobreproteger, contrapartida, circunscribir, contrarrestar, sobrevivencia, audiovisual, rocódromo, fotovoltaico, termosolar, plataforma, hidroeléctrico, sobrecostes, ecolocompatible*

Parasíntesis

Las palabras parsintéticas son las formadas por la composición y la derivación a la vez *(mil+eur+ista)* o son palabras que llevan el sufijo y prefijo en una sola unidad *(a+ventaja+do)*: *adjudicación, contradicción,* intervención, inversor, contribuyente, inestabilidad, incapacidad, eurocomunitario, desindustrialización, maniatado, desmoralizado, endeudamiento, ensoñación, reactivación, desbocado, antiausteridad, coordinador, cofundador, predisposición, indignación, aprobación, reestructuración, insostenible, acreedor, indescriptible, subgobernador, inaccesible, estadounidense, depreciación, reconsideración, redefinición, reunificación, desregulación, antieuropeísmo autoemprendimiento, descontrolado, indemnización, desfiscalización, malnutrición, inalcanzable, repatriación, retribución, desigualdad, desestacionalización, geoposicionamiento, endedudamiento, inmigración, redistributivo, envejecimiento, recaudación, cooperativismo, reivindicación, reconstrucción, encarecimiento, desregulación, discrecionalidad, postextractivismo, hipercomunicación.

Abreviación

Entre los tipos de la abreviación prevalece la formación de las siglas que se forman de las primeras letras de los nombres pluriverbales:
BFA (Banco Financiero y Ahorros)
OPS (Oferta pública de suscripción)
PIB (producto interior bruto)
BCE (Banco Central Europeo)
FMI (Fondo Monetario Internacional)
OCDE (Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos)
KKE (Partido Comunista Griego)
UP (Unidad Popular)
ND (Nueva Democracia)
PSOE (Partido Socialista Obrero Español)
UE (Unión Europea)
CNMV (Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores)
JUR (Junta Única de Resolución)
FROB (Fondo de Reestructuración Ordenada Bancaria)
AEMEC (Asociación Española de Accionistas Minoritarios de Empresas Cotizadas)
OCU (Organización de Consumidores y Usuarios)
OPA (oferta pública de adquisición)
LAU (Ley de Arrendamientos Urbanos)
IGAS (Inspección General de Asuntos Sociales)
G20 (Grupo de los 20)
G7 (Grupo de los 7)
IPC (Índice de precios de consumo)
IPI (Impuesto al Patrimonio Inmobiliario)
EPA (Encuesta de Población Activa)
I+D (Investigación y Desarrollo)
CNT (Confederación Nacional de Trabajo)
REAS (Red de Redes de Economía Alternativa y Solidaria)
MUMI (Museo de la Minería y la Industria de Asturias)
CTC (Costes de Transición a la Competencia)

Anglicismos

El lenguaje económico es uno de los registros en el que los anglicismos penetran con bastante facilidad y se usan, en muchos casos, sin adaptarse. Según el grado de adaptación distinguimos los siguientes anglicismos:

1. **Anglicismos no adaptados:** *ranquing, marqueting, manager, start up, reporting, ratio[4], shock, establishment, test, hedge funds, iPhone, iPad, Apple Pay, stock, gadgets, trailers, windfall profits, social business, hashtags, fake news, lobby, subprime, stockl, fracking*
2. **Adaptados a la fonética o morfología española:** *resetear, mitin, eslogan, liderazgo, líder, grafitero, blogeuero, selfi, estrés, choque*
3. **Adaptados:** *campus, chip, récord, mitin*

Abreviaturas, siglas: *EBA (European Banking Authority), AQR (fondo de inversiones llamado Applied Quantitative Research), BBRS (Board of Building Regulations and Standards), CET1 (Common Equity Tier 1), DCM (Demand chain management), DARPA (Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency), PIGS (Portugal, Irlanda, Grecia, España), BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), LETS (Local Exchange Trade System)*

Acrónimos. Es la unión de dos palabras acortadas de las cuales se conservan las sílabas iniciales de la primera y las finales de la segunda: *Brexit, Grexit, womenomics*

Híbridos. Son voces que tienen como base la palabra española existente y el afijo inglés o al revés o se trata de una construcción donde un elemnto es inglés otro español o es una palabra inglesa con el artículo español: *catering, consultoría, escanear, full equipo, Bailoutistán[5], stock de empleos, los big data, los niveles récord, hacer lobby, los takeholders, un centro de coworking, establishment político, la cloud, el streaming*

Calcos. Traducciones literales de palabras o construcciones inglesas: *aire acondicionado* (air conditioned), *fecha límite* (deadline), *trabajar duro* (work hard), *comercio justo* (fair trade)

Anglicismos semánticos. Se producen con las palabras que fonéticamente son parecidas, pero el significado es diferente, así que la palabra existente en español adquiere otro significado el de inglés:

- *agresivo* (agressive) en inglés significa "caracterizado por una gran energía, ambición o capacidad de iniciativo, mientras que en español es violento. Pero se usa en las construcciones como la *campaña agresiva, el vendedor agresivo, prácticas fiscales agresivas, la estrategia agresiva*
- *tópico* (topic) > tema, asunto
- *supuestamente* (suppositionaly) > propabalemente
- *agenda* (agenda) > orden del día
- *arruinar* (to ruin) > estropear
- *escalada* (escalation) > intensificación

Anglicismos sintácticos: la sintaxis inglesa se da en las locuciones, giros, frases hechas, nexos, modismos:

- estar + siendo + particpio: *está siendo anómala, estamos siendo pobres*
- uso de gerundio: *financiarizando, avisando con antelación, las empresas financiando*
- voz pasiva con ser : *fue solvente, es nombrado, era fijado, está considerada, fue fundada, fue nutrida*

Otros extranjerismos

Entre los préstamos de otros idiomas los galicismos representan el mayor número de los ejemplos hallados. Hemos incluido aquí también los cultismos, es decir, las voces latinas y griegas que son fercuentes en el lenguaje económico:

Galicismos: *debacle, comité, inmueble, rocambolesco[6], veleidad, pieds-noirs, entente, BPCE Groupe des Banques Populaires et des Caisses d'Epargne*

Ruso: *troika*

Italianismos: *partisano*

Germanismos: *neonazis*

Japón: *Matahara (maternity+harassment – acoso de las mujeres emberazadas)*

Cultismos (latinismos o helenismos): *superávit, depresión, referéndum, consenso, neto, bruto, statu quo, paridad, strictu senso, quinquenio, insalubre, tripartito, depauperación, oligopolios, in situ*

Creación léxica mediante procesos semánticos

Dentro de los procesos semánticos hemos encontrado la metáfora, metonimia, sinécdoque,, homonimia, autonomasia y un caso al revés, es decir, el uso del nombre genérico por el propio. Se han incluido en este capítulo algunos casos del oxímoron (una construcción de dos unidades opuestas).

En la mayoría de los casos de la formación semántica se trata de la terminología metafórica. En todos los casos se trata de las construcciones lexicalizadas de las cuales muchas son términos o están en el proceso de la terminologización.

Metafora: *la salida del mercado, la pérdida del pasaporte europeo, la economía verde, las barreras regulatorias, el bolsillo de los ciudadanos, la burbuja bursátil/inmobiliaria, cinturón industrial, congelar los sueldos, cerrar las facturas, guerra comercial, las cláususlas suelo, flexibilización laboral, el colchón financiero, el paraíso fiscal, el actor financiero, las oleadas masivas, la revolución verde, la revolución energética, el capital humano, la inteligencia artificial, los grandes jugadores, el comercio justo, la economía solidaria, el turismo creativo, la economía social, la economía de bien común, el mercado social, la cultura de consumo, la economía de la emancipación, el precio desorbitado, los salarios indignos, el estado de bienestar, el patrimonio líquido, las políticas de austeridad*

Metonimia: *el peso de la ley*

Sinécdoque: *la ley Macron, el divorcio con Bruselas, la mano de obra, el inquilino del Elíseo*

Autonomasia: *rocambolesco, titanes, gigantes*

El nombre genérico como propio: *manzana, manzana mordida* por el nombre de la empresa *Apple*

Homonimia: *colapso, turbulencias, colapsar, la parálisis económica*

Oxímoron: *crecimiento a la baja, trabajar menos para procrear más, empujar hacia atrás*

Otros elementos diferenciadores

El lenguaje económico se caracteriza también por el uso abundante de los adverbios terminados en *-mente*, participios, gerundios, nuevas colocaciones y los textos económicos están llenos de las expresiones metafóricas que no son términos metafóricos, sino los recursos estilísticos que sirven para llamar la atención del lector, para acercarse al lector, para hacer el tema más atractivo, etc.

Participios y pasivas: *pérdidas, asumidas, pasada crisis, falsedades halladas, método aplicado, crédito fallido, proceso organizado, bonos subordinados, verse abocado, al ser interpelado, llevada a cabo, constituido, presentado, los sondeos efectuados, los votantes perdidos, la salida anunciada, la hora trabajada, el paro harmonizado, la calle recuperada, el precio ofertado*

Adverbios: *imposible, formalmente, precisamente, directamente, evidentemente, completamente, políticamente, finalmente, intensamente, oficialmente, rotundamente, claramente, especialmente, netamente, establemente, amistosamente, impecablemente, estrechamente, simplemente, globalmente, finalmente, especialmente, relativamente, anualmente, periódicamente, realmente, tremendamente, claramente, básicamente*

Gerundios: *… y empeorando, ir subiendo, Atenas cayéndose, gente malviviendo, acabó cristalizando, tratando de aprovechar, están frenando, están reaccionando, comenzar gestionando, la economía desmintiendo, reinvirtiendo, las empresas funcionando, estableciendo un marco*

Colocaciones

Lo que más destaca en el análisis de nuestro corpus es el uso de las colocaciones entre las que podemos encontrar combinaciones interesantes que normalmente no se forman: *extraordinario trabajo, una contundencia demoledora, el aluvión de demandas, los resultados menos dramáticos, falso mito, un país exhausto, el gobierno maniatado/desmoralizado, la deuda desbocada, la austeridad extrema, un porcentaje escandaloso, el indicador brutal, un porcentaje de terror, los premios nobel alarmados, parálisis económica, un impacto descomunal, la severidad de los dioses, un paisaje arrasado, el escenario exhausto, las entrañas del poder, el cuartel general, forzar la verdad, lucha partisana, camino zigzagueante, condiciones brutales, avalancha de demandas, el test de estrés, el escenario adverso, las cláusulas suelo, descarnada lucha, los ataques bajistas, los pilares de la industria, el proceso rocambolesco, correr la suerte, despertar dudas, la joya del sector, tejer alianzas, el cambio brutal, la masa salarial, un Brexit duro/suave/blando, un stock de inversiones, viejas recetas, un instrumento eficaz, luchar contra el paro, contratos precarios, flexibilización laboral, los vecinos europeos, los contratos flexibles, los despidos strictu senso, los despidos colectivos, los famosos planes sociales, los trabajos tóxicos, el flamante presidente, el techo de las indemnizaciones, baremos obligatorios, el poder salarial, las horas extraordinarias, el empleo precario, las políticas alimentarias, los huertos urbanos, los pobres urbanos, despegar la economía, el tesoro amasado, el botín de guerra, la batalla jurídico-fiscal, la repatriación de los capitales, el actor financiero, el paro masivo, los efectos perversos, la prestación social, los economistas ortodoxos, las políticas de austeridad, el corazón del problema, las estructuras diezmadas, el espíritu americano, la pobre apuesta, la América de Obama, la inteligencia artificial, la cita obligada, la joya desconocida, la mítica librería, un reclamo turístico, la economía solidaria, los proyectos educativos, los proyectos alternativos, aprender in situ, la economía social, el mercado social, la cultura de consumo, el futuro muy oscuro, una revolución reformista, iniciar el declive, un capitalismo salvaje, la primera línea de defensa, pasar a la ofensiva, la economía de la emancipación, arrinconar a algo, colocar en el foco, el precio desorbitado, los salarios indignos, puntos fuertes/débiles, el sector cruel, el hilo conductor, una mirada internacional, la hercúlea labor, el crecimiento sin freno, el estado de bienestar, el patrimonio líquido, una pequeña revolución, correr el peligro*

Uso de metáforas, locuciones y fraseologismos

El uso de las metáforas y fraseologismos ya no es ex-

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4 Ratio es de origen latino, pero se ha empezado a usar en el lenguaje económico bajo la influecia de su uso en inglés.

5 Bailout – plan de rescate

6 Rocambole es un personaje de la literatura francesa del siglo 19, significa extraordinario.

clusivo del lenguaje coloquial o literario. Cada vez más se utilizan estos recursos en el lenguaje político o especializado. Las construcciones analizadas las hemos dividido en metáforas o fraseologismos lexicalizados y metáforas ocasionales o contextuales.

Metáforas, locuciones, frases lexicalizadas: *a contrarreloj, España vuelve a ser el conejillo de Indias, estar fuera de control, seguir letra por letra, atado de pies y manos, al borde del precipicio, mirarse al espejo, la partida está abierta, vivir al día, una tomadura de pelo, salirse con la suya, dar al traste, echar a andar, estar en el punto de mira, salir el tiro por la culata, frenar en seco, darle la espalda a alguien/algo, empezar con mal pie, el País del Sol Naciente, una lucha de titanes, estar a la cola, el punto flaco de algo, ser un aguafiestas, ser un pecado algo, pasarse de largo, ser amante de algo, dejar con la boca abierta, de punta a punta, tejer la red, velar por el bien común, llevar a cabo, poner la lupa, ser una bola de nieve, llevarse la palma, la guinda del pastel, dar pie, cerrar las puertas, abrir el camino, abrir la vía, a la luz de algo, cambiar el rumbo, dar un respiro, ser el caldo de cultivo, afrontar los retos, adaptarse a los bolsillos, de poca monta, pasarse de listo, salir del letargo, poner su grano de arena, vivir bajo un mismo techo, matar la gallina de los huevos de oro, pasar a manos de alguien, de igual a igual, poner en marcha algo*

Metáforas ocasionales y contextuales:
- *El Popular, bajo la sombra de Bankia.*
- *La sombra de Bankia planea sobre la crisis del Popular.*
- *El aluvión de demandas que se cuece contra este banco.*
- *La crisis ha abierto serios interrogantes.*
- *La debacle del popular ha acabado con otro de los mitos.*
- *Grecia, en la cárcel de la deuda.*
- *Grecia, maniatada y desmoralizada.*
- *La piedra de Sísifo es la deuda desbocada del país.*
- *... ha puesto incluso nombre a la montaña que el ciudadano de a pie trata cada día de ir subiendo sin acabar de lograrlo: Bailoutistán.*
- *...empezaban a ver la luz al final del largo túnel de la austeridad.*
- *...inyectar acerca de 340.000 millones de euros.*
- *La riada de millones del rescate.*
- *... su situación a día de hoy es de coma.*
- *La piedra de Sísifo cae una y otra vez y nunca se alcanza la montaña.*
- *el resultado de la severidad de los dioses ha sido*

una caída de 25% del PIB, una cifra equiparable a los efectos de una guerra, que ha dejado un paisaje arrasado, incluso literalmente, con Atenas cayéndose a pedazos.
- *...gente malviviendo en la calle de las migajas que dejan los turistas.*
- *El libro sagrado del rescate.*
- *...llegó al poder catapultado por un programa antiausteridad.*
- *...estar dispuesto a apretar el botón nuclear.*
- *El peligro de contagio a la banca francesa y alemana.*
- *...vive congelado en la guerra fría y hasta en la guerra civil griega.*
- *...encarcelado en la dictadura.*
- *Quedarse en la zona de confort.*
- *Luchar hasta el último minuto por cada centímetro cuadrado posible.*
- *Abandera la causa antiausteridad.*
- *Un sector bancario zombie.*
- *Syriza cae en las encuestas, pero no se desploma.*
- *La consigna de Syriza.*
- *Ir hacia una Europa más social.*
- *La tutela de los rescates.*
- *Las pérdidas se lo hayan comido (al banco).*
- *Frenar el aluvión de demandas.*
- *El malestar de los letrados.*
- *Se enfrían los ánimos de los consumidores.*
- *Dar oxígeno a la banca y desincentivar.*
- *Una salida a la carta[7]*
- *...de la ley cuya tinta apenas se ha secado.*
- *Francia no tiene nada que envidiar a sus vecinos europeos.*
- *... otra piedra más lanzada contra la paridad.*
- *Dar de comer a las ciudades.*
- *Japón quiere seducir a la mujer.*
- *El país campeón de las jornadas laborales larguísimas.*
- *El camino hacia la igualdad.*
- *Apple, una manzana no tan lozana.*
- *La manzana (empresa Apple) podría ser menos jugosa en el futuro.*
- *Su éxito descansa en pilares como su innovador diseño.*
- *España, un refugio para el turismo.*
- *El terrorismo golpea.*
- *La corporación de la manzana mordida.*
- *Las trampas del sistema capitalista.*
- *Regresar a un escenario familiar.*
- *Londres está lleno de jóvenes españoles e italianos brillantes que sirven cafés.*

[7]   Se refiere a la salida de Gran Bretaña de la UE

- *Europa se lamenta.*
- *El salto a la economía verde*
- *Quienes saben construir el relato sobre lo que ocurre son quienes dominan el mundo.*
- *Encontrar un lenguaje.*
- *Dibujar un nuevo tipo de economía.*
- *los oligopolios son como niños*
- *...creó la semilla que hizo florecer el movimiento cooperativo.*
- *El turismo creativo es un botón de muestra.*
- *Vivir un parón*
- *La transparencia brilla por su ausencia.*
- *Un embrión del federalismo.*
- *Traza con destreza y a pie de calle un lienzo de la España de las ciudades.*
- *La crisis nos ayuda a ver que los señores nunca se fueron.*
- *Pueden no tener cara, como los grandes inversores, los buitres.*
- *Siguen mandando bajo un paraguas denominado instituciones.*
- *Las carteras repletas de pedidos.*

Conclusión

Hemos seleccionado 1870 unidades léxicas de la revista *Alternativas Económicas* (julio-agosto 2017) las cuales caracterizan el lenguaje económico español actual o se usan en él.

Entre los sufijos, el más productivo es el sufijo *-ción*, que expresa acción o efecto (*participación, capitalización, especulación*), le sigue el sufijo *-dad* que designa la calidad (*autoridad, inestabilidad, austeridad*), *-iento* expresando el estado de algo, calidad o resultado de una acción (*endeudamiento, hundimiento, encarecimiento*) y sufijo *-ista* que designa a partidario de algo, cualidad, profesión (*accionista, izquierdista, rentista*). Entre los sufijos verbales el más usados es el sufijo *-izar* (*computarizar, cubanizar, financiarizar*). Es fructífero también el sufijo adjetival *-ble* (*perceptible, alcanzable, estimable*). Entre los prefijos el más frecuente es el prefijo *i-* que significa negación o privación (*irrelevante, inestabilidad, incapacidad*). Otro prefijo negativo frecuente es el prefijo *des-* (*desmoralizado, desbloquear, desempleo*) y el prefijo *a-* que expresa la ausencia de algo o a veces sirve solo como un recurso formal (*asumir, acreedor, agravar*). El prefijo *re-* expresa la repetición o intensidad (*reinvertir, retomar, reestructuración*). El prefijo griego *auto-* con el significado de que algo o alguien actúa por sí mismo es también frecuente (*autogestionar, autoconsumo, autocrítico*). Y aparece el nuevo prefijo *euro-* que ha

empezado a utilizarse con la formación de la UE (*Eurobanco, eurobonos, eurozona*).

A menudo aparecen los compuestos o las palabras parasintéticas (*sobrecostes, ecocompatible, eurocomunitario, desindustrialización*).

Otra característica de índole morfológica del lenguaje económico es el uso frecuente de las siglas (*OCU, OPA, LAU, IGAS, G20, G7, IPC, I+D*).

El número mayor de los anglicismos en nuestro corpus los representan los anglicismos no adaptados (*manager, start up*). Algunas voces se han adaptado ya al sistema fonético o morfológico español (*resetear, liderazgo, blogeuero*) y otras se han adaptado completamente (*campus, chip, récord, mitin*). Se usan mucho las siglas inglesas (*EBA, AQR, BBRS, CET1*) y hemos encontrado algunos casos del juego de palabras en inglés (*Brexit, Grexit, womenomics*). Son frecuentes las construciones híbridas (*escanear, full equipo, stock de empleos*) y calcos (*fecha límite, comercio justo*). La influencia de la sintaxis inglesa se ve en el uso de las construcciones pasivas o el uso del gerundio con el verbo ser (*está siendo anómala, estamos siendo pobres, fue solvente, es nombrado, era fijado*).

De otros idiomas los más numerosos han sido los galicismos (*debacle, pieds-noirs, entente*).

Entre los procesos semánticos de la formación de palabras destaca, sobre todo, el proceso metafórico con el cual se forman, muchas veces, los términos (*la burbuja bursátil/inmobiliaria, congelar los sueldos, las cláusulas suelo, el colchón financiero*).

Entre otros fenómenos que caracteriza el lenguaje económico español podemos mencionar el uso frecuente de los adverbios terminados en *-mente* (*formalmente, evidentemente, completamente*), el uso del participio y la voz pasiva (*bonos subordinados, verse abocado*) y el uso del gerundio (*ir subiendo, Atenas cayéndose, gente malviviendo*).

Nos ha llamado la atención la cantidad de las colocaciones usadas. Se forman combinaciones de palabras que nos son usuales y con el tiempo pueden convertirse en términos. Muchas colocaciones se forman a base de la metáfora, otros tienen carácter coloquial (*la austeridad extrema, un porcentaje escandaloso, indicador brutal, un impacto descomunal, un paisaje arrasado, el escenario exhausto condiciones brutales, el cambio brutal*).

La última característica del lenguaje económico español que destacaríamos es el uso de las metáforas, locuciones o fraseologismos en los textos económicos. Son los recursos que antes se usaban sobre todo en el estilo coloquial o literario. Como los textos económicos se dirigen cada vez más a un lector semi experto o

no experto, esto se refleja también en su estilo que es más sencillo, claro, menos específico *(a contrarreloj, atado de pies y manos, al borde del precipicio, una tomadura de pelo, salirse con la suya, dar al traste, salir el tiro por la culata)*. Dentro de las metáforas hemos encontardo muchas metáforas ocasionales y contextuales, sobre todo, en los títulos de los artículos *(El popular, bajo la sombra de Bankia, La sombra de Bankia planea sobre la crisis del Popular por todas las esquinas., Grecia, en la cárcel de la deuda., La piedra de Sísifo es la deuda desbocada del país.)*

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USING E-MAIL IN EDUCATION

EVA STRADIOTOVÁ

Abstract
E-mail or electronic mail is one of the most popular tools of communication. It allows us to keep in touch with other teachers around the world and it also allows us to communicate with students outside the classroom. Writing and reading e-mails give a student an opportunity to use his/her language skills in authentic communicative situations. E-mail can be also used as the tool for providing the feedback on student´s work. In this article we would like to provide an overview of the uses for e-mail in foreign language learning, its advantages and disadvantages.
Key words: e-mail, communication, sender, receiver, Internet

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Nowadays e-mail is one of the most used electronic tools in personal and working environment. It allows us to keep in touch with each other all over the world. It is a form of asynchronous communication and the base for discussion groups. The learning foreign language provides the opportunity for real communication through the creation and exchange of messages not only among students in the classroom or anywhere in the world, but also between a teacher and a student (Štefančík, 2002). Messages are in written form and differ in length and style. The variety of content is evident immediately.

These days e-mail becomes an increasingly common communication tool that opens up new opportunities for those who are learning foreign languages. It provides space for virtual meeting and communicating in a foreign language outside the language classroom. It provides learners of the foreign language with the opportunity to use their language skills in a real communication.

E-mail has its advantages, but also disadvantages. First of all, let's look at the advantages:
- student does not need to be in the classroom, i.e. he/she can connect the computer to the Internet anywhere and anytime. These time and location options provide student with the space for reading the message in a foreign language and compiling a response,
- it provides an opportunity for real and natural communication, i.e. the learner gains access to authentic interaction in which he/she uses his/her language knowledge,
- it enables a learner who has face-to-face communication problems to use and develop the language skills in an email communication,
- it enriches the learner with new experiences,
- it allows a student to use the acquired skills and knowledge creatively,
- it allows the exchange of information at international level, through academic discussion groups,
- the possibility of maintaining the whole communication, i.e. all messages that they exchange with each other can be archived,
- it is fast, simple and relatively cheap communication tool,
- it allows us to draft and edit the message before sending it.

The disadvantages of e-mail are:
- we need not only to have an access to a computer connected to the Internet, but also we need to have an e-mail account,
- it can be time consuming,
- it may not be an effective means of expressing intention, tone, mood and emotions, we can say that e-mail communication lacks the ability to express real tone, feelings, emotions or mood,
- it can raise concern that thoughts or opinions in emails will not be correctly expressed or understood.

At one level, it is extremely easy to define the linguistic identity of e-mail as a variety of language; at another level, it is surprisingly difficult. The easy part lies in the fixed discourse structure of the message which is determined by the software. The difficult part lies in the range of opinions about the purpose of e-mail, as a communicative medium, and about the kind of language which is the most appropriate and effective to achieve that purpose (Crystal, 2006). It is apparent that the problem is not the form of e-mail, but the choice of language which should be not only appropriate, but also at the same time the most effective.

Since we are focusing on using an e-mail message in a foreign language, it is important to recognize that the language varies from context to context, and therefore we should ensure that the relevant e-mail communication takes place in the appropriate context. It is important to keep the correct tone and the structure of e-mail. Therefore, it is advisable to teach students how to write e-mails before using an e-mail as a learning tool.

The form of e-mail is clear, it has two parts: the header and the body of the message, i.e. the main part of the message. In the header (See figure 1) we give the address to whom we send the message and the subject of the message, which is the part of the header that can be also used as the message. The correctly selected subject is very important because it plays an important role in deciding whether we consider the message as important or not. According to D. Crystal (2006) the subject is a critical element in the decision-making over what priority to assign to it or whether to open it at all (in the case of someone who receives many e-mails every day).

We can also decide to send the e-mail without subject. In this case the software will remind us its absence with the automatic notice: 'This message has no subject. Are you sure you want to send it?'.
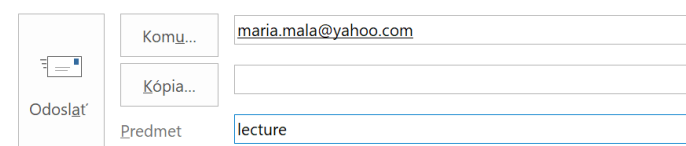

Figure 1. The header of e-mail

Although the e-mail header is formally distinct from the main part, it can also serve as an introductory part of the message, for example:

> Subject: The meeting
> Message: is in our headquarters at 2 p.m.
>   or
> Subject: Dear Mr Kováč,
> Message: the meeting is.... ....

From these examples we can see that the subject can also serve as the beginning of the message.

The message itself
Although the e-mail is an electronic communication, the style of writing it is to some extent similar to the body of the written letter. It is people who are solely responsible for the construction of messages and language is a device employed by people to il-

lustrate their thoughts (Polok, 2014). There are many books dealing with the issues relating to writing the letters. It is a good idea to remind learners that, as in traditional letter writing, there are levels of formality in email writing. An email written to enquire about a job vacancy will have a different level of formality to an email sent to a close friend. While the email to a friend may include abbreviations, emoticons, misspellings or lower-case characters such as i, these are entirely inappropriate for a more formal email. (Dudney, Hockly, 2008:63).

The body of the e-mail usually consists of obligatory elements which are: salutation (greeting), message itself, and farewell. As we can see the form of e-mail is similar to the form of written letter. Unlike a written letter where greeting and farewell are obligatory it does not apply to an e-mail the same way. The question is to what extent are salutation and farewell obligatory or optional elements in e-mails. According to D. Crystal (2006) there are several types of e-mail which have no greeting at all. They include first messages from people who do not know the recipient, and are therefore typical in the case of public announcements and junk-mail (See figure 2).

Figure 2. The message without greeting.

The role of farewell is to indicate that this is the end of the message and there is no reason to continue in scrolling down.

Rules concerning writing e-mails
We use e-mails as an electronic tool for the rapid exchange of brief messages via the Internet.
There are several rules concerning writing e-mails which we should follow:
- writer should read and correct the message before sending it, because the mistakes may cause that the reader's attention not only will be drawn from the text itself, but also the reader can have the problem to decode what the writer wants to communicate in the message,
- use common spelling, punctuation, capital letters only where they are supposed to be, i.e. we do not write the whole message in capital letters because it can be perceived as shouting,
- open the message with salutation (the form of salutation depends on the formality of e-mail):

Dear Dr. Jones, Dear Ms Smith, Hi, Tim, Hello, Tim, ...,
- a widely held view (dating from the earliest days of e-mailing) is that the body of a message should be entirely visible within a single screen view, without any need for scrolling (Crystal, 2006),
- write in a straightforward way, use short paragraphs that go directly to the essence of the mail,
- the tone of the mail should be cordial and friendly, avoid hot-tempered communication,
- do not write long e-mails,
- make sure that files sent as email attachments are

not too large, as the person receiving the email may not be able to download them (Dudney, Hockly, 2008:63),
- a new message (answer) is written below or above the original message, but never within it (See figure 3). The example demonstrates the answer that is written above the original message. The original message is indicated by the sign greater-than >,
- if a contact has already been established, it is important for the recipient to respond in an acceptable time limit.

Figure 3. E-mail answer

E-mail in education
There are many ways how to use e-mail in education. First of all, the teacher should prepare a questionnaire to find out the situation in the classroom. After analysing the results of this survey the teacher will know much more about e-mail skills of his/her students and this knowledge will help him/her to use e-mail the most effective way. In the questionnaire can be these questions (Table n. 1):

E-mail questionnaire	
Do you have access to the Internet at home?	yes /no
Do you have access to the Internet at school/work?	yes /no
Do you have access to a computer at home?	yes /no

Do you have your own e-mail account?	yes /no
Do you use e-mail at home?	yes /no
Do you use e-mail at school/work?	yes /no
Do you know how to open an e-mail attachment?	yes /no
Do you know how to write, send and read e-mails	yes /no
How often do you take part in sending and reading e-mails?	a) never or almost never b) several times a month c) at least once a week d) every day or almost every day

Table 1. Questionnaire

E-mail can be used as a one-to-one communication tool or as a group communication tool. Communication one-to-one is more personal, but time consuming. This can be the exchange of emails between: a teacher and a learner or between two students and it can serve:

1. as a preparation for using e-mail in the real world
2. as an electronic tool which is used to gain the necessary certainty in using foreign language for specific purposes

In this type of communication teachers and learners must determine certain rules such as:

1. frequency, i.e. how often they will send emails (once a week, once per month, twice per semester, ...)
2. the content of the reports (may refer to individual lessons, problems encountered in the study, ...).

Both the frequency and the content of the messages are closely linked to the goals the teacher wants to achieve. Linking e-mails with the course content supports the inclusion and practising of acquired language skills (new vocabulary, grammar, ... (Némethová, 2004).

One of the forms of individual communication between a teacher and a learner is a diary of dialogues in which learners record their contributions at the request of the teacher, for example: contributions related to the lesson or to the topic they choose, etc. ...

The advantage of individual communication between a teacher and a learner is that the student gains greater certainty in writing, gets the experience in using e-mail, receives the feedback from the teacher. The disadvantage is a heavy workload for the teacher who in the case of a higher number of learners is not able to give each student some feedback on the task. From this point of view, much more advantageous form of e-mail communication for the teacher is the communication between two learners. This type of communication is usually in a form of correspondence. Students can be:
- from the same class
- from the same school
- from another school in the same country
- from abroad

Teachers can find their partners for the correspondence on the Internet, for example, at: http://www.signalpenpals.net/.

Group e-mail

Let's look at a group e-mail. First of all students have to create the mailing list. This can also be done by a teacher. A mailing list is the simplest form of email communication, and is informative. Typically a mailing list disseminates information, for example on forthcoming online courses or conferences, or new materials or articles, to those who sign up and join the list. A mailing list is best compared to a snail mail, or normal mail, newsletter, which members receive regularly, and which keeps them up-to-date. A class mailing list can be set up for general discussions out of class time (Dudney, Hockly, 2008). This type of communication can take place:
- within one class
- between classes in the same school
- between classes of different schools

A group e-mail communication within one class is a very appropriate addition to teaching a written form of foreign professional or general language. We can use it as a tool for preparation for the lesson and for tasks after the lesson (Dulebová, 2010). The e-mail discussion, which precedes the lesson, saves the teacher a lot of time and helps him/her to achieve the lesson's goal, e.g. the next lesson is about the advantages and disadvantages of taxation. Students are tasked with preparing arguments pro and con taxation via an e-mail and the results of this e-mail discussion will be subsequently discussed at the beginning of the lesson.

A group e-mail communication can also be used to prepare students for listening. The teacher will familiarize students with the theme of listening, e. g. the role and responsibilities of a sales manager. Students exchange information what they know, in this case, about the role and responsibilities of a sales manager by email.

It is also an ideal means of preparing a class discussion. Each student will prepare an essay on a specific subject, which he/she will send to the others a few days in advance to have enough time to read them and then they can discuss about them during the lesson.

E-mail can also be used as a collaborative writing tool (Dudney, Hockly, 2008:64). For example, learners, divided into groups, are asked to produce a story based on, e.g. a postcard, a picture, or a painting (f.e. Scream: student n.1, who starts the story about this painting, forwards his/her part to a student n. 2, who adds his/her part to the story, then forwards it to a student n. 3, who adds his/her part to it, and so on. It is important to ensure that all members of the group are incorporated into the story from the beginning, and that each learner knows when it is his/her turn to contribute to it.

Tasks after a lesson serve, for example, to expand and consolidate what the students did during the lesson, and they can discuss about it, practise a new vocabulary, grammar structures via emails.

The group e-mail communication between classes should be used mainly to work on joint projects, exchange of ideas, information, etc.

Conclusion

In the paper, we have been trying to prove that e-mail, as a means of communication in a foreign language, has its place in the teaching environment, and the teacher should pay attention to it that it deserves. According to Dudney and Hockly (2008) composing an email has the added advantage for learners of allowing them to draft and edit it before sending, it means that writing an e-mail is much easier than writing with pen and paper for students because they can easily correct errors, delete the words, sentences, or any part that is not suitable during the editing. The message can be archived. Another advantage is that communication by email is very fast. If you receive a piece of physical mail - a letter or a postcard - sending a reply always involves a certain amount of bother.7 But with e-mail you can do it on impulse and then hit a button and it's off (Naughton, 2000:145), i.e. the time needed for delivering a letter send by postal service can take several days. Sending it by e-mail takes several seconds.

Because of its spontaneity, speed, privacy, and leisure value, e-mail offers the option of greater levels of informality than are found elsewhere in traditional writing. Spelling and punctuation are loose and playful. It is a medium which will portray a wide range of stylistic expressiveness, from formal to informal, and where the pressure on users will be to display stylistic consistency, in the same way that this is required in other forms of writing.

As Crystal (2008) mentioned in his book e-mail will take its place in the school curriculum, as the medium which offers a further domain within which students can develop their ability to consolidate their stylistic intuitions and make responsible linguistic choices. E-mail has extended the language's stylistic range in interesting and motivating ways. It is an opportunity, not a threat, for language education.

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EQUIVALENTES FRASEOLÓGICOS ENTRE EL ESPAÑOL DE COLOMBIA Y EL IDIOMA ESLOVACO

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Abstract
Popular wisdom is expressed and transmitted in different ways. Some of them are sayings, proverbs, fixed expressions called idioms, set phrases and expressions. Experience and common sense ideas are summarised in sayings and proverbs. However, such ideas are not always the same or consistent for everyone. Therefore, proverbs can depict the same situation from different viewpoints. This paper analyses proverbs, sayings and phrases found in the November 9, 2016 issue of Colombia's „El Tiempo" newspaper, i.e. one day after the presidential elections in the United States, and compares them with Slovak expressions, looking for total or partial equivalents even if expressed in a completely different way.

Introducción

El español, pese a ser uno de los idiomas más hablados en todo el mundo, conserva una considerable homogeneidad. Sin embargo, existen diferencias lingüísticas perceptibles entre sus dialectos, y especialmente entre España y Latinoamérica, por la lejanía entre estos lugares. A pesar de esto existen expresiones, frases y refranes que forman parte de la herencia lingüística de los diferentes países y regiones de habla hispana, como también los hay que son característicos para determinados países o regiones por las diferencias de tipo regional, nivel sociocultural de los hablantes, zonas rurales, urbanas, etc. Pero hay que aclarar que el factor cultural, y en especial la escolarización, es un elemento nivelador que influye en la homogenización de las lenguas.

La sabiduría popular se expresa y transmite de diferentes formas, una de ellas son los refranes, expresiones fijas denominadas modismos, frases hechas, lexías complejas o locuciones. Estas frases han surgido de la experiencia de la vida a través de los tiempos, se han transmitido principalmente de forma oral con versos y rimas elementales. Según Roberts (1993:4 in Montero Martínez S. 2003:123) la fraseología es un nuevo término que designa unas realidades lingüísticas tan antiguas como las propias lenguas. Estas frases y expresiones fijas reflejan la idiosincrasia del pueblo que los utiliza y sirve para conocerlo más. Además, nos muestran la riqueza del vocabulario y la belleza de la lengua. Los refranes los encontramos al combinar varias palabras que funcionan como oración o elemento oracional, y cuyo sentido no corresponde a la suma de sus significados, por ejemplo: *agua pasada no mueve molino, tira la piedra y esconde la mano, un clavo saca otro clavo,* sino que sirven para expresar una sabiduría o un consejo.

Las expresiones fraseológicas

La experiencia adquirida y el sentido común se resume en los refranes, pero no siempre esas experiencias son iguales ni coherentes para todos, por eso, los refranes pueden representar una misma situación desde diferentes puntos de vista según convenga. Así, en la frase: *ahogarse en un vaso de agua → topiť sa v pohári vody*, no se debe entender en un sentido literal, sino que adquiere un significado específico asociado a otra circunstancia, en este caso concreto, lo de no saber reaccionar ante una situación que en realidad no es muy complicada. En muchas ocasiones es necesaria la ayuda de un contexto comunicativo para poder interpretar su significado.

Los refranes y el refranero se han convertido en un objeto de estudio dando lugar a la Paremiología que se encarga de su estudio, clasificándolos y ordenándolos en un tratado de refranes. Estas expresiones que se han ido recogiendo han recibido diferentes denominaciones, tales como frases hechas, expresiones fijas y unidades fraseológicas, entre otras. Todas ellas implican lo mismo, nosotros en adelante usaremos el término unidades fraseológicas. Con relación a ellas muchos autores se refieren como fraseología. El término "Fraseología" se compone de las raíces griegas frasis ('expresión', 'frase') y logos ('palabra', 'concepto') su significado originario era de 'ciencia que se ocupa de las expresiones y frases' o 'Estilística, ciencia de la expresión'. Este término se remonta al Humanismo tardío y desde un principio designa tanto el inventario de expresiones idiomáticas de una lengua como su estudio (Mellado Blanco, 2004: 15 in Sciuto V. 502). El DLE (Diccionario de la Lengua Española, http://dle.rae. es/?id=IPhICME, 14.10.2017) la define como: "Conjunto de modos de expresión peculiares de una lengua, de un grupo, de una época, actividad o individuo. Conjunto de frases hechas, locuciones figuradas, metáforas y comparaciones fijadas, modismos y refranes, existentes en una lengua, en el uso individual o en el de algún grupo". (1 y 4 acepción). Para Pastor Corbas (1996:20 en Jirón Erwenne C. 2008:4) las unidades fraseológicas son "unidades léxicas formadas por más de dos palabras gráficas en su límite inferior, cuyo nivel superior se sitúa en el nivel de la oración compuesta. Dichas unidades se caracterizan por su alta frecuencia de uso, y de cooparición de sus elementos integrantes; por su institucionalización, entendida en términos de fijación y especialización semántica; por su idiomaticidad y variación potencial; así como por el grado en el cual se dan todos estos aspectos en los distintos tipos".

Clasificación de las unidades fraseológicas

Realizar una clasificación de las unidades fraseológicas no ha sido fácil ya que son varios los criterios que se han tomado en cuenta según varios modelos de diferentes autores. Romero Ganuza P. (2006:906) establece tres criterios para determinarlas: la estabilidad semántica-sintáctica, la idiomaticidad y lalexicalización y reproductividad. Nos orientamos por la clasificación hecha por Corpas Pastor (1997:50 in Martínez Montero S. 2002 capítulo 3.3.1.3) quien propone combinar el criterio de enunciado con el de la fijación en la norma. Las unidades fraseológicas las clasifica de en tres esferas: Esfera I (colocaciones), Esfera II (locuciones) y Esfera III (enunciados fraseológicos) (Ver esquema 1).

a.   *I esfera*, está formada por colocaciones o acto de habla no completos regidas por las normas de la lengua, pero con distinto grado de fijación según las normas de uso. Su grado de restricción combinatoria es menor que las unidades fraseológicas de la II y III esfera. Las colocaciones pueden ser según estas categorías gramaticales:

- Colocaciones:
  - V + S (sujeto) → *cosechar frutos*
  - V + (Prep.) + S (objeto) → *poner de manifiesto*
  - Adj./S + S → *largo plazo,*
  - S + Prep. + S → *mano de obra, acuerdo de crédito*
  - V + Adv. → *imponer forzosamente*
  - Adj. + Adv. → *drásticamente disminuida*

b.   *II. esfera,* son las locuciones o actos de habla no completos formados por combinaciones de palabras cuyo significado no equivale a la suma de los componentes; por lo cual adquieren un carácter idiomático. Las locuciones pueden ser.

- Locaciones:
  - nominales → *piedra angular*
  - adjetivas → *puntos a favor*
  - adverbiales → *a la hora de*
  - verbales → *ir y venir*
  - conjuntivas → *por consiguiente,*
  - causales → *Por lo anterior,…, reunió a sus asistentes con nombrados empresarios…*

c.   *III esfera*, son actos de habla equivalentes a un enunciado completo, paremias y fórmulas rutinarias.

- Paremias: servir para convencer, persuadir e instruir al receptor, aunque, también una función fática.
  - enunciados de valor específico → *estar por el piso*
  - citas → *errar es humano, perdonar divino* refranes → *ser una piedra en el zapato*
- Fórmulas rutinarias: carecen de autonomía textual y se utilizan en el discurso o en actos de habla determinados de tipo social, expresivo o discursivo y facilitan de la interacción. Pueden ser:

```
UNIDADES FRASEOLÓGICAS
├── ENUNCIADOS
│   ├── COLOCACIONES I. ESFERA
│   └── LOCUCIONES II. ESFERA
└── FIJACIÓN EN LA NORMA
    └── ENUNCIADOS FRASEOLÓGICOS III. ESFERA
        ├── paremias
        └── fórmulas rutinarias
            ├── discursivas
            └── psico-sociales
```
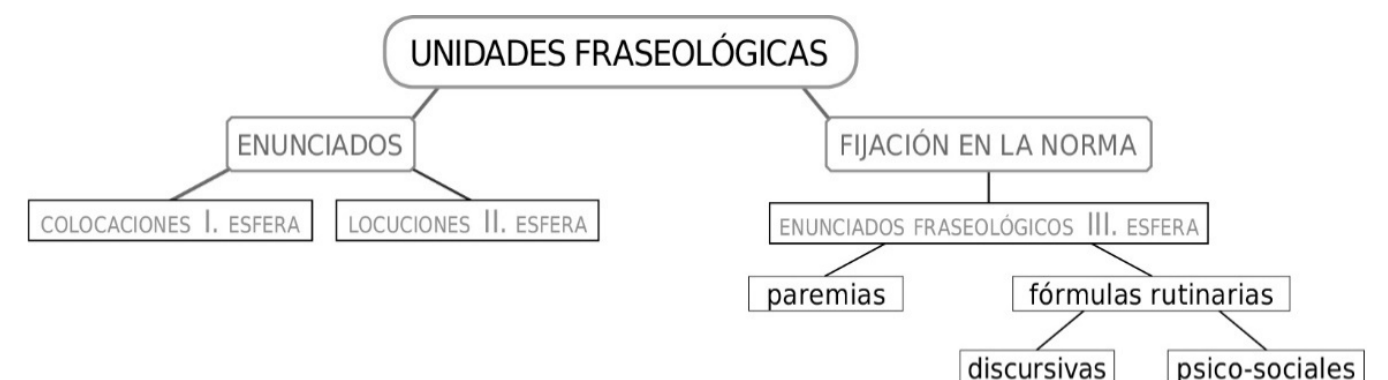
Esquema 1: Clasificaciones de unidades fraseológicas

- *discursivas de:*
  - apertura y cierre → *¿Qué hay de nuevo?; Vaya con Dios*
  - transición → *A eso voy.*
- *psico-sociales de:*
  1. *expresivas:*
     - *disculpa* → Discúlpame
     - *consentimiento* → ¡eso es cierto!
     - *recusación* → Ni hablar.
     - *agradecimiento* → Dios se lo pague
     - *desear suerte* → ¡Que te vaya bonito!
     - *solidaridad* → Lo acompaño en su pena
     - *insolaridad* → ¡Ni que ocho cuartos!
  2. *comisivas:*
     - *promesa y amenaza* → Y si no al tiempo
  3. *directivas de:*
     - *exhortación* → ¡Cuidado con el perro!
     - *información* → Tú dirás
     - *ánimo* → No es para tanto
  4. *asertivas:*
     - *aseveración* → Por mis muertos
     - *emocionales* → ¡Me importa un comino!
  5. *rituales:*
     - *saludo* → ¿Qué es de tu vida?
     - *despedida* → Un saludo cordial
     - *miscelánea* → Pelillos a la mar. *Jirón Erwenne C. (2008:5-7)*

Algunas características del español de Colombia

Antes de proceder al analizar de los campos temáticos en el diario El Tiempo, debemos enumerar algunas características básicas de la variante colombiana del español. El español, pese a ser uno de los idiomas más hablados en todo el mundo, conserva una considerable homogeneidad. Sin embargo, existen diferencias lingüísticas perceptibles entre sus dialectos, y especialmente entre España y Latinoamérica, por la lejanía entre estos lugares. Para entender el español hablado en Latinoamérica no sólo hay que tener en cuenta las diferencias lingüísticas de los distintos países y de las regiones. Además, hay diferencias que tienen que ver con el nivel sociocultural de los hablantes, diferencias diastráticas, o con el tipo de población, zonas rurales y urbanas, hablantes monolingües o bilingües. El factor cultural, y en especial la escolarización, es un elemento nivelador que influye en la homogenización de las lenguas. El idioma oficial de Colombia es el español, aunque también hay algunas lenguas indígenas, así como la criolla, una mezcla con el inglés (utilizado en las islas de Providencia y San Andrés en el Mar Caribe) y el lenguaje llamado Palenquero, que es una mezcla de

inglés y español (utilizado en el pueblo de San Basilio de Palenque, donde viven descendientes de esclavos importados de África, al norte de Colombia, a unos 50 km al sur de Cartagena de Indias).

El promedio de los colombianos, a diferencia de los españoles, habla más lentamente, su pronunciación es más completa y más pronunciada, la entonación es más cuidadosa. Básicamente la diferencia entre el español hablado en Colombia y el de España está en la pronunciación de las letras "s", "c" y "z". Los españoles pronuncian la "c" y la "z" como el sonido que se hace en inglés para "th", en un sonido con la lengua presionando el paladar y dejando escapar suavemente el aire entre los dientes y la lengua. Los colombianos pronuncian la "c" y "z" igual que la que "s" [s] - este fenómeno es común a todos los dialectos colombianos del español, se llama seseo; por esto muchas palabras en Colombia parecen tener una misma pronunciación: *cazar y casar, o abrazar y abrasar.*
Todas las formas del español de América, por lo tanto, español de Colombia, tienen un fenómeno común llamado yeísmo - refleja la misma articulación de las letras *ll e y*, que en ambos casos es el mismo que [j], por ejemplo. *calle* - [caje], *yate* [jate].
En la forma de cortesía muchos colombianos utilizan la forma *usted* para referirse a una persona, ya sea un miembros de la familia o en cualquier otro tipo de relaciones. En el español de España esta forma de ustedeo se considera muy formal.
Para dirigirse a la segunda persona del singular, los colombianos usan el pronombre personal *tú* o la forma *vos*, que se usa en un círculo familiar o con amigos. En España se utiliza el pronombre personal de la segunda persona plural (*vosotros/-as*) mientras que en Colombia ha desaparecido, es considerado arcaico.
A los colombianos les gusta usar los diminutivos, por ejemplo: amorcito, casita, carrito, etc.
El estudio de la variante de español colombiano se ha incrementado desde la creación del Departamento de Dialectología del Instituto Caro y Cuervo. El objetivo del Instituto es también apoyar y desarrollar la investigación, enseñanza y consultoría como también la difusión de las lenguas nacionales y su literatura.
El Atlas Lingüístico Etnográfico y de Colombia (Bogotá: 1982, 1983) fue creado por el Instituto para mapear y analizar los dialectos del español de Colombia. Además, el Instituto creó un Breve diccionario de colombianismos, (Bogotá 1975) y Léxico de fraseología del español de Colombia, Bogotá, 1996.
Hay ciertas palabras y expresiones que se usan solo en Colombia y son difíciles de entender para los extranjeros, pero que llaman su atención.

Por ejemplo:
Amañado: adj. coloq. Que se adapta o que se siente a gusto en un ambiente nuevo. Está muy amañada en su nuevo trabajo.
Bacano: adj. coloq. Dicho de una situación o cosa excelente, muy buena. Es una película bacana. ¡Qué almuerzo tan bacano! 2. Dicho de una persona amable, simpática, buena.
Cantaleta: f. coloq. Repetición frecuente de un tema o asunto que resulta molesto para el oyente.
Desentejado: adj. coloq. Dicho de una persona medio calva.
Enguayabado: ad. coloq. Dicho de una persona que está padeciendo los efectos de haber.

Análisis y comparación fraseológica

En el presente estudio, queremos estudiar la aparición de unidades fraseológicas y aspectos figurados, incluidas las metáforas ocasionales en el periódico colombiana "El Tiempo" del día 9 de noviembre de 2016, un día después de las elecciones presidenciales de Estados Unidos. Nos enfocaremos en política, cultura y economía.
El objetivo es extraer frases, expresiones, colocaciones, comparaciones, metáforas, metáforas ocasionales,

etc. en español y traducirlas al eslovaco. Con base en un análisis léxico-semántico, observaremos si los equivalentes eslovacos son idénticos (=), parcialmente idénticos (~) o no (Ø) con el español, y en cuanto a en qué medida son equivalentes eslovacos. Suponemos que:
1. en español habrá más construcciones figurativas que en eslovaco,
2. 2los equivalentes totalmente idénticos serán menos,
3. la mayoría de los equivalentes serán parcialmente idénticos,
4. las metáforas ocasionales serán más que las frases hechas
Las unidades fraseológicas extraídas se pondrán en orden alfabético según la palabra clave, que en su mayoría es un nombre. Debajo de la palabra clave se encuentra el contexto citado con la unidad fraseológica o el aspecto figurativo, entre paréntesis se encuentra la fecha del diario y el número de la página.
En la columna de la derecha, en la parte superior se encuentra la traducción literal en eslovaco y en la parte inferior el equivalente eslovaco de la frase, unidad fraseológica, metáfora o de la frase hecha.

acto	*čin pokánia*
"... la Corte dice que todos debemos hacer «un acto de contrición»..." (09.11.2016, S.8)	
acto de contrición	*kajať sa (akt pokánia) ~*
año	*produktívne roky*
"El alcoholismo lo fustigó en sus años más produc- tivos." (09.11.2016, S.18)	
años productivos	*najlepšie roky ~*
arquitectos	*architekti svojho života*
"... y cómo somos es un paso clave para convertirnos en arquitectos de nuestra vida..." (09.11.2016, S.2)	
arquitectos de nuestra vida	*zodpovední za svoj život ~*
bajo	*padnúť nízko*
"Sin embargo, no podía dejar pasar esta ocasión para hablar de lo bajo que ha caído la política en la democracia... " (09.11.2016, S.21)	
caer bajo	*klesnúť nízko ~*
bases	
"... es capaz de sentar bases sólida para emprender acertadamente cualquier proyecto..." (09.11.2016, S.2)	
sentar bases	*položiť základy =*
brexit	
"Este es un momento de deja vu Brexit, es muy preo- cupante" (09.11.2016, S.6)	
Brexit	*Brexit =*

caballerosidad	cválajúce rytierstvo
"Era la gracia andando, la caballerosidad galopante, cada palabra suya era como un abrazo" (09.11.2016, S.21)	
caballerosidad galopante	*džentlmen od hlavy po päty ~*
cabeza	*bolesti hlavy*
"Los dolores de cabeza en política exterior se apilarán en el escritorio…" (09.11.2016, S.5)	
dolores de cabeza	*problémy Ø*
cabeza	
"…, y no con la idea de quién deberíamos ser que tenemos en la cabeza" (09.11.2016, S.2)	
tener en la cabeza	*mať niečo v hlave/nápad =*
camino	*ísť dobrou cestou*
"… lo que nos hace pensar que vamos por buen camino,…" (09.11.2016, S.1)	
ir por buen camino	*ísť dobrým smerom/dariť sa ~*
campaña	
"Los apretados resultados de ayer confirman a Florida, en escenario de una fuerte campaña de Trump y Clinton…" (09.11.2016, S.7)	
fuerte campaña	*silná kampaň =*
carta	*na kartu*
"… 'Colombia a la Carta', en el Hotel Sheraton." (09.11.2016, S.12)	
a la carta	*na jedálnom lístku/a la carte ~*
ciencia	*určitá veda*
"Nadie sabía a ciencia cierta qué era esa máquina a la cual llamarían tren." (09.11.2016, S.18)	
a ciencia cierta	*bez pochyby Ø*
cinturón	
"«Ajústense los cinturones, será un viaje movido»" (09.11.2016, S.6)	
ajustarse el cinturón	*pripútať sa bezpečnostným pásom =*
clima	*znepokojivá klíma*
" La campaña deja clima preocupante de polarización" (09.11.2016, S.4)	
clima preocupante	*znepokojivá atmosféra =*
comer	*nech si ťa dá (zje)*
"… que se la come', pero no le decían a uno como se era que se la comía,…" (09.11.2016, S.18)	
que se la come	*ide po tebe (sexuálne)/pritiahol by ťa Ø*
compás	*zrútiť sa v rytme*
"… la divisa mexicana se iba desplomando al compás de los datos que llegaban de los recuentos…" (09.11.2016, S.6)	
desplomarse al compás	*postupne klesať Ø*

control	
"Y los cambios que se requieran son de competencia del congreso y están bajo el control de las cortes" (09.11.2016, S.19)	
estar bajo control	*byť pod kontrolou =*
cuerda	*proti povrazom*
"… durante una jornada que puso a los demócratas y a su candidata, Hillary Clinton, contra las cuerdas" (09.11.2016, S.4)	
contra las cuerdas	*pritisnúť k múru Ø*
curso	*sledovať kurz*
"… que les hace pensar que el trámite de la norma seguirá su curso hasta convertirse en ley…" (09.11.2016, S.1)	
seguir su curso/seguir el curso	*nasledovať smer ~*
deja vu	
"Este es un momento de deja vu …" (09.11.2016, S.6)	
momento de deja vu	*chvíľa déjà vu =*
día	*položiť deň*
"Electricaribe se había puesto al día con sus obligaciones vencidas" (09.11.2016, S.1)	
ponerse al día	*ísť s dobou/byť v obraze Ø*
día	*z jedného dňa na druhý*
"Empezó por decir que no fue de un día para otro,…" (09.11.2016, S.1)	
de un día para otro	*zo dňa na deň ~*
dios	*dať vďaky Bohu*
"… dio gracias a Dios "… su creador", a su esposa colombiana Janette y a las comunidades de Puerto Rico…" (09.11.2016, S.7)	
dar gracias a Dios	*ďakovať Bohu ~*
dudas	*bez miesta pochybnostiam*
"Sin lugar a dudas, la lectura será siempre un vehículo de aprendizaje y conocimiento" (09.11.2016, S.3)	
sin lugar a dudas	*bez pochybnosti ~*
escala	*vo veľej škale*
"… hurto de transportadores de valores, de cajeros a gran escala, como los de nóminas de pago…" (09.11.2016, S.8)	
a gran escala	*vo veľkej mierke/škále ~*
esquina	
"… corazón latino de Nueva York, las filas de espera doblan las esquinar…" (09.11.2016, S.4)	
doblar la esquina	*zahnúť za roh =*
estragos	*robiť škodu, zkazu*
"… ya ha hecho estragos en sectores de la ciudad con caída de árboles…" (09.11.2016, S.7)	
hacer estragos	*ničiť, devastovať Ø*

estrellas "Han muerto muchos otros, asuntos, como se van apagando estrellas" (09.11.2016, S.21) *apagarse estrellas*	*vyhasínajú hviezdy =*
fila "… corazón latino de Nueva York, las filas de espera doblan las esquinar…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *filas de espera*	***rady na čakanie*** *rady čakajúcich ~*
fronteras "… La campaña de EE.UU. rebasó fronteras que nunca creímos" (09.11.2016, S.22) *rebasar fronteras*	*prekročiť hranice =*
fuego "El acuerdo de cese del fuego y de hostilidades bilaterales…" (09.11.2016, S.19) *cese del fuego*	***zastavenie ohňa*** *zastavenie paľby/pokoj zbraní ~*
fuego "… a los conglomerados financieros tiene su primera prueba de fuego en el Congreso de la República,…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *prueba de fuego*	***skúška ohňom*** *krst ohňom ~*
golpe "El último de sus golpes fue en la calle 53,…" (09.11.2016, S.8) *último golpe*	*posledný úder =*
gracia "Era la gracia andando, la caballerosidad galopante, cada palabra suya era como un abrazo" (09.11.2016, S.21 *la gracia andando*	***chodiaca elegancia*** *stelesnená elegancia ~*
hombro "… ambos candidatos pelearon hombro a hombro y por varias horas" (09.11.2016, S.7) *hombro a hombro*	***plece na plece*** *bok po boku Ø*
hora "Angustia de última hora de Electricaribe para evitar la intervención" (09.11.2016, S.1) *última hora*	***posledná hodina*** *posledná chvíľa, hodina dvanásta ~*
hoy "Como resultado de estos esfuerzos, el país cuenta hoy por hoy con cifras récord en temas de siembra y productividad." (09.11.2016, S.13) *hoy por hoy*	***dnes cez dnes*** *doposiaľ Ø*
humanidad "… los delitos que adquieran la connotación de crímenes de lesa humanidad…" (09.11.2016, S.21) *crímenes de lesa humanidad*	*zločin proti ľudskosti =*

chismorrear "…, libar el añejo vino de la amistad y chismorrear de lo lindo." (09.11.2016, S.21) *chismorrear de lo lindo*	*pekne poklebletiť =*
insulto "Ni siquiera se le puede decir a una persona que ceda el puesto… sin recibir insultos" (09.11.2016, S.20) *recibir insultos*	***dostať nadávky*** *byť terčom kritiky Ø*
línea "… la presión arterial elevada es un enemigo mío de primera línea" (09.11.2016, S.1) *primera línea*	*prvá línia =*
lona "… soy el vocero de todos los órganos a los que el azúcar alta nos deja en la lona,…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *dejar en la lona*	***nechať v ringu*** *položiť v ringu ~*
lucro "…, y la asociación sin ánimo de lucro Comité de América Latina…" (09.11.2016, S.11) *sin ánimo de lucro*	***bez úmyslu zisku*** *neziskový (aj organizácia) ~*
lucha "Apretada lucha en estados claves define presidente de EE. UU." (09.11.2016, S.4) apretada lucha	*obtiažny boj ~*
mal "La diabetes es, en su inicio, un mal silencioso." (09.11.2016, S.1) *mal silencioso*	*tiché zlo =*
maltratado "Si el Partido Republicano salió maltratado de las elecciones presidenciales del 2012,…" (09.11.2016, S.5) *salir maltratado*	***odísť utrápený*** *byť porazený Ø*
mesa "«Ese es un tema que se decidirá una vez se instale la mesa»…" (09.11.2016, S.8) *instalarse la mesa*	***pripraviť stôl*** *pripraviť rokovania Ø*
mesa "Análisis sobre el margen de maniobra real de la mesa de negociación" (09.11.2016, S.19) *mesa de negociación*	*rokovací stôl =*
mijita "Me decían 'cuidadito mijita, retiradita de ese muchacho que se la come'…" (09.11.2016, S.18) *mijita*	***nedá sa preložiť (regionalizmus)*** *dcérenka Ø*
milagros "… saber que somos milagros andantes y que somos parte de una naturales…" (09.11.2016, S.2) *milagros andantes*	*chodiace zázraky =*

minas "El acuerdo de limpieza y descontaminación de minas antipersonales" (09.11.2016, S.19) *minas antipersonales*	*protiosobné míny* *protipechotné míny ~*
mirada "La descentralización…, sino que ha hecho que se vuelque la mirada a nuevos productos…" (09.11.2016, S.13) *volcar la mirada*	*prevrhnúť pohľad* *upriamiť pohľad ~*
'no' "… fue una de las peticiones recurrentes de los sectores que promovieron el 'No' en el plebiscito……" (09.11.2016, S.9) *el 'No'*	*"Nie"…* *opozičná skupina Ø*
noche "…, pero ayer y bien entrada la noche el jefe de cartera de la firma…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *entrada la noche*	*vstup do noci* *hlboká noc ~*
noche "…, aunque admite que este cambio es difícil y no se produce de la noche a la mañana." (09.11.2016, S.2) *de la noche a la mañana*	*z noci do rána* *z večera do rána ~*
nuevo "En ese momento de su vida hizo un pare que lo levanto de nuevo." (09.11.2016, S.18) *levantar de nuevo/levantarse de nuevo*	*zdvihnúť znovu* *postaviť/vzchopiť sa sa znovu ~*
ocasión "Sin embargo, no podía dejar pasar esta ocasión para hablar de lo bajo que ha caído la política en la democracia…" (09.11.2016, S.21) *dejar pasar la ocasión*	 *nechať si ujsť príležitosť =*
ojo "Y es que si algo dejó sentado el magnate en esta campaña es que con él las cosas son 'ojo por ojo'" (09.11.2016, S.5) *ojo por ojo*	 *oko za oko =*
ojo "… ya estoy enfermo, así que mucho ojo" (09.11.2016, S.1) *mucho ojo*	*veľa oko* *veľký pozor Ø*
ojos "Todos los ojos seguían puestos en un…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *ojos puestos*	*oči položené…* *oči zamerané na …. ~*
ojos "…, deben poner los ojos allí" (09.11.2016, S.21) *poner los ojos*	*položiť oči* *uprieť pohľad Ø*
ola "Siga el mapa de la ola invernal." (09.11.2016, S.7) *ola invernal*	*zimná vlna* *príval zimy ~*
papel "… en la que nuestro país jugará un papel determinante." (09.11.2016, S.12) *jugar un papel*	 *hrať rolu/úlohu =*
parca "… De todas formas, la parca vino por él el 24 de mayo." (09.11.2016, S.21) *viene la parca*	 *príde zubatá s kosou =*
pare "En ese momento de su vida hizo un pare que lo levanto de nuevo." (09.11.2016, S.18) *hacer pare*	*urobiť zastavenie* *dať stopku/zastaviť sa ~*
pasos "… y que había que seguir sus pasos" (09.11.2016, S.21) *seguir sus pasos*	*nasledovať kroky* *ísť v šľapajách Ø*
pasos "… la investigación criminal se realiza…; les hemos seguido los pasos a estos delincuentes…" (09.11.2016, S.8) *seguir los pasos*	*sledovať kroky* *nasledovať ~*
paz "Hermano de 'Antonio Garcia', jefe del Eln, sería 'gestor de paz'" (09.11.2016, S.8) *gestor de paz*	*správca mieru* *osoba zaručujúca mier ~*
pecho "…, dice mientras se aprieta el pecho plena de orgullo y satisfacción con su labor" (09.11.2016, S.18) *apretarse el pecho*	*stisnúť si hruď* *vypínať hruď/vystatovať sa ~*
pelea "… Florida, la reñida pelea que ganó el magnate" (09.11.2016, S.7) *reñida pelea*	*tuhá bitka* *tvrdý boj ~*
perita "Este mal, que no es ninguna perita en dulce y está fuertemente asociado con el sobrepeso y la obesidad,…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *perita en dulce*	*hruškový kompót* *niečo príťažlivé Ø*
pintar "«Todo pinta bien, las cosas están saliendo bien», afirmo Trump…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *pintar bien*	*dobre maľovať* *vyzerať dobre/vychádzať dobre (niečo) Ø*
plata "… como decían los abuelos, habrá que estirar la plata hasta donde más se pueda…" (09.11.2016, S.20) *estirar la plata*	*natiahnuť striebro* *zadeliť peniaze Ø*
plazo "En largo plazo, para la vida cívica de mi país es un momento decisivo" (09.11.2016, S.22) *largo plazo*	*dlhý termín* *z dlhodobého hľadiska Ø*

pobreza "… a un método en el que se evalúan aspectos como la pobreza multidimensional" (09.11.2016, S.12) *pobreza multidimensional*	*viacrozmerná chudoba =*
prensa "… Así concluye un estudio de la Fundación para la Libertad de Prensa…" (09.11.2016, S.9) *libertad de prensa*	*sloboda tlače =*
presa "Bueno, sepa que de la cabeza a los pies, todo el organismo es presa de la diabetes,…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *es presa de*	*je korisťou =*
prisión "…, tienen derecho a que cuando cumplan la cuarta parte de su pena estén en prisión domiciliaría" (09.11.2016, S.8) *prisión domiciliaría*	*domáce väzenie =*
puñado "… los resultados electorados en un puñado de estados tenían anoche la atención de…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *puñado de estados*	*hŕstka štátnych predstaviteľov ~*
punto "Restricción de la libertad, el punto de tensión con las FARC en La Habana" (09.11.2016, S.9) *punto de tensión*	*bod napätia* *citlivý bod ~*
puntos "Hay puntos del acuerdo de paz intocables" (09.11.2016, S.19) *puntos intocables*	*nedotknuteľné body (dohody) =*
puntos "Los puntos más críticos de la ciudad por la lluvia" (09.11.2016, S.7) *puntos críticos*	*kritické body* *závažné body ~*
pura "… Se trata de la mentira pura y dura…" (09.11.2016, S.20) *pura y dura*	*čistá a tvrdá* *jasné (poznaním) Ø*
quite "Escribir para 'hacerle el quite a la vejez'" (09.11.2016, S.18) *hacer el quite*	*urobiť únik* *uniknúť ~*
recaudo "… la Seccional de Investigación Criminal (Sijín) terminaron a buen recaudo de las autoridades." (09.11.2016, S.8) *a buen recaudo*	*dobre postaranie* *pod dohľadom/ochranou Ø*

recta "Prueba de ello que ambos llegaron a la recta final de la campaña…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *recta final*	*cieľová rovinka* *posledná etapa/fáza Ø*
recursos "Descentralización de los recursos" (09.11.2016, S.12) *descentralización de los recursos*	*decentralizácia/prerozdelenie prostriedkov (zdrojov)* *=*
reflejo "… en un claro reflejo del ánimo de la mayoría" (09.11.2016, S.4) *claro reflejo*	*jasný reflex* *jasná ukážka ~*
reo "… que Colombia sea juzgada en calidad de 'reo ausente'." (09.11.2016, S.11) *reo ausente*	*neprítomný obžalovaný* *bez prítomnosti obžalovaného ~*
resultados "Los apretados resultados de ayer confirman a Florida, en escenario de una fuerte campaña de Trump y Clinton…" (09.11.2016, S.7) *apretados resultados*	*tesné výsledky =*
revuelo "… la cual se considera ilegal–, cusaron revuelo ayer entre las empresas señaladas." (09.11.2016, S.3) *causar revuelo*	*spôsobiť nepokoj =*
sangre "… es todo un baño de sangre entre las tres facciones del partido…" (09.11.2016, S.5) *baño de sangre*	*krvavý kúpeľ* *krviprelievanie ~*
secreto "Su abuela Rosalbina, a quien consideraban su madre, se llevó el secreto a la tumba." (09.11.2016, S.1) *llevarse el secreto a la tumba*	*zobrať si tajomstvo do hrobu =*
sepultura "… uno de los mayores deseos de mi mamá…, darle cristiana sepultura y tener un lugar…" (09.11.2016, S.10) *dar cristiana sepultura*	*dať kresťanský pohreb* *poskytnúť/dožičiť kresťanský pohreb ~*
sí "California le da el sí a la marihuana de tipo recreativo" (09.11.2016, S.6) *dar el sí*	*dať áno* *dať povolenie/odklepnúť niečo/súhlasiť ~*
sobresalto "… en una jornada sin sobresaltos en la que reobservaron largas filas de personas…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *jornada sin sobresaltos*	*deň bez zľaknutia* *bezproblémový deň Ø*

sueño "… y por el sueño americano", aseguran" (09.11.2016, S.7) *sueño americano*	*americký sen =*
sueño "Se vino de Yalí, su pueblo natal, como una quinceañera tras un sueño de terciopelo" (09.11.2016, S.18) *sueño de terciopelo*	*zamatový sen* *ako v bavlnke Ø*
temor "Los mercados tiemblan por temor a victoria de Trump" (09.11.2016, S.6) *temblar por temor*	*triasť sa od strachu =*
tentáculos "'Gancho Mosco' tenía unos tentáculos muy fuertes;…" (09.11.2016, S.8) *tener tentáculos*	*mať chápadlá* *mať vplyv Ø*
terreno "… hay una gran agenda en la debemos encontrar terreno común, añadió." (09.11.2016, S.5) *terreno común*	*spoločný terén* *spoločný priestor ~*
tierra "…, tal vez por no aceptar que ya no pisan la tierra" (09.11.2016, S.21) *pisar la tierra*	*stupať po zemi* *kráčať po zemi ~*
tío "… así ocurre en la tierra del Tío Sam…" (09.11.2016, S.21) *Tío Sam*	*strýko Sam (Amerika) =*
todos "«Queremos seguir llegándoles a todos, queremos seguir invirtiendo los recurso…»" (09.11.2016, S.13) *llegar a todos*	*dostať sa ku všetkým (vrstvám ľudí) =*
tono "Pero, a juzgar por el tono de esta campaña…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *juzgar por el tono/juzgar el tono*	*súdiť podľa tónu* *súdiť podľa ladenia/zamerania ~*
tóxico "Muy poco de ese tóxico momento que hemos experimentado…" (09.11.2016, S.4) *momento tóxico*	*toxický moment* *nepríjemný okamih/nepríjemná situácia Ø*
triunfo "Al reñido triunfo de Trump, la alegría del partido republicano…" (09.11.2016, S.7) *reñido triunfo*	*vyhádané víťazstvo* *úporné víťazstvo ~*
trumpismo "Y ahora surge el 'Trumpismo', personas desencantadas con el establecimiento republicano…" (09.11.2016, S.5) *Trumpismo*	*trumpizmus =*

uso "… dejaría a un quinto de sus ciudadanos viviendo en lugares donde el uso recreativo de esta droga es legal." (09.11.2016, S.6) *uso recreativo*	*rekreačné použitie* *príležitostné užitie ~*
uso "… se votarán iniciativas para legalizar el uso médico de la marihuana…" (09.11.2016, S.6) *uso médico*	*lekárske použitie* *na medicínske účely ~*
vehículo "Sin lugar a dudas, la lectura será siempre un vehículo de aprendizaje y conocimiento" (09.11.2016, S.3) *vehículo de aprendizaje y conocimiento*	*vozidlo učenia a múdrosti* *zdroj poučenia a múdrosti ~*
viaje "«Ajústense los cinturones, será un viaje movido»" (09.11.2016, S.6) *viaje movido*	*pohyblivá jazda* *rušná jazda ~*
vida "Ellos salieron de Bangladés para "… buscar una vida mejor"… " (09.11.2016, S.7) *vida mejor*	*lepší život =*
vida "… el tema de las cifras para ocuparse de la calidad de vida de los campesinos" (09.11.2016, S.13) *calidad de vida*	*kvalita života =*
vida "… Pagó con su vida el coraje de defender a una mujer" (09.11.2016, S.20) *pagar con su vida*	*zaplatiť životom =*
vino "…, libar el añejo vino de la amistad y chismorrear de lo lindo." (09.11.2016, S.21) *añejo vino*	*staré víno* *vyzreté víno ~*
vista "… salto a la vista con el brexit." (09.11.2016, S.20) *saltar a la vista*	*skočiť do pohľadu* *jasný na prvý pohľad ~*
vocero "… soy el vocero de todos…" (09.11.2016, S.1) *ser el vocero*	*byť hlasom ~*
votación "Hillary y Trump, en la más reñida votación en 16 años" (09.11.2016, S.1) *reñida votación*	*rozhádané voľby =*
zona "…, convertiría a toda la costa oeste en zona amigable del cannabis y…" (09.11.2016, S.6) *zona amigable*	*priateľská/priaznivá zóna =*

Después de tener una lista con 122 palabras hemos creado el corpus para el análisis y la comparación de las palabras claves extraídas en frases, frases hechas, metáfora, metáforas ocasionales, etc. Hemos encontrado 41 equivalentes idénticos (=), 52 parcialmente idénticos (~) y 28 con ningún tipo de equivalencia (Ø). Como suponíamos, en español hemos encontrado más construcciones figurativas que en eslovaco, los equivalentes totalmente idénticos han sido menos, los equivalentes parcialmente idénticos han sido más que los equivalentes totalmente idénticos. También teniendo en cuenta la fecha del diario, después de las elecciones estadounidenses, y como imaginábamos, las metáforas o frases ocasionales han sido más que las frases hechas.

Se han creado por medio de formación de palabras, ofreciendo un enriquecimiento léxico. También hay que destacar que este material, el análisis y comparación de unidades fraseológicas, metáforas y frases hechas sirven como material didáctico que puede ser de interés para los estudiantes y para los que se dedican al español como lengua extranjera.

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II. SECTION
OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND POLITOLOGY

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ARRANGEMENT OF TRAVEL GUARANTEE FUNDS IN THE COMPARATIVE PROFILE OF SELECTED COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is both to evaluate and compare the legal regulation as well as the implementation of travel guarantee funds in selected EU Member States. The approach of individual countries to the legal obligations of their providers of travel services will be assessed. The methodological aspect of the solution is based on a qualitative analysis of both domestic and foreign expert sources as well as legislative documents relevant to the forms of insurance. Seven countries of the European Union (France, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway and the Netherlands) were selected to create a sample examined. The choice of countries has been made with regard to a degree of their sophistication of the individual guarantee schemes. Incidentally, the advanced European Union states were chosen as they have established mechanisms operate in the long term and contribute to an effective and balanced business environment. This case study can thus be used as inspiration for the organization and management of the tourism system in the Czech Republic

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Z310 Tourism: Industry Studies
K220 Business and Securities Law
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Introduction

Appropriate consumer protection standards are one of the basic preconditions for stable functioning of the travel services market both in the Czech Republic and the European Union. Consumer protection in problematic situations and a definition of the obligations of travel service providers have been regulated at Union level for several decades. However, consumer policy and tourism are not among the areas in which the European Union has exclusive powers. Insurance of tour organizers against bankruptcy is not uniform, but is based on the principle of harmonization. Member States retain the choice of means to achieve the objectives of the directives in force. At present, it is possible to find different forms of practice in individual countries that can be combined. Insurance is most often used in case of payment insolvency. Guarantees of the guarantee fund and the bank guarantees are also used. The importance of this issue is also increasing in the context of the implementation of the new Package Travel Directive, which states that Member States are obliged to ensure that tour operators provide a guarantee of repayment of all payments made by travellers.

The aim of this paper is to evaluate and compare both the legal regulation and implementation of travel guarantee funds in selected EU Member States. The approach of individual countries to the legal obligations of the providers of travel services will be assessed. A theoretical starting point of the paper is to clarify the conditions for insuring tour organizers in the Czech Republic and other countries of the European Union. The methodological aspect of the solution is based on a qualitative analysis of domestic and foreign expert sources and legislative documents relevant to the forms of reinsurance. The laws of the relevant countries relating to consumer protection were used in the event of the insolvency of the organizers or tour operators, respectively. These are, among others, tour guides, documents governing the existence of a guarantee fund, information and statistical findings from representatives of national associations of travel agents and agencies as well as members of The European Travel Agents' and Tour Operators' Associations (ECTAA).

Seven countries of the European Union (France, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway and the Netherlands) were selected to make a sample examined. The choice of countries has been made with regard to the degree of sophistication of their individual guarantee schemes. Incidentally, the advanced European Union states were chosen as they have established mechanisms to operate in the long term and contribute to an effective and balanced business environment. This case study can thus be used as inspiration for the organization and management of the tourism system in the Czech Republic.

1. Znsurance of tour organizers in the Czech republic and the EU

Consumer protection is enshrined in European Union law in Article 38 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, 2012). Consumer protection in the event of the of the tour operator insolvency is currently governed by a valid Council Directive of 13 June 1990 on package travel, package holidays and package tours (90/314 / EEC), namely Article 7: The organizer and/or retailer party to the contract shall provide sufficient evidence of security for the refund of money paid over and for the repatriation of the consumer in the event of insolvency. (Council Directive, 1990).

There are several legal forms in the EU Member States to secure the organizers of tours in case of their insolvency such as: insurance policy (applied by the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Romania, Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Latvia, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Great Britain, Croatia); bank guarantees (applied by Austria, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Hungary, Croatia, Spain, Greece, Cyprus); guarantee fund (used by the Netherlands, Denmark, Italy, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland); and other forms such as financial deposit, loans or credits, statutory body guarantee, bonds (Škrabánek, 2012).

Approximately three-quarters of the European Union's Member States are legally enacting more than one form of guarantee for the organizers of tours. In some EU countries, such as France and Switzerland, intermediaries also provide guarantees if they sell tours on their own behalf and on their own responsibility. The Czech Republic is one of the few countries that until recently had laid down only one form of guarantee, namely compulsory insurance against bankruptcy. That was applied for 15 years until 2015. In other countries, bank guarantees, cash deposits or professional guarantee funds are usually allowed in parallel with the insurance. Bank guarantees are used, for example, in Austria, by the law they are being allowed along with the insurance in Slovakia. On the other hand, in countries such as the Netherlands, Italy and Denmark, a guarantee fund is regulated, but it may require for its clients a policy with insurers, banks or credit institutions as a collateral.

In the Czech Republic, the travel agencies must now be insured under the form of insurance policy or bank guarantee within the scope of Section 6 of Act No. 159/1999 Coll. as amended, so that the agreed indemnity limit is at least 30% of the annual planned sales revenue from the sale of the tours, or if the sales are to be lower than the sales in the previous year, at least 30% of these revenues in the previous year (Act No. 159/1999 Coll, 1999).

In this respect, the conditions for travel agents or tour operators in the Czech Republic are quite strict. The share of annual sales, which is typically provided within the European Union, ranges from 8 to 15%. Only Cyprus (20%), Slovakia (25%) and most of the Czech Republic (30%) stand out from this average. In European countries, the percentage range is commonly used that take into account whether the offer of the tour operator includes a charter transport which is considered to be more risky. Member associations reported in the 2012 questionnaire survey that the proportion of annual sales is 10% in France, 3-7% in Estonia, from 8 up to 10 % in Austria, 7-20%, in Poland, 12-20% in Hungary, 10% in the United Kingdom and 10-15% in Ireland. A fixed amount is provided in some countries, for example in Spain this makes 180.000 EUR and in Slovenia 41.730 EUR (Škrabánek, 2012).

From 29 December 2015, with the amendment to Act No. 159/1999 coming into effect, tour operators have an option of providing, in addition to insurance, a legal form of bank guarantee (Act No. 159/1999 Coll, 1999). By introducing a second form of insurance of a tour operator against bankruptcy, the Czech Republic has come close to the standard of the northern and western European countries. Due to the need to implement a new travel directive (EU Directive 2302, 2015), the Czech Republic has been offered with an opportunity to introduce another alternative form of guarantee for travel agencies, in the form of a guarantee fund.

The new Directive 2302/2015/ EU on package travel and linked travel arrangements requires Member States in Article 17 to ensure that *"that organisers established in their territory provide security for the refund of all payments made by or on behalf of travellers insofar as the relevant services are not performed as a consequence of the organiser's insolvency. If the carriage of passengers is included in the package travel contract, organisers shall also provide security for the travellers' repatriation. (...)... "*(Directive 2302/2015/EU, 2015). However, Member States naturally strive to transfer this obligation to entrepreneurs, be they financial guarantee providers, tour organisers or tour operators, respectively. The reason lies in shifting the financial liabilities. The transposition of Directive 2015/2302/EU, which introduces more new rights and obligations for contract participants, could be a challenging task for many countries, as a review of existing safeguards and benchmarking mechanisms is needed in this process.

2. Case studies of selected European Union Members

In some countries, where the system of tour operators´ insurance is not run in accordance with the requirements of Directive 2015/2302/EU on package travel and linked travel arrangements (Directive 2015/2302/EU, 2015) and, at the same time, the State refuses to take over the liability of the repatriation of all payments to customers, there is thus proposed an introduction of other forms to ensure that the requirements of EU law are met. Among these countries is the Czech Republic, which has been, since 2016, preparing an appropriate insurance mechanism. Successful practices from the countries such as Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway and France can serve as an inspiration. The following text provides an analysis of various forms of insuring organizers of tours through guarantee funds, which have not been applied in the Czech Republic yet.

In order to clarify the nomenclature, it should be noted that the authors use common terms used by EU law. In this respect, a tour operator is considered to be a tour organizer, an agent that offers, organizes and sells combinations of travel services in their own name and on their own responsibility. The organizer buys individual services from provides (carriers, landlords, guides) and combines sets of those services that are than offered to their customers. In the Czech legislation, the tour operator means travel agency (Act No. 159/1999). A retailer means a mediator, i.e. the third party of the business relationship between the customer and the operator who sells the tours organized by the organizer to the final consumer. The Act No. 159/1999 Coll. uses for a retailer the term travel agency.

Belgium

The sectoral law (Travel Contract Act, 1994) regulates the contracts for individual services or travel contracts, which are concluded in Belgium with a tour operator or a retailer. If an agent sells tours of a foreign tour organizer, he / she are considered to be the organizer in relation to the customer. The Act establishes an obligation for the tout organizer to be sufficiently secured against the event of insolvency, in the form of insurance. This guarantee must cover up to 100% of the annual turnover of the previous year (Travel Contract Act, 1994). The insurance company may also require an additional guarantee, which, however, depends on the financial situation of the company. The authors of the article, based on a discussion with representatives of

the Association of Belgian Tour Operators, estimate that the cost of providing the tour organizer's with a guarantee is around 0.15% of the annual turnover of the previous year. The insurance costs borne by the dealer are lower, reaching about 0.01% of the annual turnover of the previous year.

In accordance with the Belgian legislation, the so-called Travel Guarantee Fund of Belgium (GFG), which is managed by the Mutual Insurance Association, was established in 1995. The association is licensed by the Belgian supervisory authorities for insurance business. The fund provides guarantees for regular tourists and business travellers and covers instances of unrealized holidays, business trips or parts of them, as a result of the insolvency of the organizer or the retailer in accordance with the law (Travel Contract Act, 1994). The insurer is the mutual insurance association GFG; the insured is then the tour organizer or the retailer, who concludes an insurance contract with GFG. The beneficiary of the insurance benefit is the traveller who has concluded the tour contract regardless of whether it was directly with the organizer or the retailer. However, there is a condition that the organizer and the retailer were members of the GFG at the time of the conclusion of the travel contract. If a member of the fund becomes insolvent, the fund accepts a liability for clients and returns the payments to the client, pays the cost of a negotiated trip (the fund repays the overpayment or the customer pays the surcharge in case of the different prices of alternative stays) or reimburses the rest of the cost of the already commenced trip (Travel Guarantee Fund of Belgium, 2016).

Through consistent ongoing monitoring, the GFG is a crucial element in preventing possible bankruptcies in the tourism industry. This holds already in the early stages of the deteriorating economic outcomes (Travel Guarantee Fund of Belgium, 2016). Each year the fund carefully scrutinizes all member companies via analysing their financial situation, structure and activity. The supervision is performed by an independent fund committee using checklists, financial statement analyses and other objective tools to identify potential problems at an early stage.

The Travel Guarantee Fund of Belgium is based on a simple and sustainable principle in which members pay a very small percentage of their turnover as a contribution to the fund. This money is then used to pay the travellers' receivables as well as the operating costs of the fund. The longer the entity is registered with the fund without its insolvency, the

lower the contribution is paid. Each year, the fund covers a large number of travellers, approximately € 2.4 billion. The GFG brings together 490 member organizations with a total of 993 sales points. In the management, there are representatives of four strong professional associations namely: ABTO - Association of Belgian Tour Operators, BTO - Belgian Travel Organization, CLARA - Flemish Association and UPAV - Union of Professionnelle des Agences de Voyages. These four associations have jointly opted for a transparent and efficient organizational structure - a mutual insurance company that meets the features of a cooperative (Travel Guarantee Fund of Belgium, 2016).

Denmark

The obligation to register with the Travel Guarantee Fund of Denmark (RGF) applies to all travel service providers or retailers of foreign service providers established in Denmark. The required tour operator and dealer's guarantee is based on its annual turnover of the previous year and the calculation is given by law. The guarantee itself can be in multiple forms (financial or reinsurance). The guarantee is higher when charter air services within the activity of the tour operator exceed 50% of his turnover, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: The amount of tour operator's guarantee in relation to his turnover of the previous year

TURNOVER	COLLATERAL
UP TO 250,000 DKK	0 DKK
250,000 – 5,000,000 DKK	300,000 DKK
5,000,000 – 10,000,000 DKK	500,000 DKK
10,000,000 – 15,000,000 DKK	750,000 DKK
15,000,000 – 50,000,000 DKK	1,000,000 DKK
50,000,000 – 100,000,000 DKK	1,500,000 DKK
100,000,000 – 250,000,000 DKK	2.500.000 DKK
FOR EACH ADDITIONAL 100 MILLION DKK IN THE TURNOVER, THE COLLATERAL OF 1 MILLION DKK IS REQUIRED. IF CHARTER FLIGHTS EXCEED 50% OF THE TURNOVER, HIGHER COLLATERAL IS REQUIRED EVEN FOR LOWER TURNOVER.	

Source: Travel Guarantee Fund Act, 1997

The Danish Guarantee Fund is a private, independent institution founded to help customers in the event of a tour organizer's insolvency or foreign tour operator´s insolvency. The customer may request reimbursement from the fund if the provision of travel services is interrupted or some services have not been provided to the customer due to organizer's financial problems. Provided compensation may be in the form of repatriation, reimbursement of accommodation, justified compensation, compensation for a dealer who has indemnified his clients due to the organizer's insolvency, completion of the stay in due time, if it saves the cost of the client's indemnity. The customer clearly states in the relevant documentation that he / she agrees to a form of reinsurance in the form of fund. In the event of the insolvency of the organizer, the customer should receive compensation within a reasonable time, but no later than one year after the travel service has been agreed or the contract for its provision was concluded, respectively. The Danish Fund does not cover travel services sold abroad (Travel Guarantee Fund Act, 1997).

Dealers of tours from foreign organizers and service providers must be registered with the fund and must inform their customers. The condition of registration is to provide guarantees based on the turnover over the last four quarters through a bank, an insurance company, a cash deposit or equivalent. The detailed requirements are regulated by the Danish Ministry of Economic and Business Affairs, which approves the fund's statutes. The registered tour operators are required to pay an administrative fee relating to financing the operating costs of the fund. The amount of the administrative fee is determined by the committee and approved by the Ministry. The Fund may require the provision of an extended guarantee if it determines by the analysis of the financial situation that there is a specific risk of impending loss to the fund upon the bankruptcy of a given entity. The fund committee may also require participants to pay a fee for each traveller the amount of which is again defined by the committee and approved by the Ministry. If the customer enters into a contract with a service provider, the customer can select a guarantee through the fund. In such a case, the customer pays a fee to the travel service provider who transfers it to the fund (Travel Guarantee Fund Act, 1997).

The fund may request any information and documentation it deems necessary to provide in-

surance in accordance with the law. Persons working with the fund are subject to confidentiality obligations with respect to that information. The fund committee consists of one chairman and six members appointed by the Ministry and elected for three years. Three of the six members of the committee represent travel service providers (tour operators) and three represent customers. The management of the guarantee fund and its accounts are audited by the National Audit Office and a report on the fund's activities is available to the Minister of Industry and Trade (Travel Guarantee Fund Act, 1997).

The Netherlands

In the Netherlands, there was established the Stichting Garantiefonds Reisgelden (SGR) foundation that is responsible for the management of the fund. The mission of the fund is to make payments to consumers in countries that are part of the European Union or the European Free Trade Area, with regard to the concluded trip contracts or the contracts on transport or accommodation if these consumers suffer financial loss as a result of the insolvency of the tour operator, retailer, provider of transport or the operator of the accommodation facility. The scope of the Dutch fund is thus much wider than in the previous examples in Belgium and Denmark. However, the fund does not cover solo contracts for air transport and car rental (Stichting Garantiefonds Reisgelden, 2016).

Each consumer is entitled to a claim of up to EUR 10,000 per person and case. Whether the fund will fulfil the insolvency of the participants in certain cases is decided by the board of directors. The board of directors decides also in situations not regulated by law, the statutes or any other regulations. If the consumer demands payment from the fund he has the right to make a choice between returning the travel costs already paid or the exchange trip, the alternative transport or accommodation, including the option to pay or return the difference in price for these alternative services (Stichting Guarantee Reisgelden, 2016).

The organizer's turnover from the previous year is the basis for calculating the amount of guarantee required. The collateral covers 100% of the turnover. The guarantee fund requires a bank guarantee that is variable, but not less than 1.5% of the annual turnover or 5.000 EUR, respectively. The guarantee fund has accumulated a financial reserve from consumers' fees over the past years of its existence, which now allows to cover bankruptcies even outside

the reserve. Therefore, the insurance for a customer is free of charge (excluding the membership fee of 300 - 1,200 EUR) and the consumer does not pay any fees (Stichting Garantiefonds Reisgelden, 2016).

Switzerland

According to the law (Federal Act on Package Travel, 1993), both tour organizers and retailers (the so-called intermediary) of these tours are financially secured in Switzerland. Legal protection is intended not only for customers but also for providers within the business relationship. In the event of the bankruptcy of the retailer, the organizer may request money from **Guarantee Fund of the Swiss Travel Industry** that he has not received from the retailer. The Swiss Federal Package Travel Act entered into force in 1994. In the same year, within the framework of the implementation of this Act, there was created a guarantee fund run by the Swiss Travel Association (STA). The guarantee fund is funded through membership fees, annual membership contributions, and through asset income. In case of insolvency of the tour organizer, the fund covers only travel expenses (Schweizer Reise-Verband, 2016).

Each member of the fund is obliged to provide a bank guarantee at the amount of 1% of its gross annual sales, but not less than 50,000 CHF. The amount secured represents proof of solvency and covers all claims of the customers for damages in case the respective member of the fund becomes insolvent. In addition to the bank guarantee, a deposit blocked on a bank account with Raiffeisenbank St. Gallen for the benefit of the fund is also acceptable. This deposit is currently given 0.70% interest and the account is free of charge (Schweizer Reise-Verband, 2016).

Norway

The Norwegian Travel Guarantee Fund is a private foundation whose purpose is to provide a guarantee enshrined in the Council Directive on package travel, package holidays and package tours (Council Directive, 1990). The fund accepts members which already have appropriate collateral, usually in the form of a bank guarantee, but may require other security as well. The bank guarantee is calculated according to the highest monthly turnover in the previous year, the so-called TOP month, combined with the preceding month to the TOP month, but never less than EUR 31,000. For the participation in the Norwegian Travel Guarantee Fund is not currently required a payment of fees because the fund has sufficient reserves to cover the potential bankruptcy

of the organizers. In the case of bankruptcy of the tour operator, the bankruptcy collateral is primarily used - payment from the bank guarantee. The fund serves only in cases where Norwegian Travel Guarantee Fund (2017) is insufficient. This mechanism provides customers with a 100% guarantee that they will not lose their money.

Sweden

Any person who organizes or sells travel services in accordance with the provisions of the Travel Guarantees Act of Sweden must have financial collateral from Kammarkollegiet before he actually starts offering or selling travel services. Kammarkollegiet is a legal, financial and administrative agency (The Legal, Financial and Administrative Services Agency). Pursuit to law, the collateral is provided through a bank or a credit or insurance company, and these institutions may require additional "reassurance", such as a deposit on a tied bank account, mortgage or personal guarantee (Travel Guatantees Act Sweden, 1972).

The aim of the law is to provide financial protection to travellers if the provision of travel services is interrupted or cancelled, usually due to the insolvency of the organizer. The Travel Guarantee Act covers tours, travels in connection with tours, individually marketed transport or accommodations that may resemble to the tours, and services that include transportation and training including the accommodation in a visiting family. In the case of tours, the customer is understood as natural persons or consumers, respectively, as well as companies or other legal entities. The purpose of the statutory duty of the guarantee is to ensure that only travel agencies with sufficient financial resources provide protection to their customers in the context of their travel business (Travel Guarantees Act Sweden 1972).

Kammarkollegiet determines the amount of the guarantee individually for each individual tour operator, based on the scale of sales of services for which a guarantee is required. Organizer's financial responsibility is calculated on a monthly basis, according to monthly sales reporting. The organizers must have a guarantee valid until the next report and cover at least six months a year. If this guarantee is not sufficient for the whole year (for example, the tour operator may have more than one high season of sales), the guarantee must be supplemented by additional guarantees valid only for specific months of the season. Kammarkollegiet determines the size of the guarantee and notifies the organizer. Subse-

quently, the organizer, resp. the claimant will address the bank, the insurance company or the credit institution that provides the insurance. The guarantee must always include a written commitment to reimbursement from one of these institutions (banks, insurance companies or credit companies) as the organizer cannot pay the amount for the guarantee directly (Kammarkollegiet, 2015).

Swedish tour operators and retailers must provide a guarantee covering all customer payments for trips that have not yet begun. And also to repatriate customers who have already set up for the trip. The amount of the guarantee provided under the law varies between at least EUR 5,500 and a maximum of EUR 110,000,000 (Škrabánek, 2012).

France

For a comprehensive view of the issue, it is necessary to mention also a guarantee fund system in France, which has existed since 1964 (Association Paritaire de Santé au Travail, 2016). The French Tourism Business Code (Code du Tourisme, 2017) provides, in general terms, three forms of insurance for travel organizers and tour operators in the event of bankruptcy. In France, not only tour organizers or tour operators, respectively, but also retailers obliged to insure against insolvency. The guarantee in France can be provided by a collective guarantee institution - a guarantee fund or a monetary institution - a bank or an insurance company. The most used option is the form of a commitment of the guarantee fund. There are two institutions operating guarantee funds on the French market (Škrabánek, 2016).

State control over the management and functioning of the guarantee fund is ensured not only by the Deputy Secretary of State for Tourism being a member of the fund's Board of Directors but also by the mandatory approval of the statutes of the company that manages the fund on behalf of the Ministry of Finance as well as the sectoral Ministry (Škrabánek, 2016). What can be seen as positive in the functioning of the guarantee fund in France compared to other EU countries is a possibility of undertaking the trip even in case of the tour operator´s insolvency. The alternate tour is organized by another member of the fund or by external service provider in coordination with APST. Repatriation of money can only be the next step. This solution of the case of insolvency can be evaluated as a friendly form in relation to customers who will not be deprived because of not undertaking the expected vacation (Škrabánek, 2016).

Conclusions

On the basis of the undertaken analysis, it can be stated that in all the countries under review the provision of tour operators works on a similar basis. The insurance of tour operators (in some cases also retailers) is combined with the provision of a guarantee in the form of a guarantee fund. Guarantee funds are key institutions in providing insurance of the tour operators. They provide customers with sufficient guarantees in the event of organizer's insolvency. On the other hand, the members of the fund gain stable conditions for doing business. The membership in guarantee funds allows for the fulfilment of the statutory obligation while achieving economic efficiency. Guarantee funds are common in countries with a long tradition of organizing tours. In the monitored countries, they usually operate for over twenty years. For instance, in Belgium and Denmark, guarantee funds were created immediately after the transposition of the original Travel Directive - in 1994 or 1997, respectively. Moreover, in Sweden there has been a kind of guarantee fund for more than four decades. The long-term existence of funds makes it possible, in contrast to regular insurance, to reduce fees over time. Guarantee funds thus contribute to the stability of the industry and to a balanced business environment with long-term active businesses.

In particular countries, such as France, together with tour operators also the retailers are provided with a collateral, which is crucial for the business relationship between tour operators and intermediaries. In most cases, however, insured are dealers of tour organized by foreign tour operators - see Belgium, Denmark. The Netherlands even extends the possibility to pay from the fund even to cases of insolvency of the transport providers or the operators of the accommodation facility.

Switzerland can be a model for the Czech market in particular in addressing the protection not only towards the end customers but also within B2B relationships. The Swiss law regulates both the protection of consumers' money when the organizer of tours becomes insolvent as well as the protection of organizer´s money as a result of the insolvency of a retailer who has not transferred the money collected from his clients to the organizer. In the Czech law, the relationship between the customer and the organizer is understood as the principal and the retailer enters this relationship only as an intermediary. The Swiss model would help in situations where the retailer becomes insolvent and the organizer must still check out the customers who bought it. Such a form of protection can be considered to be very balanced, as there is no detriment either on the part of the customer or on the part of the organizer.

Among the selected Member States of the European Union is the most frequent form of insuring the trip organizers a kind of insurance policy in case of payment insolvency and a bank guarantee. These variants are used in parallel with the provision of a guarantee through a guarantee fund, as evidenced by all the countries mentioned. Based on the business risk assessment of the entity's financial condition, additional collateral may be required. This occurs in several ways – via a personal financial deposit, a loan or a guarantee equivalent to the value of the property.

The cost of insuring the organizers is typically below the 0.5% of the financial turnover in these countries. The secondary objectives of the exemplary funds are the minimal financial burden on entrepreneurs and the sustainability of entrepreneurial activity. In case of a long-term membership, the entrepreneurs pay a decreasing level of fees over time as the fund has accumulated sufficient income - see for example the Netherlands, Switzerland and Norway. Companies are thus motivated to long-term business, solvency and membership in the fund. Guarantee funds do not only fulfil the function of providing guarantees. They also serve as a monitoring body and via monitoring monitored on an ongoing basis by the financial indicators of their members on an ongoing basis that can prevent potential insolvencies in the tourism industry, even at an early stage of deteriorating economic performance. These funds have the power to review member companies, analyse their financial situation, their structure and their risk. Use of charter traffic is considered to be an important risk factor. In this respect, the consistency of control, its regularity and the independence of the control body are essential, which may be problematic with regard to costs. We cannot underestimate the crucial importance of professional expertise of the supervisors or controllers, including confidentiality, as well as the need to control the management of the fund itself.

In the context of the current discussions in the Czech Republic on the transposition of the new travel directive, which should take place from 2018 onwards, and following this information, the Czech legislators should consider a completely new form of insuring tour organizers that would exist along with insurance and a bank guarantee. This alternative can be a kind of travel guarantee fund, inspired by Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden or France, where guarantee schemes have been introduced. A guarantee fund for tour operators – a kind of a private, professional, and non-profit organization - could be created on the Czech market to provide public travellers with trustworthy guarantees for the events of insolvency. The fund members' fees would be used to cover both the fund's own operations as well as the compensation in case of the insolvency of the member companies. Here is the question of properly defining the amount of fees and the calculation system so that the fund is able to meet its obligations from the outset of its existence. According to the above models, the members of the fund would, over the years and due to the accumulation of funds, contribute a decreasing amount to the fund. The fund would be managed by a board of directors composed of representatives of a leading institution for tourism (currently in the Czech Republic it would be the Ministry for Regional Development), the Consumer Protection Association and the Association of Financial Institutions. The supervision would be carried out by the state control body, probably in the Czech model, the Ministry for Regional Development of the Czech Republic, which would approve the statutes of the fund.

Based on these practical examples, the takeover of the trip realisation in case of the insolvency of tour organizers by the fund and its other members can be very inspiring. It is also important that the members of the fund are encouraged to adhere to the rules of participation and mitigate the risks of insolvency. In these foreign markets there is an environment that is more than favourable for long-time and solid entrepreneurs. They gradually pay lower security charges. This should also be the aim of the Czech Republic in the future to create a business environment that will be balanced. Consumers will be provided with a 100% guarantee of protection of deposited funds, while minimizing the financial burden on service providers. The Czech Republic should take into account long-term functional insurance systems in Western European countries and move towards a compromise with a view to creating a healthy competitive environment.

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THE BERLIN WEST AFRICA CONFERENCE OF 1884 - 1885 AND ITS POSITION IN LEGAL AND POLITICAL HISTORY[1]

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Abstract

The Berlin Conference on West Africa is a part of the history of European colonial expansion. The paper seeks to concisely describe the ideological and social environment which enabled the partition of Africa. It discusses also the events preceding the conference, which is to be considered as a formal legitimization of the process of partition. Berlin General Act resolved tensions between colonial powers and made the partition easier. The paper briefly describes also the most fundamental political and legal-historical consequences of the conference.

Key words

the Berlin Conference, international relations, partition of Africa, scramble for Africa

Introduction to the Topic

In the 1870´s merely 10% of African territory was controlled by European states. Only a decade later process of dividing Africa among European powers, colloquially called "scramble for Africa", was in its full speed and by the First World War, there were only small parts of the continent that did not fall under European control. The partition of Africa was sudden and rapid but the process of dividing Africa among several major colonial powers had its roots in the deep past. From the point of view of political history, the process was legally established and legitimized after the conference in Berlin (1884 – 1885). The legal consequences of the conference were far-reaching both for the legal theory and the development in international public law (law of nations).

Historical and Ideological Preclusions to the Partition of Africa

The "scramble for Africa" began in the 1880´s but the ideas, policies and rhetoric that motivated the colonial partition of Africa were rooted in the past. They had existed since the end of the 18th century and became more intensive in the 19th century when, paradoxically, the discussion on stopping the slave trade grew and the actual ban was issued in the 1830´s. At that time, Africa captured the attention of European public and the ideas of European modernity were applied to African society emphasizing the necessity of political and cultural modernization of African society. The ideas of modernization of African society were subsequently often used as a background for the doctrine of civilizing mission.

The societies in the colonized territories were subjected to the influences of Western world. The civilizing missions tended to touch the basic socio-cultural settings of the colonized nations such as social-collective identity, ethnic-political identity and civilizational identity (e.g. cultural self-perceptions) (FALSER, 16). The doctrine of civilizing mission was indisputably problematic and carried derogative connotations because of its inherent view of the colonized subjects as positioned lower on the "civilization scale" and also because of touching the above mentioned socio-cultural settings. The idea of civilizing mission was originally formed in France but it was employed by all of the colonial powers. E.g. in Germany, the rhetoric that tried to popularize a colonial expansion was based mostly on economic reasoning but still even there, the idea of civilizing mission continued to be employed throughout the several decades of German colonial empire (see e.g. Bundesarchiv – Berlin (further BAB) BAB, f. R1001/1137, pp 96 – 101; BAB, f. R 1001/2115, p. 93/4; or Reichstagsprotokolle. 1912/14, 6, p 4335).

This discursive element was accompanied by the development of racial thinking. The diversity of mankind had its traditional biblical explanations in the Jewish-Christian tradition. The Book of Genesis contains the story of Noah´s sons who fathered three tribes that were supposed to develop into the modern mankind. Ham's, Japheth's, and Shem's offspring inhabited the Earth after the flood. The focal point in the story is the disagreement between Noah and his son Ham. Ham's son Canaan was punished by eternal curse:

" Cursed be Canaan;
a servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren.
And he said, Blessed be the LORD God of Shem;
and Canaan shall be his servant.
God shall enlarge Japheth,
and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem;
and Canaan shall be his servant." (The Bible, Genesis 9:25 – 27; p.10)

Throughout the Middle Ages, the biblical story acquired new interpretations. Ham´s offspring began to be identified as Africans already in the 8th century (BUDIL, 14). The dark skin or "blackness" started to be directly associated with the curse in the 15th century (HRABOVSKÝ, 66). The time when the blackness began to be associated with the curse correlates with the time when the African slave trade started to be an important part of global economy and the slave trade triangle began to form.[2] The story of Noah´s sons became even more significant in the times of American abolitionist movement – anti-abolitionists tended to use the biblical story for justifying and legitimization of slavery.

Contacts with other parts of the world and with somatically different populations became more intensive in early Modern Age. Secularization weakened the position of traditional biblical anthropology and stimulated the need to reinterpret the world. The efforts to explain the human diversity with new theories was present since the beginning of those processes. The first sign of change in understanding the differences among populations was letter and a research paper written by French physician and traveler Francois Bernier (1620 – 1688). Bernier´s letter was read in French Academy of Sciences in 1684. It was followed by the paper in which the author introduced a new concept of the world based on the different races. Francois Bernier was the first author who did not try to interpret the diversity of mankind in accordance with biblical anthropology. His theory of four races had geographical background (HOßFELD, 56).

The Early Modern Age, especially the 18th century strengthened the position of natural sciences. The improvement of knowledge on nature and the wide popularization of sciences meant an important turn in the way of thinking. While most of the consequences tended to be positive, the effort to categorize the nature – a feature typical for the Era of Enlightenment, put forward also the idea of mankind being

separated into several races. The idea of race was defined biologically and became ideologically and politically instrumentalized. Race started to be interpreted as a set of characteristics that were inherent and immutable (JAHODA, 13 – 51). New geographical discoveries and exploration of new territories introduced more contacts with otherness and gave stimuli for the categorization and taxonomization of differences within mankind.

The above mentioned atmosphere of secularization which intensely influenced academic environment did not reach whole society. The 18th century was also a century of pietism – a religious movement that emphasized deep immersion into religion. Historian George Mosse identifies the emphasis on intuition, instincts and emotions as an element that contributed to the atmosphere that together with the Romanticism and emergence of modern nations helped to develop the ideas of race (MOSSE, 30).

Completely novel understanding of race emerged in the second half of the 19th century. One of the first signs the notion of race began to obtain new connotations was the *Essay on the Inequality of Human Races*, a book in four volumes, published by French diplomat Arthur Gobineau (1816 – 1882) in the 1850´s. The book itself did not get much recognition at the time of its publication but it has its importance because of its later recognition in Germany and the United States (BURNETT, 4) and also because Arthur Gobineau was the first author who did not try to study biological diversity, but rather to relate race to the culture. His description of three races employed racial stereotypes and reflects the changes in the racial (and racist) imagination (GOBINEAU). The era of modern racism began in the second half of the 19th century and Gobineau's work illustrates the turn profoundly well.

Another shift started to emerge already in the late 18th century - geographical knowledge assumed the crucial position in the European exploitation of global environment. This shift was accompanied by the emergence of a new kind of explorers, individuals who came with missionary goals, or explored as travellers, geographers, naturalists, propagandists of imperial expansion, etc. They tended to popularize the regions they explored and by the 1870´s their actions became connected with the spread of European sphere of influence (MACKENZIE, 13).

The preludes to the Berlin Conference

Social, moral, and cultural-intellectual conditions for the expansion were appropriate in the

1880´s. The spheres of influence of several European power began to overlap and causing tensions in international relations. Berlin Conference is sometimes called the Congo Conference of West Africa Conference because its original goal was to negotiate and decide on the spheres of influence in the region of West Africa.

The exploration of Central Africa in the second half of the 19th century included the journeys made by travellers such as missionary David Livingstone (1813 – 1873), and Henry Morton Stanley (1841 – 1904), a journalist and explorer. Henry Morton Stanley reached the mouth of the Congo river in 1877. A year later the account of his journey titled Through the Dark Continent was published in London and ended a long lasting dispute about the sources of the rivers Nile and Congo. The mapping the region acted as a stimulus for Belgian king Leopold II (1835 – 1909). The Belgian king was a colonizing enthusiast and began to develop extensive efforts to build a colonial imperium in 1870´s. Having this goal in mind he hosted the International Geographical Conference in Brussels in 1876. The background aim of the conference was to position Belgium among the states active in colonization. The conference is an illustration of the direct connection between activities of modern explorers and the spread of colonial powers. Another aspect that deserves to be noticed is the fact king Leopold II. used the rhetoric of civilizing mission in his speech at the conference. He tried to portray himself as a selfless leader seeking to introduce civilization to the "dark continent" (DUNN, 21). The Belgian rule in the region lead to disaster and turned to be full of atrocities but even omitting this fact, it is discernible the argumentation of civilizing mission was employed to reach the strategic power goals.

After the conference, the International African Association with Leopold II as a chairman was founded. It was not revealed to the members of association that Leopold of Belgium hired Henry Morton Stanley to explore Central Africa, especially the Congo river basin. Stanley was also instructed to enter into contracts with local chiefs. The practice of contract making with the local chiefs was not novel and was employed by all the colonizing powers to formally legitimize their presence in the region. The practice later provided the powers with the arguments of being already firmly established in the regions of their interest (more on e.g. German practice of entering into contracts with local chiefs in BREZINOVÁ-ŠVIHRANOVÁ). In case of the contracts negotiated by Stanley, the land in the basin of the river Congo was

effectively ceded to the Belgian Crown (not to the Belgian state) (DUNN, 22). It is important to point out the land was ceded to the Crown and not to the state – the land thus became a private estate of the king. It is interesting to consider that an international actor at the Berlin Conference was a state of Belgium, which negotiated the sphere of influence on behalf of a Crown – i.e. the person of king Leopold II. Again, the situation was not singular – private colonies had existed before and tended to be taken over by states (compare e.g. German trade colony owned by Adolf Lüderitz that was taken over by German state after Lüderitz´s death in 1886).

The atmosphere in the first years of the 1880´s caused that the states initiated the race to make contracts with indigenous chiefs and secure their own positions in Africa. Great Britain as an important colonial power was interested in Africa only to a limited extent because the focus of their colonial efforts was in Asia. British interest in Africa was probably motivated mostly by the need to protect the passage to India. Great Britain had also close commercial relations with Portugal and therefore, Luso-British contract from 1884 guaranteed Great Britain would protect the mouth of the Congo river provided Britain obtained the right of navigation of the Congo. The contract made for the international uproar. German chancellor Bismarck managed to utilize the situation and suggest to convene the conference. Bismarck´s offer probably surprised his contemporaries because Germany was not an important colonial power and its colonial estate was minor – limited mostly to the several contracts with local chieftains. Bismarck´s reasons are described in the next part of the article.

The motivations for organizing the conference

The motivations for organizing the conference fall into two basic groups: international motivations and German internal motivations as a host of the conference. The international community feared of the disputes over colonial territories because the titles to the territories might be problematized by other colonial powers – the fear of those disputes had been so significant it inspired the conference. The situation was complicated by the rise of the positivist approach in law and the approach it employed towards non-European societies. The positivist legal theorists of the 19th century tended to describe the non-European societies as excluded from the realm of international law (ANGHIE, 69 - 70). On the other hand, the real situation was different. As described above, the states very often entered contracts with

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[2] Slavery had not been historically associated with a specific origin or ethnicity.

local leaders and based their claims to the territories on those contracts also within international disputes. From the 19th century positivist viewpoint, it meant the claims of European powers were built on the contracts with legally non-existent entities and therefore were disputable in case of the international disagreement.

There were also the internal motivations of Germany as a host. Germany entered the realm of colonial adventures comparably late. The reasons are obvious - the unified German state was formed only in 1871 and because the state was formed after the war between Prussia and France, a powerful neighbour, the situation of a new state was rather complicated. The energy of the state headed by emperor Wilhelm I. (1797 – 1888) and chancellor Otto von Bismarck (1815 – 1898) needed to be put into consolidation of its international position and also into solving demanding domestic issues. Those circumstances explain why Germany began to consistently pursue colonial goals only in the second decade of its existence (although the popular colonial enthusiasm had existed in the German society throughout the whole 19th century). The approach of the state toward colonization changed and Germany started to support of the activities of travellers and traders. Chancellor Bismarck was motivated by the importance of securing German colonial positions.

Another facet in German motivation to convene the conference of immense international importance might have been related to the above mentioned insecure position of Germany in the international environment. To be a host of such an event was meant to prove the new state as a strong actor in the discussions on the colonial territories.

The General Act of the Berlin Conference

The conference took place since 15th November, 1884 and continued until 26th February, 1885. General Act of the conference was approved on the last day. The conference was attended by thirteen European countries and by the United States. Notoriously, the United States reserved the right to decline the final act.

It is interesting to notice the foundations of pre-war alliances were already built although there were still several changes in international alliances to come until 1914. Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia and Italy were the states interconnected by treaties and alliances. The Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary was concluded in 1879, the League of three Emperors with Germany, Austria-Hungary and Russia was formed in 1881 in spite of Austro-Hungarian tensions with Russia in the Balkans. These alliances were short-lived but the Triple Alliance had already existed too and kept the cooperation of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy throughout the First World War (note the Austria-Hungarian tension with Italy because of the northern Italy that used to be part of the Habsburg Empire prior the formation of Italian state). The position of Germany in colonial world was described above – the country had had only minor colonial successes prior to the conference and the aim of the country was to establish itself as a colonial power. The Austro-Hungarian position at the conference was rather that of observing participant and supporter of German interests. The Habsburg monarchy did not possess its own colonies and probably did not aspire to acquire any. The naval power of the land locked country was minor, limited to the local matters and could not compete with the powers of Great Britain, France or even smaller colonial powers. Furthermore, Austria-Hungary hoped to establish its sphere of influence in the Balkans.

Russia had its sphere of influence in Asia and believed in success in the territories of once powerful Ottoman Empire, another participant, whose power was falling apart. Other countries without significant spheres of influence in Africa were Scandinavian participants and Spain. The economy of the Spanish Kingdom did not allow further colonial adventures in the late 19th century.

Conventionally, it seems the immediate thoughts of the conference may be detected in the discussion between the German Chancellor and French Prime Minister – both countries were disturbed by the expansion of British informal empire (CRAVEN, 36). The General Act declared the freedom of trade in the basin of the Congo, forbidding the slave trade in the region, the neutrality of the territories owned by colonial powers in the basin of the Congo, Acts of Navigation for the Congo, and the Niger. The sixth chapter declared the powers are bound to notify the other signatory powers (Berlin Conference, 1098).

The Act itself did not define the colonial borders or spheres of influence and therefore it sometimes tends to be dismissed by historians of having only small significance in the history of colonization. However, as Matthew Craven correctly observed there are at least several reason why we need to consider the conference and its final act to be an important part of the colonial history (CRAVEN, 40 – 42). First, the months before the conference itself became the race in exploration and securing the positions of powers with the contracts closed with local chieftains. The forthcoming conference seems to be the cause of the sped-up colonial activities that continued even during the conference itself. More importantly, the series of bilateral agreements followed. Those agreements appended the final act and set the spheres of influence and colonial borders which have mostly survived until these days. The subchapter below will describe the position of the conference in the legal history and the consequences that arose from the bilateral treaties closed in the aftermath of the conference.

Legal-historical and Political Consequences

The implications of the Berlin Conference for the development of international law were significant. The conference opened several theoretical controversies. As mentioned above, the legal theorists tended to exclude the native societies from the international public law. Although the concept of *terra nullius* – an ownerless territory emerged only at the beginning of the 20th century (FITZMAURICE, 284), the absence of sovereignty of local peoples had been theoretically described already earlier. The discussion on the topic is included e.g. in 1894 Chapters on the Principles of International Law written by John Westlake (1828 – 1913). Following the consideration of approach chosen at the conference, the author concludes the question of sovereignty of indigenous population: *"...it would be going much further, and to a length to which the conference declined to go, if we were to say that, except in the case of unprovoked aggression justifying conquest, an uncivilised population has rights which make its free consent necessary to the establishment over it of a government possessing international validity."* (WESTLAKE, 139)

However, the reality at the conference was different – various participants did acknowledge the entitlement of the local ethnics to enter the treaties and to participate in the law of nations. Andrew Fitzmaurice argues the confusion in contemporary interpretation of events is based on ignoring the difference between personal and territorial sovereignty (FITZMAURICE). The conference participants thus might have acknowledged the personal sovereignty of local communities and their leaders and at the same time to ignore their territorial sovereignty. It is obvious the Berlin Conference posed new questions for the 19th century theorists and thus, the conference is interested also as a research topic within the discipline of legal history.

Moreover, is seems the final act is not to be understood as a typical treaty and it is necessary to see it rather as a stable part of international law because the conference final act introduced obligations also for countries that were not present (WANG SHIH-TSUNG, 193).

It is indisputable the conference outcome had far-reaching consequences for the colonized territories and their peoples. The foundations of political geography of Africa were formed by the Berlin Conference and was based solely on the colonial spheres of influence. The boundaries in modern Africa are source of international conflict and hinder also economic development. They were shaped mostly within three decades following the conference. The bilateral treaties between European powers were signed in those years (mostly within the first five years). The bilateral treaty between Germany and Portugal separated German South West Africa from the territory of Angola and in East Africa, the southern border was established – it separated German colonial territory from the Portuguese sphere of influence. German East Africa was neighboured by the British sphere in the north. The north east Africa was divided among Great Britain, France, and Italy. In the west of Africa, France, Great Britain and Portugal defined their colonial estates. Central Africa included the newly formed Congo Free State of king Leopold II, French colonial territory, and Spanish colonial territory. The south of Africa was firmly divided later – at the turn of the century. By the First World War the borders at the continent were set and there were only minor changes after 1918.

The arbitrariness of the boundaries in Africa divides people – it is not uncommon for the borders to ignore the ethnical principle. The fact itself might not consist severe trouble. However, as Ieuan Griffiths points out in his chapter on the boundaries in Africa, there are several important aspects in forming African boundaries and in the combination, they tend to add up to the fact the some of the boundaries throughout Africa may become points of tensions. The arbitrariness of borders is combined with their ambiguity that makes for differences of interpretation, and with inconsistency in the use of physical features. These and other aspects make for the fact there are many places in Africa where boundaries are "weak" and tend to become places of international antagonisms when the political contexts change (GRIFFITHS, 115). It is self-evident the tensions and international antagonisms in Africa involve the exhaustion of fragile economies by military expenses.

Concluding remarks

The Berlin Conference of 1884 – 1885 can be considered as a valuable research topic for both the political and legal histories. The conference was not a cause of partition of Africa but it initiated the process by settling the disputes between European colonial powers.

The article seeks to point out also the most important processes that formed modern Western society and prepared the economic, social and political conditions for the partition of Africa, called also the "scramble for Africa". Those processes included secularization, fall of traditional biblical anthropology, rise of natural sciences, pietism, emergence of modern nations, development of racial and racist theories, and the emergence of a new kind of explorers whose activities became soon directly connected to the state colonialism. From the historical viewpoint, it is probable that those processes are more important for the partition of Africa than the conference itself but it seems the conference was an important stimulus for the subsequent bilateral agreements between colonial powers and might speed up the actions of colonial power – the evidence for this view is e.g. the race for closing the contracts with indigenous chieftains in the months prior to conference.

The significance of the Berlin Conference for the study of legal history is indisputable. It was an important addition to the development of international public law and introduced several questions for the legal theoreticians of the 19th century. It posed the question of position of the indigenous populations within the law of nations – based on the 19th century racist and stereotyped view of the native societies, the theorists of those times tended to exclude the natives from the law of nations. However, the states at the conference backed their claims with the contracts closed with local chieftains. Contemporary interpretation of the events points out the difference in understanding territorial and personal sovereignties which might explain the contradictive legal situation – the personal sovereignty of the local chieftains might have been accepted.

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EUROPEAN CULTURE AND MULTILINGUAL COMMUNICATION

ALICA HARAJOVÁ

Abstract

The need to communicate comes from the limits of a human-being. There are several reasons why we communicate. The most natural reason is the need to communicate in every- day life, the need to coordinate work etc. The most important reason why we communicate can be nowadays the need to belong somewhere, to be a part of the whole. Life shows us the great importance of communication as well as consequences of the fact if in a communication act we cannot communicate the meanings- i.e. if we fail in a communication act. The language is the most important sign of people that differentiates them from other animals. The languages were incentives for the origination of science, art, religion and whole culture.

Key words

culture, the European culture, The Europeans, multilinguality, interculturality, language education, communication in foreign languages

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People have always been the holders of the big European cultural streams. There is no history without people, there is not even any personal history without people. We are even the holders of non-personal history. Whether we want or not we have history in ourselves. Nobody can live like Robinsos on an island. We are the part of a society that is nowadays called a nation and has its non-repeatable signs as e.g. language and self-identification. History helps to understand the relations of an individual with his/her nation and if it is needed with his/her mankind. Human experience and knowledge of history help to orientate in the present life of an individual as well as a nation.

The definition of the term "The European culture" requires deep and wide excursion into the history of Europe. Therefore, it is needed to select historical facts and determine important milostones of historical, political and cultural development of Europe in the chronological order. What concerns the characterizing of the terms „international relations, national identity, national profile" that started to occur in the 18th and 19th centuries, we need to use the different approach. One part of this process is the profilation and different conception of Indo-european language group but at the same time it is needed to build on the primeval - language basement.

The term „ The History of Europe is the mater of the discussion for those who think and present the opinion that the Europe has its own history and the representatives of the eurosceptic historiography who deny this opinion. The present history comes from the fact of the existance of the European Union. It deals with the Europe as a whole and not with individual states. In the past, the historians examined the contradictions and differences that helped to the disintegration of Europe. However, today´s priority is to realize for Europeans why they are called Europeans. First reason is geographical as there are borders that eurosceptics deny. Secondly, political reasons – The Europeans have become the citizens of other states. Of course there are also cultural reasons and mainly the fact that history and situations have decided this way. In this sense, the history becomes the chronicle of the step-by step realization of the mutual culture. We quite agree with historians that the Europe has its own history and that there are more situations in the history of human mankind that speak more about integration than disintegration of Europe. Finally, we can say that Europeans are those who adhered and adhere to the Euopean projects.

The term "culture" is very difficult to define. There are several ways how to do it with respect of its complexity.

According to the Dictionary of foreign words the word culture is defined as „ the summary of the spoil and results of the human knowledge, the summary of the material and spiritual values created by the creative physical and psychical work in the history of a human mankind, the way of their acquisition, passing by, creating, preserving" or as „ the level of active cultivating, life activity of an individual, a group of people, nation and so on".[1]

Small encyclopedic dictionary defines spiritual (immaterial) culture as „ the common images of people, their philosophical opinions, knowledge of science, art and moral values."[2]

C. Oliviéri in his contribution speaks about the traditional three- level scheme when defining the term culture:

- In the strict sense of the word its meaning is limited to literature and art (mainly painting nad music).
- In a broad sense we take into consideration the sociological, political, historical and geographical facts.
- In a global scope we add to the above mentioned meanigns also the way of life and thinking, language behaviour and social rituals. [3]

The european Union is based on the principle of difference. We mean by that difference of cultures, traditions, religions and of course languages. In Article 22 of the Charter of the Fundamental human rights of the Europen Union, passed by the representatives of the EU in the year 2000, the discrimination is understood also as discrimination against the language. The respecting of the rights of individuals, the openess towards other cultures, the tolerance and acceptation of the others as well as the respect for language difference are the basic vales of the European Union. This principle is not valid only in case of having and accepting 23 official languages of EU but also for other regional and minority languages that are used within the area of the EU. Thanks to this difference, the EU is what it is: a place where the difference is understood as the source of wealth and not as a place where the difference is beaten.

The portfolio of the European commissioner mentions exclusively for the first time the liability for the multilinguality. This document is the first notice of the Commission, that is responsible for the policy of the EU. It completes the current initiative of the Commission for the improvement of the communication among European citizens and institutions that serve for them. Except of this it:

- confirms again the interest of Commission in the area of multilinguality within the EU
- sets the strategy of the Commision for the support of the multilinguality within EU, in economics and in the Commission itself.
- suggests several special measurements coming from this strategic framework [4].

The European Union is based on the idea of „unity of difference", difference of cultures, habits, religions and languages. Except of 23 official languages within the EU, there are about 60 other indigene and tens of non- indegene languages that are used in the communities of migrants. Just this variety makes form the EU the common place in which the variety is celebrated and in which the numerous mother tongues are the source of wealth and the way to the bigger solidarity and mutual understanding. Language is the most direct reflection of the culture and it makes from us people and provides us with the feeling of identity. In Article 22 of the Charter of the Fundamental human rights of the Europen Union, the EU shall respect the cultural, religional and language diversity. In Article 21, there is mentioned the prohibition of discrimination against different reasons – even language reasons. The respecting of the language diversity is the key value of the EU as well as the respecting of an individual, openess towards other cultures, tolerance and acceptance of others and language diversiry. The measurement of the EU and the member states for the support of the multilinguality therefore have the influence on the life of every citizen. The multilinguality means the ability of a person to use more languages as well as the co-living of different language communities in one geographical place. The above mentioned term denotes a new Commisiion policy that supports the language teaching and learning – a friendly atmosphere in which teaching and learning processes of different languages realize. The policy of the Commission in the area of multilinguality has stated 3 goals:

- to support the studies of languages and language diversity in a society
- to support healthy multilingual economy
- to enable the citizens the access to the regulations, procedures and information of the EU in the language they speak.

Process of European integration, migration of the citizens as well as the perpetual development of the international contacts – economical, scientific and others are the facts that strengthen the need to study foreign languages. At the same time, this development is being reflected in the character of language teaching. Meeting of people from different cultures and co- habitation of different ethnic minorities and cultures in one place lead in the area of didactics of foreign languages to the emergance of the cultural part of the foreign language teaching and learning process and to the emphasis on the application of intercultural approach when presenting or acquiring the facts.

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1   Šaling, S. – Ivanová-Šalingová, M. – Maníková, Z. :

Slovník cudzích slov. Bratislava: SAMO 2000.

2   *Malý encyklopedický slovník. Praha: Academia 1972*

3   *Oliviéri, Claude: La culture cultivée et ses métamorphoses. In: Culture, culture…, Le Français dans le monde n˚ spécial janvier 1996, s. 9*

4   *KOM (2005) 596 BRUSSEL 22.11.2005*

The term intercultural i sused as the opposite of multicultural. Both the terms express different aspects. While the term multicultural has describing character, in the word intercultural, there is a very importan prefix – IN, meaning mutual contact, circulation in both directions, between cultures, mutual enrichment, intersection.[5]

Next development depends on the member states. The Commission will, within its ability, do its best to rise awareness about multilinguality and to synchronize the measurements on all levels.[6]

For majority of people, it is natural to understand and communicate several languages. It is the life skill. It causes that we open ourselves to different cultures and opinions. Moreover, it improves cognitive skills and mastering of the mother tongue and gives freedom to work and study in a different member state.

The highest representatives of states and governments of the EU at the meeting in Barcelona in March 2002 expressed their wish to teach at least 2 foreign languages from the babyhood. The long-term goal of the Commission is to support the individual multilinguality until the citizen can use two foreign languages[7].

The Commission in the year 2003 has obliged member states to realize 45 new measurements and support regional and municipal authorities to cooperate in the enforcement of the foreign language studying and multi-language communication. These measurements are complementary to some other forms of the long- term support from the Commission that started with the programme LINGUA in the year 1990. Within Socrates a Leonardo da Vinci programmes, the Commission invests every year 30 million euro into the cholarships with the idea:

• to enable the teachers to study abroad
• to exchange contacts among the teachers of foreign languages and schools
• to provide financial means for the exchange programmes of the classes with the idea to motivate the students to study foreign languages.
• to create new language courses on CDs or internet
• to create projects that inform about the advantages of studying foreign languages
• The Commission realizes the strategic studies

and thus supports discussions, inovations and exchange of the proven processes.[8]

The multilinguality is supported also by the echange programmes for the youth, projects of fellowship between the cities and European voluntary service. Within the programme Culture, the translation of 2000 literary works has been financed since the year 1997. The drafts of the new programmes *Culture 2007, The Youth in Action and a Life long education,* should have been implemented since 2007 and nowadays continue in the support and development. The EU also provides with the financial support the European Comittee for less frequently used languages and for the network of the universities Mercator which deals with the research of the languages that are used less frequently within Europe.[9] On the request of the European Parliament the Commission started in the year 2004 realization of the research on the need for language education and language diversity. The research has shown that 2 areas are not covered and therefore two possibilities have been suggested: to create agencies or to develop the european network of "the centers for the language diversity".[10] According to the Commision, the most suitable step would be to build up a network that would be created on the existing structures. The Commission will deal with the possibilities how to finance it in several year time within the proposed programme of the life time education.

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INNOVATIVE MANAGEMENT TOOLS UNDER CONDITIONS AS A TOOL FOR IMPROVING QUALITY OF PUBLIC SERVICES[1]

NADEŽDA JANKELOVÁ – ANDREA ČAJKOVÁ – NATÁLIA KOVÁČOVÁ

Abstract
One main objective authority is improving quality public services provided. In terms of quality management, an approach that, along with company's strengths is basis of innovative activities not only at macroeconomic level but also in management process of specific organizations. Paper explores innovative management tools in local government with emphasis selected management functions such as strategic management, process management, customer orientation and human resource management. Results found point unsatisfactory situation, especially in area strategic management and process management, partly in field human resource management. Most exciting situation in innovation has manifested itself in customer orientation.

Introduction

Aim public administration and authorities is improve quality life citizens while respecting principles sustainable development while at same time increasing performance and quality public services provided. Citizen is particularly interested in increasing quality life in his city, region or region. Customer public service is interested in his quality in view his personal perception. Good understanding objective public administration is basis for quality and effective management based on exploration and exploitation of its innovative potential. Organizations must ensure that innovations in context provide an adequate response in form different categories innovative activities organization.

In view above questions, present paper is aimed at reviewing innovative tools in process managing local government organizations with emphasis on selected management functions, namely strategic management, process management, customer orientation and human resources management. These management aspects are selected for holistic approach to office quality management that includes all these perspectives through quality management models as model excellence EFQM, CAF (Common-AssessmentFramework), ISO or TQM (TotalQuality Management). Contribution is an output within Veiga project 7/2016 „Innovative approaches to management public administrations in context improving quality of public services provided."

Theoretical background

Issue streamlining public administration governance and search for innovative potential in various areas is addressed many domestic and foreign authors. We examine either partial aspects of management and application of new trends in them or management is understood systemically and studied in context socio-economic and political development. First group can include strategic management experts (Mallya, 2007, Majtán, 2016, Slávik, 2013, Veber, 2014) with application to public administration area (Boyne, Walker, 2010, Drhová, 2010, Hendrick, 2010, Poister, Edwards, 2013). Process issues address issues Pavlík (2014), Hammer (2015), Brocke (2014), Krumeich (2015), Rosemann (2015), Pitra, Mohelská (2015) and others. Customer orientation as basis satisfied client is focus oauthors Edmonson (2008), Davenport, Mule, Lucker, (2011), Pavlík (2014), Osborne (2015) and others. Innovative potential in human resource management is presented wide range authors. For example Maket, Lamaon, Kwonyike (2015), Honglei, Congjie (2015), Rubio, Alaminos, Gonzáles (2015), Puček (2005), Joniaková, Blštáková (2013) and course many others. Within second group, they deal with issue Hughes, Weiss (2007), Chouinard, Ellison, Ridgeway (2011), Kaplan, Norton (2008), Barton (2011), Kanter (2008, 2011), Pitra, Mohelská (2015), who point out that if society whole is to function in sense sustainable development concept, organizations in it must change their behavior, ways, activities

and cooperation. It is only possible to use innovation potential in management of individual organizations, to ensure high efficiency of implementation of advantageous innovation strategies, to build a reliable infrastructure for their security, to adjust dissonance, to set a certain balance and to achieve optimization of social benefit from realized results of innovative projects. Innovation potential is important but needs to be demonstrated and implemented.

Survey methodology

In framework of survey we have tried to explore innovation potential and effort of selected towns and municipalities in Slovakia to develop innovative activities within process of managing individual authorities. There are a lot of options presented by theory and practice in form of various tools and methods already applied. What, however, is real situation in this area, we tried to find out through a survey that was conducted in a questionnaire on a sample of 60 municipalities willing to share with us their knowledge and experience in innovation management. In view of effort to get as large set as possible and in view of low degree of willingness to engage in survey, we did not make a selective choice of respondents according to certain criteria. Questionnaire was devoted to four selected areas of management in which respondents were asked closed questions with choice but also open questions for deeper penetration into issue and knowledge respondents opinions that would not be affected our options.

Survey results and discussion

In this part contribution, due to its limited scope, we will try to summarize main findings in utilization innovation potential city and city management according to individual areas surveyed.

Strategic management

Common practice in strategic planning is formality plans, their elaboration external consulting firms without use great potential in strategic thinking actors involved. Methods, respectively. Already in many companies used, even in public administration abroad, BalancedScorecard method, very little is being used. Up to 87% respondents said they did not know them. In many offices, ISO standard system is in place, which is basis and good input before introduction of BSC, since ISO standards include, among other things, customer citizen and process approach that are essential to BSC. implementation process

and in particular, low communication with both employees and citizens. Respondents identified as important factors on which success entire strategic management process depends - Chart 1. Scale is determined from 1 - insignificant factor 5 - very important factor.

Chart 1 importance strategic planning factors in examined offices
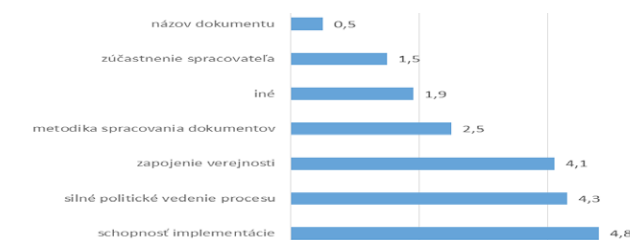
Source: Custom processing

Responses showed that respondents strongly perceived importance implementing strategic plans but in practice, this phase strategic management process remains biggest bottleneck (86% respondents answered). Secondly, there was strong political leadership in process. Strategies are created, for example, at beginning parliamentary term, it is only political document that does not systematically work or strategy is adapted to goals politicians or trends time, regardless impact life city's inhabitants. Important aspects planning include involvement public, which we evaluate positively, because in forming strategies and strategic plans, it is interests citizens and their satisfaction. Methodology itself is less significant, given fact that external consultancy firms are using plans.

We see high innovation potential in strategic management process. BSC method, which addresses both strategic and operational level action, can be viable tool, as we can see its great advantage and with help set balanced indicators, organization's efforts can be directed in set direction. Few public sector organizations can do this. In common practice, priorities are often unclear and strategies are mutually contradictory. This is big problem in public administration. BSC can provide support for strategies at all levels organization.

Process control

Authorities have distorted picture nature procedural management. It is generally known that only very few companies in Slovakia can be said to be really

driven. In 81%, respondents reported their use. Consequently, we were focused on clarifying what procedural management is about them. We divided responses into three main, homogenous groups. 35% authorities understood process computerization under process management, 39% represented quality management and remaining 26% did not have clear idea because responses were inadequate manage processes.

Results point fact that procedural control and its perception in investigated offices are diverted from reality. Idea is only describe processes in framework introduction ISO quality system. But essence is not only in real state of processes but in radical change and reorganization all processes in their new definition, analysis, monitoring, evaluation and continuous improvement. This is change in way organization works, including changing organizational culture, not formal naming processes and their management.

Although introduction procedural governance seems simple, many problems arise in practice, which impede its effective implementation. As part of our analysis, we have seen what authorities see as biggest obstacles and problems in process of implementing process. Responses were as follows - graph 2.

Graph 5 biggest obstacles, problems implementation and implementation process management

Source: Custom processing

We see causes such state in addition misunderstanding essence procedural management, even in vague organization strategy, as outlined in text above. In public administration other problems are also raised, such as receiving unprofessional solutions, without prior analyzes, most frequently influenced political interests. Often consulting and consulting companies are selected for other interests, such as quality reviews and expertise and their work then ends without being bound final applicable solutions. Big problem of many activities is their formal implementation, which means that work done by an external company

is excellently described set processes and ends in drawer as copy printed documentation. Problem, as with any change, is organizational culture factor. Without its change, procedural governance cannot be implemented and we all know well that this change is very difficult in classic bureaucratic and formal structures public administrations.

Customer orientation

In area customer orientation, situation is probably best in terms innovative tendencies. In this area, open questions were basis for finding wide range activities that organizations are doing. We have aggregated obtained responses into certain consolidated groups based similarities and common features. Classical tools in field of employee behavior and access are used in form defining requirements and defining certain standards employee behavior, well as questionnaire satisfaction surveys. To lesser extent, competency models for embedding defined requirements and other methods for assessing employee access (mysteryclient) are used. Respondents replies also showed that less weight is attributed to communication of results and also outcome each survey in form action plans.

In field responses complaints and complaints, innovative have been mainly reflected in services - electronic complaints and complaints, as well as efforts authorities define complaints and incentives. Area providing standard services is wide. Authorities are endeavoring to expand their services and make client's contact with office more comfortable. We do not see negatives here, we can only assess positive developments in area and provide suggestions for suggestions in recommendations.

Authorities are endeavoring to expand their services and make client's contact with office more comfortable. We do not see negatives here, we can only evaluate positive development situation in given area and provide other ideas. For improvement in customer orientation area it is possible to recommend developing methodology for behavior and access employees to customers, complaints, incentives and publishing on websites, sms or electronic ordering, which will increase comfort for client and reduce waiting times and stress for employees themselves, improving office environment in terms cleanliness, WC, offices, waiting rooms for clients, enhanced information delivery web, quizzing budget web that will allow for easier orientation in budgets and active, sending emails by radio.

Human resources management area

Within this managerial role, we also focused innovative forms management. Use new innovative methods is following in offices:

- goal management (MBO – management by objectives) – 5% authorities mentioned as one methods of staff evaluation
- 360 ° feedback method is declared in 4% offices where it is used to assess executives, which we also evaluate negatively because its importance in terms fairness and quality feedback
- other methods are not used by authorities - key event method, BARS (mystery scale), mysteryshopping method, which basically represents combination evaluation form and observation method, innovative method that can used by employees , coming into direct contact with customer and competent approach
- use older employees is reported by 65% offices, which is quite high but some managers do not know about some theory age management. they do not know it and do not conceptually realize it
- issue Y generation at offices is still not addressed (94%), although there is certainly knowledge differences in needs, claims or approaches within generations, targeted and proactive approach so far not used
- up to 47% respondents do not reflect gender issues in their documents and have not been listed in other documents, for example. antidiscrimination measures, which we assess negatively, gender issues include efforts authorities to ensure reconciliation family and working life, with various instruments in towns and cities being perceived rather in social and not personal development women, especially in context of new trends in human resources
- flexibility through alternative workloads is not yet showing much in organizations. Most prominent form is flexible working time - graph 3.

In this area, we see untapped potential authorities, because in private sphere, various alternative

Graph 3 Used alternative forms employment in surveyed offices

Source: Custom processing

forms work are increasingly coming fore and they are gradually finding support in legislation as well. Practical implementation is particularly cumbersome in public sector. It is necessary to increasingly adapt management human resources in public administration trends such as mysteryshopping (customer) method, which is appropriate for evaluation employees in service and can be implemented throughout office or in selected departments, for troubled employees. 360 ° Feedback Method is a high-quality evaluation tool that uses evaluation by several evaluators (supervisors, colleagues, subordinates, themselves or another defined group) thereby detracting from subjectivity and bringing justice to assessment. Competence assessment is not new assessment in terms competencies but as sum knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values that are important for personal development and employability each employee. Although method requires careful preparation and demanding first phase implementation, it is ultimately great asset. With onset generation Y, there is change in style collaboration and communication in an employee relationship. In this context, it is necessary introduce changes in content recruitment procedures for generation Y to adapt recruitment methods, in area education and development, in this generation, to focus strongly on permanent development, adjust setting of their goals, establish regular evaluations and submit feedback from superiors. It is important to promote and promote gender equality within gender perspective, which increases credibility, promotes economic growth, competitiveness and labor market performance, leads to better making and relates to demographic growth. With regard to flexible forms work, we recommend that some forms distance work be perceived as an occupational benefit that is equally beneficial to both men and women and thus to meet their employees in reconciling their personal and working lives. At same time, this form employment ensures reduction in fixed costs, eliminating waste in use office space and improving working conditions employees. Ultimately, it results in an increase in
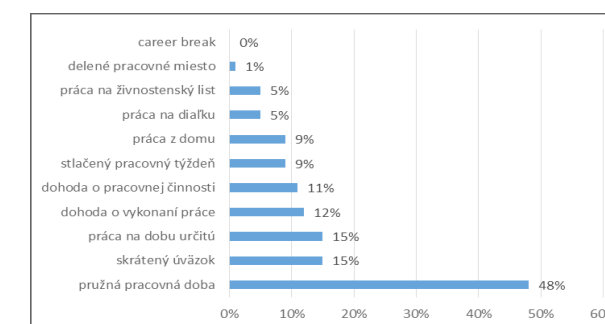
employee satisfaction and loyalty to employer. Of course, use methods depends on many factors. This is size office, quality management, type subordinates, financial, personnel options and so on. An important factor is personnel strategy that addresses these areas not only in formal form but in form real implementation. In any case, authorities should think about new personal management trends, including above tools, tailored to needs both employer and citizen.

Conclusion

Local has irreplaceable place in care development managed territory and needs inhabitants living in its territory. In providing development processes, it must flexible enough to respond flexibly to stimulus constantly changing external environment. However, requires increased demands and requirements ensure productivity internal environment particular organizations by implementing factors that are part quality management models and which should in this sense focus and innovation authorities. Based unsatisfactory real status, role management is not easy. They must manage harmonization resource efficiency, socially responsible behavior and compliance with ethical principles. The key to such solution is to continuously support innovation potential at every level society, ensure creation innovative projects, their implementation and redeployment into real services.

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COMPARISON OF KEY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS OF PRAGUE AND VIENNA

JIŘINA JENČKOVÁ, KATEŘINA NĚMEČKOVÁ

Abstract

The article compares key performance indicators among capital cities of the Czech Republic and Austria. Those cities were chosen for their strong competitive relationship and therefore relevant comparison. The goal is to define main differences and to find causes of lower Prague figures.

Differences are at first found at the current offer of accommodation establishments and number of visitors. Comparison works also with average spending per visitor and it gives short insight into central Europe market.

The conclusion draws main points for the change of Prague's perception and possible development of MICE service's offer.

Key words

Comparison, indicator, KPI, performance

UDC 304

Introduction

The Czech Republic was the host country of the 56th ICCA congress (International Congress and Convention Association), which was held in Prague. It was one of the most important events in the field of congress tourism, which could affect the future of not only Prague hotels, but it is possible, that it will influence also the competition with neighbour big cities in the MICE segment (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions).

The most important and closest competitor to Prague is Vienna, not only with its area and number of inhabitants, but also with its history and beauty. Both cities are similar in many factors, but Vienna still attracts more corporate clients. Business tourism brings higher revenue, it is therefore in Prague's interest to accommodate its offer to the needs of so called business clients. Vienna is better also in the number of tourists – in 2016, almost 6,7 millions of tourists arrivals (7,5% increase compared to 2015), while almost one million less tourists arrived to Prague. (Hedrick-Wong a Choong, 2016)

Although Prague has 10% less accommodation establishments than Vienna, it has 20% more beds. The number of five star hotels is however almost 4,5 times lower. Three star hotels dominate in Prague, because they are the best for the target segment. Prague is still perceived as a leisure destination,

where tourists/visitors go for shopping and sightseeing, while Vienna is a business destination. Shopping tourism supports local economy, but according to Eurostat data (2017) business trips bring up to 50% higher revenue than leisure segment.

Business clients are, from the tourism point of view, seen as more attractive, because they dispose of higher budget for basic travel needs – accommodation, meals, transport – and at the same time use additional and premium services (i.e. more expensive). A guest spends on average 673USD in Vienna, while 465USD in Prague. The highest spending is in Madrid (1 513USD), Barcelona (1 132USD) and Berlin (1 120USD). (Hedrick-Wong a Choong, 2016) The main difference is price level when comparing Prague to European competition, and it strongly affect key performance indicators.

Material and methods

The article is based on secondary data and statistical data analysis (PwC, Eurostat, CSO, AirDNA). Deduction and comparison was used for data interpretation. Complex perspective was achieved thanks to structured interviews with experts from the field. Estimation of sharing economy share was calculated based on the data on AirDNA – number of beds was calculated as a double of the number of rooms, as it is assumed, that there are only two beds in each room.

Results

European hotel market grows seventh year in a row – last year 2% up in the number of nights even in the revenue per available room (RevPAR). The highest growth experienced Spain (7,8 %), then France, Italy, Germany and Great Britain. Record number of arrivals was seen in Portugal, Ireland, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Poland. Growth is expected also in 2017 and 2018, despite the unstable political situation, especially thanks to increase in salaries and improvement in economic performance of Europe. The Czech Republic should (same as Switzerland) grow 2,5% in 2017 and 1,5% in 2018 as a result of currency strengthening after the Czech National Bank ended its interventions. The fastest growth is expected in peripheral countries of eurozone (Spain, Portugal, Ireland and Greece), which will lead to increase of purchasing power and higher demand for outgoing tourism. The offer of accommodation capacity grows too – even within the sharing economy. Legal restriction (in some countries/cities) are efficient in slowing the growth of short-term rental. (PwC, 2017)

PwC (2017) estimates growth of RevPAR in Prague of 5,5% (up to 66,6EUR), while Vienna will grow 1,3% (up to 74EUR). The projection for 2018 is moderate – Prague should grow 2,6% (up to 69,4EUR) and Vienna 2,4% (up to 75,8EUR). Double-digit growth of revenue is expected in Porto (14,8% respectively 12,8%). The other side of the ranking shows Genève and Zurich, were decrease is expected. The highest RevPAR in long-term is in Genève (approx. 201EUR), Zurich, Paris, London and Dublin. Prague had higher occupancy in 2016 compared to Vienna and took fifth place in the ranking (76,9 %), while Vienna took eight place and it is expected to decrease in the next years to tenth place (average occupancy 75%). Prague should perform better in 2018 and move to the same level as Amsterdam or Berlin (78,5%). On the contrary, Vienna is always higher in the ranking of average daily rate with 97,8EUR (Prague ADR is 80,3EUR). Both cities expect growth, but their position in the European ranking will not change significantly.

Prague and Vienna are similar in many aspects (location in central Europe, number of inhabitants, area, history, architectural value), but they differ in price level and therefore living standard. Furthermore, Vienna has the advantage of being a member of the eurozone. Tourist infrastructure in Vienna is more inclined towards solvent corporate clients, especially with the number of luxury five star hotels (see table 1). Three star hotels dominate in Prague with their affordable prices.

	N° of hotels	N° of beds	N° of 5* hotels	N° 4* hotels	N° 3* hotels
Prague	797	91 059	45	213	218
Vienna	900	71 000	186	168	82

Table 1: Comparison of hotels in Prague and Vienna
Source: Edited by authors based on Prague City Tourism and Statistics Austria data

Global Destination Cities Index (Hedrick-Wong and Choong, 2016) is a ranking of twenty destinations with the best number of overnight stays. The top positions for 2016 are held by Bangkok (21,47 mil.), London (19,88 mil.) and Paris (18,03 mil.). The other end belongs to Prague, which took the last place (5,81 mil.). Vienna ended two places above (6,69 mil.). Vienna's tourists arrived from 18% for business, while Prague had hardly 13% of business clients. The highest part of expense in Vienna was spent on accommodation (40,1 %), which is linked to the high number of luxury hotels. Expenses for meals and local services created 40% of the budget (approx. 18% each). Spending for accommodation, meals and shopping is almost equal (25,5-29,2 %) in Prague. Different motivation of tourists can be illustrated by the proportion of shopping expenses – while in Prague shopping is almost a quarter of the budget, in Vienna it is only 10%.

Vienna, unlike Prague, can be found on the list of the best cities for MICE events (Fischer, 2017), where it took the fifth place for 2016 with 304 events (after Brussels, Singapore, Soul and Paris). The ICCA list have Vienna on the second place (186 events), because it uses different methodology. Prague is on the eleventh place with 126 events. The number of visitors helped Vienna to the first place in the world ranking of ICCA (119 887), while Prague did not reach even half of it (50 416) and took 16th place. (ICCA, 2017) This year's ICCA congress, which took place in November in Prague, can change everything.

Factors affecting KPI (ADR – average daily rate) include also source markets. Both cities welcome tourists from Germany – Vienna attracted over 1,24 mil. and Prague 733k in 2016 – followed by Americans, British and Italians. Average number of nights in Vienna is 2,17 and 2,4 in Prague. The most nights are spent in Vienna by Italians (average 2,5), Russians (2,49) and French (2,46). Russians are the strongest in Prague with 3,6 nights. (CSO; WT, 2017) Closer look on the basic indicators is offered by table number

two. It is evident, that even though the occupancy is almost equal, revenue is higher in Vienna thanks to higher price level.

KPI	City	2014	2015	2016
Occupancy (%)	Prague	70	75	77
	Vienna	72	73	75
ADR (EUR)	Prague	74	79	82
	Vienna	95	100	98
RevPAR (EUR)	Prague	52	60	63
	Vienna	69	72	73

Table 2: Comparison of KPI of Prague and Vienna
Source: Edited by authors based on PwC data for 2016 and 2017

Prague exceeds Vienna in GOPPAR (Gross Operating Profit per Available Rooms), which might be caused by higher maintenance cost of four/five star hotels in Vienna. (HotStats, 2016)

	N° of active listings	N° of active hosts	N° of whole apartments	N° of whole apartment with more than 1 room	Estimate number of beds in whole apartments	Estimate of total number of beds via Airbnb
Prague	11 408	5 008	8 899	3 549	27 550	**32 300**
Vienna	7 606	4 285	5 375	1 779	15 378	**19 833**

Table 3: Comparison of Airbnb listings in Prague and Vienna
Source: Edited by authors based on Airdna.co data on the 28th of October 2017

The sharing economy does not share data very often. The AirDNA should have the most accurate data since it is linked to the code of Airbnb and updates data on a daily basis. The above numbers however must be viewed as estimated, since there is no official report from Airbnb, which could confirm them. It is important to note, that the occupancy rate is calculated excluding properties with no reservations – the average for all properties could be therefore significantly lower. Anyway, it can serve as basic illustration of the current market situation.

Discussion

Based on structured interviews with experts in the field (L. Žlebková, J. Kameníček), it was agreed, that Vienna is in general perceived as a corporate (business) destination rather than Prague, which is, among others, famous as tourist (leisure) destination. Nevertheless, Prague improved a lot and took top places in MICE index of top congress destinations according to ICCA. One of the biggest achievements of PCB (Prague Convention Bureau) is the organization of 56th ICCA congress, which presented Prague as one of the top destinations for congresses.

Conclusion

Hotels in Prague compared to other European

The Average daily rate is higher in Vienna also within the short-term rentals in private apartments via Airbnb, known as sharing economy. Available data show (AirDNA, 2017), that by the end of October 2017, Prague has more than 11,4k active offers (78% of them are whole apartments) and Vienna 7,6k (71% are whole apartments). Occupancy rate is slightly higher in Prague (80% compared to 75%), but due to the lower ADR (65EUR compared to 74EUR), the final average revenue is almost equal (1200EUR/month). Multiple offers from one owner are more common in Prague (70%). Table tree compares Airbnb offers in both cities and show, that compared to the offer of standard accommodation establishments (table 1) it is 26% of the hospitality market in Prague and almost 22% in Vienna. Compared to hotels' results in table 2, the ADR is approximately 20EUR lower and RevPAR approximately 10EUR lower in Prague (52EUR) and almost 20EUR lower in Vienna (55EUR). KPI of sharing accommodation are therefore lower than those of standard hotels.

metropoles achieve on average the lowest average daily rates (ADR). The primary cause is lower price level – dominance of hotels of lower category and therefore different pricing. Hotel chains in Vienna have long history and can draw from rich databases and therefore implement new technologies and processes faster. Wider usage of revenue management can be therefore seen in Vienna. (Jenčková, 2017) Low ADR causes also low revenue per available room (RevPAR) in Prague.

Historical, geographical and architectural similarity of compared cities has low effect on the image of the destination. Prague is perceived as a destination for euro weekends (sightseeing) – motivated by interest in historical sights and art. Vienna is presented as a

business centre and it adapted the infrastructure and service level for the target segment. Both cities have same source markets, but they differ in the length of stay and motivation/reason to travel, and therefore in the expense value.

Prague expects changes which should follow the ICCA congress and significant reconstruction of Prague Congress Centre. PCB works continually on better competitiveness of Prague, and the reputation and image is well prepared for Prague to become one of the top MICE destinations. It is possible, that the growth of the business segment in Prague could serve as a counterpart for the increasing share of sharing economy.

Sharing economy has different target segment and is not considered a competition to standard accommodation establishments, but it is interesting that it is stronger in Prague then in Vienna, where standard accommodation costs significantly more than Airbnb rental. Time will show, if it is only a matter of fashion, or new way of travelling.

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GLOBAL LEADERSHIP AND GLOBAL COMPETENCY

ILDIKÓ NÉMETHOVÁ

Abstract
This paper aims to analyse the concept of leadership in the context of globalisation. It also highlights the uniqueness of the predominant approaches to the study of leadership during the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. Furthermore, it examines competency-based theories of global leadership development which claim that hidden, eternal personal characteristics lead to outstanding leadership performance across cultures.

Keywords
leader, leadership, awareness, competency, values, global.

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Introduction

The study of leaders and leadership progressed with the growth of civilisation. Paige (1977) noted that all societies have developed myths to provide conceivable explanations for the influence of leaders and the obedience of subordinates. The greater the socioeconomic oppression in a society, the more deviated the realities of leadership and its power, morality, and efficiency in the mythology. Lewis (1974) claimed that even when a society does not have institutionalised rulers or elected officials, there are always leaders who launch action and demonstrate central roles in the decision making of a community.

Concepts of Leadership

Myths evolved into legends. Legendary heroes were essentially perceived in the Hindu Upanishads and in the Greek and Latin classics. Leadership was the focal point of certain medieval classics of western literature, and the Icelandic sagas. According to Gemmill and Oakley (1992), the social concept of leadership is a myth that sustains a belief in the necessity for hierarchies and organisational leaders in a society. This myth results in misanthropic, intellectually and emotionally inexperienced entities and the magical inclination for an almighty leader. Religions provide many accounts of leaders as prophets, chiefs, and kings. Such leaders acted as initiators, symbols, representatives, and models to be followed. Over the centuries, the endeavour to formulate the morals of leadership spread from the study of history and philosophy to all the social sciences. Written concepts and principles of leadership go back nearly as far as the evolution of civilisation. Chinese classics written as early as the sixth century B.C. are permeated with moralistic advice to leaders about their responsibilities to the people. The Chinese philosopher Lao-Tzu defined ideal leadership as being invisible and promoting and highlighting the aspect of leader's modesty (Sergiovanni and Corbally, 1984). Confucius encouraged leaders to render a moral example and to shape rewards and punishments for teaching what was right and good. For Confucius, a leader must be a superior man, who manifests high morals and serves as a model for society. The virtues of a superior man are compassion, respectability, wisdom, perseverance, and filial piety.

The Greek concept of leadership was represented by the heroes in Homer's Iliad. Sarachek (1968) argues that they embodied inspirational leadership, law and order, justice and judgement, wisdom and counsel, cleverness and farsightedness, determination and activism. Greek philosophers, such as Plato in the Republic, focused on the preconditions for the ideal leader of the ideal state. Plato claimed that leadership demanded a person to sacrifice his imminent self-interests. Rather than pressing for philanthropic motives, Plato was pertaining to the stress, hard work, and the often-ungrateful task of being a morally satisfying leader. He deeply believed that the philosopher-king, the most important element of good governance, could only be nurtured through education to rule with order and reason. Plato believed that an ethical leader must acknowledge the liberty of followers, yet bind them to formulate a degree of shared cooperation in the pursuit of collective goals. Plato (1992) explains that such leaders take on leadership roles to defend the group from the adversity of rule by an inept, unscrupulous leader. Aristotle was confused by a lack of character among those who wanted to be leaders. He stressed the

need to educate the youths for adequate leadership. Aristotle describes a virtue or character with two components; an intellectual and a moral one. The intellectual component is responsible for enabling the individual to separate the good from the bad, while the moral component urges him to behave by applying the right means. Aristotle says that it is impossible for someone to be characterised as good unless he is rational, principled, and virtuous. He maintains that a person's good character not only affects his actions, but also his perception.

A famous Renaissance work by Machiavelli the Prince has regularly been specified in terms of the canning and deceitful leader, whose main aim is to secure the endorsement of the governed (albeit by any means necessary) to be effective. Machiavelli believed that leaders needed consistency, firmness, and concern for the preservation of control, power, and order to lead. Jakobwitz and Egan (2006) greatly point out that Machiavellians seek strategies that support self-interest, using hypocrisy, flattery and emotional disunion to beguile and abuse social and interpersonal relationships for their own ends.

The modern study of leadership includes the works of Terman (1904) and Weber (1947). Terman spent most of his life examining individual differences with a focus on intelligence. He perceived intelligence as a flexible quality that prepared the way to life success, specifically leadership. His findings included that the talented were taller, healthier, physically better advanced, and superior in leadership and performance. Weber's (1947) work Economy and Society has greatly affected the study of charismatic leadership. He explained that charismatic authority depends on a leader's personal qualities and the followers' appreciation of those attributes as authentic and unique. By 1948, Stogdill analysed 124 studies of leadership traits that had been carried out between 1904 and 1947. His synthesis of these studies claimed that leaders are different from others in a group in several ways. Most of the studies demonstrated that leaders seemed to be more intelligent, more dependable or responsible, and more active in social situations than other group members. On the other hand, such factors as age, height, weight, and appearance seemed to have little to do with leadership. Stogdill (1948) also found it necessary to consider the situation and the nature of followers.

There was a paradigm shift away from research on the traits and personalities of leaders to the emphasis on the situation and context in which leadership appeared. Most empirical researchers up to 1975

gave up the search for traits and directed their attention to the situation. Stogdill (1948) himself stated that the personal traits linked to leadership were still necessary, but their effects were amended by the needs of the situation. He suggested that whatever characteristics might be associated with leadership, simply having these qualities did not guarantee that one would become a leader. Rather, leaders stand in relation to followers, and the nature of that relationship is more determining of the pattern of leadership than is the possession of certain traits. Moreover, leaders that act well in one situation might fall in another. Therefore, leadership is determined not by the possession of certain traits but rather through a relationship between the leader and the followers in which the leader gain a status through engagement and manifestation of his capacity for performing tasks through to completion (Stogdill, 1974).

There have been three predominant approaches to the study of leadership during the twentieth century: (1) those that focus on the personal attributes of leaders (trait or personality approaches); (2) those that focus on specific types of leadership behaviours (behavioural or style approaches); those that focus on the situation or context in which leaders interact with their followers (situational or contingency approaches). New perspectives on leadership were introduced in the 1960s and 1970s, and a paradigm shift in the study of leadership took place in the late 1970s. Since the mid-1970s, several theories have been advanced to explain how leaders can have major effects on the emotions, motives, preferences, aspirations, and commitment of followers. These theories were variously labelled charismatic leadership theory (House, 1977), or transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985), or visionary leadership theory (Sashkin, 1988). The leader behaviour specified by this theory differs from earlier theories which depicted leader behaviour in terms of leader-follower relationships. The new leadership paradigm stressed the importance of symbolic leader behaviour, visionary and inspirational ability, non-verbal communication, appeal to ideological values, and the endorsement of followers by the leader. This theory claims that outstanding leaders transform organisations by injecting into them ideological values and moral purpose, thus inspiring strong engagement.

Contemporary leadership theorists have built upon the interactive leadership theories developed in the second part of the twentieth century. Thus, concepts such as servant leadership, emotional intelligence, authentic leadership, and adaptive leadership have

emerged as part of the leadership theories of the twenty-first century. The publication of Greenleaf's Servant Leadership in 1977 and Burn's Leadership in 1978 marked a pragmatic shift in the study of leadership. Both works emphasised values and, although they remained leader-centric, brought followers into the leadership process.

Another leadership theory gaining prominence in the early twenty-first century is that of emotional intelligence. Reeves (2005, p. 172) suggests that "cognitive intelligence is only half of the equation necessary for success" in leadership. The other half, she argues, is emotional intelligence. Moreover, while cognitive intelligence and technical skills are increasingly being acknowledged as crucial to prosperous leadership, emotional intelligence is the essence of leadership. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence is the capacity to get optimal results from relationships with others.

Competency-based Views of Global Leadership

Historically, the target of intercultural training has been the development of an individual to succeed in a new culture. Organisations in the twenty-first century frequently ask leaders to work in multinational environments and move from country to country. This challenge has introduced a strong dispute about how to enhance global leaders for such challenging assignments. To make matters even more demanding, global leaders are endlessly expected to spend shorter periods in any single country, and they are often moved from one location to another, making country-specific knowledge less applicable for them. Because global leaders must often function across borders in interculturally diverse environments, many large organisations express the need for leaders who quickly adjust to multiple cultures and work well in multinational settings. This makes the challenge of cultural training more and more difficult because traditional methods that bank on country-specific knowledge often prove imperfect, since methods that direct individuals to dichotomous interactions in new countries fail to prepare them for the complications encountered in multinational work settings. By far the most common and traditional approach to bridging cultural and national differences is through teaching country-specific knowledge and displaying leaders to diverse cultural values (Bhawuk, 1998; Hofstede, 1991).

An emphasis on values orientation and understanding others through their related beliefs and practices dominates much of the contemporary work on inter-

cultural and leadership training. Intercultural training has become nearly interchangeable with comprehending cultural value models by such authors as Hofstede, Hampden-Turner, and Trompenaars, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, and Triandis. However, there is a paramount problem with a cultural value awareness approach, since an awareness of cultural values is not an alternative for more direct knowledge of interpersonal interactions, just as values alone are not a strongly prognostic feature of human behaviour (Triandis, 1972).

Competency is used to describe either the required outputs (competences) or the desirable inputs (competencies). In the latter sense, it is viewed by Boyatzis (1982, p. 46) as an individual characteristic that can be measured reliably and that can be exhibited to differentiate between outstanding and ordinary performers, and could contain personal skills, values, and attitudes." Woodruffe (1993) defines competencies as sets, or dimensions or repertoires of behaviours that regulate efficient performance, e.g. self-confidence. He claimed that required outputs or areas of competence pertain to key aspects of an individual's work. Competencies are characteristics that individuals possess and apply in appropriate, consistent ways to acquire an enjoyable performance. These characteristics consist of knowledge, skills, aspects of self-image, social motives, traits, thought patterns, mindsets, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting.

David C. McClelland (1973), Professor of Psychology at Harvard University, first defined competencies as critical differentiators of performance. His influential paper Testing for Competence Rather than Intelligence indicated that even though conventional academic capability and knowledge content tests were good predictors of academic performance, they rarely foresaw impressive on-the-job performance. McClelland continued to argue that the best predictors of impressive on-the-job performance were hidden, eternal personal characteristics that he called competencies. McClelland (1973), who is often accredited with coining the term competency, defined it as a characteristic that controls successful performance. He suggested that although intelligence affects performance, personal characteristics, such as an individual's motivation and self-image, distinguish successful from unsuccessful performance and can be noted in several life roles that include job roles. McClelland constructed a set of personality tests to determine the attitudes and habits shared by high achievers. This behavioural approach, which

expended the focus to involve individual experiences and perceptions of events, became a significant basis for the development of competency models. McClelland identified twenty competencies that he claimed would most often anticipate outstanding performance in professional jobs.

In the 1980s McClelland's work was extended and enlarged by Richard Boyatzis (1982) who performed a large-scale intensive study of 2,000 managers, holding 41 different jobs in 12 organisations. Boyatzis (1982, p. 21) defines a competency as "an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective or superior performance in a job." Competency may be a trait, which is a characteristic or quality that a person possesses, such as efficacy, which is the trait of believing in controlling one's own future and fate. Competency may be a motive, which is a drive or thought related to a goal, such as achievement, which is a need to improve and compete against a standard of excellence. Competency may be a skill, which is the ability to exhibit an array of behaviour that is practically related to obtaining a performance goal. It also involves being able to identify conceivable obstacles and sources of help in conquering them. The skill can be used in a range of different situations. Competency may be a person's self-image, which is understanding of the self and an evaluation of where one stands in the context of values held by others in the environment. Competency may be a person's social role, which is a perception of the social norms and behaviours that are acceptable and the behaviours that the person then adopts to fit in. It may be a body of knowledge. Some of the elements of competency can be developed, some can be altered, and some can be measured, but not all. Boyatzis (1982) suggested that any competency-based system should include two crucial elements, i.e. the type of competency, and the level or degree to which the individual possesses each competency. He identified twelve types of competencies relating to superior performance, including self-confidence, concern with impact, proactivity and efficiency orientation, and three level of competency: motives and traits at the unconscious level; self-image and social role at the semi-conscious level; and skills and knowledge at the behavioural level.

There are two schools of thought (Dubois and Rothwell, 2004) concerning differences in the interpretation of competency. One school of thought believes that competency implies knowledge and skills. The second interprets competency as any characteristic that promotes performance. In the latter interpretation, competency can involve knowledge or skill as well as any number of characteristics such as levels of motivation and personality traits. Central to the second school of thought is the philosophy that the focus should be on the people who carry out the activities, not on the activities those people do.

There are different types and levels of competencies, and they are classified or organised in different ways. However, they are mainly distinguished as either organisational or individual. Within the category of individual competencies, they are different types of competencies, such as technical and personal functioning. Rothwell et al. (2000) make the distinction between technical and non-technical competencies. Technical competencies are specific to certain roles, and non-technical are more generic in nature. Byham and Moyer (1998) classified competencies into organisational, job- or role-related, and personal. Organisational competencies are key to competitiveness and are difficult for competitors to imitate. Job- or role-related competencies refer to the expertise of the individual in the context of the function. Personal competencies, or skills and abilities possessed by an individual at an adequate level, refer to the development efforts of the individual.

These definitions of competency emphasise that there is a set of personal characteristics that an individual needs to exhibit to perform adequately. Such personal characteristics, which are likely to include specific skills, knowledge, and personality variables, will differ according to the demands of a position. Thus, while there may be a set of common or generic competencies that are required for all mainstream leadership positions, the performance of specific leadership roles is likely to require distinctive competencies. The difference between generic and distinctive competencies is crucial, for its raises questions as to whether there is a set of distinctive competencies needed by those occupying positions of global leadership. Jokinen (2005) notes the fact the leaders who are successful in domestic operations do not, for various reasons, succeed in the international arena. Understanding the competencies associated with effective global leadership would provide valuable guidance for leader selection, preparation, and development.

Mendenhall et al. (2013) explain that global leadership competencies include predispositional characteristics of personality such as optimism, extraversion; attitudinal orientations such as cosmopolitanism, appreciating cultural diversity; cognitive capabilities such as the acceptance of duality; motivational attachments such as perseverance; knowledge bases such as business acumen; and behavioural skills such as cross-cultural communication. Global leadership is a multifaceted phenomenon. Competencies are distributed across three categories, namely, business and organisational acumen; managing people and relationships; and managing the self.

Business and organisational acumen entails five cumulative competencies: vision and strategic thinking, business savvy, organisational savvy, managing communities, and leading change. Vision and strategic thinking includes three primary capabilities. The first is the ability to understand the complexity of the environment and think about it in a strategic way. The second capability entails activities linked to developing and enunciating a global vision. The third capability constitutes skills to develop a strategic plan and implement it. Business savvy is a knowledge-based competency based on practical-oriented knowledge and technically-oriented knowledge. The third competency requires boundary-spanning skills. Organisational savvy is the ability to construct structures and processes that contribute to global effectiveness. The final competency represents capabilities that allow leaders to initiate change.

The second group of global leadership competencies is aimed at people and relationships and includes cross-cultural communication, interpersonal skills, valuing people, empowering others, and teaming skills. For example, valuing people is an ability to create and preserve trusting relationships. Interpersonal skills entail a range of predispositional, attitudinal, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions. Cross-cultural communication includes a high level of mindfulness, whereas empowering others entails coaching skills, and promotes them in personal and professional development. Teaming skills allow the leader to take a subordinate role and work as a contributor to the team's endeavour.

The final group of competencies is associated with the predispositional, cognitive, and attitudinal processes in the mind of the global leader. They include resilience, flexibility, character, inquisitiveness, and global mindset. The global mindset is a cognitive competency that represents the combination of perspective, attitude, and knowledge. The first facet of cognitive complexity is a highly multifaceted approach to the environment. The second facet of global mindset is cosmopolitanism or an interest in and knowledge of the world.

Conclusion

The demands of global leadership in a complex, ambiguous setting will require flexibility and adaptability. Even though McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) report that there is no agreement on a universal set of global competencies, they have identifies a set of seven global competencies that allow leaders to work successfully in a global context, being open-minded and flexible in thought and tactics, possessing cultural interest and sensitivity, having the ability to deal with complexity, being resilient, resourceful, optimistic, and energetic, operating from a state of honesty and integrity, having a stable personal life, and possessing value-added technical and business skills. Thus, the ability to learn continuously is critical for global leaders. McCall (2010) notes that the development of this learning is best achieved through an experiential approach that emphasises putting leaders in situations that reflect the capabilities they need to develop.

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